

Theory and Practice in Language Studies

ISSN 1799-2591

Volume 9, Number 4, April 2019

Contents

REGULAR PAPERS

- A Direct Application of Simultaneous Interpreting Training without Prior Consecutive Interpreting Work in a University Course 353
Hiroko Yamada
- Exploring the Relationship between Students' Perceptions of the Language Teacher and the Development of Foreign Language Learning Motivation 364
Morana Drakulić
- Sociolinguistic-cum-pedagogic Implications of Anglicisation: Evidence from Igbo Toponyms 371
OBITUBE, Kelvin Francis and OKEKE, Chukwuma Onyebuchi
- Pronunciation Obstacle Course 382
Igor Ivanović
- Quality Assessment of English Teaching at the Newly Established Universities in Saudi Arabia: Shaqra University as a Case Study 390
Hmoud S. Alotaibi
- Aporias in Literary Translation: A Case Study of *The Prophet* and Its Translations 396
Maya El Hajj
- Corpus-based Research to Verify the Hypothesis of Preference for Basic-level Category Vocabulary (BLCV) Acquisition 405
Fei Song and Qingqing Lan
- Cognitive Socio-political Language Learning Theory, Multiple Input-output Hypothesis and Competitive Team-based Learning 411
Seyed Mohammad Hassan Hosseini
- A Study on the Influence of Teachers' Questioning in High School English Reading Class on Students' Critical Thinking 424
Wenjuan Song
- An Analysis of Linguistic Differences between Different Genders of Chinese Children from the Communicative Strategies 429
Yingying Ma
- A Survey Study: The Correlation between Metacognitive Strategies and Reading Achievement 438
Sukris Sutiyatno and Sukarno
- Exploring Reviewer Reactions to MA Theses of Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics 445
Zhencong Liu, Tong Jia, and Tinghe Zhang
-

The Derivation of Verb-copying Sentence in Mandarin Chinese <i>Haojie Li</i>	453
Affixation in Ardalani Kurdish Based on Distributed Morphology <i>Foroogh Kazemi and Rozita Ranjbar</i>	459
A Contrastive Analysis of Explicit Cohesion in English Advertising Texts and Their Chinese Consecutive Interpretation Versions <i>Lan Zhou and Qiang Sun</i>	465
A New Look at Chinese Network Catchphrases <i>Hongyan Hua</i>	473
Oman's General Foundation Programs: Focus on General Education Principles and Standards <i>Victoria Tuzlukova, Meenalochana Inguva, and Pooja Sancheti</i>	480

A Direct Application of Simultaneous Interpreting Training without Prior Consecutive Interpreting Work in a University Course

Hiroko Yamada
Kansai Gaidai College, Osaka, Japan

Abstract—There is a general consensus that novice interpreters should begin their training with consecutive interpreting (CI) and only move on to simultaneous interpreting (SI) after they have mastered CI. However, working memory (WM) capacity plays a central role in developing professional SI skills, and may even be more important than extended practice. As there is great variability in the innate cognitive abilities of individual people, some novice interpreters may have the potential to perform SI reasonably well. The present study has tested this hypothesis by offering SI training to novice interpreters in a university course, without administering prior CI training during the semester. Midterm and final examinations were conducted to analyze the learners' SI performances. The findings suggest that student interpreters can perform SI quite well, subject to certain conditions such as preparation time, input rates, and source-text intelligibility. This study explores the pedagogical implications of introducing student interpreters directly to SI training, as well as the curricular arrangements involved.

Index Terms—new learners, simultaneous interpreting, direct application, university, preparation

I. INTRODUCTION

The International Association of Conference Interpreters (AIIC) defines simultaneous interpreting (SI) as follows: “In a sound-proof booth with [a] direct view onto the conference room, the interpreter listens to a speaker through earphones and simultaneously transmits the message in another language through a microphone to listeners in the room.” From a technical point of view, the simultaneous interpreter must continuously monitor, store, retrieve, and decode input in the source language, while simultaneously recoding and encoding a translation of the input (Goldman-Eisler, 2002).

In recent years, the development of expertise in SI has drawn the attention of researchers studying cognitive processes and teachers exploring the cognitive models that have shaped the teaching of interpretation. Most cognitive process models of SI envisage a short-term storage function. SI skills are assumed to be related to working memory (WM) capacity (Pöchhacker, 2016). However, some studies regarding the relationship between WM capacity and performance levels in SI have yielded mixed results. Liu et al. (2004) found no significant difference between the WM capacity of student interpreters and professionals, suggesting that SI experience does not guarantee enhanced working memory. Köpke and Nespoulous (2006) have argued that WM is highly variable, depending more on an individual's innate cognitive abilities than on time spent in extended practice of a professional skill. Recent studies have produced inconclusive findings as to whether professional simultaneous interpreters have higher WM capacities than trainee interpreters or non-interpreting bilinguals (Köpke and Signorelli, 2012; Padilla et al., 1995; Seeber, 2015). There is a significant difference in the SI capacity of experienced interpreters and trainees who have no experience, when it comes to processing issues, including lexical access, target-language delays, equivalence, and the source-language input rate (Tiselius and Jensen, 2011). This suggests that the degree of experience influences the processing strategies used by interpreters and the types of problems they encounter.

Turning to the pedagogical implications, it is generally accepted that trainee interpreters should begin with the consecutive mode, based on memory and note-taking, before gradually moving on to simultaneous interpreting (Selescovitch & Lederer, 1989; Pöchhacker, 2016). In most major university-associated interpreting schools in the West, programs last two to four years (generally two years at the graduate level and three or four years at the undergraduate level). Students receive CI training prior to SI training (Gile, 2009; Ito, 2017). One basic tenet of the Paris School approach is that students must demonstrate considerable mastery over CI before progressing to SI training (Pöchhacker, 2016). In Japan, however, where most teachers are practicing interpreters and few had prior teaching experience, teachers have begun to discuss the “best approach and method” for teaching conference interpreting (Komatsu, 2017). There are different schools of thought on how and when to start teaching SI (Komatsu, 2017).

The present study argues that untrained student interpreters who receive a fair amount of direct SI training under optimal conditions may develop SI comprehension and production skills, producing acceptable SI target texts, even if they have not undertaken any prior CI activities. To test this hypothesis, this study has examined the effect of direct SI training on 20 students in an English-to-Japanese introductory university interpreting course during the 2018 spring semester. The course consisted of consecutive three-hour lessons in L2 (English)-to-L1 (Japanese) SI training, including SI-related tasks such as shadowing, sight translation, and semantic chunking input (listening in a translation unit). The students attended one three-hour lesson (two 90-minute lessons combined) once a week, completing a total of 15 lessons (45 hours) during the semester. Their SI skills were assessed through midterm and final examinations.

It is possible that students undergoing SI training may develop better listening comprehension skills because they come to understand L2 speech segments linearly, in the order they hear them in, without being distracted by syntactic differences between L2 and L1 or other language-specific problems. To test this theory, participants took TOEIC listening tests at the beginning and end of the semester.

The present study began by examining the effect of SI training on students' overall listening comprehension abilities. Next, it investigated the accuracy of students' SI performance in two examinations, explaining the process and product of SI training, to clarify student problems and strategies. Student attitudes to training (i.e., active participation versus rejection) were measured through a survey.

In recent decades, several papers and books have examined various teaching methods used in university interpreting courses, focusing mainly on existing pedagogical models. Few studies, however, have empirically analyzed the possibilities and limitations of innovative interpreting programs, especially those offered to university students with no prior interpreting training. In particular, very few empirical studies have administered SI training to university students without prior CI training. This gap in the literature has served as a point of departure for the present study.

While there is a general consensus that the simultaneous mode is more complex than the consecutive mode, the sequence in which they are taught is controversial (Pöchhacker, 2016). This study has allowed students to undergo SI training directly, giving this method precedence over CI training, an approach that runs contrary to widely accepted procedures. It aims to show that students who undergo SI training directly produce acceptable target-language texts over the course of a semester. It also explores the pedagogical implications of this curricular approach in university interpreting programs.

II. BACKGROUND

A. *Basic Tenets of Interpreting and Interpreting Education*

In the last decade or so, many interpreting programs, especially graduate programs, have been established in Asia as well as in Europe to meet the growing demand for interpreters. The initial training generally involves CI, which is taught over one or two semesters, along with non-interpreting exercises, such as paraphrasing, summarizing ideas, and subsequent note-taking (Bao, 2015). In CI, note-taking is a key priority, guiding smooth interpretations by teachers and students in professional and academic arenas. Some research on CI teaching, however, has countered the well-established belief in the importance of note-taking by warning of the dangers of excessive, verbatim notation (Mead 2011; Thiéry 1981). Today, there is general agreement that the primary objective of CI is to capture the "sense" or essential meaning of language, rather than individual words (Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989). The major interpreting programs introduce, repeat, and reinforce these basic CI concepts and exercises before SI training begins.

To succeed at SI, interpreters must capture the sense of speech in the source language. Trainee interpreters often struggle to combine the listening and speaking components of this task. Seleskovitch and Lederer (1984) have identified three principal components of SI: comprehension, deverbalization, and expression. Gile (2009) has established an effort model for the SI process, consisting of the effort expended on listening and analysis, short-term memory, speech production, and coordination (of the resources needed to complete the three other tasks) (Gile, 2009).

B. *Working Memory*

From a psychological perspective, researchers have argued that WM plays a central role in SI (Christoffels, de Groot, & Kroll, 2006; Gill, 1997). However, studies of SI expertise have reported mixed results in accurately measuring the relationship between WM capacity and performance level in SI. Padilla et al. (1995) have argued that, although an individual's WM span is a factor in successful interpreting, it does not underpin the ability to comprehend speech in the source language (SL) or produce the target language (TL), while simultaneously receiving input. Just and Carpenter (1992) have emphasized that WM performance varies, intrinsically and substantially, from individual to individual.

C. *Semantic Chunking Input*

According to Goldman-Eisler (2002), segmentation or semantic chunking of input is the key to

comprehension in SI, in terms of semantic processing. In SI, the segmentation of speech is perceived through comprehension rather than perception; segmentation supports information processing during the act of translation. Phrased in more technical terms, input chunking, the first phase of processing, is decoded upon reception, in accordance with grammatical principles. Hence, the most economical procedure in SI appears to involve storing each decoded sequence in the active verbal memory in segments, and recoding it into the target language during the actual process of encoding (Goldman-Eisler, 2002). The present study argues that students who wish to successfully perform SI should focus on enhancing their ability to segment or semantically chunk input. During this process, they will become more aware of translation units and be able to focus more closely on what is being said, while concurrently serving as a speaker.

D. Source Language Presentation Rate

Given that simultaneous interpreters are highly motivated to avoid falling behind, the source-language input rate may be an important factor in achieving a successful SI performance. Gerver (2002) has investigated the effects of various source-language presentation rates on SI performance, by changing the input rate. As input rates become faster, simultaneous interpreters lag further behind and make more mistakes. From a technical perspective, Gerver argues that when total processing capacity is exceeded, interpreters are forced to pay less attention to input and output. Less material is available for recall and translation, resulting in more omissions and errors. Similarly, Fouke and Sticht (1967) have noted that the input rate has a greater effect on comprehension than the intelligibility of the text.

E. Linguistic Complexity of the Source Speech

Hild (2011) measured the accuracy of SI in relation to four parameters of linguistic difficulty: sentence density, syntactic complexity, the type of clause, and the type of subordination. She then compared professional interpreters and student interpreters, using those parameters. Her results showed that accuracy significantly deteriorated, especially among students, when participants faced these four problem triggers. In researching the ability to distinguish main from secondary ideas in SI, Liu et al. (2004) noted that experienced interpreters were able to distinguish relevant from irrelevant information, while student interpreters included main and secondary information to the same degree in their TL texts.

F. Advance Preparation

It is of primary importance to select the appropriate materials for students with no prior experience in SI, or even CI, when introducing SI training. Teachers should avoid source texts with problem triggers, such as strong foreign accents, proper names, enumerations, and high delivery rates (Gile, 1995) and select source texts that are highly intelligible and less syntactically complex. Nonetheless, even with the use of appropriate source materials, many specialists consider it audacious to administer SI training directly to untrained students, without providing CI activities in advance. To compensate for the students' lack of comprehension ability, the present experiment allowed students to see the speech script immediately before carrying out SI during the first half of the semester. There is a consensus that SI performance improves if the source speech is made available—prior topic-specific knowledge significantly aids text comprehension, processing, and related performance measures (Alexander et al., 1994; Díaz-Galaz, Padilla, and Bajo, 2015). Furthermore, familiarity with the material influences the storage of information in WM; storing lexical-semantic knowledge associated with words in long-term memory has been shown to support information processing in WM (Yudes, Macizo, & Bajo, 2012). It is generally recognized among professional interpreters that preparing for interpreting assignments is a typical feature of professional practice (Diriker, 2004; Gile, 2002); it is therefore valid to allow students preparation time to consider the source speech.

Against this background, I conducted a survey to ascertain student views on SI activities. Taking their feedback into account, the present study has explored various learning outcomes and teaching methods that combined process- and product-oriented approaches to investigate the feasibility of introducing students directly to SI activities in university interpreting courses.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study has attempted to answer the two research questions below:

- 1) Can students develop their listening comprehension abilities through SI activities in the course of a semester?
- 2) Can students produce acceptable target-language texts in SI, if SI training is administered directly, without following the usual process (introducing consecutive interpreting before SI training)?

IV. METHOD

A. Research Participants

This research was conducted at a Japanese university I teach in, during the spring semester of 2018. Students

attended English-to-Japanese interpreting lessons for three consecutive hours a week, completing a total of 15 lessons during the semester. The participants consisted of 20 students, all of whom were third- or fourth-year English majors enrolled in an introductory interpreting course. They were monolingual speakers of Japanese, none of whom had undergone prior interpreter training.

B. Training Procedures for SI from L2 to L1 (English to Japanese)

All lessons were carried out in the Computer Assisted Language Laboratory (CALL) or computer room of the university. During SI training, students underwent several stages of development before reaching an actual SI scenario. During the first half of the semester, lessons were structured around a process-oriented approach; during the second half, lessons were based on a product-oriented approach. The first part of the semester focused on processing SL texts. In the cognitive approach to language processing, SI has properties similar to shadowing and sight translation. Sabatini (2000, 2001) has shown that near-professional student subjects apply a meaning-oriented approach to shadowing tasks, obscuring the difference between shadowing and SI. Setton and Dawrant (2016) have argued that student interpreters should practice sight translation prior to and in preparation for SI. The present study administered shadowing and sight translation activities prior to SI training, to reduce the student inhibitions. Over time, the students were given opportunities to study the basic principles and practice of SI and to learn how to act as simultaneous interpreters in real-world scenarios.

During the second half of the semester, the course adopted a product-oriented approach. At this stage, students were no longer allowed to see the script in advance. They performed SI from the beginning of each exercise. SI task procedures were observed in the following order, using the same source text:

- 1) Shadowing (repeated three times)
- 2) Semantic chunking input

Students listened to an English source speech, one semantic chunk at a time. There was a pause after each chunk. During this pause, the students reformulated the chunk in L2 and then reformulated it into L1.

- 3) SI throughout the text

After all the L2 sentences were interpreted, the students performed SI throughout the SL text nonstop. This process was repeated six to eight times.

- 4) Professor's demonstration

The course teacher (also the researcher) demonstrated a model SI performance for the whole text, providing a technical explanation of how students should deliver SI for a specific translation unit.

- 5) Individual practice of SI

Referring to the professor's instructions, each student performed SI for the whole SL text nonstop, trying to deliver it without target-language (TL) delay. This was repeated several times.

- 6) Pair practice

Students were asked to perform SI in pairs to offer mutual help, with one student assisting another who was having trouble with a specific translation unit. The partners gave advice and commented on each other's delivery.

- 7) Group practice

Students were asked to form small groups of four to six. Each student acted as the simultaneous interpreter through a rotation. The purpose of this task was to give the students more opportunities to practice SI in scenarios that resembled real life, reducing student inhibitions by eliminating the professor's constant oversight. The students' performances were reviewed by their peers in the group.

- 8) Simulation of future scenarios

One student was selected to perform SI in front of the class. Where necessary, I commented on or corrected the student's performance.

C. Data Collection

To collect data, three different kinds of tests and one survey were conducted during the semester.

Lesson 1	TOEIC pre-test	Listening comprehension test
Lesson 8	Midterm examination	SI of a short speech (101 words, 153 wpm) with preparation
Lesson 15	TOEIC post-test	Listening comprehension test
Lesson 16 (comprehensive test period)	Final examination	SI of a long speech (197 words, 120 wpm) with preparation SI of a short speech (97 words, 161 wpm) with and without preparation
	Survey	Questionnaire on students' views of SI training

For the midterm examination, students performed SI from L2 to L1 on a short speech, with advance preparation; this exam reflected the fact that the students' SI skills were still immature at this point in the semester. They were given time to prepare, which allowed them to enhance their translation equivalence at the lexical and semantic levels, thereby producing acceptable TL texts. One or two lexical items, which were expected to be hard for the students to translate, were selected in advance and target-language equivalents were presented in the script handouts. The final examination proceeded as follows: the duration was 60 minutes. All

performances were recorded on the students' own computers. They were recovered and copied onto a USB flash drive and then assessed by the author. The study design was approved by the university review board. Informed written consent was obtained from the students to use the above test results as data.

Final examination procedures for SI from L2 (English) to L1 (Japanese)

1) English speech script handouts were distributed to the students. They were then asked to begin preparing the English source text of a long speech, consisting of 197 words, for immediate SI performance. They were given five minutes preparation time. The source text was unknown material that they had never seen before.

2) The handouts used in 1) were recovered. The students listened to the source speech they had just prepared, and simultaneously interpreted it (all together) into the microphones attached to their headsets. Each student's individual SI performance was recorded onto his or her computer terminal.

3) The students were asked to listen to a short English speech, comprising 97 words, and to simultaneously interpret it, without preparation. The source text was unknown material.

4) The students were asked to perform SI on source materials that were not relevant to the present research, which took around 30 minutes. The source materials consisted of the interview script (211 words), a VOA news script (143 words), and other scripts, all of which had been attempted once in normal lessons during the semester. Irrelevant test items were inserted to reduce any practice effect that might have emerged between the first SI attempt in 3) and the following SI attempt in 5).

5) Script handouts of the English source text used in 3) were then distributed to the students. They were given three minutes to prepare for it.

6) The SL texts used in 5) were recovered. The students listened to the SL text they had just prepared, while simultaneously interpreting it (all together) into their microphones.

D. Materials

The difficulty levels of the short speeches used in the midterm and final examinations were almost equivalent in their intelligibility, syntactic complexity, vocabulary, student familiarity with source text information, total number of words, and student input rates. Both were recorded by the same speaker. The following passages are excerpts from the test items.

Midterm examination

Short speech at a farewell party

I have been very fortunate to have had this wonderful experience of meeting you and working with you. At first, I was in a nervous mood.... I should put into practice what I have learned here. I will keep in touch with you. (101 words) (Shibata, 2004)

Final examination

Short speech at a birthday party

My friends, I am really honored and surprised by the consideration you have shown me today. I was so impressed that all of you came so far to help me celebrate my birthday.... What a joy to have wonderful friends like you. (97 words) (Shibata, 2004)

Long speech about the Internet

Good afternoon. I'm very happy to be here to talk to such a wonderful audience as you. Today, I would like to talk about the Internet, which is one of the most important themes for people nowadays.... As you probably know, the Internet is said to have originated from the computer system in the Pentagon. After this system was adopted by research institutes and universities, it came to be widely used in the United States..... (197 words) (Mizuno & Kagimura, 2005).

E. Measurement

Zwischenberger (2010) has reported on the metrics used by AIIC and other interpreting institutions to assess the quality of SI, and the assessment criteria are presented below. The most important criteria are sense consistency and logical cohesion, and the least important are correct grammar and a pleasant voice. Both professional interpreters and end users consider intonation and voice quality particularly unimportant as criteria for assessing the quality of interpretation (Kruz, 1989, 1993).

1) Content-related criteria

sense consistency with the original, logical cohesion, completeness

2) Form-related criteria

correct terminology, correct grammar, appropriate style

3) Delivery-related criteria

lively intonation, native accent, pleasant voice, synchronicity, appropriate style

As the participants in the present study were new learners, their performances were mainly assessed through content-related criteria. In terms of T-units, defined by Hunt (1965) as the "shortest grammatically allowable sentences into which writing can be split or a minimally terminable unit" (i.e., a dominant clause and its dependent clause), every detail of each translated sentence was assessed using a scoring rubric created by the author, which allocated specific points. If the translation of a specific sentence was left incomplete, it received

no points. To ascertain the difficulty level of a specific word, a “word frequency list” from that academic area was used (<http://www.wordandphrase.info/frequencyList.asp>). Using this analytic protocol, the data were analyzed using an F-test and a *t*-test.

V. RESULTS

A. Quantitative Analysis

To investigate the effect of SI training on students’ listening comprehension ability, a simplified version of the TOEIC listening test was administered at the beginning and end of the semester.

TABLE I.
MARKS OBTAINED ON THE TOEIC LISTENING TEST CONDUCTED AT THE BEGINNING AND END OF THE SEMESTER

	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>
Pre-test	20	38.55	6.51	-0.48
Post-test	20	39.1	4.02	-0.48

Note: Full marks equal 50 points.

As shown in Table I, the mean values were slightly higher for the post-tests than the pre-tests. However, the difference was not statistically significant ($p = .63$). This suggests that the students’ listening comprehension abilities did not develop markedly during the semester. Turning to the standard deviation, the post-test values were lower than the pre-test values, indicating that students’ listening abilities varied less significantly and were more standardized after SI training.

Next, a comparative analysis was conducted on the marks obtained for SI from L2 to L1 for short speeches with preparation tasks between the midterm and final examinations (Table II).

TABLE II.
MARKS OBTAINED IN SIMULTANEOUS INTERPRETING FOR SHORT SPEECHES WITH PREPARATION IN THE MIDTERM AND FINAL EXAMINATIONS

	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>
Midterm (101 words, 152.8 wpm)	20	73.3	14	-2.81
Final (97 words, 161.3 wpm)	20	84.85	10.23	-2.81

Note: $**p < .01$, full marks equal 100 points.

Table II shows that the mean value was higher for the final examination than for the midterm examination. The difference in the marks obtained between the two examinations was significant ($p < .01$). This result suggests that SI training administered during the semester is effective in developing student’ SI skills.

Next, the effect of the preparation tasks on SI performance was examined, by comparing SI of identical short speeches with and without preparation. The results are shown in Table III.

TABLE III.
MARKS OBTAINED IN SIMULTANEOUS INTERPRETING FOR SHORT SPEECHES, WITH AND WITHOUT PREPARATION, IN THE FINAL EXAMINATION

	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>
No preparation	20	65.6	13.1	7.54
Preparation	20	84.85	10.23	7.54

Note: $***p < .001$, full marks equal 100 points.

As shown in Table III, the difference was statistically significant ($p < .001$) for SI with and without preparation. This finding suggests that, if students can process the source text immediately before the actual performance, their accuracy improves to a remarkable degree.

Next, the effect of the presentation rate and length of source speech on SI was examined. There were 197 words to interpret in long speech (120.6 wpm).

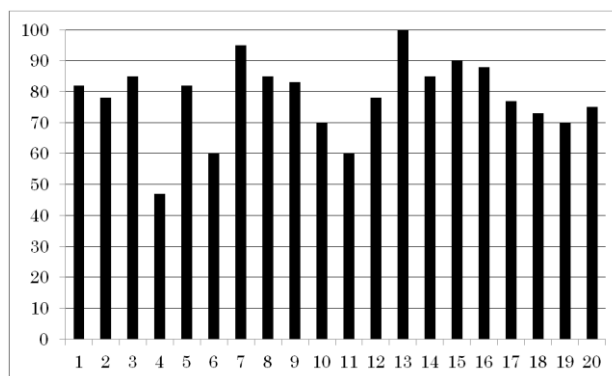


Figure 1. Comparison of students' final examination results for simultaneously interpreting the long speech, with preparation (n = 20). Note: full marks equal 100 points.

Figure 1 shows that most students achieved relatively high accuracy (mean value = 78.15). However, as indicated by the relatively high standard deviation value (SD = 12.55), students' SI abilities varied greatly. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that most students performed extremely well, even when the source speech was long.

B. Qualitative Analysis

On the midterm examination, even though students were allowed to see the source text for three minutes before their performance, they still found it difficult to fully interpret all of the sentences in the given time. Most students omitted the same sentence, which followed another sentence with a complex syntactic structure and dense information.

"I thought it would be hard to live and work/in a place completely new and different. But everybody has been very nice and helpful."

In interpreting the first sentence, many students retained the underlined section in memory and waited for a chance to reformulate it when the whole sentence was finished; this pattern introduced omissions, errors, and departures from the translation into their renditions. Some students struggled to instantaneously decide which chunk to render first (as soon as they heard it), despite having undergone repeated segmentation and chunking input practice. However, other students were able to put what they had learned into practice and render the underlined section first.

When the ear-voice span (EVS) (i.e., latency in SI to measure cognitive processing) increases in length and accumulates until the amount of input to be stored exceeds the interpreter's storage capacity, the interpreter must catch up with the input to reduce the distance between target and source to a manageable level (Goldman-Eisler, 2002). The student interpreters found it difficult to reduce the distance. They also struggled to precisely enumerate and translate lists of items, such as living and working, new and different, and nice and helpful. Most of the students omitted the next sentence to catch up with the input and successfully interpret the sentence that followed it.

In the final examination, where the longer speech was narrated at a slower speed (120 wpm) than the short speech (161 wpm), the students still showed target-language delay when they reached the latter half of the source speech, which included dense information.

"As you probably know, the Internet is said to have originated from the computer system in the Pentagon. After this system was adopted by research institutes and universities, it came to be widely used in the United States."

Some students found it difficult to translate "originated from," "Pentagon," and "research institute and universities." They gradually accumulated a time lag after finishing the translation of these sentences.

There is a salient difference in syntactic structure between English and Japanese—Japanese puts the verb last, while English puts it first—which causes TL delays to naturally occur. As the students were total beginners at interpreting, I suggested that they deliver concise reformulations, using simple words, to leave enough listening and processing capacity for the next incoming segment. They did not always succeed in performing the simpler reformulations and instead attempted verbatim translations, which produced more TL delays, resulting in the omission of the translation units that followed. Consequently, quality deteriorated; the students were unable to interpret the whole text in the given timeframe, leaving the last subordinate clause untranslated. Problem triggers, such as numbers—"one hundred million people," for example—were accurately translated by two-thirds of the students.

VI. DISCUSSION

A. Testing Research Question 1) Can Students Develop Their Listening Comprehension Abilities through SI

Activities in the Course of a Semester?

An analysis of the students' pre- and post-TOEIC listening tests showed no significant development in their listening abilities, suggesting that SI training may not directly enhance listening skills, possibly because of the differences between mechanisms for processing TOEIC listening and SI. During SI, the students tried not to delay TL production; they were only a few words behind the speaker's voice, paying attention to what was being said and storing it in their short-term memories. In the TOEIC test, however, they had to store the information they had acquired through listening for a longer period of time. Specifically, while performing SI, they appeared to forget the rendition of a particular sentence immediately after its delivery ended, whereas in the TOEIC test, they needed to remember the information until they finished answering the questions presented later, a different process from SI processing.

B. Testing Research Question 2) Can Students Produce Acceptable Target-language Texts in SI, if SI Training Is Administered Directly, without Following the Usual Process (Introducing Consecutive Interpreting before SI Training)?

SI of a Short Speech with Preparation

The present study began by comparing students' simultaneous interpretations of short speeches with preparation in the midterm and final examinations. The findings showed an appreciable difference between the two examinations ($p < .01$). Notwithstanding the higher input rate on the final examination (161.3 wpm) compared to the midterm (152.83 wpm), the students demonstrated markedly better SI skills in the final. As already noted, Gerver (2002) investigated the effects of presentation rate by systematically expanding it from 95 wpm to 164 wpm, and found that faster input rates caused interpreters to lag further behind and make more mistakes. It is generally recognized that, to ensure SI quality, a rate of 100–120 English words per minute is optimal for speeches that are not read from a written text, although this figure varies for other types of speech (Seleskovitch, 1978).

In the present study, the input rate was quite high during the final examination. Nevertheless, the students performed relatively well, with an 84.85% accuracy rate. They appeared to listen more carefully, taking more pauses and speaking in shorter bursts with a faster utterance speed. Their information-handling systems worked well despite the high input rate. In technical terms, when they coped with the overload induced by the high input rate, their attention was effectively shared within the system. It was divided among the input message, the processes involved in translating a previous message, and the monitoring of feedback from the present output. This may only have been possible when they saw the scripts in advance. Advance preparation may have enabled them to balance comprehension and production, arguably among the greatest sources of difficulty in SI (Christofel & de Groot, 2005; Díaz-Galaz, Padilla, & Bajo, 2015).

After completing a semester of SI training, the students may have adjusted to the SI environment. They seemed able to interpret more comfortably in a simultaneous mode when they'd had a chance to prepare the source text in advance. Since linguistic and semantic anticipation were easily realized, they paraphrased using more precise sentences, and occasionally voiced ideas and information in the target speech when the speaker had not verbally expressed them yet. They obtained marks of 84.85 points on average on the final examination. Although statistical evaluation—defining an acceptable accuracy rate for SI—has long been seen as irrelevant and inapplicable to an interpreter's relative and subjective performance, an accuracy rate of almost 85% can be considered a relatively good performance in simultaneous-mode interpretation.

SI of a Short Speech without Preparation

The students also attempted the same short source text without preparation. When they could not see the script in advance and had to simultaneously interpret it, during a single hearing, the students' sense consistency, logical cohesion, and completeness deteriorated. They seemed unable to anticipate from the context what would be said next or to extract the necessary information through effective attention sharing. Some became shy or soft-spoken and seemed to feel rushed. They skipped words and garbled names and places, inducing longer time lags and lower accuracy. These problems resulted in a lower mean value of 65.85 points. Seen from a more positive perspective, however, these total beginners simultaneously interpreted an unknown speech at a single hearing without any preparation and acquired as many as 65.85 points on average. As mentioned previously, there are no agreed accuracy rates for SI. However, an accuracy rate of 66% must be considered reasonably good for untrained student interpreters.

Access to source materials may be the most important factor for improving student processing and performance. Under professional conditions, interpreters are perfectly justified in asking for access to conference materials, including speech scripts or summaries, to prepare for assignments. For this reason, access to the source text is valid in initial SI training; it represents a likely scenario for possible future SI assignments.

SI of a Long Speech with Preparation

To examine the effect of source-speech length, this study also compared SIs of long speeches (197 words) with those of short speeches (97 words), both with advance preparation tasks. Although the presentation rate of

the long speech was slower (120 wpm) than that of the short speech (161 wpm), student scores were lower for the long speech. Even though a high rate of delivery is generally viewed as a problem trigger in SI, the students performed SI less accurately with the lower presentation rate. Of course, speed is not the only problem trigger. Students also struggle with input density, the presence of numbers in the source speech, complex syntactic structures, and speakers' accents (Gile, 1995). These conditions, however, were almost identical between the two speeches, apart from numbers, which were found only in the long speech.

We can therefore infer that differences in the length of the source speeches may have influenced performance quality. More specifically, whenever a semantic chunk was unclear, the student would attempt to remember it until it became easy to understand. By that time, however, the student was storing more than one semantic chunk in short-term memory and hesitated over which chunk, the previous or the current one, should be rendered first. In the longer speech, this processing problem occurred more frequently, eventually overloading the students' processing capacity. Some managed to reduce their lags by translating in short bursts. Others were unable to recover from the TL delay and accumulated more lags, causing errors and omissions. In fact, many students failed to complete their simultaneous interpretations in the given timeframe (i.e., they were three or four words behind the source speech). For these students, synchronicity may have affected performance quality, especially when the source speech was long and time lags gradually accumulated. For some students, these time lags may have produced additional psycho-affective factors, such as anxiety or stress, during longer performances. Despite this, some students performed SI extremely well under these conditions, with accuracy rates of 90%–100%, while others fell below 60% (see Figure 1), producing a high standard-deviation value (12.55). In fact, this value was significantly higher than the SD value of 4.02 in the TOEIC post-test. Since intrinsic WM performance varies by individual (Just & Carpenter, 1992), individual differences in WM capacity are likely to be more obvious during an SI performance than a TOEIC listening test.

C. Qualitative Assessment

Finally, survey questionnaires in Japanese were distributed to all of the students after the final examination was completed. The survey included six tick-box questions and one open-ended question about the SI training. In answering the tick-box questions, the students were asked to choose from the following options: *Completely agree, partially agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree partially, or disagree completely*. When questioned about the effectiveness of the SI training method used in the course—which involved paired and group practice with peer review, as well as a solo SI presentation in front of the class—9 completely agreed and 10 partially agreed that the training method was effective, while 1 neither agreed nor disagreed. Asked whether the difficulty level of the SI task was appropriate, 4 agreed and 12 partially agreed that it was, while 4 neither agreed nor disagreed.

The open-ended question asked students what they thought of the SI training overall. Surprisingly, most students had a positive view. Initially, they had believed that SI was extremely difficult and nearly impossible for new learners to perform. After the SI exercises, however, they gradually learned to chunk sequential semantic input and output and were no longer bothered by the significant syntactic differences between English and Japanese. During this process, they increased their self-efficacy and belief that they could succeed at SI in a given time. Finally, they realized that they could perform SI accurately if the source speech was not semantically or syntactically difficult, and they had some time for advance preparation. Most of the students were surprised to find that they were able to perform far better than they had expected. They enjoyed the sense of accomplishment they obtained from the course. No negative views about the SI training were expressed in the open-ended question, apart from a couple of comments about the level of concentration required during the SI tasks, something they had not experienced before, which produced a great deal of stress and anxiety. Nevertheless, these students added that they enjoyed performing SI, despite their intense anxiety, and wanted to keep practicing it for possible use in the future.

D. Interpreting Education

SI is a real-time combination of structurally similar tasks: language comprehension and language production. It is very difficult to execute these two tasks simultaneously because they draw on the same mental resources and consequently interfere with each other (Seeber, 2015; Wickens, 2002). The research participants in this study appeared to adapt themselves to the SI environment, learning to carry out the concurrent tasks of listening and speaking in a short period of time much faster than expected. They obtained significantly higher scores in the final examination than they had in the midterm examination.

In CI, interpreters use systematic note-taking to support memory and retention when interpreting lengthy passages. It takes a significant amount of time and effort for new learners to acquire this skill. As note-taking reduces the processing capacity available for listening (Gile 2009), it may impede listening and analysis, especially during the first phase of consecutive interpreting training (Mead 2011; Thiéry 1981). In fact, I have seen many new learners give up on note-taking because it is too difficult to recover meaning from a highly fragmented notated text. Ultimately, these learners give up on CI altogether. During SI training, a similar group

of learners translated L2 speech segments lineally, in the order they heard them, without being distracted by syntactic structure or retention. They were spared the problems of note-taking and appeared to become more committed to listening and comprehension as a result. It is likely that the students can be taught target-language fluency more effectively through SI training instead of CI training.

When it comes to the interpreter-training curriculum, the sequence in which CI and SI should be taught is controversial. The findings of this study have shown that even students new to interpreting can deliver acceptable target texts in SI, provided certain conditions are met. This finding suggests that students should be trained first in SI, rather than CI, an approach that contravenes the conventional teaching sequence. To maximize the effectiveness of interpreting practice and to enhance students' retention and memory abilities, it might be advantageous to administer CI training in the semester after SI training is completed.

The relative effectiveness of different curricular arrangements can be difficult to assess, as many aspects of teaching do not appear in the "official curriculum" (Pöchhacker, 2016). Sawyer (2004) has emphasized that researchers need access to the "hidden curriculum" experienced by individual students and teachers. The present study set out to meet that need, conducting empirical research and investigating curricular and didactic practices to explore new curricular arrangements. Admittedly, it was challenging for the untrained student participants to master the concurrent comprehension and production required for SI. There is significant scope for further research into the potential interpretation skills of non-bilingual student interpreters. However, this study offers empirical verification of the results of introducing SI activities to inexperienced students in a university interpreting course.

VII. CONCLUSION

The present study has attempted to explore the methodological potential of introducing SI training directly to new interpreting learners at a university. Given the unique attributes of this topic, little empirical work has previously been undertaken in academia. The findings of this study indicate that students can perform SI relatively well, without having received substantial prior CI training. Clearly, further research is needed to ascertain how much SI training students should have before they begin CI training in university interpreting courses. There are also several unresolved issues, such as directionality in SI, the relevance of language-specific factors, the role of advance visual input, and various psycho-affective factors (e.g., motivation, anxiety, stress, and physical presence).

However, though its findings are inconclusive, this study provides insight into current curricular arrangements in interpreting programs. While the students who took this course were not necessarily aiming to become professional interpreters, they were all preparing for possible future SI performances. The trial-and-error process provided by this SI activity may have encouraged these students to pursue careers in interpreting, thus helping to meet the demand for skilled linguists. The success of this course also sheds light on the act of SI, introducing new pathways for developing students' linguistic skills.

REFERENCES

- [1] AIIC. (no date). What is a conference interpreter? <https://aiic.net/page/1403> (accessed 8/9/2018).
- [2] Alexander, P., Kulikowich, J., & Schulz, S. (1994). The influence of topic knowledge, domain knowledge and interest on the comprehension of science exposition. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 6(4), 379–397.
- [3] Bao, C. (2015). Pedagogy. In H. Mikkelsen & R. Jourdenais (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of interpreting*. London: Routledge, 400–416.
- [4] Christoffels, I., & de Groot, A. M. B. (2005). Simultaneous interpreting: A cognitive perspective. In J. Kroll & A. M. B. de Groot (Eds.), *Handbook of bilingualism: Psycholinguistic approaches* (pp. 454–479). New York: Oxford University Press.
- [5] Christoffels, I., de Groot, A. M. B., & Kroll, J. (2006). Memory and language skills in simultaneous interpreting. The role of expertise and language proficiency. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 54, 324–345.
- [6] D'áz-Galaz, S., Padilla, P., & Bajo, M. (2015). The role of advance preparation in simultaneous interpreting. *Interpreting*, 17(1), 1–25.
- [7] Diriker, F. (2004). De-/Re-contextualizing conference interpreting: Interpreters in the ivory tower? Amsterdam: John Benjamins. doi:10.1075/btl.53.
- [8] Fouke, E., & Sticht, T. G. (1967). A review of research on time compressed speech. In *Proceedings of the Louisville Conference on Time Compressed Speech*. Louisville, Kentucky: University of Louisville.
- [9] Gerber, D. (2002). The effects of source language presentation rate on the performance of simultaneous conference interpreters. In F. Pöchhacker & M. Shlesinger (Eds.), *The Interpreting Studies Reader*. London and New York: Routledge, 53–66.
- [10] Gile, D. (1995). Basic concepts and models for interpreter and translator training. Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- [11] Gile, D. (1997). Conference interpreting as a cognitive management problem. In H. J. Danks, G. M. Shreve, S. B. Fountain, & M. K. Mcbeath (Eds.), *Cognitive process in translation and interpreting*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. 196–214.
- [12] Gile, D. (2002). The interpreter's preparation for technical conferences: Methodological questions in investigating the topic. *Conference Interpretation and Translation*, 4(2), 7–27.

- [13] Gile, D. (2009). *Basic concepts and models for interpreter and translator training*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- [14] Goldman-Eisler, F. (2002). Segmentation of input, simultaneous translation. In F. Pöchhacker & M. Shlesinger (Eds.), *The interpreting studies reader*. London and New York: Routledge, 69–76.
- [15] Hild, A. (2011). Effects of linguistic complexity on expert processing during simultaneous interpreting. In C. Alvstad, A. Hild, & E. Tiselius (Eds.), *Method and strategies of process research: Integrative approaches in translation studies*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 249–267. doi:10.1075/btl/94.19hil.
- [16] Hunt, K. (1965). Grammatical structures written at three grade levels. In *NCTE Research report No. 3*. Urbana, IL: NCTE, 1–156.
- [17] Ito, H. (2017). Theory and practice of note-taking, cognitive-psychological perspective. In Y. Someya (Eds.), *Consecutive Notetaking and Interpreter Training*. London: Routledge, 29–70.
- [18] Just, M. A., & Carpenter, P. (1992). A capacity theory of comprehension: Individual differences in working memory. *Psychological Review*, 99(1), 122–149.
- [19] Komatsu, T. (2017). A brief history of interpreting and interpreter training in Japan since the 1960s. In Y. Someya (Eds.), *Consecutive Notetaking and Interpreter Training*. London: Routledge, 5–28.
- [20] Köpke, B., & Nespoulous, J. L. (2006). Working memory performance in expert and novice interpreters. *Interpreting*, 8, 1–23.
- [21] Köpke, B., & Signorelli, T. M. (2012). Methodological aspects of working memory assessment in simultaneous interpreters. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 16(2), 183–97.
- [22] Kurz, I. (1989). Conference interpreting user expectations. In D. Hamond (Ed.), *Coming of Age. Proceedings of the 30th Conference of the ATA*. Medford, NJ: Learned Information, 143–148.
- [23] Kurz, I. (1993). Conference interpretation: Expectations of different user groups. *The Interpreters' Newsletter*, 5, 13–21.
- [24] Liu, M., Schallert, D. L., & Carroll, P. J. (2004). Working memory and expertise in simultaneous interpreting. *Interpreting*, 6(1), 19–42. doi:10.1075/intp.6.1.04liu.
- [25] Mead, P. (2011). Co-ordinating delivery in consecutive interpreting. *inTRAlinea* 13. http://www.intralinea.org/archive/article/Co-ordinating_Delivery_in_Consecutive_Interpreting (accessed 17/5/2018).
- [26] Mizuno, K., & Kagimura, K. (2005). *Tsuyaku jissenn toreiningu (Let's Interpret)*. Osaka, Japan: Osaka Kyoiku Tosho.
- [27] Padilla, P., Bajo, M. T., Cañas, J. J., & Padilla, F. (1995). Cognitive process of memory in simultaneous interpretation. In J. Tammola (Ed.), *Topics in interpreting research*. Turku: University of Turku, Centre for Translation and Interpreting, 61–71.
- [28] Pöchhacker, F. (2016). *Introducing interpreting studies (2nd Ed.)*. London: Routledge.
- [29] Savatini, E. (2000/2001). Listening comprehension, shadowing and simultaneous interpretation of two non-standard English speeches. *Interpreting*, 5(1), 25–48.
- [30] Sawyer, D. B. (2004). *Fundamental aspects of interpreter education: Curriculum and assessment*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- [31] Seeber, K. (2015). Simultaneous interpreting. In H. Mikkelsen & R. Jourdenais (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of Interpreting*. London and New York: Routledge, 79–95.
- [32] Seleskovitch, D. (1978). *Interpreting for international conferences*. Washington, DC: Pen & Booth.
- [33] Seleskovitch, D., & Lederer, M. (1984). *Interpreteur pour traducteur*. Paris: Didier Érudition.
- [34] Seleskovitch, D., & Lederer, M. (1989). *Pédagogie raisonnée de l'interprétation*. Paris/Brussels: Didier Érudition/OPOCE.
- [35] Setton, R. & Dawrant, A. (2016). *Conference interpreting: A complete course*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- [36] Shibata, V. (2004). *Hajimeteno uisuparingu doji tsuuyaku (Beginner's simultaneous interpretation by whispering)*. Tokyo: Nanunndou.
- [37] Thiéry, C. (1981). L'enseignement de la prise de notes en interprétation consécutive: Un faux problème? In J. Delisle (Ed.), *L'Enseignement de la Traduction et de l'Interprétation. De la Théorie à la Pédagogie*. Ottawa: Éditions de l'Université d'Ottawa, 99–112.
- [38] Tiselius, E., & Jensen, G. B. (2011). Process and product in simultaneous interpreting: What they tell us about experience and expertise. In C. Alvstad, A. Hild & E. Tiselius (Eds.), *Method and strategies of process research*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 269–300.
- [39] Wickens, C. (2002). Multiple resources and performance prediction. *Theoretical Issues in Ergonomics Science*, 3(2), 159–177.
- [40] Yudes, C., Macizo, P., & Bajo, T. (2012). Coordinating comprehension and production in simultaneous interpreters: Evidence from the articulatory suppression effect. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, 15(2), 329–339.
- [41] Zwischenberger, C. (2010). Quality criteria in simultaneous interpreting: An international vs. a national view. <https://www.openstarts.units.it/bitstream/10077/4754/1/ZwischenbergerFoxIN15.pdf> (accessed 17/9/2018).

Hiroko Yamada is an associate professor at the University of Foreign Language, Kansai Gaidai College, Japan. She obtained her master's degree at Ritsumeikan University, and is registered in a doctoral course at the Graduate School of Kyoto University. She is interested in interpreting pedagogy, and has a great deal of experiences in consecutive and simultaneous interpreting.

Exploring the Relationship between Students' Perceptions of the Language Teacher and the Development of Foreign Language Learning Motivation

Morana Drakulić

Faculty of Teacher Education, University of Rijeka, Croatia

Abstract—The present study aims to examine the nature of the relationship between students' subjective perceptions of their foreign language teachers and language learning motivation. The participants were 592 Croatian elementary school learners who learn English as a foreign language as a compulsory subject. The findings of the current study reveal that the teacher's instructional competence was perceived as the most important characteristics, whereas the teacher's personality and his/her intercultural competence were perceived as less important. The results have also revealed that subjective interpretations of both competences related to the foreign language classroom instruction and personal characteristic affect students' motivation the most i.e. that the attitudes towards the learning situation may account for the variability in motivation. The present study findings draw on the importance of a quality language learning situation built on quality teacher-student relationship which, as such, facilitates both language learning motivation and the relative degree of success.

Index Terms—foreign language learning, students' subjective perceptions, effective language teacher characteristics, motivation

I. INTRODUCTION

In the last decades, the rise of English as *lingua franca* has affected the field of foreign language education in terms of the redefinition of the existing learning outcomes and, consequently, the entire teaching and learning process. In this connection, much attention has been dedicated to the investigation of the 'ideal' language learning environment, i.e. the myriad of factors that affect the quality and successfulness of foreign language learning in the formal context.

The issue of, what is in the literature often called, powerful learning environments has so far been addressed from many different perspectives. At the global level, efforts have been directed towards the development of sustainable policies which would ensure the quality of provision for children learning foreign languages (Enever, 2011 p. 38). The extensive empirical research in the field of applied linguistics has also tackled a variety of issues, ranging from the teaching methodology and learner characteristics to a wide range of contextual factors which may affect the quality of the learning as a whole. However, as Horwitz (2000) points out, 'all discussions of the goals of language teaching, the benefits of language learning (...) and appropriate language teaching practices address, at least implicitly, the teacher-learner relationship' (Horwitz, 2000, p. 523).

The issue of teacher-learner relationship is clearly a multifaceted phenomenon whose quality is shaped and influenced by a numerous factors inside and outside of the language classroom. Moreover, since teaching and learning is a social activity, the quality of the aforementioned relationship is often strongly affected by the teacher who, as a professional, has highly significant role in the development of the supportive environment as a prerequisite for effective learning. Dinçer et al. (2013) emphasize that effective learning is strongly related to the effective teaching and indicate that an effective language teacher should possess common attributes to achieve successful language learning.

Contemporary literature offers various definitions of teacher effectiveness which include numerous determinants ranging from filed knowledge, pedagogical knowledge to affective factors. In this connection, Horwitz (2000) gives an extensive historical overview of a number of articles that have been trying to conceptualize the appropriate relationship between language learners and language teachers. However, despite the rich empirical data that up-to-date research offers, the author warns on the prevalence of research focusing solely on the investigation of teachers' perceptions, whereas learners' reflections on their classroom experiences appear sparsely.

Since the aim and the scope of this paper does not allow to go into detailed discussion on the plethora of factors affecting teacher-learner relationship and, ultimately, the quality of the learning process, our attention will be directed towards the investigation of learners' perceptions of their language teachers competences and personal characteristics and the relationship between these perceptions and learners' motivation.

II. LANGUAGE TEACHER – DIFFERENT PERSPECTIVES

The review of contemporary literature, both theoretical and empirical, reveals that a teacher, irrespective of the subject (s)he teaches, is an important and powerful factor which may strongly affect students' level of attainment. This is even more accentuated when it comes to foreign language teacher due to the uniqueness of the learning environment. Consequently, effectiveness in the foreign language classroom may be viewed as a rather unique phenomenon because of the nature of the subject itself and, as such, cannot always be compared to the effectiveness in other disciplines. One of the first attempts to define factors unique to foreign language teaching profession was one of Hammadou and Bernhardt (1987) who identified several factors by which foreign language teacher and teaching is different from other subjects. These theoretical insights were, furthermore, widened by several prominent empirical studies such as those of Bell (2005), Borg (2006) and Park and Lee (2006) which include a wide area of issues relevant to second language acquisition and foreign language teaching. They all seem to suggest that the diversity of teachers' attributes can be categorized in two broad categories; the one referring to language teacher instructional competence and the second referring to his/her intrapersonal and interpersonal characteristics and skills. However, as pointed out in the previous paragraphs, much of the empirical research focused solely on teachers' and policy-makers' perspectives on the main 'constituents' of foreign language teacher effectiveness, while insights into students interpretations of the same are still rather scarce. The relevance of students' perceptions

This shift in methodological perspective is necessary not only for identifying students' expectations but also to determine the existence of potential discrepancies between teachers', students' and designers' perspectives on the learning process which, as a consequence, may have ineffective learning Künings et al. (2005).

Several studies, however, did try to get a grasp on the disparity in perceptions. Beaudrie et al. (2004) portrayed the teacher effectiveness from three different perspectives: teacher's, students' and the observers'. The study found significant difference between the three perspectives. The same disparity was found in Shishavan and Sadeghi's (2009) study where teachers' and students' perceptions differed to a large extent on approximately 20% of questionnaire items. The students generally gave priority to teachers' personal characteristics, such as patience, creativity and flexibility while teachers ascribed more importance to the knowledge of language, pedagogy and foreign language teaching methodology which were seen as pivotal factors that constitute effective foreign language teachers. Another comparative study conducted by Brosh (1996) asked FL students and teachers to choose three most important characteristics from the list of twenty ELT characteristics, which reflected personal, pedagogical and interactional attributes, and to rank them by their importance. Both groups perceived teachers' adequate knowledge of the target language as the first priority, followed by teachers' ability to transmit knowledge comprehensibly and to motivate students to study the language. The third priority, however, revealed significant differences between the groups: students stressed the importance of teachers' fairness and availability after class while teachers emphasized the importance of providing experience of success in students. Kadha (2009) found that both students and teachers perceive quality and preparation, planning and teacher's motivational strategies to be the most important elements of good teaching. Discrepancies in opinions were mostly related to the preferences regarding activities, where teacher gave more importance to the communicative-oriented activities while students valued traditional approach. Much of the same results were obtained by Brown (2009) in his study on effective teacher behaviors. Students and teachers demonstrated disparate beliefs on ideal teaching practices where teachers' tended to ascribe more importance to communicative approaches with frequent use of the target language and a stance on error correction. Conversely, students were more in favor of grammar-focused instruction and immediate error correction. However, they both agreed on the importance of creating good classroom atmosphere built on the proper teacher-learner relationship.

Another important dimension worth emphasizing is the affective nature of students' perceptions. Namely, recent approaches to motivation have recognized the importance of dynamic and interactive relationship between contextual factors and learning motivation. One line of the research within this framework of interest has focused on the effect instructional variables on students' attitudes and motivation and, ultimately, on the relative degree of success in language learning. As illustrated in the socio-educational model of second language acquisition (Gardner, 2010) students' attitudes towards the learning situations are formed on the basis of their experiences, i.e. perceptions of a teacher and the language learning environment. Language attitudes are shown as having a causal influence on motivation since they serve as an effective base for motivation to develop.

Several authors investigated attitudes towards the teacher as one aspect of attitudes towards the learning situation. In that sense, Mihaljević Djigunović (1998) explored the attitudes towards the teacher among elementary, secondary and university students. The author employed semantic differential scale designed to measure the following aspects of a foreign language teacher: teacher evaluation, the assessment of teacher's relationship to students, teacher's competence and teacher's inspiring quality. The effect of gender, age and grade has proven to be significant. More positive evaluation was offered by female students, participants with higher grades and university students. Students with good grades perceived their language teacher as more competent, and as having a good relationship towards students. The inspiring quality was best evaluated by elementary school participants and the worst by university population. Another study by Jakominić and Mihaljević Djigunović (2004) explored the attitudes towards the teacher among the sixth, the seventh and the eighth grade of elementary school. Generally speaking, all students perceived language teachers positively. The most favorable perceptions were found among sixth graders whereas the least positive among the eighth

graders. The effect of the final grade have also been reported, where the most positive perceptions were given by the most successful students.

Several authors explored attitudes and motivation in foreign language learning in relation to temporal dimension. A longitudinal study conducted by Nikolov (2002) revealed the most important motivating factors for elementary school children in this study were positive attitudes toward the learning context and the teachers, intrinsically motivated activities, tasks and materials and classroom practice. The same was confirmed in EELiE - transactional, longitudinal study which explored the introduction of early language learning across seven European countries (Enever, 2011). The investigation of young learners' characteristics in relation to their achievement revealed that differences can be observed from the first grade. Students who started with more positive attitudes, higher motivation and more positive self-concept displayed higher levels of listening comprehension and oral production and these characteristics became more associated with achievement as the students got older.

III. RESEARCH

Research aim

The aim of the present research is to define and describe effective foreign language teacher competences as perceived by elementary school students. We also want to determine the manner in which foreign language teacher competences as perceived by students correlate with the affective variables in the learning process, respectively motivation.

Foreign language teacher competences will be defined and described from students' perspective since we are of the opinion that students' subjective perceptions of teacher have stronger influence on their achievement, than those defined by 'objective' measures.

Two hypotheses were formulated:

1. We expect a statistically relevant difference between the two types of competence perceptions, where more positive perceptions will be ascribed to a good language teacher and less positive to the actual language teacher.
2. We expect that the small difference between the two types of students' perceptions will positively correlate with higher motivation.

Sample, instrument and procedure

A sample in this study included 592 Croatian elementary school learners of English as a foreign language. In Croatian educational system, those are the children aged between 10 and 15 years, attending grades from 5th to 8th.

Students were administered three questionnaires. The first two questionnaires, *Good language teacher* and *Actual language teacher* questionnaire are comprised of the same items, but they are assessed from a different perspective. The instruments are comprised of 27 items which are distributed across three components; Intrapersonal and interpersonal characteristics and skills, Intercultural competence, and Competences related to foreign language classroom instruction. All the items are positively worded and assessed on 5-point Likert scale. The third, *Motivation* questionnaire is comprised of 30 items assessed on a 6-point Likert scale. The questionnaire is the adapted version of Gardner's international version of Attitude Motivation Test Battery (Gardner, 2010).

The data was collected during February and May 2016 in three urban elementary schools in Rijeka, Croatia. Detailed information on the procedure, content and the purpose of the research was given to principals, English language teachers and students involved in the research. With the aim to anticipate the guidelines outlined in Ethical codex for research with children (2003), the participants were also informed that their participation is voluntary and anonymous.

IV. RESULTS

To determine the distribution of the obtained results, the mean and standard deviation values of the items were computed and analyzed for each instrument separately.

The analysis of *Good language teacher questionnaire* distribution of the data reveals that the lowest mean values are obtained for the component assessing teachers' intercultural competence ($\bar{x}=23.60$, $SD=4.50$), followed by the component assessing the foreign language teacher's competences related to classroom instruction ($\bar{x}=39.06$, $SD=5.26$) and, finally, by those assessing teacher's intrapersonal and interpersonal characteristics ($\bar{x}=52.40$, $SD=5.09$).

TABLE 1
COMPOSITE SCORES FOR COMPONENTS ASSESSING GOOD ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER COMPETENCES AND CHARACTERISTICS

Component		Mean	St. deviation
Intrapersonal and interpersonal characteristics and skills	Scale sum	52.40	5.09
	Scale average	4.36	0.42
Intercultural competence	Scale sum	23.6	4.50
	Scale average	3.93	0.76
Competences related to foreign language classroom instruction	Scale sum	39.07	5.26
	Scale average	4.34	0.58

The results have also shown that the component assessing *Intrapersonal and interpersonal characteristics and skills* has the highest sample mean score ($\bar{x}=4.36$, $SD=0.42$), followed by a slightly lower score obtained for the *Competences*

related to foreign language classroom instruction ($\bar{x}=4.34$, $SD=0.58$), and for the component assessing the teacher's Intercultural competence ($\bar{x}=3.93$, $SD=0.76$).

The analysis of *Actual language teacher questionnaire* distribution of the data reveals that the lowest mean values are obtained for the component assessing teachers' intercultural competence ($\bar{x}=20.10$, $SD=6.12$), whereas the highest mean values were obtained for the first component, related to the teacher's intrapersonal and interpersonal characteristics and skills ($\bar{x}=44.10$, $SD=9.58$), and for the third component whose items assessed competences related to classroom instruction ($\bar{x}=33.80$, $SD=8.45$).

TABLE 2
COMPOSITE SCORES FOR COMPONENTS ASSESSING ACTUAL ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER COMPETENCES AND CHARACTERISTICS

Component		Mean	St. deviation
Intrapersonal and interpersonal characteristics and skills	Scale sum	44.10	9.58
	Scale average	3.67	0.79
Intercultural competence	Scale sum	20.10	6.12
	Scale average	3.35	1.02
Competences related to foreign language classroom instruction	Scale sum	33.80	8.45
	Scale average	3.75	0.93

The results have shown that the component assessing *Competences related to foreign language classroom instruction* has the highest sample mean score ($\bar{x}=3.75$, $SD=0.93$), followed by a slightly lower score obtained for the *Intrapersonal and interpersonal characteristics and skills* ($\bar{x}=3.67$, $SD=0.79$), and for the component assessing the teacher's *Intercultural competence* ($\bar{x}=3.35$, $SD=1.02$).

With the aim to examine possible statistically significant differences a paired-samples t-test was performed on three pairs:

1. Good ELT intrapersonal and interpersonal characteristics and skills (GPER) - Actual ELT intrapersonal and interpersonal characteristics and skills (APER)
2. Good ELT intercultural competence (GCUL) – Actual ELT intercultural competence (ACUL)
3. Good ELT competences related to foreign language classroom instruction (GINSTR) – Actual ELT competences related to foreign language classroom instruction (AINSTR)

TABLE 3
PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS FOR THE GOOD AND ACTUAL ELT PERCEPTIONS

Pair	Component	Arithmetic mean	Standard deviation	Paired-samples t-test		
				t	df.	p
1	GPER	52.49	5.09	19.83	591	0.00
	APER	44.10	9.58			
2	GCUL	23.67	4.59	13.45	591	0.00
	ACUL	20.11	6.12			
3	GINSTR	39.06	5.26	14.52	591	0.00
	AINSTR	33.81	8.45			

The paired-samples t-test presented in the table above show there is a statistically significant difference between the computed mean values for all three pairs, indicating that students' perceptions of a good and the actual language teacher differ significantly.

The analysis of *Motivation questionnaire* distribution of the data reveals the lowest mean values were obtained for the items *To be honest, I really have no desire for learning English* ($\bar{x}=1.62$, $SD=1.35$), *When I leave school, I will give up the study of English because I am not interested in it* ($\bar{x}=1.65$, $SD=1.36$), and *Learning English is a waste of time* ($\bar{x}=1.66$, $SD=1.40$), whereas the highest mean values were obtained for the items *I wish I were fluent in English* ($\bar{x}=6.45$, $SD=1.21$), *English is a very important part of the school program* ($\bar{x}=6.32$, $SD=1.21$), and *I would like to learn as much English as possible* ($\bar{x}=6.11$, $SD=1.41$). The composite score values indicate the high mean values were obtained for the construct of motivation ($\bar{x}=111.54$, $SD=50.55$), which implies that motivation for English language learning is present among our sample. Moreover, the highest mean values obtained for the items within the questionnaire implicate the existence of positive attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language in a formal context.

After the examination and the analysis of the results obtained by each instrument separately, we used the Person correlation coefficient for the estimation of possible correlations between the variables.

TABLE 4
CORRELATIONAL ANALYSIS BETWEEN THE DIFFERENCES IN PERCEPTIONS OF GOOD AND ACTUAL ELT PERCEPTIONS AND MOTIVATION

Variables	DIFF-PER	DIFF-CUL	DIFF-INSTR	MOT
DIFF-PER	1			
DIFF-CUL	.59**	1		
DIFF-INSTR	.66**	.63**	1	
MOT	-.30**	-.12**	-.18**	1

**p < 0.01
*p < 0.05

As it is apparent from Table 4, motivation is found to correlate with all three variables assessing the differences in students' perceptions. Motivation is found to be in a moderate, negative and significant correlation with the differences between the perceptions of a good and the actual ELT's intrapersonal and interpersonal characteristics and skills ($r=0.30$, $p < 0.01$) whereas a weak, negative, but significant correlation was found in relation to the other two variables, that is DIFF-CUL ($r=0.11$, $p < 0.01$) and DIFF-INSTR ($r=0.17$, $p < 0.01$).

V. DISCUSSION

The findings of the current study reveal that the most important effective language teacher's characteristics are those related to his/her language teaching methodology, followed by the teacher's personal characteristics and skills and, lastly, the teacher's intercultural competence. When it comes to instructional competences, students seem to value language teacher's organizational skills, both in terms of the content that has to be covered and the nature of examination. Regarding personal characteristics, language teacher is seen as a fair person who respects his/her students, who displays enjoyment while teaching and who tries his best to transfer the content. On the other hand, leniency and sharing personal experiences are perceived to be the least desirable characteristics. Finally, with respect to intercultural competence, students perceive their teacher to be knowledgeable in the culture of English speaking countries but are of the opinion that the culture-related topics are not frequently taught in the English classes.

The finding of the current study go in line with some other studies (Mihaljević Djigunović, 1998; Jakominić & Mihaljević Djigunović, 2004) who found that younger students tend to estimate teacher's inspirational quality and his/her competence higher than their older colleagues, which indicates the effect of age on students' perceptions of classroom variables.

Regarding personal characteristics, a possible explanation to this result may be found in children's need for emotional security, as the one of the fundamental developmental characteristic of this age group. Due to this reason, elementary school students tend to establish 'stronger' emotional attachment to the teacher, i.e. tend to perceive an emotional link to the teacher as a relevant factor within the learning context and, thus attach more importance to the teacher's personal characteristics. If this emotional connection is established, it may serve as a basis for the development of positive attitudes and, consequently, increased effort and achievement.

A more detailed inspection of the mean values indicated that there are a number of important differences between a Good and the Actual foreign language teacher perceptions. The greatest discrepancies between the expectations and reality are observed within the components assessing language teachers' personal characteristics as well as his/her instructional competences. It seems that the students are the least satisfied with the classroom working atmosphere (#24 *Makes the lesson pleasurable and relaxing for work*; #23 *Holds English classes in which I can work in peace*) or the lack of the discipline in class. The aforementioned is closely connected with patience – a personal characteristics which is perceived as a desirable but lacking in the everyday foreign language classroom. The quality of the learning environment also seems to be affected by the clarity in teaching along with the choices related to the activities and the materials employed during classes. It would seem that the foreign language teachers still, to the certain, extent, 'nurture' a rather traditional approach to teaching and learning which is more teacher-centered and content-centered than student-centered.

Despite the possible dissatisfaction with the foreign language teaching methodology, elementary school foreign language students seem to display a relatively high level of motivation and positive attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language. The students, in other words, perceive the knowledge of English as an important goal which indicates that the students realize the importance, necessity and usefulness of knowing English in all areas of life.

For this reason, the students also perceive themselves as hard working learners who invest a lot of effort in their learning by working on English almost every day, writing homework regularly as well as by paying attention to the teacher's written and oral feedback.

Positive correlation between motivation and small differences between the two types of students' perceptions of their language teacher indicates that the perception of both teacher's competences related to foreign language classroom instruction and personal characteristics seem to affect students' level of motivation the most. This may be explained by the fact that the perception of the teacher as (in)competent in foreign language classroom instruction may act as a (de) motivator. In other words, students who perceive their teacher as less competent may not want to invest an effort in learning, which may, consequently, lead to low levels achievement. Conversely, students who perceive their teacher to have high levels of instructional competence will be more motivated to meet the teacher's standards and will, in turn,

attach a certain amount of value to their own performance. Regarding personal characteristics, several studies have proven that the perception of the teacher's personal qualities may serve as the source of motivation. In this connection, Nikolov (2002) found that the most important motivating factor for elementary school children were attitudes towards the learning context, namely the teacher whereas Drakulić (2015) found that the teacher's unfavorable personality attributes were, in students' opinion, one of the main reasons for their unwillingness to participate in classroom activities. More favorable attitudes towards the learning situation also explained the variability in motivation in the study conducted by Mihaljević Djigunović (1998). The results showed that the students with higher levels of motivation invest more effort, have higher levels of desire to learn and perceive language classes as interesting, useful and not difficult. In the context of our research findings it may, therefore, be possible, that the students, on the basis of their positive perceptions of the teacher's work and personality, formed positive attitudes towards the learning situation which, consequently, affected students' level of motivation, and ultimately, the level of achievement. This causal relationship was indicated in Gardner's (2010) socio-educational model as well, but since this research is only correlational in nature, we cannot be certain about the causal aspects of these relationships.

VI. CONCLUSION

The present study arose from the need to better understand the role of students' subjective perceptions of teacher competences in the formal school context and the nature of the relationship between students' perceptions and motivation for learning a foreign language. Returning to the hypotheses posed at the beginning of this study, it is now possible to state that both hypotheses were confirmed. The results of our study revealed significant differences in all three categories assessing English language teacher's competences, where more positive perceptions were ascribed to a good language teacher. Furthermore, the findings indicate that the level of motivation is strongly interrelated with the students' perceptions of the existence of the desirable competences of their actual language teacher.

Taken together, these results suggest that there is an association between elementary school students' motivation and their perception of their immediate language learning environment on which they form their attitudes towards the language learning situation. However, in discussing the relationship between attitudes and motivation, it is important to bear in mind the role of other factors that may affect this relationship. Nevertheless, some of the issues emerging from these findings suggest that a positive climate along with a positive relationships generally reflect the quality of the learning situation which, as such, facilitate language learning motivation and the relative degree of success.

The present study has, hopefully, accentuated that students, as active participants in pedagogical communication, represent a valuable source of information for both theory and practice. Thus, careful examination and understanding of students' perceptions of their language learning experiences should be taken into account in any further attempts for the improvement of the teaching profession as well as in the development of favorable conditions in which foreign language learning takes place.

REFERENCES

- [1] Beaudrie, S., Brown, A., & Thompson, G. (2004). Multiple Perspectives on Teacher Evaluation in the Foreign Language Classroom. *Arizona Working Papers in SLAT*, 11, 57-80.
- [2] Bell, T.R. (2005). Behaviors and Attitudes of Effective Foreign Language Teachers: Results of a Questionnaire Study. *Foreign Language Annals*, 38.2, 259-270. onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2005.tb02490.x/pdf (accessed 14/11/2018).
- [3] Borg, S. (2006). The Distinctive Characteristics of Foreign Language Teachers. *Language Teaching Research* 10.1, 3-31. <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.132.6475&rep=rep1&type=pdf> (accessed 6/10/2018).
- [4] Brosh, H. (1996). Perceived Characteristics of the Effective Language Teacher. *Foreign Language Annals*, 29.2, 125-136. onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1944-9720.1996.tb02322.x/pdf (accessed 14/11/2018).
- [5] Brown. (2009). Students' and Teachers' Perceptions of Effective Foreign Language Teaching: A Comparison of Ideals. *Modern Language Journal*, 93.1, p. 46-60.
- [6] Dincer, A., Goksu, A., Takkac, A., & Yazici, M. (2013). Common Characteristics of an Effective English Language Teacher. *International Journal of Educational Researchers*, 4.3, 1-8.
- [7] Drakulić, M. (2015). The 'Unforgettable' Experience of Foreign Language Anxiety. *Journal of Education, Culture and Society*, 1, 120-128. nowadays.home.pl/JECS/data/documents/JECS=202015=20=281=29=20120-128.pdf (accessed 6/10/2018).
- [8] Enever, J. (Ed.) (2011). ELLiE. Early Language Learning in Europe. London: The British Council.
- [9] Gardner, R.C. (2010). Motivation and Second Language Acquisition. The Socio-Educational Model. New York. Peter Lang.
- [10] Hammadou, J. & Bernhardt, E. (1987). On Being and Becoming a Foreign Language Teacher. *Theory Into Practice*, 26.4, 301-306. Retrieved from <https://www.jstor.org/stable/pdf/1476843.pdf> (accessed 28/9/2018).
- [11] Horwitz, E. (2000). Teachers and Students, Students and Teachers: An Ever-Evolving Partnership. *The Modern Language Journal*, 84.4, 523-535.
- [12] Jakominić, N. & Mihaljević Djigunović, J. (2004). Učenički stavovi prema nastavniku stranoga jezika, *Suvremena kretanja u nastavi stranoga jezika*, (Eds. Stolac, D., Ivantetić, N. i Pritchard, B.), Zagreb-Rijeka: HDPL, 187-194.
- [13] Kadha, H.M. (2009). What Makes a Good English Language Teacher? Teachers' Perceptions and Students' Conceptions. *Humanity & Social Sciences Journal*, 4.1, 1-11.
- [14] Könings K.D, Brand-Gruwel S., & van Merriënboer J.J. (2005). Towards more powerful learning environments through combining the perspectives of designers, teachers, and students. *The British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 75.4, 645-660.

- [15] Mihaljević, J. (1991). The Role of the Students' Perceptions of the Teacher in his Experience of the EFL Classes. *Strani jezici*, 10.4, 236-240.
- [16] Mihaljević Djigunović, J. (1998). Uloga afektivnih faktora u učenju stranoga jezika. Zagreb. Filozofski fakultet Sveučilišta u Zagrebu.
- [17] Nikolov, M. (2002). *Issues in English Language Education*. Bern. Peter Lang.
- [18] Park, G. & Lee, H. (2006). The Characteristics of Effective English Teachers as Perceived by High School Teachers and Students in Korea. *Asia Pacific Education review*, 7.2, 236-248. Retrieved from files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ752344.pdf (accessed 2/12/2018).
- [19] Shishavan, H.B. & Sadeghi, k. (2009). Characteristics of an Effective English Language Teacher as Perceived by Iranian Teachers and Learners of English. *English Language Teaching*, 2.4, 130-143. Retrieved from www.ccsenet.org/journal/index.php/elt/article/viewFile/4462/3803 (accessed 3/1/2019).

Morana Drakulić, PhD., is a postdoctoral researcher at the Faculty of Teacher Education, University of Rijeka, Croatia.

She received her PhD in Foreign Language Didactics from University of Slovenia, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences in Ljubljana in 2017. She teaches courses such as: English Language, English Language in Preschool Education, and Individual Differences in Foreign Language Acquisition. Her research interests are in the field of foreign language learning methodology, namely individual differences in foreign language learning and the relationship between students' perspectives of foreign language teacher and the affective variables within the elementary school context. Her interest is also directed towards the investigation of foreign language teacher competences within the specific socio-educational contexts.

Sociolinguistic-cum-pedagogic Implications of Anglicisation: Evidence from Igbo Toponyms

OBITUBE, Kelvin Francis

Department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria

OKEKE, Chukwuma Onyebuchi

Department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria

Abstract—Naturally, a group's urge to protect all aspects of its language against negative sociolinguistic influences is a task carried out with all dedication because a group's language identifies them, tells their story and showcases their cultural heritage. Presently, Igbo toponyms are seriously threatened by anglicisation. The paper's main objectives are to highlight the various forms of anglicisation observed in Igbo toponyms, their negative influences on the Igbo language, and how to overcome this negative sociolinguistic phenomenon. The paper adopts a qualitative analysis approach; and observes that Igbo toponyms are actually anglicised, following the trend left by the British by adding 'r', 'h', 'aw', etc., with negative effects such as wrong spelling and meanings of Igbo toponyms, loss of history and cultural heritage of the Igbo etc. If this negative sociolinguistic phenomenon is left unchecked, potential loss of some letters of the Igbo alphabet and the Igbo language endangerment, are imminent.

Index Terms—toponym, anglicisation, Igbo letters, cultural heritage, foreign encroachment, Igbo language endangerment

I. INTRODUCTION

Apart from the widely acknowledged fact about language as a medium of expression, another key role that language plays in the lives of a people is giving every ethnically or culturally differentiated group of people a unique identity. Language as an identity marker manifests as people are recognised by the language they speak, or are differentiated from another or some other group(s) of people who speak another or some other variety/varieties of language with. The fact that the language of a people is an important part of their cultural make-up supports the fact that their identity manifests in both the spoken and written forms of their language. Speaking and writing of the Igbo language is synonymous with the cultural values and traditions of the Igbo, and on a broader level, showcases the identity of the Igbo. The Igbo language possesses its own features which are different from the features of the English language, which is the language of the former colonial masters of the Igbo nation.

Over the years, the influence of the British has resulted in the nglicisation of the spellings of place names and other terms in the Igbo language. By nglicisation we mean the adoption of the spelling convention of the English language in the spelling of Igbo words. The nglicisation of Igbo words is observed to be continually on the rise, especially with regard to names of places. The most obvious cases are found in the names of places within the Igbo geographical region. This study, therefore, makes an inquiry into the nature of nglicisation of Igbo place names in order to account for the manifestations of this sociolinguistic phenomenon and highlight its effects on the Igbo language. Specifically, this study has the following objectives:

- i. to point out the alterations in Igbo place names as a result of anglicisation and
- ii. to highlight the effects of anglicisation of Igbo place names on the Igbo language and culture.

The paper is made up of five sections. Section one introduces and presents the background to the study. In section two, the authors provide the theoretical background of the study in order to properly situate the present research work and fill the needed academic vacuum. Sections three, four and five, deal with the research methodology, data presentation and analysis respectively, while sections six and seven summarises and concludes the paper respectively.

II. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This section of the paper provides the operational definitions of some key concepts in this study. In doing this, the concept of place name comes to mind. Shamhrain (1999) defines place name as that name which indicates features of landscape, from the peaks and valleys, rivers and marshes of a given locality, to wide mountain ranges or entire natural region. According to him, place names also describe human habitations and land units of varying scope and function, from transient occupation sites to settled communities, from individual holdings to extensive administrative division.

In tandem with the study of place names, the concept of toponym also comes to mind. Hutabarat and Pratama (2016) define toponym as the place name or geographical name, while the study of toponyms, their origins, meanings, use, and typology is called toponymy. In the words of DeLozier (2016, p. 32), "Toponyms are named geographic entities. The

entities they denote exist at a variety of geographic scales, from the largest-earth, down to much smaller entities, bus stops, intersections, and buildings.” In other words, toponym is equally regarded as the general name for any place or geographical entity.

For a concise view representing the idea of the concept adopted and put forward in this paper, the definition of toponym and toponymy provided by Domingues and Eshkol-Taravella (2015), which they derived from the postulations of the French National Mapping Agency, IGN, is adopted. They define toponym as the one or several word name(s) of a place referring closely to a geographically located detail and to a group of people who use it. Furthermore, they state that toponym distinguishes between inhabited and uninhabited places, places with relief, rivers, lanes and micro-toponyms such as building names. Therefore, this paper adopts Domingues and Eshkol-Taravella’s (2015) definition of toponymy that sees the term as the study of place names as an integral part of man’s relationship with his environment, culture and his entire world. Also, this study sees place name and toponym as synonyms.

With respect to place names/toponyms, the effect of anglicisation in so many places and regions of the world has become a notable and contentious issue and enunciating this concept becomes imperative because of its negative effects on languages, especially the Igbo language. Mukerjee (1958) and Price (2007) share similar view that in terms of language, anglicisation is a policy on the use of the English language. Price (2007) particularly sees anglicisation as the process of adapting a name to make it look more like an Anglo-Saxon name so that it is easier for English speakers to use. *World heritage encyclopaedia* (2016) has it that Calvin Veltman, following the methods of analysis developed in Quebec, Canada for establishing language shift, used the term to refer to the practice of individuals in minority language groups who cease using their mother tongue as their preferred language and adopt English instead. Over time, the term usually refers to the process of altering the pronunciation or spelling of a foreign word when it is borrowed into English. The encyclopaedia continues that personal names may also be anglicised, and this was common for names of antiquity or of foreign heads of state, and it has also been common among immigrants to English-speaking countries.

Scholars such as Coupland and Thomas (1990), as well as Bridge and Fedorowich (2003) see anglicisation, which is equally referred to as Englishing, as the process of converting something to more "English" norms, thus, abandoning the original norms of the word in question, respelling of foreign words, often to a more drastic degree than Romanisation (which is adapting a name to make it look like a Roman name following the Roman phonotactic rules and spelling pattern). Anglicisation within a language is adapting oral or written elements of any other language into a form that is more comprehensible to a speaker of English; or in general, of altering something so that it becomes English in form or character (*Sura's supreme English-English-Tamil dictionary: Revised, enlarged and updated*, 2005). These various definitions represent similar and diverse views of anglicisation. However, for the purpose of this paper, anglicisation is seen as an act and process of adopting the English language convention in the representation of non-English names; especially, non-English toponyms.

III. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

This study adopts the framework of causal theory of reference proposed by Kripke (1980) to account for how names acquire explicit referents based on evidence. The causal theory is a reaction to the descriptive theory of name by Russell (1905) and Frege (1952), which holds that to successfully use a name to refer to an object, one has to be acquainted with peculiar identifying description of the object. The idea of causal theory is that a place name refers to a particular location because there exists a special sort of *causal relationship* between the use of the name and the referent, that is, the place to which the name refers. According to Kripke (1980), what makes it possible for one to use a name to successfully refer to a place is not being acquainted with a set of descriptions associated with it but the use of the name is only caused by an appropriate naming of the location based on the topography of the place, experiences of the inhabitants, events that took place there etc. The causal theory uses histories and physical causes to explain language use in relation to names.

McKinsey (1978) asserts that the causal theory accounts for the manner through which a name originally becomes appended to a place and how it is possible for people that were not present at the point of naming and those not acquainted with the place name to use the name to refer to the location. In summary, the causal theory posits that a name rigidly refers to the bearer (human or place) to which it is causally connected irrespective of any specific details about the bearer and in all possible worlds. Therefore, from the causal theoretical point of view, a place name is a linguistic expression of some objective entity which is tied to the place by some initial speakers of a language through some initial way of application of place name or by introduction provided by some introducer (known as reference borrowing/transmission).

There are two variations of the causal theory, which are: the causal-historical theory of reference, which is the original version of the theory as put forward by Donnellan (1972) and Kripke (1980). This perspective holds that reference passes through links in a causal –historical chain. The other version is the causal-descriptive theory of reference, which is put forward by Lewis (1984). This view posits that there is need to add a minimum descriptive tool to the causal relations between speaker and object. This study adopts the two version of the causal theory.

IV. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

For a proper data analysis and scientific presentation of the research findings, some methodological procedures are followed. The paper adopts a survey research design and the area of study, content wise, is toponymy, with anglicisation as the focus. Geographically, the research work is conducted within the south eastern Nigeria, specifically, the Igbo nation. The study adopts a purposive random sampling technique in picking respondents for the study. Thus, twenty Igbo speakers were randomly drawn from each of the five Igbo states that make up the south eastern Nigeria, namely: Abia, Anambra, Ebonyi, Enugu and Imo states, giving a total number of 100 respondents. The purposefully selected respondents use the Igbo language, both in the spoken and written forms on regular bases. So they are well grounded in the Igbo language and culture.

Data for the study were collected through structured questionnaire and observation. The authors, as native Igbo speakers, with the help of field assistants, collected 140 Igbo toponyms in an ethnographic field work and also through introspection, and subjected them to qualitative analysis by pointing out the alterations caused by anglicisation, through in-depth description of the toponyms; while the questionnaire was quantitatively analysed to get the opinions of the respondents on the effect of anglicisation of Igbo place names on the Igbo language and culture.

V. DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Before we go into data presentation and analysis, it is pertinent to have an overview of the phonotactics and orthographies of the English and Igbo languages. Based on the classification of world languages on their use of pitch, English is an intonation language, which is stress-timed. In other words, English applies pitch to constructions for meaning distinction. Furthermore, in English words, only one syllable is stressed (that is, one syllable attracts primary stress. The syllable that attracts the primary/main stress is the syllable that is emphasised far above the other syllables). In some cases also, a secondary stress can be observed. English has 26 letters of the alphabet and there is no one-to-one correspondence between the letters of the alphabet and the English speech sounds. Observe the English alphabet.

A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, V, W, X, Y, Z

In addition, based on the English language phonotactics, the following are possible

- a. Consonants and vowels can begin words. Example
 1. come, go, knight, ear, itch, an, etc
- b. Consonant and vowel cluster is possible in English. Example
 2. larynx, split, ear, eel, etc
- c. Consonants and vowels can end English words. Example
 8. car, pharynx, into, toe

On the other hand, Igbo is a tone language and as such is syllable-timed, (see Okorji and Okeke (2009)). In the Igbo language, pitch is applied on syllables for meaning distinction. In other words, all syllables attract prominence in Igbo; hence, all Igbo syllables are tone marked. Igbo has 36 letters of the alphabet and they all have one-to-one correspondence with their speech sounds except 'n'. Therefore, in Igbo, words are spelt the way they are pronounced quite unlike English. Again, Igbo is written with sub dots and tone marks (for lucidity of meaning). Observe the Igbo alphabet.

A, B, CH, D, E, F, G, GB, GH, GW, H, I, I, J, K, KP, KW, L, M, N, Ñ, NW, NY, O, O, P, R, S, SH, T, U, U, V, W, Y, Z

According to Okorji and Okeke (2009), the Igbo language phonotactic rules stipulate that:

- a. Consonants and vowels can begin Igbo words. Example
 9. gbáá (kick), bíá (come), ákwùkwó (book), éjùlà (snail), etc
- b. Vowel clusters are possible in Igbo not consonant clusters. Example
 10. náānī (only), nīlē (all), nwáànyị (woman) etc
- c. Only vowels [e, i, o, u, ɔ, ɪ, a,] and syllabic [m, n] nasals can end Igbo words. E.g
 11. ònyìnyé (gift), ákpị (scorpion), máhádùm (university), ànyịm (ocean)

A. Data Presentation and Analysis

Data are presented in this section based on the different patterns and/or forms of anglicisation observed in the collected place names. After each group, a brief comment about the group is presented, followed by the detailed analysis at the end of all the presentations.

Group A – Letter doubling

English (wrong) spelling

1. Nsukka
2. Owerri
3. Abatette
4. Obollo-Afor
5. Eziowelle
6. Ajalli
7. Urualla
8. Abba

Igbo (correct) spelling

1. Nsúkà
2. Òwèrè
3. Àbátètè
4. Úbólo-Àfò
5. Èziòwèlè
6. Àjálí
7. Ùrúàlà
8. Àbà

9. Ozalla	Ọ̀zàlà
10. Omamballa	Ọ̀mám̄bālā
11. Ossomale	Ọ̀sòmālè
12. Achalla	Àchàlà
13. Owerre-Ezukala	Ọ̀wèré Èzúkààlà
14. Uratta	Ụ̀rátā
15. Ossah -	Ọ̀sáà
16. Izzì –	Ìzzi
17. Owerrinta	Ọ̀wèrèntà
18. Umuihitte	Ụ̀mùihitè
19. Ihitte	Ìhitè
20. Afor-Amma	Àfọ̀-Àmā
21. Ezinihitte	Èzinihitè
22. Uralla	Ụ̀ràlà
23. Ugbelle	Úgbèlè
24. Agballa	Ágbàlà
25. Atta	Àtá
26. Owalla	Ọ̀wàlà
27. Umumpelle	Ụ̀mùmpèlè
28. Abbe	Ábè
29. Abbo	Àbọ̀
30. Mgbelle	Mgbèlè
31. Abbia	Ábìà
32. Effokwe	Èfòkwè
33. Ama-owelle	Ámá-Ọ̀wèlè
34. Onoffia	Ọ̀nọ̀fìà
35. Ekka	Èkà
36. Ezillo	Èzilò
37. Ezza	Èzàá
38. Effium	Èfìòm
39. Effia-ulo	Èfìá-Ụ̀lọ̀
40. Ameffia	Ámèfìá
41. Edda	Èdà
42. Egge	Ègè
43. Nkwerrri-Inyi	Ìkwèrè-Ìnyi
44. Offienyi	Ọ̀fìáenyì
45. Nkwerre	Ìkwèrè

A close observation of the above toponyms clearly shows that the phonotactic rule of consonant clusters, peculiar to the English language was imposed on Igbo toponyms. As pointed out earlier, Igbo does not accept consonant clusters. So, the doubling of different letters, as seen above makes all the names meaningless in Igbo. The duplicated letters are redundant in Igbo, add no meaning to the toponyms but rather distorts the spelling pattern and senses of the words.

Group B – Introduction of ‘r’ and ‘h’, whether at word initial, medial or final positions

English (wrong) spelling	Igbo (correct) spelling
1. Nkpor	Mkpòò
2. Orba	Ọ̀bà
3. Alor	Àlọ̀
4. Obollo-Afor	Úbóló-Àfọ̀
5. Eziuzor	Èziúzọ̀
6. Ngor-Okpala	Ìgọ̀-Ọ̀kpààlà
7. Ukpor	Ụ̀kpọ̀
8. Amorka	Ámọ̀kà
9. Umuakpor	Ụ̀mùàkpọ̀
10. Ebenator	Èbénátọ̀
11. Orsumoghu	Ọ̀shùmọ̀ghò
12. Ubuluzor	Ụ̀bùlúzọ̀
13. Okoh	Ókó
14. Onneh	Ọ̀nèè
15. Umuola-Okpulator	Ụ̀mùọ̀lā-Ọ̀kpúlọ̀
16. Ihieorji	Ìhièọ̀jì
17. Oror	Ọ̀rọ̀

18. Ugwu Avor	Úgwú-Àvò
19. Agbor	Ágbò
20. Eziafor	Éziáfò
21. Torty	Tòtí
22. Afor-Ukwu	Áfò-Úkwú
23. Amafor	Ámááfò
24. Amaorji	Ámáóji
25. Avorji	Óvóji
26. Avor	Ávò
27. Owo-Ahiafor	Ówò-Áhiáfò
28. Umuaforukwu	Úmúáfòúkwú
29. Akpa-Mbator	Ákpà-Mbàtò
30. Eziafor	Éziáfò
31. Obuzor	Òbúzò
32. Mkpukpator	Mkpùkpátò
33. Umuogor	Úmúògò
34. Obibor	Òbibò
35. Obiuzor	Òbiúzò
36. Umuma-Uzor	Úmúmá-Úzò
37. Aboh-Mbaise	Ábò-Mbàisè
38. Akabor	Àkàbò
39. Oborji	Òbòji
40. Loryi	Lóyí
41. Afor-Oru	Áfò-Órū
42. Orsu	Òsú
43. Offor	Òfò
44. Amanator	Ámánaátò
45. Owerri-Nkwoji	Ówèrè-Ñkwòjì
46. Orlu	Òlú
47. Ezi-Orsu	Ézi-Òsū
48. Amabor	Ámábò
49. Ogowor	Ógwò
50. Agbador	Ágbàdò
51. Amakporor	Ámákpòrò
52. Orda	Òdà
53. Enugunator	Énúgwūnāátò
54. Ndeaboh	Ñdéábò
55. Umuola Okpulo	Úmúòlà-Ókpúlò
56. Ortor -	Òtò

In Group B anglicised toponyms, different letters ('r' and 'h') are added in each word. The addition (for instance, those added after the word) is also against the Igbo phonotactics because consonants do not end Igbo words. In this set of anglicised toponyms, the feature of not having one-to-one correspondence between the letters of the orthography and the speech sounds, which English is known for, was used in spelling the above Igbo place names. Hence, English tries to realise /ɔ/ speech sound in Igbo using 'or' and secondly, realises some Igbo toponyms (Aboh-Mbaise, Ndeaboh, Okoh, etc) as aspirated. If one follows the one-to-one correspondence feature of pronouncing Igbo words, the pronunciation will be marred with *h* and *r* colouring that distorts the pronunciation and senses of the toponyms.

Group C - Introduction of 'aw' in place of /ɔ/ and /ɒ/

English (wrong) spelling	Igbo (correct) spelling
1. Awka	Òká
2. Awkunawnaw	Òkùnánānò
3. Awgu	Ógwù
4. Nawfia	Ñòfíjā
5. Awkuzu	Òkúzù
6. Amawbia	Ámáòbià
7. Nawgu	Ñògù
8. Awka-Etiti	Òká-Ētiti
9. Awgbu	Ógbù
10. Nawfija	Ñòfíjā
11. Awgunta	Ógùntà
12. Awlaw	Òlò

13. **Awhum** Ọhùm̀

In Group C toponyms above, ‘a’ and ‘w’ are realised together as /ɔ/ or /ɒ/ in English but in Igbo, ‘a’ and ‘w’ are different letters pronounced differently. So, pronouncing them as one sound violates the Igbo pronunciation rule and creates consonant cluster, which also, is another deviation from Igbo spelling pattern as seen in Group A toponyms.

Group D – Using ‘n’ in place of ‘m’

English (wrong) spelling	Igbo (correct) spelling
1. Nkpor	Mkpòò
2. Nkpologwu	Mkpólógwū
3. Nkpakpi	Mkpàkpì
4. Nkporo	Mkpóró
5. Nkpa	Mkpà
6. Ngboko	Mgbókó
7. Nbawsi	Mbáwusi
8. Nkpuruta – Ndiolumbe	Mkpùrùtá-Ñdíòlùmbè
9. Nkputa	Mkpùtá

In the Igbo language, the nasal homorganicity rule manifests on written words, as well as in the pronunciation of the words, following the rule of one-to-one correspondence between the letters and the speech sounds. Each nasal consonant in Igbo is selected by the appropriate consonant based on the place of articulation of the consonant sound following the nasal sound. Hence, ‘m’ or /m/ will be selected by any labial or labia-velar consonant, ‘n’ and /n/ will be selected by other places of articulation apart from velar consonants and ‘ñ’ and /ŋ/ are selected by velar consonants. But in the anglicised Igbo words, this rule is violated as observed in Group D toponyms.

Group E – The use of ‘g’ in place of ‘gw’

English (wrong) spelling	Igbo (correct) spelling
1. Enugu	Enúgwū
2. Awgu	Ọgwù
3. Enugu-Agidi	Enúgwú-Ágìdì
4. Enyogugu	Ényíògwùgwù
5. Agbaogugu	Ágbáògwùgwù

There is no voiced labialized velar plosive /gw/ in English, hence the replacement of /gw/ in Igbo with the voiced velar plosive /g/ in English. This replacement also violates the Igbo spelling rule and renders the toponyms meaningless.

Group F – Omission of letters

English (wrong) spelling	Igbo (correct) spelling
1. Anambra	Ánám̄bārā
2. Amansea	Ámánéésìì
3. Neni	Ñnēnī
4. Alke	Àlìkē
5. Ibo	Ìgbò

As pointed out earlier, Igbo is a syllable-timed language and as such, each syllable attracts prominence in pronunciation. On the other hand, English is stress-timed. In other words, only one syllable is stressed while other syllables are unstressed. Based on the syllable timing of Igbo words, all tone bearing units (vowels and syllabic nasals) are tone marked. So, the omission of letters (vowels) in examples (1-4) in Group F violates the Igbo spelling rule and affects the meanings of the words. In (5), the omission of ‘g’, because of the absence of /gw/ in English (as pointed out in Group E) also renders the toponym meaningless.

Group G – Others

English (wrong) spelling	Igbo (correct) spelling
1. Onitsha	Ọnìchà
2. Imo River	Ọshìmirì Ímò
3. Umuchukwu	Ụmụchúkwú
4. Umunze	Ụmụ̀nzè
5. Umuanaga	Ụmụ̀ànàgà
6. Umuike	Ụmụ̀íkē
7. Umuachina	Ụmụ̀áchìànà
8. Umukalu	Ụmụ̀kālū
9. Isioji	Ísíòjì

Examples (1 & 2) in Group G anglicised toponyms exhibit complex anglicisation features. In ‘Onitsha’, ‘t’ was introduced and /t/ replaced with /f/ with all the vowels not dotted. In ‘Imo River’, we have a combination of one Igbo word ‘Imo’ and one full fledged English word ‘River’. Examples (3 - 9), just like all the toponyms examined were not dotted. Again, these toponyms have a peculiar problem because they contain both dotted and the non-dotted letters that are acceptable Igbo letters and distinctive speech sounds. Therefore, using ‘u’ and /u/ for ‘ù’ and /ò/ is a serious

anglicisation crime because there is no Igbo word like 'umu' /umu/. In (9), 'oji' stands for 'black' while 'óji' means 'iroko tree', so 'Isioji' has a different sense from 'Isiojì' (see section 5.2.1 for details)

B. Data Analysis

1. The Nature of Anglicisation of Igbo Place Names

The Igbo language has a conventional orthography, specifically designed for writing the Igbo language, which is different from the orthography of the English language. The respondents acknowledged that certain characteristics make the Igbo writing system different from that of the English language. This is revealed in the data analysed and collated from the questionnaire as 91 respondents, representing 91% of the research population are aware, acknowledge, and strongly agree that sub dots and tone marks are necessary in the writing system of the Igbo language. 8 respondents, representing 8 percent of the population, are aware and agree that sub dots and tone marks are necessary in the writing system of Igbo language. None of the respondents strongly disagree with this fact, while only 1 respondent, representing only 1% of the research population, disagrees with this fact. This buttresses our claim that the Igbo language is written with sub dots and tone marks; otherwise, the meaning of words would be lost. Therefore, with 99% of the population in unison that the Igbo language makes use of sub dots and tone marks, there is a high level of awareness among the people on the importance of sub dots and tone marks in the realisation of the correct pronunciation and the required meaning in writing Igbo toponyms and in distinguishing between words and expressions with the same morphological form, (observe the data presented in 5.1). In the above data, no Igbo toponym was written with sub dots or with tone marks. Based on the Igbo orthographic system and phonotactics, all the toponyms under English spelling are not Igbo words because they neither follow the Igbo writing system nor bear Igbo meaning(s).

Specifically, an Igbo toponym, depending on the group it falls under, based on the above classification, is altered in one way or the other based on how anglicisation affected it. The answers provided by the respondents in the questionnaire provided answers to this. On whether Igbo place names are spelt and written following the English language writing system in most formal and informal situations by omitting some words, doubling some letters, adding 'r', 'h', 'aw', or by replacing the bilabial nasal /m/ with the alveolar nasal /n/, the majority of Igbo speakers and users (96% of the population) acknowledged that Igbo toponyms are anglicised by adding 'r', 'h', 'aw', etc. Only 4 % of the respondents did not see anything wrong with anglicisation of Igbo names; and so, view it as proper to write Igbo place names thus:

'Óká' is written as *Awka; 'Ókùnàánō' as *Awkunawnaw; 'Òzàlà' as *Ozalla; 'Ìkpóò' as *Nkpor; 'Ùrātā' as *Uratta; 'Òwèrè' as *Owerri; 'Ágbáògwùgwù' as *Agbagugu, etc, (observe data groups A-G above).

2. Effects of Anglicisation on Igbo Place Names Based on the Opinions of the Respondents

The efforts made to determine the effects of anglicisation on Igbo place names also elicited several responses from the respondents. 90 respondents, representing 90% of the research population, strongly agree that anglicisation of Igbo place names alter their proper pronunciation and meanings. They also strongly agree that anglicisation equally leads to the loss of history and cultural heritage of Igbo towns specifically, and Igbo people in general. Furthermore, they agree that these negative effects of anglicisation have adverse effects on the growth of the Igbo language and culture. Only 10 respondents representing 10% of the research population disagree that anglicisation of Igbo place names does not have the above stipulated effects on the Igbo language and its speakers/users.

Based on our data presentation above, there is obvious confusion in any attempt one makes to properly pronounce the place names, especially if one has not encountered such place names being properly pronounced by someone of Igbo origin or one that knows the correct pronunciation. This fact denies the Igbo language of its prestigious quality of being written and pronounced exactly as its phonology demands, without any ambiguity. This inability to realise the proper phonology of these place names also results in loss of meanings associated with the place names. Even the word 'Igbo' is anglicised as '*Ibo' by replacing the digraph /gb/ with /b/. This omission distorts the word and makes it completely meaningless. Unfortunately, the study and teaching of English through English texts and teachers promote anglicisation of Igbo toponyms in schools.

In addition, place names are usually derived out of certain historical events or explanations associated with such places. In many cases, place names are given to places based on the person or people who settled in those places at a certain period in history, or those who had done something extraordinary or phenomenal. For instance, place names beginning with morphological expressions such as 'Ùmù' meaning 'children', tell the story that the people inhabiting the place are descendants of a common ancestor. Furthermore, a renowned or powerful phenomenon such as a known 'God,' whose name is attached to the word/morphological expression 'umu' for instances, Umuchukwu (God's children), Umueze (children of Eze), Umuanaga (children of Anaga), Umuike (children of Ike), Umuchiana (children of Chiana), Umukalu (children of Kalu), etc. are a pointer that they are all descendants of God or the man reflected using 'umu'. Any form of alteration distorts the name and makes it meaningless as observed in group G, where 'umu' was anglicised without sub dots.

Some place names that are realised from the efforts made to tell the story of the place have lost their stories due to anglicisation. For instance, a place name like 'Amaoobia' (its full form is 'Ama ndi obia'), is a town in Anambra state, which translates to 'Land of guests or strangers. Here, 'Ama' means 'place' and 'Obia' means 'guest or stranger'. This toponym 'Amaoobia' was given to a group of visitors, guests or strangers, by the Igbo people of Oka (which is anglicised as Awka), to dwell among them since they were stranded, having been driven away from their original abode

due to certain natural, man-made, environmental or ecological factors, etc. Due to anglicisation, however, this place name has come to be continually written as Amawbia. The anglicised form has completely changed the actual spelling of the place name and, consequently, negatively affecting the perception, semantics, history and cultural story associated with the place. The same loss of semantics, history and cultural heritage is applicable to all the toponyms presented above.

Furthermore, 90% of the research population, strongly agree, maintain, and are aware that the above-listed instances of anglicisation of Igbo place names weaken and endanger the Igbo language. 91 respondents, representing 91% of the population strongly agree that the grave consequences stated above face the Igbo language if nothing is done about the anglicised Igbo toponyms. On the other hand, 9 respondents, representing 9% of the research population strongly disagree with the submissions of 91 respondents, stating that they are not aware that anglicisation weakens and endangers the Igbo language.

Furthermore, majority of the respondents, 89% strongly disagree that anglicisation does not contribute in any way in aiding people to learn how to pronounce and write the Igbo language faster and better. This issue was raised because some respondents (11 of them) were of the opinion that when one anglicises Igbo words, it makes the words easier to pronounce but the majority disagreed because according to them, the one-to-one correspondence rule makes Igbo pronunciation easier than the English pronunciation. Summarily, the perception of the respondents with regard to the effects of anglicisation of Igbo toponyms is summarised below under the following headings:

- Mispronunciation, misspelling and loss of Igbo letters:

Mispronunciation of Igbo words is a regular occurrence if one tries to pronounce anglicised Igbo toponyms. For example, Igbo letters with sub dots such as ‘ì’, ‘ò’, ‘ù’ are pronounced as /i, o, u/, respectively, but when the sub dots are omitted through anglicisation, by writing and pronouncing them as [i, o, u], they are pronounced the same way as their corresponding Igbo phonemes /i, o, u/. This is the same as writing a different letter when one intends to write another letter, such as writing ‘b’ in place of ‘d’ or ‘n’ in place of ‘m’. This kind of situation also results in misspellings such as ‘Ọka’ as ‘Awka’, ‘Alọ’ as ‘Alor’ or ‘Ụmualọ’ as ‘Umualor’, etc. Given the consistent anglicisation of Igbo place names and Igbo writing in general, the language faces the danger of losing several of its letters which are always misrepresented, and, in fact, omitted in writing, such as ‘ì’, ‘ò’, ‘ù’, ‘ń’.

- Language endangerment/death:

Anglicisation of Igbo place names is gradually resulting in the Igbo language attrition and endangerment. When Igbo place names are anglicised as observed from the analysis, the orthography of the Igbo language suffers. The language loses Igbo ‘flavour’ and children grow up writing and spelling Igbo toponyms like English words. Thus, when anglicisation makes it difficult for Igbo expressions to be properly articulated by speakers and users, the frequency and quality of its usage in speaking and writing reduce due to limited appreciation. This situation endangers the Igbo language and would actually lead to language death if remedial actions are not urgently taken.

- Poor comprehension of meaning:

Poor comprehension of meaning is another effect of anglicisation of Igbo place names deduced from the responses of the respondents. This implies that the meanings/senses associated with Igbo place names, as well as majority of Igbo written words, sentences and other kinds of Igbo written expressions become difficult for readers of Igbo writings to grasp. For instance, the anglicisation of ‘Isiojì’ as ‘Isioji’ changes its meaning. ‘Ísíójì’ means the head of Iroko (the head of a giant species of tree in Igbo nation), while ‘Isioji’ means (black head, where ‘isi’ means *head*, ‘ójì’ means *iroko tree*, and ‘jì’ means *black*). Similarly, ‘Amanesii’ means ‘a clan with six tribes’, where ‘ama’ means ‘tribe(s)’ and ‘esii’ is the dialectal variant of ‘isii’ - ‘six’, but the anglicised form ‘*Amanseá’ has no meaning at all.

- Loss of history, originality, pride/value and cultural heritage of the Igbo language:

From our analysis, the respondents express their view that anglicisation causes loss of history, originality, pride/value and cultural heritage of the Igbo language. For instance, there is a reason behind every Igbo place name. These reasons constitute the history and cultural heritage underlying these Igbo place names, which are sources of their pride/value and cultural heritage. The views of the respondents are in line with the words of Jena & Padhi (2015, p. 49), which go thus:

A place is known to the outside world through its identity. The travellers visit places by their names in the course of their journey. Place names of a region speak about the geographical and historical peculiarities revealing cultural identities of the people. Place names do speak when there is no history. Place names narrate their interesting characteristics. Hence, a place name is an expression of the name giver’s thought process.

As previously noted about Group G, place names bearing the initial morpheme or word ‘ụmụ’ meaning ‘children’, tell a story of the descendants of a common ancestor or adherents to a particular man and even God. Anglicising these place names make them lose their history and cultural heritage.

- Hindering proper learning of Igbo language:

The Igbo language has its own orthography and phonotactics; therefore, learning the spoken form of the Igbo language within a formal setting requires learning the orthography of the language as well. However, with the anglicisation of Igbo place names in particular and other Igbo expressions in general, proper and actual learning of correct spellings and expressions is denied the Igbo native speakers learning Igbo for literacy purpose and the second language learners (L2) of the language, especially with English as the lingua franca in Nigeria.

- Showing an extension of the powers of colonisation and imperialism of the English language:

The above point was raised by two of the respondents used for the research. The effects of anglicisation as noted from the analysis involve the denigration of the Igbo language and its orthography for the exaltation of the English language. This leads to a more appreciation and adoption of the 'exalted language' as against the 'less appreciated language', which may be forced into endangerment and consequent death if the trend is left unchecked. This is also an extension of colonisation and imperialism of the British. Officially, Nigeria has gained her independence but, unofficially, Nigeria is seriously under colonisation through anglicisation.

VI. SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

The sensitive issue of anglicisation of Igbo place names is one that provokes constant attention in the minds of speakers and users of the Igbo language. This is evident in the findings of this study as presented below:

- Based on the data used (see section 5.1) Igbo toponyms are anglicised through different anglicisation processes like doubling letters, introduction of 'r' at different positions in words, introduction of 'aw', using 'n' in place 'm', the use of 'g' in place of 'gw', no sub dots and tone marks on all the toponyms.

- Secondly, more than 90% of the respondents are aware and maintain that Igbo toponyms are anglicised. They strongly agree that there are grave consequences facing the Igbo language presently, and if nothing is done to the high wave of anglicisation of Igbo words, and/or guarding against further anglicisation of more Igbo toponyms, more harm will be done to the language. Some of the negative effects according to our findings include but are not limited to the following: improper written forms of Igbo toponyms, mispronunciation of Igbo toponyms, wrong assignment of meanings to Igbo place names caused by wrong spelling, loss of Igbo cultural heritage and value, (which place names help to protect), gradual loss of Igbo identity, among others.

- Finally, the analysis reveals potential loss of some Igbo letters of the alphabet, especially the Igbo vowels and syllabic nasal with sub and super dots [o, u, i, ñ]; attrition of Igbo toponyms specifically, and other Igbo words in general is imminent; and the Igbo language endangerment which is a precursor to language death.

From the analysis and discussions so far, it is not out of place for a reader to have an already perceived possible solutions for overcoming anglicisation of Igbo place names. Below are some solutions to the sociolinguistic phenomenon of anglicisation of Igbo toponyms.

- Emphasising the use of Igbo orthography in writing Igbo place names at all levels, contexts or situations of writing

When one writes in the English language, the tendency is for the writer to adopt English orthography in representing Igbo place names whenever one encounters them, thus, substituting Igbo letters for similar English letters. This trend should be discouraged at all levels of writing, formal or informal, ensuring that sub dots and tone marks (where required) are placed wherever appropriate. For instance:

5a. I am going to *Oka* to see my friend who is a native of *Alọ*. This should not be

b. *I am going to *Awka* to see my friend who is a native of *Alor*

- Teaching the writing convention of the Igbo language at all levels and contexts of teaching

Here, teachers should always endeavour to teach the writing convention of the Igbo language to students at all levels of education. Emphasis should always be placed on those letters and sequence of sounds which are usually anglicised when written. For instance, the Igbo speech sound /ɔ/, which is represented by the letter 'o' is usually anglicised as 'o', 'aw' or 'or', which signifies a transfer of the obvious characteristic of irregularity involved in representing English speech sounds in line with their alphabet, to the Igbo language, which has a one-to-one correspondence between every speech sound and the letter used to represent it, with the exception of 'n'. This one-to-one correspondence between Igbo letters and their phonemes is shown thus:

Letters:	A	B	CH	D	E	F	G	GB
Pronunciation:	/a/	/b/	/tʃ/	/d/	/e/	/f/	/g/	/gb̄/
Letters:	GH	GW	H	I	I	J	K	KP
Pronunciation:	/ɣ/	/gʷ/	/h/	/i/	/ɪ/	/dʒ/	/k/	/kp̄/
Letters:	KW	L	M	N	NW	NY	Ñ	O
Pronunciation:	/kʷ/	/l/	/m/	/n/	/ɲʷ/	/ɲ/	/ɲ/	/o/
Letters:	Ọ	P	R	S	SH	T	U	Ụ
Pronunciation:	/ɔ/	/p/	/r/	/s/	/ʃ/	/t/	/u/	/ɔ̄/
Letters:	V	W	Y	Z				
Pronunciation:	/v/	/w/	/j/	/z/				

- Replacing current maps and official documents bearing Igbo place names and other Igbo expressions in an anglicised format with the appropriate Igbo alphabetic symbols

Many official documents bearing Igbo place names, even charts and maps used in teaching students at various levels of education, within and outside Nigeria, contain anglicised versions of Igbo toponyms. Majority of maps online also contain anglicised versions of Igbo place names. Documents, which present or discuss issues concerning or relating to Igbo place names are also anglicised. These maps and various kinds of documents containing these anglicised Igbo place names should be replaced with versions containing appropriate representation of Igbo place names and expressions in general.

- Conscientizing the Igbo on the need to spell and write Igbo toponyms properly, especially those that see the English spelling pattern and rules as easier than these of Igbo

When the above solutions are put into practice, the Igbo language development will be enhanced and the use of Igbo for wider communication will be greatly encouraged.

VII. CONCLUSION

The findings of this study have shown that colonisation comes in different forms, and anglicisation is an extension of the power of colonisation and imperialism of the English language on the Igbo language. On the surface, one may casually wave aside the phenomenon of anglicisation as an expression of mere sentiment but it is a fact that the identity of a people and their stories, as well as histories, philosophies and beliefs are hugely embedded in many of their place names, as the findings in this paper reveal.

In conclusion, therefore, the significance of the study cannot be overemphasised because it draws the attention of the Igbo people, the Igbo native speakers, as well as learners of the Igbo language to the existence and increasing trend of anglicisation in the language, especially as it concerns the names of places, which are located within the Igbo geographical areas. By drawing attention to this negative sociolinguistic phenomenon, the study informs the readers about the nature of anglicisation of Igbo place names, so as to increase their consciousness of the trend. It equally explains the consequences or effects of anglicising of Igbo place names, and suggests solutions to the problem. The study also cautions the Igbo and non Igbo, who are involved in this practice to desist from it, be descriptive in analysing Igbo toponyms, and use the correct Igbo orthography in writing Igbo toponyms, and other Igbo words in general, in order to preserve the language's originality for a better speaking, writing and learning of the language by the emerging generation of speakers and learners.

REFERENCES

- [1] Bridge, C. & Fedorowich, K. (eds.) (2003). *The British world: Diaspora, culture and identity*. London: Frank Cass Publishers.
- [2] Coupland, N. & Thomas, A. R. (1990). *English in Wales: Diversity, conflict, and change*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Limited.
- [3] DeLozier, G. H. (2016). *Data and methods for Gazetteer Independent Toponym Resolution*. Thesis presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of the University of Texas at Austin in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts. Retrieved from <https://repositories.lib.utexas.edu/bitstream/handle/2152/38766/DELOZIER-THESIS-2016.pdf?sequence=1>. Accessed on 9/11/2016.
- [4] Donnellan, K. S. (1972). Proper names and identifying descriptions. In D. Davidson & G. Alaman (ed). *Semantics of natural language* (pp 356-379). Dordrecht: D. Reided.
- [5] Domingues, C. & Eshkol-Taravella, I. (2015). Toponym recognition in custom-made map titles. *International Journal of Cartography*. DOI: 10.1080/23729333.2015.1055935. <hal-01174721>.
- [6] Frege, G. (1952). On sense and reference. In P. Geach & M. Blacks (eds.). *Translations from the philosophical writings of Gottlob Frege* (pp. 36 – 56). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [7] Guyot, S. & Seethal, C. (2007). Identity of place, places of identities, change of place names in post-apartheid South Africa. *The South African Geographical Journal*, 89 (1), 55- 63.
- [8] Hutabarat, I. R. & Pratama, M. U. (2016). Utilizing open street map tags for road toponyms in post tsunami reconstruction area: The lesson from Aceh, Indonesia (8147). FIG working week 2016. Christchurch, New Zealand, May 2 - 6, 2016. Retrieved from https://www.fig.net/resources/.../fig.../ts08g/TS08G_hutabarat_pratama_8147_abs.pdf. Accessed on 9/11/2016.
- [9] Jena, S. & Padhi, P. (2015). Pre-requisites of designing and developing a dictionary of place names of Odisha: A geographical information source. *International Journal of Library and Information Studies*, 5(3), 49-55.
- [10] Kripke, S. (1980). *Naming and necessity*. Boston: Basil Blackwell.
- [11] Lewis, D. K. (1984). Putnam's paradox. *Australasian Journal of Philosophy*, 62(3), 221-236.
- [12] McKinsey, M. (1978). Kripke's objectives to description theories of names. *Canadian Journal of Philosophy*, 8(3), 485-497.
- [13] Mukerjee, R. (1958). *A history of Indian civilisation*. Bombay: Hind Kitabs Limited.
- [14] Okorji, R.I. & Author. (2009). The effects of the difference between the sound systems of English and Igbo on the effective learning of English in Nigeria schools. *NKQÀ, Nkuzi na Omumu Asusu Igbo*, 2, 25 – 36.
- [15] Price, F. S. (2007). *Success with Asian names: A practical guide for business and everyday life*. London: Nicholas Brawley Publishing House.
- [16] Russell, B. (1905). *On denoting*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [17] Shamhrain, A. S. (1999). Place names as indicators of settlement. *Archaeology Ireland*, 5(3), 19-21. Wordwell Limited.
- [18] World Heritage Encyclopaedia (2016). Available in Anglicised.worldbooklibrary.net/articles/Anglicised. Retrieved on 8/11/2016.



Kelvin Francis Obitube was born in Onitsha in Anambra State of Nigeria. He is a lecturer in the University of Nigeria, Nsukka. He holds core interest in applied linguistics, pragmatics and sociolinguistics. He is also interested in the core areas of Linguistics such as phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics.



Chukwuma Onyebuchi Okeke was born at Awgu in Enugu State of Nigeria. He is a lecturer in the University of Nigeria, Nsukka. He is a fellow of the African Humanities Programme (AHP) organized by the American Council of Learned Society (ACLS). He is interested in the core areas of Linguistics via phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics.

Pronunciation Obstacle Course

Igor Ivanović

Faculty of Philology, University of Montenegro, Nikšić, Montenegro

Abstract—Form our experience as a university professor, many language classrooms are not attentive to pronunciation and it is often neglected. The two major factors contributing to this situation are teachers' inability to teach their students proper pronunciation (pronunciation does not exist in or is a minor part of school curricula or teachers themselves are unable to produce native or native-like pronunciation) and the linguistic barrier posed by the native language. For instance, students sometimes feel great discomfort if they have to express themselves in a foreign language. In case of Montenegro, certain English phonemes such as /θ/, classified as a voiceless dental fricative and /ð/, classified as a voiced dental fricative, when used in our language, represent the way a person with a speech sound disorder would speak. On the more positive note, our students, more and more, travel to different countries, which improves their ability to speak a foreign language fluently and attain a native-like accent. In this paper, we will deal with certain misconceptions about pronunciation and then our attention will turn to elements affecting the way pronunciation is learnt. Towards the end of our paper, we will consider what language learners need in terms of improving their pronunciation. This is of vital importance since pronunciation may be a great contributing factor, leading to an improved L2 perception.

Index Terms—pronunciation, prosody, intonation, rhythm, language learning

I. INTRODUCTION

There seems to be consensus that those who start learning languages later on, for instance, after the end of their formal education, are more likely to have more challenges in terms of acquiring native-like or even satisfactory or intelligible pronunciation and this degree of difficulty increases significantly with age. This gradual decline in the ability to have satisfactory pronunciation is related to numerous factors and it is very difficult to pinpoint which factor is dominant in terms of one's command of foreign language vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar. Since we have no universal answer to the question of why pronunciation may be such an arduous goal to achieve, there are numerous theoretical perspectives trying to tackle the issue. Phonologists, sociolinguists and psycholinguists specialised in the area, generally subscribe to the notion that trying to learn to pronounce words of a foreign language is more of cognitive nature, which means pronunciation is linked to the conceptualisation and mental classification of "raw sounds". Depending on the level they aspire to attain, many L2 learners have "major pronunciation-related difficulties" even after spending several years honing their pronunciation. The consequence of this can be facing difficulties when trying to find employment. Hinofotis and Baily (Hinofotis & Baily, 1980) stated, "up to a certain proficiency standard, the fault which most severely impairs the communication process in EFL/ESL learners is pronunciation". This is also true for vocabulary and/or grammar, but the obstacle called "satisfactory pronunciation" can prove to be a more daunting task. Davis (Davis, 1999), for example, reveals that pronunciation is the main concern and one of the ultimate priorities of ESL learners after completing elementary and intermediate courses in English. Now, it is important make a distinction between pronunciation and speaking. Pronunciation is understood as a sub-skill of speaking and if we want to change the way a learner pronounces words, we need to change the way they conceptualise the component sounds of those words. This is true not just for individual sounds, but for higher structures of speech, such as stress patterns, rhythm and syllables. However, the teaching of pronunciation remains largely neglected in the field of foreign language teaching. In our paper, we will be discussing about some relatively frequent misconceptions about pronunciation and the factors affecting the learning of pronunciation. At the end of the paper, we will turn our attention to the needs of learners and offer some suggestions for teaching pronunciation.

II. KEEP YOUR EYE ON THE BALL

Quite often, pronunciation skills are equated with musical skills in the sense that people with "a good ear for music" are somehow predestined to have good pronunciation. However, no definitive link between one's capability to reproduce music and accurately reproduce native or native-like pronunciation has ever been established. Moreover, there is a multitude of people who have one of these talents, but not both. Moreover, language pronunciation as a cognitive skill may be closer to some people, meaning some people show natural tendency and aptitude to learn pronunciation to a certain degree, if given adequate opportunity. One of the main problems is that L2 learners need to change their conceptual pattern internalised in childhood and already heavily utilised for their first language. Another challenge is that learners categorise and conceptualise sounds in a way that is not appropriate for a foreign language. Thus, if a learner simply sees a sound articulation diagram, no matter how "interactive" and how accurate, this will not

help them, unless they are given assistance in terms of understanding what properties of the sound in question are important and offered correct ways of mentally visualising the sound so that they are able to reproduce it. This is why it is difficult for majority of learners and professors as well to make the connexion between a speech wave and the sound auditory quality. In the same vein, detailed knowledge about the way one should coordinate the movement of his legs and hands will not necessarily help an aspiring volleyball player perfect his or her game. Similarly, as far as a tennis player is concerned, what helps is to contemplate about the actions, e.g. “keep your eye on the ball” and “think about hitting from the baseline”, (Baker, 1981). Taking into consideration the fact that people generally think about auditory quality of sounds, rather than sound articulation or acoustics, one of the main tasks of professors or instructors is to describe sound auditory quality in a manner that is logical to a language learner. This is the place where computers can enter the stage and help learners with pronunciation and display speech-waves with instructions as to how to read and understand different sounds. Understanding is of vital importance since the statement that the learners acquire an accent chiefly because they “transfer” the sound system of their native language to L2 is only partially true. This notion of transfer, which “models” somebody’s accent is valid, but only if used in an elaborated form that requires a good grasp of its ramifications and limitations. A simplified idea that learners just transfer the sound system of their native languages to a new language does not help.

Foreign accent does not just equate to an inability of a speaker of another language to produce L2 sounds. Truth to be told, there are individual as well as groups of sounds that are very difficult in terms of their reproduction for learners from different countries, cultures and social backgrounds. However, we must not forget that this kind of difficulty is not the main cause of the accent and it is a relatively minor aspect of intelligibility. This is the case since individual sounds are not of vital importance to intelligibility. As we know, native speakers’ reproduction of particular sounds (especially vowels) differ depending on their accent, region, social background, etc. This is why a learner with proper intonation and unsatisfactory reproduction of, say, “ing - /ɪŋ/, /ɪn/, /ən/”, is generally easy to understand. It is interesting to notice that if a learner does not satisfactorily pronounce an L2 sound, they are, nevertheless, able to pronounce an acceptable version of a similar sound in his/her mother tongue or within another context. A good example of this would be the problem my students who learn Montenegrin as their second language have with the “č” and “dž” sounds, which are very similar to the English affricates, the “ch sound /tʃ/” and “j sound /dʒ/”. Thus, here we cannot talk about learners’ inability to produce these sounds. Quite the contrary, almost invariably, learners are able to produce quite acceptable versions of all of the abovementioned sounds. The problem lies in the fact that these learners do not think of these sounds as individual sounds, stored in different “mental drawers”, but rather think of them as almost identical variants of the same sound. Another example of this would be the pronunciation of English words such as “plan”, “burn” and “ticket”, with which Japanese people often have a lot of difficulty. Majority of our students from Japan would pronounce them as “/præn/”, “/bɜ:ln/” and “/ˈtɪkɪt/” and the challenge lies in the perception of the acoustic differences of /l/ and /r/. On that note, Spanish learners of English, in terms of speaking and comprehension, may have problems differentiating long and short vowel sounds such as “not”, “note” and “nought”. Since these three words contain vowels of different length, realised with different mouth positions, it may be useful for the teachers to thoroughly explain their students the concepts of vowel length and production place. This can be done by linking the mechanics and logic of vowel production in Spanish and English, so the students are able to comprehend, visualise and “switch” from one sound system to another.

III. PRONUNCIATION CHALLENGES

The following section will elaborate on different factors affecting the learning of pronunciation.

A. *Accent*

Empirical evidence to date suggests that the timing of the first genuine and significant exposure to the foreign language deeply affect the “nativeness” of pronunciation and are usually viewed as the best predictors. We must not forget language aptitude, affective aspects and the quality and quantity of input. Simply put, an accent is “the cumulative auditory effect of those features of pronunciation that identify where a person is from, regionally or socially” (Crystal, 2003). Accentedness, a “normal consequence of second language learning” (Zielinski, 2012), is a “listener’s perception of how different a speaker’s accent is from that of the L1 community” (p. 85). Eric Lenneberg (Lenneberg, 1967) advanced the critical period hypothesis that states that there is a critical time for language acquisition and puberty is the period when brain functions become fully assigned to specific portions of the brain and the brain loses its plasticity. This language-learning window of opportunity closes around the age of twelve. The closure of the critical period signals that the innate language ability responsible for language development is lost and cannot be recovered. Pursuant to the fundamental difference hypothesis (Bley-Vroman, 1989), as opposed to young learners who use universal grammar, late learners rely on their native language knowledge that prevents them from ever achieving the mastery of foreign language pronunciation at a native-speaker level.

B. *Intonation as Suprasegmental Melody and Rhythm and Stress as Suprasegmental Stress Patterns*

Munro and Derwing (Derwing & Munro, Second language accent and pronunciation teaching: A research-based approach., 2005) noted that even heavily accented speech is, in the majority of cases, intelligible and that prosodic

errors (intonation, rhythm and stress) seem to impact intelligibility more than phonetic errors (single sound errors). Due to this fact, pronunciation teaching have to focus both on the sounds of language (consonant and vowels) and on suprasegmental features or vocal elements encompassing more than one sound. These elements are word and sentence intonation, stress and speech rhythm (Low, 2006). This is further supported by the fact that languages have been classified as either stress-timed or syllable-timed, although this classification is, by no means, exhaustive. In stress-timed languages (e.g., English, Dutch, German, etc.), “stressed syllables fall at regular intervals throughout an utterance” (Crystal, 2003), and rhythm is organised according to the stressed syllables timing regularity. That is, because unstressed syllables are spoken more quickly and vowel reduction occurs, the time between stressed syllables is equal.

As we have pointed out in the text above, languages cannot be strictly classified as syllable-timed or stress-timed. A more accurate description is that languages are stress-based or syllable-based, that is, they tend to cover more than one category, but “want” to have more stress-timed or syllable-timed features (Low, 2006). Stress-based rhythm, which serves as the liaison for other phonological structures (assimilation, deletion, etc.) is achieved through the presence of reduced vowels for unstressed syllables. The best example of this is function words (e.g., articles, auxiliary and modal verbs, prepositions) which usually have reduced vowels instead of full ones, and this reduced vowel form is known as a weak form. For example, in the sentence “I thought it was nice,” the words *thought* and *nice* carry the main stress, and *was*, which is unstressed, may be pronounced as [wəz], as its weak form, which is reflected in the following pitch recording:

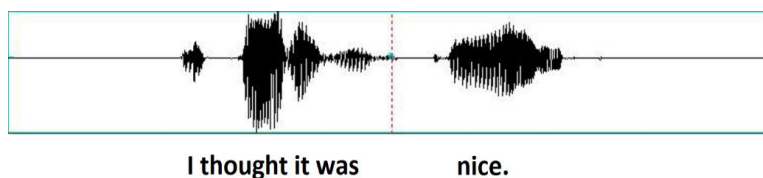


Figure 1. Pitch recording sample

For an adult English language learner this difference between syllable and stress-based languages is of vital importance. This importance is especially pronounced if the learner’s first language is rhythmically different from stress-based English or any similar language. In examining the role of stress—“the degree of force used in producing a syllable” (Crystal, 2003) in intelligibility, Field (Field, 2005) asked professional listeners to transcribe recorded material. What is different about this recording is that Field manipulated the variables of word stress and vowel quality. He established that when we erroneously shift word stress to an unstressed syllable, making no changes to vowel quality, the intelligibility of utterances significantly decreases than when only vowel quality is altered. Both native and non-native English speakers gave similar responses in terms of intelligibility of words with misplaced/altered word stress. O’Brien (O’Brien, 2004) reported the results of his research on the significance intonation, rhythm and stress for a native-like German accent. Native speakers of German were tasked with rating American university students reading aloud in German. The research yielded interesting results. Namely, it was found that the native speakers of German shifted their attention more on intonation, rhythm and stress than on individual sounds when rating speech samples as native-like. So, one of the implications of this research for classroom instruction are that both teachers and professors need to spend more time teaching their students/learners the rules for intonation, rhythm and word stress in English, as well as paying attention to individual sounds that may be difficult for the learners in their classes.

C. Accommodation, Acculturation and Nativisation

It would seem as though certain learners are quicker to acquire good pronunciation. From our experience, which is probably universal all over the world, even within a relatively uniform classroom, very soon we will start to witness large differences among the pronunciation level of the students. This is why numerous researchers were prompted to study the individual characteristics of learners that are conducive to their successful acquisition of a foreign language. In our short study on pronunciation accuracy, which included 42 students and which is an adapted form of the study conducted by Elliot (Elliot, 1995), we included six statements about pronunciation. Our study utilised five-point Likert scale ranging from *never* to *always* and all the questions are related to learners’ attitude towards acquiring native or near-native pronunciation as measured by the Pronunciation Attitude Inventory (PAI).

TABLE 1
STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARDS PRONUNCIATION¹

Question	Statistics	Never	Almost never	Sometimes	Almost always	Always	Total
Proper pronunciation is vital for me.	No.	2	1	6	20	13	42
	%	4.76	2.38	14.28	42.61	30.95	100
I want to be as native-like as possible.	No.	1	1	2	8	30	42
	%	2.38	2.38	4.76	19.04	71.42	100
I try to emulate native accent.	No.	2	2	9	11	18	42
	%	4.76	4.76	21.42	26.19	42.85	100
Good pronunciation is secondary to grammar and vocabulary.	No.	19	14	3	3	3	42
	%	45.23	33.33	7.14	7.14	7.14	100
I work on improving my pronunciation	No.	4	1	8	16	13	42
	%	9.52	2.38	19.04	38.09	30.95	100

In Table 1, we can see that students are interested in acquiring good pronunciation. What is “hidden” in this table, but clearly readable from our other data is that younger population is more concerned with good pronunciation, whereas older students are more concerned with functional communication, which does not necessitate native or native-like pronunciation. In other words, if the attitude of students is positive and progressive about improving their pronunciation they really do tended to have better pronunciation of the target allophones (Elliot, 1995). In the same vein, Suter (Suter, 1976) found that students who paid more attention and were more conscious about their pronunciation achieved better results in terms of their pronunciation of English as a Second Language.

In the previous paragraph, we talked about the relation between better pronunciation and students' awareness in terms of how they speak and what they want to achieve. This “active” component which influences one's pronunciation is sometimes accompanied by “more passive” component which has, nevertheless profound impact on one's way of thinking and ultimately on one's pronunciation. Here, we can introduce acculturation model that defines that learners will acquire the target language to the degree that they acculturate (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996). As far as Schumann (Schumann, 1986) is concerned, acculturation refers to a learner's openness and willingness to more or less consciously acquire a target culture and his/her desire to be socially integrated in the target culture. In his research from 1986, Schumann examined the level of psychological and social integration of foreign students. He used this level as a predictor of the quantity and quality of English language they acquire and use. Schumann claims that acculturation is an excellent indicator of one's mastery of English and the higher the level of acculturation the better is outcome in terms of somebody's pronunciation. Thus, the reduction of psychological and social distance positively affects one's pronunciation. On the other side, less interaction results in lower acquisition, which has a detrimental effect on one's pronunciation.

Apart from the percentages, showed in Table 1, our research showed that, roughly speaking, students of English, French and other languages at our Faculty, exhibit two types of motivation, which directly affects their pronunciation, among other things. The first type is instrumental motivation, which refers to the desire to learn an L2 in order to accomplish some linguistic goals. This type of students wants to have better pronunciation that may serve them as a way to get better job or something similar. On the other hand, we have integrative motivation and, as the name suggests, students with this type of motivation want to learn about the second language culture. Almost invariably, these students are more likely to socially interact with different native speakers and, thus, are more likely to acquire native or near native accent.

D. Input and Instruction

Apart from instructions in terms of what to learn, instructions in terms of how to learn are important as well. Almost invariably, foreign language instructions mainly focus on four areas of interest: speaking, listening, writing and reading. Students learn how to pronounce certain words, but this is often brief and very soon, pronunciation is removed in favour of curriculum elements more useful for preparing a midterm or a final exam. This is why pronunciation is sacrificed since, according to Elliot (Elliot, 1995), teachers have this uncanny tendency to view pronunciation as the least useful of the fundamental language skills and therefore they generally sacrifice pronunciation in order to divert their effort to other “more important” elements of language. Additionally, Pennington (Pennington, 1994) claims that pronunciation, which is typically deemed a linguistic element, rather than a part of conversational fluency, is often regarded with little importance in a communicatively oriented classroom. Another point worth mentioning is that majority of teachers believe adult L2 learners can never attain native or native-like pronunciation, therefore teachers do not have the background or tools to properly teach pronunciation and therefore it is disregarded (Elliot, 1995).

In majority of schools, pronunciation is taught via repetition drills on either a discrete word or phrase level. Nevertheless, these repetition drills are useful for decoding words for the purpose of reading rather than pronunciation. Complementary to repetition drills, we should insist on raising phonemic awareness, which means the ability to hear and pronounce phonemes, without access to print. This is the place where synthetic phonics approach can be used so that learners can be taught to sound and blend the letters in order to pronounce the words. Teachers also shy away from

¹ University of Montenegro, Faculty of Philology, 3rd year.

explaining the differences between non-fricative continuants and fricatives, or the subtleties between the trilled or flapped /r/ between Spanish and English (Elliot, 1995). Granted, in order to learn about these subtleties you need to have adequate knowledge, but this kind of information is usually left up to the students. Whether explicit instruction helps these L2 learners is dubious and there are numerous inconsistencies in terms of obtained results. However, majority of research (Suter, 1976), (Elliot, 1995) and (Derwing & Munro, *Second language accent and pronunciation teaching: A research-based approach.*, 2005) concluded that adults could reach near native fluency, improve their allophonic articulation, achieve better ratings in terms of intelligibility, comprehension and accentedness, if given adequate pronunciation instruction and ample time. One of the origin points of these inconsistencies is created due to different experiment designs. Since pronunciation is very “volatile” in the sense that it is affected by numerous factors, even slight experiment design change can yield vastly different results. Another tendency, based on different research, is that language-learning courses should be based on the suprasegmental features of pronunciation (e.g. intonation, rhythm and stress).

E. Psychology and Personality

The development of pronunciation is affected by non-linguistic factors. These factors are usually related to individual learning goals, opinion about the target culture, population and language. Usually, these factors are beyond the teacher’s control, but the teacher, if s/he is aware of the abovementioned factors can influence and “tweak” the attitude of his/hers students. As it is mentioned in the abstract of this paper, students sometimes feel great discomfort if they have to express themselves in a foreign language. For instance in the Montenegrin language, certain English phonemes such as the voiced dental fricative /ð/ and the voiceless dental fricative /θ/, when used in our language represent the way a person with a speech sound disorder would speak. These two fricatives are problematic for many young learners to that extent, that they actively avoid using them and transform them, while speaking, into /d/ and /t/ respectively. In addition, the two fricatives are perfectly “pronounceable” for almost any language learner from this region, but teachers usually do not pay attention to their pronunciation and /ð/ and /θ/ remain fossilised as /d/ and /t/ respectively. This observation is corroborated by the research (Burri, Baker, & Acton, 2016) which showed that a number of learners feel uneasy when trying out new speech rhythm and melody patterns. Others feel stupid and embraced pronouncing “weird” sounds, and with time, they decide it is exercise in futility and that English pronunciation is impossible to acquire. Additionally, it has been shown (Derwing & Munro, 2015) that one’s extraversion and introversion can be beneficial or detrimental to learner’s pronunciation. For example, outgoing learners are more likely to find themselves in situations that will elicit some form of communication in a foreign language, which will facilitate their pronunciation. Usually, these students will be more confident and more willing to interact with native speakers.

F. Critical Period Hypothesis

It is universally accepted that age influences learners’ ability to acquire satisfactory pronunciation, but to what extent and how is a matter of debate. According to the “Critical Period Hypothesis” postulated by Lenneberg (Lenneberg, 1967) there is a neurological period, around the age of 12, which is of vital importance in terms of proper pronunciation acquisition. It is of importance that the effects of age on L1 acquisition are apparent across levels of linguistic structure, namely, syntax, phonology, and the lexicon. Snow (Snow, 1987) states there is a period in which people are particularly responsive to linguistic input (namely from birth to the onset of puberty). The same input that during the critical period supports language development is ineffective outside the critical period in producing the same kind of learning. This means the learning that occurs during the critical period is stable and irreversible by subsequent non-critical period learning. The existence of this period and timing of the critical period is controlled by biological maturation. However, (Bialystok, 1997), and (Reed & Levis, 2015), are not quite convinced that this pre critical period and post critical period delineation is that significant. They do agree that age plays significant role in language learning and the nativeness of pronunciation, but it is far from being the only and the most important or even crucial aspect. It is safe to say that earlier exposure to a foreign language and culture is a good springboard for easier and potentially better pronunciation, but by no means the only factor. Other factors, mentioned in this paper, are also at play. Which one will be the dominant one and which the dormant one, is up to one’s individuality. Evidence against the critical period for second language acquisition also can be found in the studies intending to support the hypothesis. Group trends are reported as evidence against the hypothesis. In every case previously cited, counterexamples exist within the data. For some subjects, it appears that significant linguistic sensitivity persists into adulthood. In addition, early exposure does not seem to be sufficient to guarantee success in a second language. (Ioup, Boustagui, Tigi, & Moselle, 1994) reported on students enrolled in a college (ESL) class. Some of the students in the study had immigrated to the United States as early as 6 years of age. Subjects were given a battery of syntactic and semantic tests that included both productive and receptive tasks. Age of exposure was not a significant determiner of success on these measures. One of the highest performances in the study belonged to a 35-year-old man who had been exposed to English for only 5 years. According to this group of authors (Ioup, Boustagui, Tigi, & Moselle, 1994) studies on the acquisition of a second language have demonstrated that older learners outperform younger learners if one considers proficiency across many linguistic skills, including pronunciation. Methodological inadequacies within the studies on syntactic development leave the notion of a critical period for syntax untested. Evidence that non-natives can be trained to perform as natives on both productive and receptive tasks weakens support for the notion of a critical period for phonology. Counterexamples to the claim that a

critical period exists for the acquisition of a first language have been largely anecdotal. The most serious shortcoming for the hypothesis involving first language has been the inability for researchers to posit a plausible neurological cause for the critical period.

G. *Negative L1 Transfer*

Since first language is our tool for solving learning and communication problems it is no surprise that the sound pattern of the learner's first language is often transferred into the second language. This transfer may bring about foreign accent. Accents are mainly attributed to a bias in the perception of L2 sounds, stemming from the native (L1) phonology and similar, but not identical sounds (proximate vowels and consonants). According to Flege (Flege, 1995) and his Speech Learning Model (SLM), for instance, similar L2 sounds assimilate perceptually to L1 categories by an equivalence classification mechanism. This mechanism can block L2 category formation, and, in terms of pronunciation, native sounds are often used to reproduce similar L2 sounds. Moreover, Flege postulates that "phonetic categories established in childhood for L1 sounds evolve over the lifespan to reflect the properties of all L1 and L2 phonemes" (p. 239, 1995). On the other hand, dissimilar L2 sounds (i.e., those that are sufficiently phonetically different from the closest native category to be perceived as being different from it) do not perceptually assimilate to L1 categories and abide by dissimilatory drift. This is why Japanese learners have the tendency to assimilate the English /ɪ-/I/ contrast to all-encompassing Japanese /ɪ/, with the English /I/ being perceptually more similar to the Japanese /ɪ/ than to the English /ɪ/. In the similar vein, Wenk (Wenk, 1985) who studied non-native speakers' production of English rhythm offers additional support for the negative L1 transfer. He concluded that native language influenced learners' production of English-like stress alternation above the level of word. This means that this negative transfer is a mental and communicative process via which L2 learners develop their inter-language skills by activating and using their previous linguistic knowledge. This previous linguistic knowledge is, arguably, one of the main obstacles to a native or native-like pronunciation.

With regard to the abovementioned, it is possible to draw the conclusion that the native language and its sound system can influence the pronunciation of a target language in the following ways. First, at a phonological level, if a target language sound is missing from the learners' native sound inventory, in these cases, learners may have problems pronouncing or perceiving such target sounds. Second, if phonotactic constraints differ in the learners' mother tongue from the rules present in the target language, they may cause challenges for learners since these rules are language-specific. For example, as opposed to English, certain languages (like Chinese) have no consonant clusters and consonants are always separated by vowels. Thirdly, the rhythm and melody of a language are sometimes invaluable tools in determining the emotional state of interlocutors. They, relatively quickly become hardwired to a person's way of thinking so it is not surprise that learners want to stay inside their pronunciation comfort zone and transfer pronunciation patterns they are familiar with into the target language. All of these elements may be helpful for teachers in terms of their ability to understand all the challenges laid before the learners when learning any language as a second language. Having these elements in mind, may help teachers/instructors/other professionals identify the pronunciation difficulties experienced by non-native speakers.

IV. HOW TO NAVIGATE THROUGH THE PRONUNCIATION OBSTACLE COURSE?

Pronunciation should be taught within a communicative and meaning-based framework. This means that lectures on English phonology is not sufficient, since pronunciation is not a simple sum of "pieces" of knowledge. The point we wish to convey in this paper is that while knowledge of phonetics and phonology is certainly beneficial, it is by no means sufficient for pronunciation classes. Additionally, we believe it is useful to think of learning to pronounce a new language as a combination of concept formation as well as a physical skill.

A. *Communicative Context for Pronunciation*

If the learners are explicitly explained of how pronunciation fits within the general communication framework this may be rather beneficial for them. In this manner, they can gain a clear, practical idea of the nature of pronunciation that should improve their ability to communicate in real life contexts. Furthermore, this framework places its focus on the listener's experience of their speech. In this way, teachers can reduce nervousness and the expectation of failure, which may directly facilitate better "production" in terms of pronunciation. Another point worth mentioning is that learners should know that accents are perfectly nice, it is incomprehensibility that is "bad", not the accent as such. In order to make it easier for learners, we should not make them imitate a native accent but to create intelligible messages, i.e. to make themselves understood. This can be achieved if a foreign language classroom defines errors in terms of intelligibility rather than in terms of non-achievement of a perfect or native model. This also allows teachers to promote successful communication and avoid focussing on deviations from native-like production. In order to improve learners' pronunciation, it is necessary to blur the lines between segmental and suprasegmental aspects of speech, which enables learners to acquire the information structure of speech, which may be exceptionally beneficial in teaching prosody.

B. *Learner-centred Approach*

This approach is based on practicing real communicative situations that will be directly useful to them in their real lives. In terms of pronunciation, we are of the opinion that phrases and sentences should be in the focus, but we must not forget about individual sounds and words that should always be discussed within the context of communicative use of language. This means that, ideally, the material learned in class should be perfectly applicable to the learner's real world. However, teachers need to be aware of the fact that learners hear speech very differently and this is why speech and pronunciation should be taught in ways that are logical to the learners. Another point of learner-centred approach is to encourage learners to develop their own skills, which means they should not always rely on the teacher's feedback. In this way, learners are better equipped with tools that will enable them to diagnose and repair pronunciation errors.

V. CONCLUSION

Pronunciation is, undoubtedly, one of the most demanding aspects of any language. This skill is arguably one of the most difficult to master and, quite often, the least favourite skill for teachers to address in the classroom. Due to this, we should pay more attention to language pronunciation since there seems to be a strong correlation between good pronunciation and understanding the language-related subtleties. More attention would help teachers and other language-related professionals understand the importance of pronunciation. This would raise awareness and help teachers pay more attention to the students' needs and incorporate pronunciation into their classes and teach both segmental and supra-segmental features, whenever appropriate. Additionally, pronunciation must not be viewed as correct production of isolated sounds, words or phrases. Instead, pronunciation as an integral part of communication should be an essential part of classroom activities. Teachers should start by explaining elements such as sounds, syllables, stress and intonation. Once the students grasp these elements and the way they function, teachers can proceed and build upon this basic awareness. Pronunciation can also be advanced if teachers insist of a relaxed, context-based environment that gradually builds pronunciation skills for both formal and informal purposes. In order to achieve this, we can use different pronunciation-enhancement tools such as: social strategies (interacting with native classmates, asking for clarification, reducing social distance), cognitive strategies (reading in English, taking notes), affective strategies (finding methods to reduce nervousness and anxiety, talking to family or peers about how you feel when you learn a foreign language), metacognitive strategies (contemplating on one's own learning, planning to learn) and compensation strategies (looking for contextual or visual cues, making educated and guesses, using gestures to convey your ideas).

REFERENCES

- [1] Avery, P., & Ehrlich, S. (1992). *Teaching American English Pronunciation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [2] Baker, A. (1981). *Ship or sheep? An intermediate pronunciation course*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [3] Bialystok, E. (1997). The structure of age: in search of barriers to second language acquisition. *Second Language Research*, 13(2), 116-137.
- [4] Bley-Vroman, R. (1989). What is the logical problem of foreign language learning? (S. M., & J. Schachter, Eds.) *Linguistic perspectives on second language acquisition*, 41-68.
- [5] Burri, M., Baker, A., & Acton, W. (2016). Anchoring academic vocabulary with a "hard hitting" haptic pronunciation teaching technique. In T. Jones, *Pronunciation in the classroom: The overlooked essential* (pp. 17-26). Alexandria: TESOL.
- [6] Celce-Murcia, M., Brinton, D., & Goodwin, J. (1996). *Teaching Pronunciation: A reference for teachers of English to speakers of other language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [7] Crystal, D. (2003). *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- [8] Davis, C. (1999). Will the use of videos designed for the purpose of teaching English pronunciation improve the learners' production of discrete sounds by at least 80% over a 12-week period? A Section 353 Project of the Pennsylvania Department of Education, Bureau of Adult Basic and Literacy Education: Pennsylvania Action Research Network.
- [9] Derwing, T. M., & Munro, M. (2015). *Pronunciation fundamentals: Evidence-based perspectives for L2 teaching and research*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- [10] Derwing, T. M., & Munro, M. J. (2005). Second language accent and pronunciation teaching: A research-based approach. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39, 379-397.
- [11] Elliot, A. R. (1995). Field independence/dependence, hemispheric specialization, and attitude in relation to pronunciation accuracy in Spanish as a foreign language. *The Modern Language Journal*, 79(3), 356-371.
- [12] Field, J. (2005). Intelligibility and the listener: The role of lexical stress. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39(3), 399-423.
- [13] Flege, J. (1995). Two methods for training a novel second-language phonetic contrast. *Applied Linguistics*, 16, 425-442.
- [14] Hinofotis, F., & Baily, K. (1980). American undergraduate reaction to the communication skills of foreign teaching assistants. In *TESOL '80: Building Bridges: Research and Practice in TESL*. Alexandria: V.A.
- [15] Ioup, G., Boustagui, E., Tigi, M., & Moselle, M. (1994). Reexamining the critical period hypothesis: a case study of successful adult SLA in a naturalistic environment. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 16, 73-98.
- [16] Lenneberg, E. H. (1967). *The geological foundations of language*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- [17] Low, E. L. (2006). A review of recent research on speech rhythm: Some insights for language acquisition, language disorders and language teaching. (R. Hughes, Ed.) *Spoken English, TESOL and applied linguistics: Challenges for theory & practice*.
- [18] O'Brien, M. G. (2004). Pronunciation matters. *Teaching German*, 37(1), 1-9.
- [19] Pennington, M. (1994). Recent research in L2 phonology: Implications for practice. (J. Morley, Ed.) *Pronunciation pedagogy and theory. New views, new directions*, 92-108.
- [20] Reed, M., & Levis, J. (2015). *Handbook of English pronunciation*. West Sussex, England: Wiley-Blackwell.

- [21] Schumann, J. (1986). An Acculturation Model for Second Language Acquisition. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 7:5, 379-392.
- [22] Snow, C. (1987). Beyond conversation: Second language learners' acquisition of description and explanation. (J. Lantolf, & A. Labarca, Eds.) *Research in second language learning: Focus on the classroom*, 3.16.
- [23] Suter, R. W. (1976). Predictors of pronunciation accuracy. *Language Learning*, 26(2), 233-253.
- [24] Wenk, B. (1985). Speech Rhythms in Second Language Acquisition. *Language and Speech*, 28(2), 157-175.
- [25] Zielinski, B. (2012). The social impact of pronunciation difficulties: Confidence and willingness to speak. *Proceedings of the 3rd Pronunciation in Second Language Learning and Teaching Conference* (pp. 18-22). Ames: Iowa State University.

Igor Ivanović graduated from the Faculty of Arts, Nikšić, in 2006. He earned his Master's degree in Translation in 2009 at the Institute of Foreign Languages in Podgorica. In his Master Thesis, he dealt with loanwords and their influence on Montenegrin. In 2014, he finished his PhD studies at the Faculty of Philology in Belgrade and the topic of his dissertation was "Contrastive Analysis of the EU Terminology through the Perspective of Corpus Linguistics".

He is interested in Corpus Linguistics, Discourse Analysis and CAT Tools. Apart from his teaching obligations at the University of Montenegro, he is very active in written translation pertaining to the following fields: Medicine, Law, Engineering and Economics. In October 2011, he became a Certified Court Interpreter. Apart from his home institution, the Faculty of Philosophy, he is currently engaged at the following faculties: Medicine, Biotechnical, Material Science and Mechanical Engineering where he teaches General English and English for Special Purposes.

Quality Assessment of English Teaching at the Newly Established Universities in Saudi Arabia: Shaqra University as a Case Study

Hmoud S. Alotaibi

English Language Department, Shaqra University, KSA

Abstract—As the case world-wide, the English language is central in Saudi schools and universities. Despite its prominence, students' level of English language proficiency is generally believed to be unsatisfactory. This study explores this issue by investigating the quality of teaching with reference to the extent to which professors do employ the course assessment methods of learning domains specified in the course specifications template, provided by the National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment in Saudi Arabia, as one of the main factors for improving teaching processes. To this end, 12 courses in the English BA program at Shaqra university, a newly established university in Saudi Arabia, were investigated. The results have shown a significant problem in the quality of teaching English language. First, the learning domains, i.e. Knowledge, Cognitive Skills, Interpersonal Skills, were barely seen in the exam papers. Second, the methods of assessments specified in the course specifications were moderately used by instructors. The study closes with some suggestions for future investigations.

Index Terms—ELT, quality, methods of assessment, learning outcomes

I. INTRODUCTION

Higher education in Saudi Arabia has witnessed considerable development over the last years in both quality and quantity to cope with world economic changes and globalization (Elyas, 2008). The objectives of the new educational policy are threefold: (1) to provide all citizens with educational opportunities and advantages, (2) to raise the quality of teaching/learning and (3) to boost the teaching of foreign languages (Hamdan, 2005). Undergraduate programs in the English departments at Saudi universities offer courses in linguistics and literature in addition to some other general courses. Yet, studies conducted over the last decade in the Saudi context have revealed that English graduates from these programs have limited command of English language (Al-Seghayer, 2011). Indeed, the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia has been complaining about the plummeting levels of English language competence of English teachers, which can be manifested by the failure records in the English Language Entrance Proficiency Test given to candidates applying to teach English at the Ministry of Education. Al-Seghayer (2011) noted that according to the Educational Testing Services (ETS) reports from 2003 to 2009, "Saudi students who took the Test of English as a Foreign language (TOEFL) scored the lowest among Middle Eastern and Asian college students" (p. 82). It is both interesting and alarming to note that the low level of English language proficiency among Saudi students is found even among graduates holding a Bachelor's degree in English. This has motivated language researchers to investigate the contributing factors to this phenomenon. In recent years, there has been a massive expansion in higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia, the fact that necessitates conducting more studies to help in designing appropriate methodologies for teaching the English language that suit these new environments. Indeed, the twelve newly established universities, along with other colleges in small towns and villages, require immediate evaluation of the current methodologies of ELT. Some students acknowledge their low proficiency and choose to take intensive English courses abroad upon their graduation. Moreover, the newly graduates of English are not only unable to work for the Ministry of Education, but also they might face difficulties working in companies and sectors that require good command of English language. Hence, the present study's problem stems from the need to investigate and address this serious issue. The study aims to explore the main causes of the low proficiency of English among university students by evaluating the quality of teaching English language based on the templates provided by the National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment in Saudi Arabia.

Previous studies on students' low proficiency of English language at newly established universities have focused on the four language skills, namely writing (e.g. Al-Khairiy, 2013; Jahin & Idrees, 2012; Salebi, 2004), speaking (e.g. Baniabdelrahman, 2013), listening (e.g. Al-Enazi, 2010), and the integration of reading and writing (e.g. Aldosari, 2011). While these studies are important in the field of ELT to address the four language skills in Saudi institutions, there is still an important area that has not been addressed so far; that is the quality of teaching English language. Thus, this study examines the extent to which English language professors at Shaqra university, as a newly established university, adhere to the course specifications developed by the National Commission for Academic Accreditation and

Assessment in Saudi Arabia. The mission of this Commission, according to the manual published in the Commission's website, has been described as:

The National Commission for Academic Accreditation & Assessment (NCAAA) has been established in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia with responsibility for determining standards and criteria for academic accreditation and assessment and for accrediting postsecondary institutions and the programs they offer. The Commission is committed to a strategy of encouraging, supporting, and evaluating the quality assurance processes of postsecondary institutions to ensure that quality of learning and management of institutions are equivalent to the highest international standards. (p. 3).

The Commission has developed several templates to provide a clear guidance for procedures to be followed. The course specifications template in particular has been designed "so those who are to teach the course are clear about what is to be learned, what its contributions are to the overall program, and how its effectiveness should be assessed" (p. 32). The manual also maintained that

Individual course specifications must be prepared for each course in a program, and kept on file with the program specifications. The purpose is to make clear the details of planning for the course as part of the package of arrangements to achieve the intended learning outcomes of the program as a whole. Consequently, course specifications include the knowledge and skills to be developed in keeping with the NQF [National Qualifications Framework] and the overall learning outcomes of the program, the strategies for teaching and assessment in sufficient detail to guide individual instructors. Course learning outcomes, teaching strategies, and teaching methods are to be in alignment. (p. 34).

Therefore, the present study seeks to investigate the course specifications of 12 English courses in the English BA programs at Shaqra university. Two areas in each course specifications template will be examined:

1- NQF Learning Domains and Course Learning Outcomes.

A- Knowledge

B- Cognitive Skills

C- Interpersonal Skills

2- Course Assessment Methods

Specifically, the study seeks to answer the following research questions:

a) Have the methods of course assessment, indicated in the "course specification" templates, been used in teaching the selected 12 courses?.

b) Is there any variation with respect to the employment of the three learning domains (i.e. knowledge, cognitive skills, and interpersonal skills)?

c) In the light of the two previous questions, does the gender of the instructor play any role?

II. METHODOLOGY

The data comprise the course specification of 12 courses in the BA English program at Shaqra university, a newly established university in Saudi Arabia. The courses are chosen because they cover the basic language skills, namely reading, writing, listening, and speaking, in addition to grammar. The courses are the following:

ENG 111 (Basic Language Skills),

ENG 112 (Listening and Speaking-1),

ENG 113 (Reading Comprehension -1),

ENG 114 (Composition-1),

ENG 115 (Reading Comprehension-2),

ENG 116 (Grammar),

ENG 120 (Vocabulary Building),

ENG 122 (Listening and Speaking-2),

ENG 213 (Composition-2),

ENG 312 (Essay Writing),

ENG 412 (Speech), and

ENG 413 (Advanced Writing).

The course specification template is designed by the National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment in Saudi Arabia, yet teachers have to supply the content. The Deanship of Quality and Development at Shaqra university has managed to unify the content of course specifications in all similar academic programs. Shaqra University has six English departments distributed in six colleges, but the course specification of each academic course is only one which is approved by the Deanship of Quality and Development.

The course specification of each course was retrieved and two sections, i.e. a) NQF Learning Domains and Course Learning Outcomes (Knowledge, Cognitive Skills, Interpersonal Skills), b) Course Assessment Methods were investigated. In the cases where the assessment methods indicated "exam," whether final or mid-term, the exam sheets were collected from the instructors. In the cases where the assessment methods could not be verified by the researcher, a questionnaire was designed to inquire about the employment of the assessment methods that have been indicated in the course specifications. In the questionnaire and due to space constraints, we report the responses (Yes/No) to the employment of the methods of assessment. In the analysis of the exam papers, however, we provide full account of the

employment of the learning domains (Knowledge, Cognitive skills and Interpersonal skills). A total of 25 instructors filled in the questionnaire. For each course, however, the questionnaire gave a chance to skip the question if the instructor did not teach the course; thus the number of instructors varied in each course.

III. RESULTS

A. The Employment of the Learning Domains in the Exam Papers

This part covers the investigation of using the three learning domains, i.e. knowledge, cognitive skills, and interpersonal skills, in the two mid-term and final exams according to what has been indicated in the course specifications. The papers of exams were collected, and for each course, one package of exams from male instructors was selected and similarly one package from the female group was selected for thorough review. Tables 1, 2, and 3 present the findings of the analysis of using learning domains in the 1st Mid-term exam, 2nd Mid-term exam, and final exam, respectively.

TABLE 1.
THE EMPLOYMENT OF THE LEARNING DOMAINS IN THE 1ST MID-TERM EXAM

1 st Mid	Knowledge			Cognitive			Interpersonal		
	Indicated	Employed		Indicated	Employed		Indicated	Employed	
	M/F	Male	Female	M/F	Male	Female	M/F	Male	Female
ENG 111	3	3	3	4	2	1	3	1	1
ENG 112	2	2	1	4	2	0	5	2	2
ENG 113	1	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1
ENG 114	4	2	2	6	1	0	4	3	2
ENG 115	5	2	2	2	0	0	3	1	1
ENG 116	3	1	3	3	1	1	3	1	1
ENG 120	3	1	1	2	1	1	3	1	1
ENG 122	4	1	2	3	0	0	6	1	1
ENG 213	4	1	1	3	1	2	3	0	0
ENG 312	5	1	0	4	1	3	4	1	1
ENG 412	3	0	2	4	1	1	4	0	0
ENG 413	4	2	2	4	3	1	4	1	1
Average	3.4	1.3	1.6	3.4	1.08	0.9	3.6	1	1
x ² -value		14.267	12.133		16.200	18.000		18.667	21.333
Sig		.014*	.033*		.006*	.003*		.005*	.002*

TABLE 2.
THE EMPLOYMENT OF THE LEARNING DOMAINS IN THE 2ND MID-TERM

2 nd Mid	Knowledge			Cognitive			Interpersonal		
	Indicated	Employed		Indicated	Employed		Indicated	Employed	
	M/F	Male	Female	M/F	Male	Female	M/F	Male	Female
ENG 111	3	3	3	4	2	1	3	1	1
ENG 112	2	0	1	4	2	0	5	2	2
ENG 113	1	1	0	2	0	0	2	1	0
ENG 114	4	2	1	6	1	0	4	3	2
ENG 115	5	1	2	2	0	0	3	1	1
ENG 116	3	1	1	3	1	1	3	1	1
ENG 120	3	1	1	2	1	1	3	1	1
ENG 122	4	1	2	3	0	0	6	1	1
ENG 213	4	1	1	3	1	1	3	0	0
ENG 312	5	1	0	4	1	3	4	1	1
ENG 412	3	0	2	4	1	1	4	0	0
ENG 413	4	2	1	4	3	1	4	1	1
Average	3.4	1.16	1.25	3.4	1.08	0.75	3.6	1.08	0.91
x ² -value		9.943	9.943		24.000	24.000		21.000	21.000
Sig		.127	.127		.001*	.001*		.001*	.001*

TABLE 3.
THE EMPLOYMENT OF THE LEARNING DOMAINS IN THE FINAL EXAM

Final	Knowledge			Cognitive			Interpersonal		
	Indicated	Employed		Indicated	Employed		Indicated	Employed	
	M/F	Male	Female	M/F	Male	Female	M/F	Male	Female
ENG 111	3	2	3	4	2	1	3	1	1
ENG 112	2	0	1	4	2	0	5	2	2
ENG 113	1	1	1	2	0	2	2	1	1
ENG 114	4	2	2	6	4	1	4	3	2
ENG 115	5	1	2	2	0	0	3	1	1
ENG 116	3	2	3	3	1	1	3	1	1
ENG 120	3	1	2	2	1	1	3	1	1
ENG 122	4	0	2	3	0	0	6	1	1
ENG 213	4	2	2	3	1	2	3	0	0
ENG 312	5	2	0	4	1	3	4	1	1
ENG 412	3	0	0	4	0	0	4	0	0
ENG 413	4	2	2	4	3	1	4	1	1
Average	3.4	1.25	1.6	3.4	1.25	1	3.6	1.08	1
x ² -value		7.633	11.048		21.333	15.700		21.000	21.000
Sig		.266	.087		.002*	.015*		.001*	.001*

The results indicate an evident gap between what has been indicated in the course specifications and what has actually been assessed. For the knowledge skills, we see that there are 3.4 items that are indicated in the course specifications which should be assessed through mid-term and final exams. However, we see that the instructors, male and females, have assessed between 1.16- 1.6 items with a slight rise in the female group. The investigation of employing the Cognitive skills shows the same problem, as what has been indicated in the course specifications is an average of 3.4 items while what has been actually assessed in the exam sheets ranges from 0.75 to 1.25. A very interesting gender difference is noted as male instructors do better in assessing Cognitive skills throughout the three exam types. The assessment of Interpersonal Skills in the exam papers is the least among the three learning domains, as there are 3.6 items indicated in the course specifications but an average of 0.9 to 1.08 are assessed. Again, male instructors do better in assessing Interpersonal Skills according to the second-midterm and finale exam papers. Chi-square test has been performed to see whether the previous results are statistically significant. All previous results are found to be statistically significant except for those of Knowledge domain in second-mid-term and final exam paper.

B. The Employment of the Methods of Assessment

This section reports the findings regarding whether the methods of assessment are actually used by instructors according to what are indicated in the course specifications. In some courses, the course specifications do not indicate any method of assessment and consequently these are not included in the questionnaire. Instructors are asked to choose Yes or No for each item (i.e. method of assessment) in order to verify that they actually use the methods of assessment. Table 4 summarizes the overall results of the employment the methods of assessments that have been indicated in the course specifications. Table 5 focuses on the male group, and Table 6 reports the responses indicated by female instructors.

TABLE 4.
THE RESPONSES REGARDING USING THE METHODS OF ASSESSMENT

Method	Class Participation		Quizzes		Pair Work		Home Assignment		Oral Presentation		Project	
	Yes %	No %	Yes %	No %	Yes %	No %	Yes %	No %	Yes %	No %	Yes %	No %
ENG 111	63.6	36.4	80	20	60	40	60	40				
ENG 112	87.5	12.5	66.7	33.3	87.5	12.5			81.3	18.8		
ENG 113	92.3	7.7	76.9	23.1	61.5	38.5						
ENG 114	76.9	23.1	66.7	33.3	50	50	66.7	33.3				
ENG 115	90.9	9.1	70	30			81.8	18.2			45.5	54.5
ENG 116	80	20	60	40	40	60	70	30				
ENG 120	90.9	9.1	81.8	18.2			83.3	16.7	18.2	81.8	18.2	81.8
ENG 122	91.7	8.3			72.7	27.3			75	25		
ENG 213	87.5	12.5	85.7	14.3			88.9	11.1				
ENG 312	100	0	77.8	22.2			87.5	12.5			57.1	42.9
ENG 412									80	20		
ENG 413	100	0			71.4	28.6			42.9	57.1	100	0
Average	87.4	12.6	74	26	63.3	36.7	76.9	23.1	59.5	40.5	55.2	44.8

TABLE 5.
THE RESPONSES REGARDING USING THE METHODS OF ASSESSMENT BY MALE INSTRUCTORS

Male Yes/No %	Class Participation		Quizzes		Pair Work		Home Assignment		Oral Presentation		Project	
	Yes %	No %	Yes %	No %	Yes %	No %	Yes %	No %	Yes %	No %	Yes %	No %
ENG 111	100	0	100	0	66.6	33.3	66.6	33.3	-	-	-	-
ENG 112	100	0	100	0	80	20	-	-	80	20	-	-
ENG 113	100	0	100	0	66.6	33.3	-	-	-	-	-	-
ENG 114	100	0	66.6	33.3	66.6	33.3	100	0	-	-	-	-
ENG 115	100	0	100	0	-	-	100	0	-	-	66.6	33.3
ENG 116	100	0	100	0	50	50	100	0	-	-	-	-
ENG 120	100	0	75	25	-	-	100	0	25	75	25	75
ENG 122	100	0	-	-	75	25	-	-	50	50	-	-
ENG 213	75	25	75	25	-	-	100	0	-	-	-	-
ENG 312	100	0	100	0	-	-	100	0	-	-	66.6	33.3
ENG 412	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	60	40	-	-
ENG 413	100	0	-	-	66.6	33.3	-	-	33.3	66.6	100	0
Average	97.7	2.3	90.7	9.3	67.4	32.6	95.3	4.7	49.7	50.3	64.6	35.4

TABLE 6.
THE RESPONSES REGARDING USING THE METHODS OF ASSESSMENT BY FEMALE INSTRUCTORS

Female Yes/No %	Class Participation		Quizzes		Pair Work		Home Assignment		Oral Presentation		Project	
	Yes %	No %	Yes %	No %	Yes %	No %	Yes %	No %	Yes %	No %	Yes %	No %
ENG 111	75	25	100	0	75	25	50	50	-	-	-	-
ENG 112	88.9	11.1	44.4	55.6	77.8	22.2	-	-	77.8	22.2	-	-
ENG 113	87.5	12.5	50	50	50	50	-	-	-	-	-	-
ENG 114	100	0	66.7	33.3	50	50	66.7	33.3	-	-	-	-
ENG 115	85.7	14.3	57.2	42.8	-	-	71.4	28.6	-	-	28.6	71.4
ENG 116	83.3	16.7	50	50	33.3	66.7	66.7	33.3	-	-	-	-
ENG 120	85.7	14.3	85.7	14.3	-	-	71.4	28.6	0	100	0	100
ENG 122	100	0	-	-	83.3	16.7	-	-	100	0	-	-
ENG 213	100	0	100	0	-	-	100	0	-	-	-	-
ENG 312	100	0	60	40	-	-	60	40	-	-	20	80
ENG 412	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100	0	-	-
ENG 413	100	0	-	-	66.7	33.3	-	-	33.3	66.7	100	0
Average	91.5	8.5	68.2	31.8	62.3	37.7	69.5	30.5	62.2	37.8	37.1	62.8

It is important to note that the values of assessment methods in some courses in Table 1 (and consequently in Tables 2 and 3) are left blank because there is no indication in the course specifications that they are part of student assessment. It is beyond the scope of this paper to discuss the missing of each method of assessment. The questionnaire follows what has been indicated in the course specifications and verifies whether they are actually used. According to Table 4, we see that the methods of assessments (with varying degrees) were not always used, although they were indicated in the course specifications. Regarding the Class Participation, Table 4 shows that 12.6% of instructors write it in their course specifications, but actually do not use it. In fact, the percentage of 12.6 is still high as Class Participation is a very common method of assessment. Tables 5 and 6 indicate that there is no clear gender difference in using Class Participation as a method of assessment although the percentage of female instructors who do not apply it is higher than male professors. Concerning the use of Quizzes, Table 4 shows that around a quarter of professors do not use it as a method of assessment. Tables 5 and 6, explain that most female instructors do not use quizzes as a method of assessment. Also, the analysis of Pair Work as a method of assessment reveals a problem in the quality of teaching as 36.7% of instructors do not employ it to assess the learning domains specified in the course specifications. Tables 5 and 6 discern no significant difference due to gender though the percentage of female instructors who do not use Pair Work as a method of assessment is higher. Likewise, the investigation of using Home Assignments indicates a problem as nearly a quarter (23.1%) of instructors have reported that they do not use it as a method of assessment. According to Tables 5 and 6, female instructors are the ones who refrain the most from using this method of assessment. The case of Oral Presentation seems different as it is indicated as a method of assessment in the course specifications of five courses only. In these courses, around 40% of instructors do not use it as a method of assessment. The percentage of male instructors who do not use it is a slightly higher than that of female instructors. Finally, assigning Projects such as writing research papers is indicated in only 4 courses, and there is around 45% of professors do not actually use it as a method of assessment with a higher percentage in the female group.

IV. CONCLUSION

The purpose of the study is to examine the employment of the learning domains (knowledge, cognitive, and interpersonal skills) that are stated in the course specifications of 12 courses in the BA English program at a newly established university in Saudi Arabia. First, the exam papers of these courses are collected and analyzed to verify that the learning domains are assessed in the exams. Second, a questionnaire is given to the instructors of these courses to

examine to what extent the methods of assessment are used to assess the indicated learning domains. The analysis of the exam papers has yielded striking findings as the learning outcomes specified in the course specifications are scarcely found. Likewise, the instructors' responses to using the methods of assessment, described in the course specifications, are not always positive. For some methods, around 45% of instructors maintain that they do not use the specified method of assessment as part of their assessment to the learning outcomes. These findings clearly indicate a problem in the quality of teaching the English language as the learning outcomes specified in the course specifications are not taken seriously by instructors. Hence, we argue that overlooking the employment of learning domains by instructors may negatively reflect on students' learning outcomes in the English BA program as a whole and could consequently be added to factors responsible for low level of English proficiency.

Yet, before we make broad generalizations, some limitations of the study need to be addressed. First, the study focuses on two English departments at Shaqra University which has six English departments. Therefore, the results might have been different if the investigation had covered all of the English departments at this university. Secondly, the study has been investigated in only one university, and to have a clearer picture of the extent to which instructors follow the course specifications, more comprehensive research in the future is recommended to include a larger number of universities in Saudi Arabia. Thirdly, due to the space constraints, the analysis of the questionnaire has been restricted to the employment of methods of assessment in general without investigating the learning domains under each method. Thus, future studies are advised to make thorough investigations of the course specifications and also should examine the parts that have not been covered in this study such as the objectives of the course. Despite these limitations, this study is informative and useful for professors and curriculum designers at Shaqra University and other universities in Saudi Arabia as it draws attention to a salient issue related to the quality of teaching the English language.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The work reported in this paper was supported by a research grant from the Deanship of Scientific Research at Shaqra University (D170426/G01/N005). The author is grateful for this financial support.

REFERENCES

- [1] Aldosari, H. (2011). Effects of integrating reading and writing during the reading process on EFL English writing in a Saudi college course: a quasi-experimental study. Paper Presented at the First International Forum on Academic Teaching: Social Inclusion and Information and Communication Technology, 3rd to 5th October 2011, Uberlandia, Minas Gerais, Brazil.
- [2] Al-Enazi, M. (2010). A Suggested model for developing listening skill for first year English department students at Arar college of education. Unpublished MA thesis. King Abdulaziz University.
- [3] Al-Khairiy, M. (2013). Saudi English-major undergraduates' academic writing problems: Taif university perspective. *English Language Teaching*, 6(6): 1-12.
- [4] Al-Seghayer, K. (2011). English teaching in Saudi Arabia: Status, issues, and challenges. Hala Print Co. Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.
- [5] Baniabdelrahman, A. (2013). Effect of using internet tools on enhancing EFL students' speaking skill. *American International Journal of Contemporary Research*, 3(6):79-87.
- [6] Elyas, T. (2008). The Attitude and the Impact of American English as a Global Language within the Saudi Education System. *Novitas-ROYAL: Research on Youth and Language*, 2(1): 28-48.
- [7] Hamdan, A. (2005). Women education in Saudi Arabia: challenges and achievements. *International Education Journal*. 6(1), 42-64.
- [8] Jahin, J. & Idrees, M. (2012). EFL major student teachers' writing proficiency and attitudes towards learning English, *Umm Al-Qura University Journal of Educational & Psychologic Sciences*, 4(1), 9-72.
- [9] National Commission for Academic Accreditation & Assessment Handbook for Quality Assurance and Accreditation Part 2, Version 3, October 2015. (Retrieved from www.ncaaa.org.sa on February 15, 2018).
- [10] Salebi, M. (2004). Saudi college students' perception of their errors in written English. *Scientific Journal of King Faisal University*, 5(2): 209-228.

Hmoud Alotaibi holds a PhD in Written Discourse from Texas A&M University-Commerce, Texas, USA, and M.A. in English literature from Cleveland State University, Ohio, USA. He works as a dean of graduate studies, and an associate professor of English at Shaqra University, Saudi Arabia. His research interests are genre analysis, academic writing, and English for academic purposes.

Aporias in Literary Translation: A Case Study of *The Prophet* and Its Translations

Maya El Hajj

Department of English and Translation, Notre Dame University-Louaize, Beirut, Lebanon

Abstract—Literary translation is one of the most challenging tasks in the field of translation. This paper focuses on the aporias in literary texts written and/or translated into Arabic, French, Italian, and English. I contend that some terms/phrases are difficult to render in the target text. This argument is bolstered by examples extracted from *The Prophet* of the Arabo-American author Gibran Kahlil Gibran. I selected this particular oeuvre given its immense success in terms of vast cultural diffusion and translation into various languages. Also, *The Prophet*, has been translated several times into the same target languages in addition to the large number of languages to which it has been rendered. I will discuss the translator's dilemma when undertaking the task of faithfully conveying the aesthetics of the original text into the same, or into the closest version of the original. This paper concentrates on the cultural differences between languages by emphasizing on untranslatability and various retranlations. It analyzes how these elements were rendered into the target culture and language. The argument put forth in this paper attempts to shed light on the importance of literary translation, as one of the most critical discourses of translation.

Index Terms—literary translation, *The Prophet*, retranlation, Gibran Kahlil Gibran, languages

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper centers on the aporias in literary texts written and/or translated into Arabic, French, Italian, and English. I assert that some terms/phrases are practically difficult to render in the target text; and, when rendered, the difficulty of the original or the lack of research or knowledge of the translator, the misinterpretation of the source text or simply the cultural differences will result in an output of significantly negative quality. I support this argument with typical examples, extracted from the renowned Arabo-American author, Gibran Kahlil Gibran and his masterpiece, written in English, *The Prophet*. I will discuss the translator's dilemma when undertaking the task of faithfully conveying the aesthetics of the original text into the closest, level of the original. As mentioned earlier, I selected this particular work taking into account its accomplishment in terms of multi-cultural diffusion and translation into numerous languages. These examples serve to demonstrate the arduous task and immense responsibility the literary translator faces. In addition, I refer to the example of *The Prophet* that has been retranlated several times (see Appendix A) into the same target language, Italian and French, besides the large number of languages in different geographic regions to which it has been translated (see Fig.1). Europe had the highest share of the number of translations of the first edition of *The Prophet* followed by Asia, attesting to the European and Asia interest in this type of literary translations probably due to their artistic aura that meant to him a great deal.

The Prophet lives in Orphalese for almost a period of twelve years. He is about to board a ship to go back home when he is interrogated by a group of people with whom he has conversed about topics related to life. The themes of the book deal with love, marriage, children, joy, sorrow, freedom, passion, friendship, prayer, beauty, religion, death etc. Quoting Alexandre Najjar (2018) in the preface of a recent study on *The Prophet* in an Arabic and French comparative linguistic analysis: "The undisclosed value of this work, which remains beyond genre classification, lies in its message; it is simple yet profound, transmitted in a poetic language imbued with imagery..." We notice that *The Prophet* presents its author's thoughts in a limpid and accessible manner; thus, all readers are able to savour it and draw life lessons". Gibran, when asked about the global need of *The Prophet*, could not help but answering that it was *The Prophet* that wrote him and not the opposite (Bushrui, 1970). Hence, I will undertake a comparative and analytical study at this stage, by scrutinizing the rationale behind retranlations in several cases. So, the intention is to examine the evolution of these translations and their assorted shortcomings. It is commonly known that translators embark on a lengthy process of research when it involves translating literary works before rendering the final output. This study will define this preparatory stage, establishing that when one item is missed the whole process—and eventually the final product—becomes incomplete or suffers major gaps. I will gradually shift from theories towards practical examples and highlight major difficulties at this level.

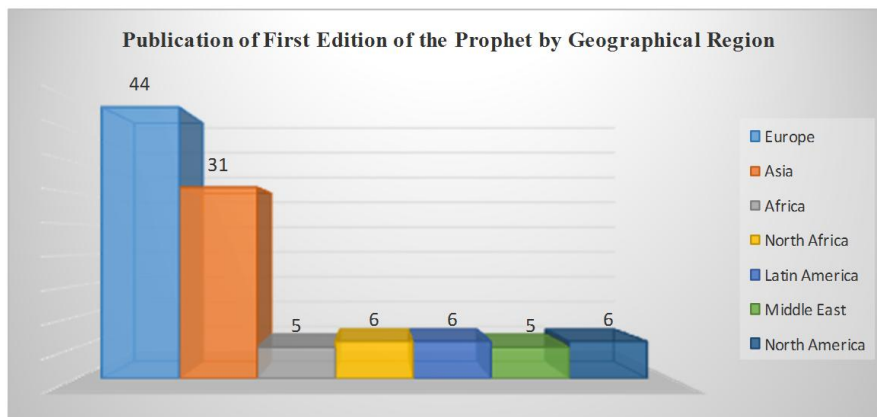


Figure 1: Publication of First Edition of *The Prophet* by Geographical Region

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Literary translation requires a high level of meticulousness. In order to render a literary text faithfully, one has to make sure that the message is rendered at all levels even when some untranslatable items occur or some foreign concepts prevail. "The translatability of linguistic structures would have to be considered even if they were untranslatable for human beings" (Benjamin, 2012, p.75). Thus, Benjamin raises an important controversial issue stating that if translation is intended for the reader then the original has to be also intended to the reader, and if it is not intended for the reader then how can this relationship allow us to understand the translation (ibid.). Accordingly, the translatability of linguistic structures has to be considered even if they are untranslatable for human beings (ibid. p.76). Apparent untranslatability results from structural incompatibilities between languages; then one can respond with potential translatability, with the possibility of expressing the concepts of human experience in any human language (Wilss, 1982). Von Goethe (2012) states that translation attempts to identify itself with the original; ultimately, it comes close to an interlinear version and greatly facilitates the understanding of the original source text. Translators are compelled and led back to the source text. The circle is complete within foreign and familiar elements, known and unknown. At this level, one may wonder of the utility of retranslation for the sake of overcoming some translation hurdles. Some translators retranslate some texts retranslated many times before. In an attempt to understand how can retranslation overcome some technical problems at the linguistic, cultural and stylistic levels. Deane- Cox (2014), in a study on Retranslation, starts with the premise that all literary translation is an act of interpreting which crystallizes a number of a conscious or unconscious misreadings of a given source text. Such readings are not solely determined by the source text and the source culture but also by values, beliefs, and representations in the target culture. Each retranslation will demonstrate how it is shaped by its socio-cultural conditions. Nasr (2018) highlights the same idea stating that more than one translation of *The Prophet* was achieved in Arabic and that some discrepancies exist between the different Arabic versions due to the socio-cultural backgrounds of the translator as it places so much pressure on his/her stylistic idiosyncrasies. If, according to Nasr, the first translation mentioned in our study that goes back to Antonios Bashir, is done during the time Gibran was alive, then what is the utility of the other versions?

III. METHODOLOGY

This paper employs discourse analysis of literary text of *The Prophet* translated into Arabic, French, Italian, and English. According to Blommaert and Bulcaen (2000), critical discourse analysts examine wide-ranging topics, including political discourse, ideology, racism, economic discourse, media language, gender, institutional discourse and education. This study employs discourse analysis to examine cross-cultural renditions through the prism of literary text taking *The Prophet* as a comparative case study. Broadly, critical discourse analysis of documents offers the possibility of illustrating certain aspects of aporias in literary translation highlighting challenges related to the accuracy of the renditions of the meanings reflecting particularities of each culture. This process includes interpretation of published material as a resource for analyses and syntheses (Fairclough, 1989) which is the subject of this paper. In particular, the paper focuses on the cultural differences in the several translations of *The Prophet* and analyzes how these elements were rendered into the target culture and language. The paper highlights the importance of literary translation, placing and considering it among the hardest in the translation field, and raising many critical issues at this level. I will be undertaking a comparative and analytical study at this level, rationalizing the utility and challenges of retranslations in several cases.

Research Questions

This paper seeks to answer the following research questions:

- 1- How can we remedy some terms or expressions that are difficult to render to the target language?
- 2- Did the translators accomplish their mission faithfully?

- 3- What is the utility of several retranslations into the same target languages?
- 4- How could recent quantitative studies highlight the importance of *The Prophet*?

Procedure

- 1- Unpublished data were obtained from an Italian colleague F. Medici and a Lebanese Australian colleague G. Kalem.
- 2- Those instruments led to the analysis of many aspects at the cultural and linguistic levels.
- 3- I analyzed the translated versions of *The Prophet* in Arabic, French, Italian, and English.
- 4- I perused the several retranslations into the same target language, Italian and French.
- 5- Key words related to Translation Studies were adopted for word crunching to provide solid evidence for this endeavor.

IV. ANALYSIS

a. Analysis

First, let us briefly introduce the Arabic, French and Italian translators of *The Prophet* that are mentioned in this study. I selected for the current study two translators for the Arabic versions, Antonios Bashir and Sarwat Akacha, and three for the French texts. The first is Paul-Jean Franceschini 1995; the second is Jean Pierre Dahdah: his translation dates back to June 10, 1993. The third, prefaced by Amin Maalouf, was equally achieved in 1993 by Janine Levy. In addition to our close collaboration with Francesco Medici's translation, various versions executed in Italian are mentioned throughout the study, as well. It is essential to note that many celebrated translators of the authors involved in this paper were either regarded skeptically -such as Francesco Medici and Jean Pierre Dahdah- who have so far translated most, if not all, of Gibran's archive, or closely examined. As researchers, we also scrutinized them meticulously. Some critics highlighted cultural difficulties, others, linguistic hurdles, and, in some cases, philosophical values and various complex ideas. *The Prophet* may be considered a mystical, poetic work expressed in prose—and/or a selection of poems. Such work has complexities and difficulties at several levels. It makes the translator proceed through many stages before attaining the final output and impel a lengthy mental process based on research and knowledge of the target culture. When it concerns assessing a literary translation, one often wonders whether the translator has accomplished the mission work faithfully. However, due to the arduousness of this task, some essential or extremely crucial elements may be overlooked. I will start my analysis by providing a few examples that confirm the importance of mastering soundly the object of the translation task, taking into account the concept of foreignization and domestication (Venuti, 2008).

b. Findings

The first practical example will shed lights on this issue:

English: The original text in English of (which work- *The Prophet*) reads like this: "Then the gates of his heart were flung open, and his joy flew far over the sea. And he closed his eyes and prayed in the silences of his soul." (*The Prophet*)

The Italian translation: "Allora d'improvviso gli si spalancarono le porte del cuore e la sua gioia volò lontano sulle onde. Chiuse gli occhi e pregò nei silenzi della sua anima." (Il Profeta, translated by Francesco Medici)

The French selected translations:

1-"Alors s'ouvrirent toutes grandes les portes de son coeur. Sa joie s'envola sur les flots. Et ses yeux se fermèrent, pour qu'en silence puisse prier son âme." (Le Prophète, Paul- Jean Franceschini)

2-"Les écluses de son coeur furent grandes ouvertes, et sa joie s'envola par-delà les flots. Puis, les yeux clos, il se recueillit dans les silences de son âme." (Le Prophète, translated by Jean- Pierre Dahdah)

3-"Alors les portes de son coeur s'ouvrirent à la volée et sa joie s'élança au loin, par dessus la mer. Et il ferma les yeux et il pria dans les silences de son âme." (Le Prophète, translated by Jeanne Levy).

The Arabic translation:

"فاختلج قلبه في أعماقه وطارت روحه فوق البحر فرحاً، فأغض عينيه ثم صلى في سكون نفسه" (*The Prophet*, translated by Antonios Bashir)

This straightforward example, "**The silences of his soul**", demonstrates accurately who truly understood Gibran's concept, and who, quite plainly, did not. Untranslatability could be also revealed at the semantic and intellectual levels. I consider that this typical example could highlight an extremely significant feature in literary translation. Gibran says, "Silences and not silence", and this is intentional. If Gibran were an undemanding poet, he would have used simply "silence", similar to the manner the first French translator did. The silences he refers to in this context are the different stages witnessed due to a profound transcendental meditation. By using silences, he alludes to an entire concept of religions where the soul has to undergo many stages of silence in order to be fully present. Gibran with this simple "silences" is evoking a philosophical issue that relates to his life and personal spiritual beliefs and philosophical thoughts. Gibran's phraseology or word usage was not employed randomly, according to the Italian translator F. Medici in one of his interviews (Gualdoni, 2005). The difficulty residing in such a text is going beyond or surpassing a simplistic, effortless translation of a complex poetic work. Many translators translated *The Prophet* of Gibran without stopping at philosophical features, which resulted in making their renditions quite different from the intended meaning of the original text. In this particular example, some would argue that Gibran is evoking a Sufi ideology. All the above-mentioned translations used "silences" in its plural form, except for the mentioned French translator, who definitely did

not entirely understand Gibran, and the Arabic translation, which is obliged to use the word “Sukun” in its singular form for linguistic issues. To support this interpretation, it deemed essential to examine, as researchers in language and translation studies, Gibran's numerous paintings. We then came to the conclusion that approximately 80% of his paintings portrayed individuals with their eyes closed. Perusing closer Gibran's vision, writings and interpretation, God's proximity prevents human beings from seeing Him. Closed eyes seemingly signify foraging God in one's spiritual realm. Closed eyes denote an inner, profound search that is far removed from the external and meaningless reality surrounding us. This concept is taken from Buddhism (as cited in *The Buddha and His Teachings*, 1998). By the use of this simple word in the plural form, one can sum up Gibran's entire thoughts and vision of life. This truth extends beyond what Venuti first described in translation as domestication and foreignization. Gibran's intentions could distinctly be comprehended: Gibran's writings and philosophy are patently aimed at a global notion. He never preferred the East—his beloved homeland Lebanon—to the West (the USA), where he lived a large part of his life. He attempted to merge both domains into a unique vision, belief, and global ideal that transcend differences. It is similar to appropriating ideas and concepts from a diversified source and eventually placing them jointly in the Human Unified Thought. Such an explanation occurs just to prove a feature in literary translation: in order to be a good literary translator, it is insufficient to merely understand the surface significance of a text, one has to associate intensely with the target object of the translation, thus grasping the texts' essence and vitality. As previously mentioned, Gibran was among the writers, poets and authors that were keenly aware of their word usage. This feature should have been thoroughly taken into account by translators before proceeding with their work. Mikhail Naimy (1975) mentioned in this context that *The Prophet* is not to be simply approached as a book of instructions; otherwise, no justice would be rendered to it. Its greater value lies in the mould in which those instructions are cast. The analysis is so far at the lexical level since the rendition of words and terms from a source language to a target language is a great proof of the interaction and barriers to overcome between languages and different cultures.

At this level, as I proceeded with the lexical analytical analysis, I intended to employ three proper names as examples to prove that every word utilized or selected by Gibran has a specific meaning, background, rich references and cultural connotation. Ignoring those factors is a major failure, and what applies to this text applies as well to the literary field as a whole. Gibran used a key character in *The Prophet* named "**Almitra**". Unintentionally, he wrote it as one word in the English language, quite definitely borrowing the word from Arabic. Translators rendered it as it is in the target language but few truly comprehended what it refers to in order to enable, at a later stage, an enhanced understanding of some concepts that led to a more faithful translation. Almitra is linked in some interpretations to a pivotal woman in Gibran's life called Mary Haskell—a constant, dependable guiding spirit to him, “Mary Haskell, subsequently became Gibran's confidante, patron and benefactor” (Bushrui, 2012). This actually very subjective explanation is not fully complete. Almitra recalls the form in the Arabic language that signifies rain that possesses an extremely purifying effect. In addition to that, Almitra represents the Goddess of **Zoroaster**--also known as Zarathustra—that denotes reconciliation and friendship (Dahdah, 1993). Except for the Italian translator, F. Medici, and the French translator, Jean- Pierre Dahdah, who fathomed the intended meaning, all translators with no exception wrote it as “Almitra”. Al in the Arabic language is the definite article that used to mean "divinity" as originally everything was defined by the divinity feature that represents it. (Dahdah, 1993) Almitra is the oriental name given by Gibran to this distinguished woman. The study shows that most translators did not understand the article "Al" and they attach it to the word as if it were part of it. Going back to our claim that some words are difficult to render to the target language, I have to mention at this level that this obviously easy word's hidden connotations and cultural background make the concept as a whole, if not culturally understood, a complete failure. In addition, the linguistic intricacy that exists at this level and that deals with linguistic differences make it even more challenging for translators.

Another example chosen to highlight the fact that the literary field is the most challenging of all translations, is that of "Al-Mustafa" **المصطفى**, the chosen and beloved, the first word employed in *The Prophet*. Gibran desired this work, as previously stated, to represent the entirety of his philosophical thought. His book is considered mystical. Besides, Al-Mustafa has a close link to the Sufi doctrine (Dahdah, 1993). Translators cannot while translating this book in particular search for sophisticated expressions that rhyme suitably; accordingly, they have to be exceedingly concise concerning the terms or vocabulary used. Gibran says to Mary Haskell that he is not interested in saying through his Prophet beautiful things but true ones instead (Hilu, 1972). Some translators failed to understand the sense or intention behind the choice of the name Al-Mustafa, and thus, duly misinterpreted it. For instance, the first Italian translation in 1936 names the hero, Ali Mustafa; it totally ignores the fact that Al-Mustafa signifies not any chosen person but the one and only. Gibran wished to provide a soul to a fusion between religions, in particular Christianity and Islam. “The reality is that it is a work of remarkable compassion, insight, hope and inspiration, with a timeless message that combines the dignity of the Christian Bible and the wisdom of the Sufis of Islam” (Bushrui, 2012). Unifying and providing a body and soul to the perfect human being resulting from a Sufi notion by excellence was his ultimate target.

The same interpretation applies to the month of **Lelool**. Gibran employed a phonetic system that cannot be used in other languages besides English, using the procedure of exotism (Venuti, 2008). Yet, all translators retained it as such without supplying it its value or relevant true meaning. As translators, they had either to transliterate correctly or simply translate. It is preferable to call attention to the month of September as is rather than translate it into Italian or French, hence creating a big loss in the translation process. Using the identical Anglophone forms in Italian or French or

Spanish is meaningless. The month of *Ielool* sounds exotic and attractive but only in English; I consider it cannot be applicable to other foreign languages. I cannot but mention the Italian version of Medici and the French version of Dahdah that appropriated the Arabic sound and bestowed it its true shape; that is what we call exotism and uttered *aylul* in Italian and *Ayloul* in French perfectly.

Another cultural reference of major import is the name of the city of **Orphalese**. Few scholars understood the real meaning of the name of the city—many opted for a geographical explanation. The most logical evocation, tracing the story of Gibran's life, is New York (Dahdah, 2003). **Orphalese**, the name of a metaphoric city, represents the Occident, the materialistic Occident as he views it. It is nothing less than the city he willingly wishes to abandon in order to head towards his blessed land. He ardently desires to return to his beloved land, Lebanon. **Orphalese** could have been related to Orphan, which is also the land deprived of spirituality, the closed city. Using the name **Orphalese**, Gibran is not only conferring about the Orient or the Occident, but about the Human Being, a spiritual entity. **Orphalese** could also represent Jerusalem in Arabic اوراشليم. Gibran perhaps wished to integrate a reference to one of holy cities of the three monotheist religions in his monumental book (F. Medici, personal communication, 2017). Referring to the cultural elements that prohibit sometimes a true comprehension of the text, a vitally informative example toward the end of the book has to be highlighted. This example is a clear response to my claim that some terms or expressions are so hard to render into the target language and give an importance to the literary translation field by making it one of the hardest tasks. This concept was interpreted and translated by most decoders. The majority or translators rendered simply the literal superficial meaning; however, one has to surpass the surface wordings to interpret well.

The book ends this way:

"A Little while, a moment of rest upon the wind, and another woman shall bear me."

The Italian Translation, with a clear understanding of the concept says:

"Un momento ancora, un attimo di calma del vento, e un'altra donna mi partorirà" F. Medici

The French first version by Paul- Jean Franceschini states:

"Un instant, un instant fugitive, un bref repos sur l'aile du vent, et dans son sein me portera une autre femme."

The French second version by Jean- Pierre Dahdah states:

"Un petit instant, un moment de repos sur le vent, et une autre femme me portera en son sein."

The French third version by Janine Levy

"Un court instant, un moment de repos sur le vent, et une autre femme me donnera naissance."

The Arabic version by Antonios Bashir:

" قليلا ولا ترونني، وقليلا وترونني، لان امرأة أخرى ستلدني "

The second Arabic version by Sarwat Akacha:

"أجل، هنيهة، بل لحظة قصيرة أخلد فيها إلى السكينة على متن الريح، ثم تحمل بي امرأة أخرى "

c. Discussion

The above-mentioned examples and straight translations serve to highlight the philosophical thought of Gibran and endeavor to interpret his own ideas in the target languages in accordance to them. In other words, one returns to this existence or world through reincarnation, according to the Druze doctrine. I am not certain to what extent the notion was understood but it evokes life, death, and eventually rebirth or reincarnation. The translator ought to have viewed the text as being a religious, sacred one, not simply as poetry or other literary genre. A simple addition by mostly all translators to the notion of (bringing me back to life) could have shown that the concept is clear. Most translators mentioned another woman who gives him life. I consider the info as incomplete as it confuses the audience that is unaware of Gibran's philosophical inclinations. How can another woman give him life? This is an untranslatable philosophical feature that has to be dealt with very meticulously. Back to our initial claim, one can never dissociate a text from its cultural background and this is the added value and biggest challenge of literary translated texts. Had the author not created his *Prophet* in a poetic form, it would have been regarded or classified as a sacred text; indeed, for many, it is perceived as such. In an interview, the Italian translator Medici (2005) states that *The Prophet* will never be forgotten or old fashioned. This is a controversial issue exhibiting Gibran's inclination towards reincarnation, or perhaps only a metaphor or reference to the Druze doctrine in addition to the indo-buddhist religion. It undoubtedly indicates Gibran's enormous interest in India. In one of many letters addressed to his Arabic translator, Antonios Bashir, he referred to *The Prophet* as a big success to be ranked at least with that of Mahatma Gandhi. He also referred to Buddha and the Goddess Kali. I face at this level an untranslatable hidden meaning. Reincarnation was not even hinted on by most translators. Gibran wanted intentionally to introduce the doctrine and part of his belief by the end of his book. This is the challenge of competent literary translator and eventually the arduous part of their task. A historic review regarding the retranslation of *The Prophet*, had its reasons highlighted. The examples exposed at this level will answer one of the research controversial issues that questions the utility of many retractions at the level of one language. My typical example is the Italian versions, *il Profeta*, since it appeared throughout history many times in the same language. Why do translators value retranslation if the text has already been translated several times? It is important to mention that Gibran's standing in Italy, as in the rest of the West, is related mostly to the great success of *The Prophet*. The first Italian edition of *The Prophet* (*Il Profeta*) was published in 1936, five years after the author's death. (Medici, 2013). *The Prophet* of Gibran figures in numerous scholarly Italian articles as follows:

- *The Prophet* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1923). - *Il Profeta*, preface by Augusto Mancini, trans. E. Niosi-Risos (Lanciano: Rocco Carabba, 1936).
- *Il Profeta*, trans. Salvatore Cossù (Roma: Kossù, 1966). - *Il Profeta*, preface by Carlo Bo, trans. Gian Piero Bona (Parma: Guanda 1968).
- *Il Profeta*, introduction and commentary by Suheil B. Bushrui, trans. Ariodante Marianni (Milano: Rizzoli, 1993).
- *Il Profeta*, trans. Piera Oppezzo and Nicola Crocetti (Milano: Mondadori 1993).
- *Il Profeta*, trans. and commentary Paolo Ruffilli (Cinisello Balsamo: Edizioni San Paolo, 1989).
- *Il Profeta*, preface by Adonis, trans. Davide Rondoni (Milano: Corbaccio 2000).
- *Il Profeta*, trans. and commentary Isabella Farinelli (Milano: Paoline Editoriale Libri, 2001).
- *Il Profeta*, trans. and commentary Hafez Haidar (Casale Monferrato: Piemme, 2002). - *Il Profeta*, trans. and commentary Francesco Medici (Cinisello Balsamo: Edizioni San Paolo, 2005).

As stated in the work of Deane Cox, quoting from Venuti, "to retranslate is to confront anew and more urgently the translator's ethical responsibility to prevent the translating language and culture from effacing the foreignness of the foreign text (Deane Cox, 2014, p. 14). Returning to our case study on the Italian versions, "with every reading and each retranslation, the source text is pluralized and one new and possible text comes to light. In this sense, it is the impermanence of the original, and not the deficiency of translation, which gives impulse to the reiterative act of retranslation." (Deane Cox, 2014, p. 192)

However, this is not totally the opinion of the Italian translator Francesco Medici, in an intervention commenting about the 2005 translation of *The Prophet*: "I wanted Gibran to be understood as a poet and a person. I truly appreciate all translations made since 1930 and they are numerous. Since that date, giving the fact that Gibran is well-known in Italy, the unique concern of translators was always to renovate the archaic translation. Only in Italy, the Italian translations and renditions of *The Prophet* are beyond hundreds. Mine came to draw Gibran, as I understood him after conducting many investigations about him as a person. Slightly before my translation in 2005, a beautiful translation appeared. The only default it had, and I consider it major, is that it limited Gibran. It only viewed him from a limited Catholic view. It did not really understand his religious inclinations. Besides, in many Italian translations, I notice the absence of stylistic simplicity as well, the absence of Gibran's true persona" (Gualdoni, 2005). In Medici's case, like in many other retranslations, be it mainly a "passionate recreation" within the limit of the respect of the sacred meaning, different stances occur when it comes to the utility of retranslation in general. However, study reveals that retranslation needs to be examined case per case in order to view, assess and determine its importance and utility. In the case of *The Prophet*, the depth of the cultural aspects, the strength of the ideas and themes raised in the book and the immortality of Gibran with his *Prophet* incited many translators to recreate this sacred book, seeking each time to try to touch on Gibran's thoughts and philosophy. With each retranslation, I could observe an attempt to be closer to his thoughts. It deems also very important at this level as well, to mention, a revelation of an unpublished discovery by two researchers, as a result of years of research. Glen Kalem (Sydney-Australia) and Francesco Medici (Bari-Italy), who are official members of the International Association for the Study of the Life and Work of Kahlil Gibran (University of Maryland, USA) have discovered that the Lebanese – American writer and poet Kahlil Gibran's *The Prophet*, long believed to have been translated into roughly 40 to 60 languages, out of which 50 languages already exist at the Gibran museum in Bcharre, Lebanon- has in fact been translated into *110 original first editions* in different languages and dialects, making it one of the top ten most translated books of all times, and making Gibran one of the most translated poets in the world. This exciting discovery follows years of meticulous research by Kalem and Medici. (available along with the full list of translations as an annex to this study handled to us by the researchers). This huge number of translation per language and retranslations within the same language prove that it was necessary to render this work worldwide. There must be a reason that goes beyond linguistic, cultural and stylistic study. I believe that such endeavours were seeking the internalization of his message.

The next step in a work of such complexity is to uncover the equivalence or appropriate translations to untranslatable expressions or difficult concepts, as Christine Durieux (2010) explains excellently in her article, "*Negocier un compromis*".

d. Concluding remarks

Gibran was fully aware of how hard the translation task is. Gibran himself used to care a great deal about the quality of translation of his literary works. Gibran's letters to Archbishop Antony Bashir were unknown and unpublished until November 11, 2004, when they appeared in the original Arabic in the Lebanese daily newspaper «*al-Nahār*» («*al-Mulhṭaq*») (Medici, 2010). Bashir was the first official translator of Gibran's works authorized by Gibran himself to translate from English into Arabic. This information is disclosed to emphasize the deep relation that has to occur between the writer and translator. However, his text was translated by two other translators. Here is an example that clearly indicates how meticulous Gibran was when it involved the translation of his thoughts and work. I knowingly selected this letter to demonstrate how Gibran himself acknowledged the creativity or ingenuity of the translator and his exacting task.

O Dear Brother,

*Your translation of *The Prophet* is an act of kindness towards me that I will gratefully remember as long as I live. My hope is that the readers of the Arabic language will **appreciate** your literary enthusiasm and afford it its due worth. In*

my judgment, the translator is a creator, whether people acknowledge this or not. As far as I am concerned, the most deserving of all people to write the introduction is you because he who spends days translating a book from one language to another is certainly the most knowledgeable of all people about the merits and shortcomings of that book. This is my opinion. However, I ask that you please do what you wish concerning the introduction and the excerpts from the American newspapers (...)

Write to me when you find the means to write for you know that I find exceeding pleasure in listening to your news. Please accept my love accompanied by my best wishes.

*May God keep you safe, for you are a dear brother,
Gibran Kahlil Gibran*

New York, November 10, 1925

V. CONCLUSION

I conclude my study by stating that the development of this era starts from what is untranslatable in the intercultural dialogue, in particular the allusions and cultural references (Durieux, 2010). My study consisted of an attempt to shed light on the importance of literary translation, placing and considering it among the hardest in the translation field, and raising many critical issues (cultural, philosophical, existential) in order to situate it at its rightful, proper level. Aporias in the translation of *poetic, religious or philosophical* concept were raised, translations that have been revisited were also mentioned; some stances regarding retranslation were exposed and some gaps and problems were highlighted. My study's main objective is to place the immortal book, *The Prophet*, of the Lebanese-American renowned author Gibran Kahlil Gibran at its right level, given the big number of translations and retranslations and given its popularity since 1923. How can a simple book that was released in 1923 still be answering today's needs? The ground is open for more and more studies in this field that would enlighten even more the endeavours of this research. Will today's political struggles and problems still find answers twenty years later? We should establish that this book should be a bible for literary thoughts and a reference and central corpus in translation studies. I hope more research will be made in the future to shed light on similar cases in the literary field.

APPENDIX

The Prophet by Kahlil Gibran translated into 110 languages (1st editions)

Edited by Glen Kalem and Francesco Medici by Chronological Order

(The International Association for the Study of the Life and Work of Kahlil Gibran)

City	Year
Munich	1925
Cairo	1926
Paris	1926
The Hague	1927
Warsaw - New York	1929
Shanghai	1931
Santiago, Chile	1932
Prague	1932
Stockholm	1933
Buenos Aires	1933
Mexico City	1934
Lanciano (Chieti)	1936
Bruxelles	1943
Istanbul	1945
Jakarta	1949
Washington, D.C. (USA)	1951
Hubli, India	1953
Beirut	1954
Pretoria	1955
Ibagu é	1956
Beirut	1956
Kabul, Afghanistan	1957
Reykjavík	1958
Pakistan	1961 (1340)
Tehran	1962 (1341)
Rio de Janeiro	1963
Oslo	1967
Lima	1967
Hämeenlinna	1968
Bangkok	1968
Secunderabad (India)	1968
Bratislava	1971
Dar es Salaam, Tanzania	1971
Tokyo	1972
Barcelona	1974

Tel Aviv	1975
Toronto	1975
Manila	1975
Kapellen	1977
Seoul	1978
Braga	1978
Ljubljana [i. e.] Maribor [Slovenia]	1978
Madrid	1980
Jakarta	1981
Johannesburg	1983
Antelias (Lebanon)	1983
Boucherville [Québec]	1983
Kochi (India)	1983
Johannesburg	1983
Olten	1984
Zagreb	1985
Switzerland	1985
Tórshavn, Faroe Islands (Denmark)	1986
Copenhagen	1987
Vienna	1987
Moscow	1989
Montevideo	1990
Bucarest	1991
Algiers	1991
Budapest	1992
Skopje	1993
Midnapore, India	1993
Vietnam	1994
Guwahati (India)	1994
Belgrade	1995
Kiev	1995
Sofia	1997
Tallinn	1997
Vilnius	1998
Baghdad	1998
Patiala	1999
France	1999
Budapest	2000
Stockholm	2001
Kashgar, China	2001
Jönköping (Sweden)	2002
Tirana	2003
Colombo	2004
Kathmandu	2005
Plettenberg Bay (South Africa)	2007
Plettenberg Bay (South Africa)	2007
Plettenberg Bay (South Africa)	2007
Plettenberg Bay (South Africa)	2007
Yerevan	2008
Sta Venera [Malta]	2008
Arantzazu (Basque Country)	2008
Aurangabad, India	2009
New Delhi	2009
Dhaka, Bangladesh	2009
Cebu City (Philippines)	2009
Chennai (Madras, India)	2011
Addis Ababa (Ethiopia)	2011
Quezon City, Philippines	2011
Zinswiller (France)	2013
Bethesda (Maryland, USA)	2013
Naga City	2013
Ahmedabad (Gujarat, India)	2013
Baku	2014
Paris	2014
Tizi-Ouzou (Algeria)	2014
Berlin	2015
Monza	2015
Peterborough, England?	2015
London	2016
Andorra la Vella	2016
Oslo	2017
Santiago de Compostela, Spain	2018

REFERENCES

- [1] Bashir, A. (1923). date and place of publication and publishing house are not mentioned.
- [2] Benjamen, W. (2012). The Translator's Task. In L.Venuti, *The Translation Studies Reader* (p.75). London and New York: Routledge Taylor and Francis Group.
- [3] Blommaert, J. and Bulcaen, C. (2000). Critical Discourse Analysis. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 29, pp. 447-466.
- [4] Bushrui, S. (2012). *The Prophet: A new Annotated Edition*. London: Oneworld Publications.
- [5] Bushrui, S. (1970). *An Introduction to Kahlil Gibran*. Beirut: Dar El- Mashreq.
- [6] Dahdah, J.P. (1993). *Le Proph ète*. Aix-en- Provence: Editions du Rocher
- [7] Deane Cox S. (2014). *Retranslation Translation Literature and Reinterpretation*. Bloomsbury. UK.
- [8] De Pedro, R. (1999). The Translatability of Texts: A Historical Overview *Meta*, 44(4), 546–559. <https://doi.org/10.7202/003808ar>.
- [9] Durieux, C. (2010). Traduire l'intraduisible: négocier un compromis. *Meta journal*, Volume 55, number 1, pp 23-30
- [10] El Hage, G. (2005). Gibran's Unpublished Letters to Archbishop Antonious Bashir, in the *Journal of Arabic Literature*, Vol. 36, No. 2. Brill Publishers, Leiden, the Netherlands, pp.172-182.
- [11] Farghal, M & Almanna, A. (2015). *Contextualizing Translation Theories*. Cambridge Scholars Publishing. UK.
- [12] Franceschini, P.J. (1995). *Le Proph ète*. Edition Beirouth: FMA
- [13] Fairclough, N. (1989). *Language and Power*. London and New York: Longman.
- [14] Gualdoni, L.(2005). La voce del Profeta da Oriente a Occidente, interview with Francesco Medici, *Stilos*, pp.8-21.
- [15] Hatim B. (2001). *Teaching and Researching Translation*. London and New York: Routledge
- [16] Hilu, V. (1972). *Beloved Prophet*. Great Britain, London: Alfred A.Knopf Inc.
- [17] Kahlil, G. (1929). *Der Novi*, translated into Yiddish by Isaac Horowitz, Warsaw (Poland): Biblioteka Jaczkowskiego
- [18] Levy, J. (1993). *Le Proph ète*. Istanbul: Librairie G énérale Française
- [19] Medici, F. (2005). *Il Profeta*, Cinisello Balsamo: Edizioni San Paolo
- [20] Medici, F. (2012, May). Gibran in Italy, in *The Enduring Legacy of Kahlil Gibran. Papers delivered at the Second International Conference on Kahlil Gibran: Reading Gibran in an Age of Globalization and Conflict*, University of Maryland, College Park, 2013 pp. 182-203.
- [21] Medici, F. (2015). *Poeti arabi della diaspora, , versi e prose liriche di Kahlil Gibran, Ameen Rihani, Mikhail Naimy, Elia Abu Madi*, Bari: Stilo Editrice.
- [22] Mossop, B. 2001. *Revising and editing for translators*. Np: St Jerome Publishing.
- [23] Munday, J. (2007). *Introducing translation studies*. London and New York: Rutledge.
- [24] Naimy, M. (1975). Gibran at his peak. In *Gibran of Lebanon: New Papers*, p.9 Eds. Suheil Bushrui and Gotch Beirut: Librairie du Liban.
- [25] Nasr, N. (2018). *Gibran Kahlil Gibran The Prophet: Arabic & French Translations: A Comparative Linguistic Analysis*, Lebanon: Librairie du Liban Publishers.
- [26] *The Buddha and his teachings*. (1998). Retrieved in December 2017 from: http://www.buddhanet.net/pdf_file/buddha-teachingsurw6.pdf.
- [27] Venuti, L. (2008). *The Translator's invisibility: A History of translation*. London and New York: Routledge.
- [28] Vinay, J. P. and Darbelnet, J. (1958). *Comparative stylistics of French and English*. Np.: Didier Harrap.
- [29] Von Goethe, J.W (2012). *Translations*. In L.Venuti, *The Translation Studies Reader* (p.75). London and New York: Routledge Taylor and Francis Group.
- [30] Wilss, W. (1982). *The science of translation: problems and methods*. Tübingen: Narr.



Maya El-Hajj is an Assistant Professor at the Faculty of Humanities, Department of English and Translation. She holds a doctorate in Translation Studies from the Holy Spirit University- Kaslik, and a Certification of Competence in Teaching Italian as a foreign language or second language (CEDILS), from the Ca 'Foscari University of Venice, Italy. Her main interest is the effect of culture on languages. Her main teaching area is Translation and Languages, mainly English, French, Arabic and Italian. In addition to her interest in Translation and Teaching, Dr. El Hajj is particularly interested in lexicology–lexicography, a vast field hardly exploited nowadays in the Arab world. Her doctorate dissertation, which is entitled “*Etude comparative des dictionnaires bilingues et monolingues*”, addresses specifically that field. Dr. El Hajj has given lectures and conferences in many academic institutions in Lebanon, England, Greece, France, Georgia and Italy.

Corpus-based Research to Verify the Hypothesis of Preference for Basic-level Category Vocabulary (BLCV) Acquisition*

Fei Song
Beijing International Studies University, Beijing, China

Qingqing Lan
Marlboro High School, NJ, US

Abstract—Many features of basic-level category vocabulary (BLCV) play an important role in international Chinese language teaching, and one of them is preference for BLCV acquisition which has yet remained to be confirmed. In this paper, a written language corpus of Chinese pupils is established, and the usage of the condition and quality BLCV is analyzed. It is found that 212 of 312 those BLCV are used by Chinese pupils in Grade One, the rest 100 are used during the whole primary school years¹. Besides, learners keep enlarging other vocabularies with their increasing Chinese proficiencies, and thus cause a dilution effect on BLCV. These results show that language learners have grasped most BLCV when they start to use written language, indicating an obvious preference for BLCV acquisition.

Index Terms—BLCV, corpus, acquisition preference

I. INTRODUCTION

The semantic category system is like a hierarchical pyramid. Those in the apex are highly generalized and relatively abstract, with small vocabulary. The lower the level, the weaker the abstraction of this category, with more detailed and larger vocabulary. One of them has a salient status in people's cognition (Rosch, 1973), which is gestalt and has appropriate concreteness. This level is neither too abstract nor too detailed, so it can be regarded as a natural cognitive unit. Compared with other levels, this level has the most obvious differences among different categories, and it is also the basic level for objects classification. Most of human knowledge, including language, is organized at this level. The vocabulary in a language system is mapped to a specific semantic category in a specific hierarchy. Therefore, according to the basic hierarchical category theory, the vocabulary system should also be a hierarchical pyramid structure. Words mapped to the category of the basic level belong to basic words, and the cluster of these words forms a basic-level category vocabulary.

Our previous research results (Song, 2011a) hold that BLCV is in a preference order for language acquisition. The relatively short BLCV word length shortens the memory units of the whole Chinese vocabulary system and reduces the memory burden of the students; Most BLCV are single-morpheme words, so it takes less time to memorize a large number of compound words; BLCV exhibits strong productivity, which enables students to understand and master the derived vocabulary based on the existing one; BLCV has great potential in metaphor and metonymy, giving more extensible pragmatic space; and BLCV has a gestalt that shows more compliance with pupils' acquisition mechanism. According to the above said features, BLCV could play a big role in international Chinese language teaching. BLCV can be viewed as the key nodes to weave the Chinese vocabulary network. Based on the productivity, those relevant new words could be understood without too much effort. The reason is that the concepts reflected by BLCV often coexist in different languages, which makes it especially suitable for international Chinese language teaching. It means that BLCV learning can be an efficient way of vocabulary teaching and acquisition.

However, the foresaid hypotheses and inferences of BLCV acquisition preference still need corresponding empirical research. BLCV "seems" to be the corpus that children begin to learn first in the world, and BLCV also "seems" to be the most of words children begin to use in the first several years. However, no research has been conducted to analyze all the corpora in the children's cognitive process. At present, many researchers analyze foreign learners' writing problems by establishing a written language corpus, and some also study the grammar learning of primary school students. But no such research on the forms of large-scale corpus in children's language learning (consolidation) period has been found, which can verify the use of those vocabularies by learners in the same period.

* This project is supported by Beijing Social Science Foundation (Project No.16YYC028)

¹ In Chinese primary school system, students are required to finish six years of studies in a row, and each year is regarded as one grade. Namely, you will be in Grade one if in the first year, and the like.

Thus, a written language corpus of Chinese pupils who are still in the language learning period (at least the language consolidation period) will be established to collect their written Chinese lexicon. The condition and quality BLCV (Song, 2015) (see the appendix) extracted in the previous studies are taken as examples to analyze the ways that BLCV could be learned and mastered by learners, as well as changes in their use of those BLCV with increasing Chinese proficiency. By this way, those BLCV acquisition order could be obtained, which could further verify the hypothesis of the BLCV “acquisition preference”.

II. THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A WRITTEN LANGUAGE CORPUS OF CHINESE PUPILS

A. Selecting the Target Website for Crawling

The “Website of Chinese Pupils’ Excellent Essays” (<http://www.eduxiao.com/>) is finally selected as the target website to establish a written language corpus of Chinese pupils, due to the following advantages: clear website structure, with an orderly organization manner according to the grade and genre, and high URLs similarity among different categories, which is convenient for analysis; clean storage page without obvious text segmentation; and appropriate corpus size and volume, with totally about 20,000 articles and 10 million magnitude of corpus, which are enough to objectively reflect the situation.

B. Configuring and Grabbing the Corpus with the Web Crawler Tool

After selecting the target website, such parameters as site, crawling depth and cycle, and site speed with the web crawler according to the website structure are configured. As is shown below:



站点 URL	Site URL
上次更新时间	Last updating time
更新周期(h)	Updating cycle (h)
更新周期(m)	Updating cycle (m)
抓取与否	Crawling or not
抓取 URL	Crawling URL
排除 URL	Removing URL
导航页 URL	Start page URL
抓取深度	crawling depth
站点速度	Site speed
首页提交方式	Submission way of the home page
提交参数	Submission parameters

Figure 1. Web crawler configuration dialog (partial).

Several levels of pages under URL can be crawled by setting the crawling depth. According to the webpage storage structure and essays classification, the crawling depth for the target website is set to 1.

Then, with the web crawler tool, 96,2979,0 Chinese characters, including 17,779 pieces of essays, are crawled, and the authors cover from Grade One to Six.

C. Removing Webpage Tags from the Crawling Results

Removing webpage tags is the most critical step to establish a web-crawling-based corpus, because of various webpage tags and complex structures in the crawled documents. After those tags are removed in batches, only a small part of the texts can be used as a corpus, and then, the subsequent structural adjustment can be performed.

D. Segmenting and Storing Lexicon

Next is the word segmentation for the corpus, and then, the body data can be stored in two structures: one is based on the order of the original articles, with the text of an essay as a piece of data; the other is to break all the texts and store the words of different categories according to the previous classification of essays, such as the words and relevant frequencies in “Grade One”. Thus, every word can be stored without repetition in the latter structure.

The former structure is suitable for examining the “general usage” (distribution) of specific vocabulary in the corpus, and the latter is the “frequency” of a specific word.

After the above four steps, the corpus in a moderate size is established, with the grade distribution shown as below:

TABLE 1
GRADE DISTRIBUTION OF THE CORPUS

Classification	Quantity (pieces)
Grade One	413
Grade Two	1,505
Grade Three	3,101
Grade Four	3,587
Grade Five	3,803
Grade Sixth	2,606

III. EXTRACTING BLCV ACQUISITION ORDER DATA

BLCV acquisition order in Grade One to Six can be sequenced from the occurrence frequency in the corpus of each grade. If the frequency exhibits an positively increasing trend from Grade one to Six, this BLCV might be acquired at a later period and ranked backward. However, in this case, the corpus size of each grade should be exactly the same. Or otherwise, the occurrence frequency can be restricted by the corpus volumes. For example, Grade One has only 10,000 words and Grade Six has 100,000 words. Under this condition, it requires dividing the frequency by the total number of words in that grade, to obtain the average BLCV number and the frequency in each grade. Hence, the data of the condition and quality BLCV acquisition order mainly include the number of occurrences of each BLCV word in each grade, as well as the frequency division according to the grades. The total number thus extracted reaches 1,647. In the first level of the hierarchical BLCV corpus, Chinese characters “大, 多, 好” rank the first three; and in the third level, “博学, 没用, 本分” rank the last three, which is shown as below:

TABLE 2
DATA EXAMPLES OF BLCV ACQUISITION ORDER

ID	Words	Frequency	Grade	The total frequency of the grade	Frequency	BLCV level
1	大	0.004341456	1	74,399	323	First level
1	大	0.002855515	2	284,362	812	First level
1	大	0.002754268	3	732,318	2017	First level
1	大	0.002545564	4	1,086,989	2767	First level
1	大	0.00217363	5	1,329,573	2890	First level
1	大	0.001942037	6	930,981	1808	First level
2	多	0.001612925	1	74,399	120	First level
2	多	0.001427758	2	284,362	406	First level
2	多	0.001577184	3	732,318	1155	First level
2	多	0.001613632	4	1,086,989	1754	First level
2	多	0.001644889	5	1,329,573	2187	First level
2	多	0.001572535	6	930,981	1464	First level
3	好	0.002755413	1	74,399	205	First level
3	好	0.002908265	2	284,362	827	First level
3	好	0.002511204	3	732,318	1839	First level
3	好	0.002558444	4	1,086,989	2781	First level
3	好	0.002553451	5	1,329,573	3395	First level
3	好	0.002284687	6	930,981	2127	First level
...
311	博学	0.0000013655	3	732,318	1	Third level
311	博学	0.0000045999	4	1,086,989	5	Third level
311	博学	0.0000015042	5	1,329,573	2	Third level
311	博学	0.0000021483	6	930,981	2	Third level
310	没用	0.0000268821	1	74,399	2	Third level
310	没用	0.0000070333	2	284,362	2	Third level
310	没用	0.0000218484	3	732,318	16	Third level
310	没用	0.0000266792	4	1,086,989	29	Third level
310	没用	0.0000255721	5	1,329,573	34	Third level
310	没用	0.0000279275	6	930,981	26	Third level
312	本分	0.0000027311	3	732,318	2	Third level
312	本分	0.0000007521	5	1,329,573	1	Third level
312	本分	0.0000032224	6	930,981	3	Third level

It can be shown that “大, 多, 好” appear in the corpus from Grade One to Six. The “Frequency” field represents the total occurrence frequency of BLCV in each grade, and when this frequency is divided by the total frequency of that

grade corpus, this result represents the average frequency of that BLCV in each grade. Taking “大” as an example, the frequency decreases from Grade One to Grade Six, indicating that it belongs to the first batch of condition and quality BLCV. After being mastered skillfully in Grade One, this Chinese character is less used as the vocabularies and expression capabilities increase. The same is to the Chinese character “好”. However, as for another Chinese character “多”, though it ranks in the front and has been widely used in Grade One, this character shows a stable trend of usage from Grade One to Six. The reason is temporarily unexplainable. It can only be guessed that it is not easy to be replaced by other more vivid synonyms as the language proficiency grows.

As for “博学, 没用, 本分”, the first one “博学” does not appear in Grade One and Two, and the second one “本分” does not appear in Grade One, Two and Four, showing that these two characters rank relatively backward in the acquisition order, and they are not used until Grade Three. The third one “没用” appears from Grade One to Six, but it is not used that frequently.

IV. THE DATA ANALYSIS OF THE BLCV ACQUISITION ORDER

A. Mastering Sequence Analysis

According to statistics, among 312 BLCV in the corpus, 212 are used in Grade One, and the rest 100 are first used at least in Grade Two.

These 100 BLCV include one first-level Chinese character, 37 second-level Chinese characters and 62 third-level Chinese characters. Specifically, the first-level character “富” was used from Grade Two, and 37 second-level and 62 third-level characters were used at least in Grade Two.

Among the 37 second-level characters, 30 (严, 广, 男, 古, 实, 具体, 明显, 民主, 偏, 弱, 友好, 野, 全面, 公开, 纯, 齐, 公共, 高级, 彩, 狂, 灵, 盲目, 脆, 适当, 详细, 随便, 俗, 难得, 稀, 严肃) are used from Grade Two; 3 (均, 虚, 牢) from Grade Three; 3 (荒, 旱, 外来) from Grade Four; and 1 (切实) from Grade Five.

Among the 62 third-level characters, 22 (匆匆, 持久, 窄, 客气, 腐败, 模糊, 业余, 笨, 传统, 平和, 时髦, 简陋, 无知, 深沉, 单调, 威风, 凹, 稠, 无能, 无理, 世故, 小气) are used from Grade Two; 20 (真诚, 国产, 俊, 钝, 廉洁, 抽象, 顽固, 空虚, 悲观, 不妥, 恭敬, 倔强, 生硬, 委婉, 没出息, 迟钝, 轻浮, 不和, 博学, 本分) from Grade Three; 16 (初级, 反动, 腥, 片面, 含糊, 糙, 过时, 酥, 奢侈, 可耻, 断断续续, 专制, 冒失, 无礼, 轻薄, 褐) from Grade Four; and 4 (消极, 中型, 矜持, 痴情) from Grade Five.

On the whole, BLCV usage exhibits a chronological order: the earliest is use of the first-level characters; then is the second-level, and the last is the third-level. This also confirms the theoretical motivation of BLCV hierarchy in the previous study from another perspective.

B. Use Trend Analysis

The trend analysis of the BLCV acquisition order refers to the analysis of the frequency increase and decrease trend appearing in the corpus from Grade One to Six for each character, by way of “adding the difference between neighboring frequencies”. Namely, the occurrence frequencies of one BLCV character (the entire BLCV of a level) in the corpus are first sequenced from Grade One to Six; then, the former frequency is subtracted from the latter one; and finally, those differences are added (for example, frequency of Grade Two subtracts from the Grade One; Grade Three subtracts from Grade Two, and the like). Thus to observe the general frequency increase and decrease trend from Grade One to Six, and further to judge the approximate acquisition order.

As is expected that BLCV is first learned, and the appropriate frequency is very high at the early stage of language acquisition (such as in Grade One and Two). The word categories exhibit a significant increase trend from Grade One to Six, so the frequency of each word is relatively small and shows a decrease trend. Results of adding the difference between neighboring frequencies should generally be negative. Because of small frequency value, the value for calculation here is multiplied by 100,000.

From the perspective of the BLCV level, the frequency difference sum of the first, second and third level is -8.431147696, -0.37303244, and 0.098702854, respectively. As predicted before, frequency of condition and quality BLCV decreases to a certain degree due to the dilution effect; the sums of the first and second level are both negative; and only the third level is barely positive.

The above data show that BLCV generally are the earliest to be learned, showing a preference for acquisition. Among them, the first-level BLCV is almost all used since Grade One, and has a clear decline in the frequency of use from Grade One to Six. This indicates that the first-level BLCV is the first to be learned and used, but the number does not rise as the language level rises, so the total frequency value drops relatively fast. Apart from the dilution effect, the use frequency of the second-level BLCV basically remains the same from Grade One to Six. The reason is that some new words will be acquired by Chinese language learners while the use frequency of the others learned earlier is reduced. Thus, both parts offset by each other, maintaining a basic equilibrium state. The overall use frequency of the third-level BLCV increases as the new vocabulary is enlarged with the improvement of language levels.

V. CONCLUSION

Most of the 312 condition and quality BLCV in the corpus begin to appear in Grade One, and only 100 are first used at least in Grade Two. This shows that condition and quality BLCV is acquired earlier by language learners, and most of them have been mastered when learners start to use written language, indicating an obvious preference for BLCV acquisition.

In respect of different BLCV levels, the acquisition exhibits a chronological order: the earliest is use of the first-level BLCV; then is the second-level, and the last is the third-level.

Besides, learners continue to improve their Chinese proficiency, and enlarge their vocabulary, which has a “dilution effect” on the use frequency of the entire BLCV; at the same time, learners show a stronger tendency to use non-BLCV that is more accurate than BLCV. As a result, the BLCV use tends to decrease or slow down with the improvement of Chinese proficiency (limited to Grade One to Six). Among them, the first-level BLCV declines significantly, the second-level is relatively stable, and the third-level slow down.

APPENDIX

TABLE A
HIERARCHY CORPUS OF THE BASIC-LEVEL VOCABULARY

First level	1 大	7 近	13 坏	19 少	25 难
	2 多	8 深	14 静	20 真	26 重要
	3 好	9 高	15 早	21 老	27 美
	4 新	10 热	16 稳	22 细	28 短
	5 长	11 小	17 轻	23 晚	29 重
	6 快	12 强	18 富	24 硬	30 冷
Second level	1 乱	35 黄	69 及时	103 软	137 轻松
	2 薄	36 中	70 公	104 残	138 松
	3 严	37 久	71 弱	105 紧张	139 生动
	4 旧	38 充分	72 行	106 高级	140 详细
	5 满	39 光	73 突出	107 净	141 荒
	6 白	40 努力	74 暗	108 穷	142 浑
	7 粗	41 严重	75 合理	109 慢	143 危险
	8 假	42 古	76 直	110 复杂	144 紫
	9 低	43 有些	77 友好	111 虚	145 瘦
	10 远	44 一切	78 香	112 女	146 浅
	11 正	45 安全	79 厚	113 暖	147 湿
	12 生	46 实	80 野	114 彩	148 母
	13 紧	47 死	81 全面	115 淡	149 旱
	14 空	48 先进	82 阴	116 狂	150 甜
	15 积极	49 一般	83 丰富	117 清	151 胖
	16 特别	50 精	84 公开	118 灵	152 傻
	17 青	51 自然	85 切实	119 挺	153 灰
	18 红	52 健康	86 宽	120 曲	154 随便
	19 忙	53 熟	87 年轻	121 圆	155 俗
	20 外	54 认真	88 伟大	122 凉	156 格外
	21 欢	55 具体	89 正常	123 成熟	157 平静
	22 余	56 便	90 纯	124 公正	158 外来
	23 原	57 正式	91 怪	125 蓝	159 聪明
	24 密	58 只	92 强烈	126 牢	160 脏
	25 亲	59 副	93 平	127 尖	161 热闹
	26 均	60 错	94 齐	128 烂	162 光荣
	27 易	61 明显	95 方	129 幸福	163 难得
	28 广	62 贵	96 必要	130 热情	164 扎实
	29 对	63 响	97 公共	131 发达	165 稀
	30 全	64 民主	98 文明	132 惨	166 严肃
	31 男	65 亮	99 零	133 美好	
	32 苦	66 偏	100 简单	134 盲目	
	33 黑	67 恶	101 坚决	135 脆	
	34 华	68 绿	102 破	136 适当	

Third level	1 灵活	25 腐败	49 廉洁	73 高贵	97 委婉
	2 真诚	26 勇敢	50 大方	74 单调	98 断断续续
	3 清晰	27 模糊	51 传统	75 悲观	99 专制
	4 艳	28 业余	52 片面	76 酥	100 没出息
	5 丑	29 酸	53 皱	77 粗暴	101 迟钝
	6 臭	30 谨慎	54 抽象	78 威风	102 矜持
	7 国产	31 节约	55 咸	79 凹	103 幼小
	8 便宜	32 温柔	56 平和	80 谦虚	104 冒失
	9 懒	33 消极	57 好听	81 自私	105 世故
	10 崇高	34 秘密	58 顽固	82 稠	106 小气
	11 人为	35 俊	59 朦胧	83 不妥	107 下贱
	12 坚强	36 笨	60 时髦	84 恭敬	108 无礼
	13 匆匆	37 乖	61 简陋	85 奢侈	109 痴情
	14 冷静	38 涩	62 含糊	86 有为	110 轻薄
	15 老	39 反动	63 贫	87 无能	111 褐
	16 宏伟	40 不平	64 朴实	88 倔强	112 轻浮
	17 乐观	41 腥	65 有用	89 狡猾	113 不和
	18 辣	42 鼓	66 空虚	90 不起眼	114 没用
	19 有趣	43 钝	67 无知	91 胆小	115 博学
	20 持久	44 孤独	68 无私	92 可耻	116 本分
	21 窄	45 短暂	69 冷淡	93 生硬	
	22 繁荣	46 无情	70 糙	94 无理	
	23 客气	47 天真	71 过时	95 中型	
	24 初级	48 骄傲	72 深沉	96 难听	

REFERENCES

- [1] Lu Caihong. (2004). The acquisition priority of basic level categories. *Journal of Qiqihar University (Phi & Soc Sci)*, (5), 96-98.
- [2] Qi Shuling. (2014). The cognitive sequence of basic-level category vocabulary in international Chinese language teaching—An example of words related to human body. *Applied Linguistics*, (4), 85-90.
- [3] Rosch, E. (1973). Natural categories. *Cognitive Psychology*, (4), 328-350.
- [4] Rosch, E. (1976). Basic objects in natural categories. *Cognitive Psychology*, 8(3), 382-439.
- [5] Song Fei. (2011a). Research on basic-level category vocabulary of modern Chinese. Ph.D. dissertation, Minzu University of China.
- [6] Song Fei. (2011b). The method of extracting and classifying vocabulary in basic category in international teaching of Chinese language and its future application. *Chinese Language Globalization Studies*, (2), 171-184.
- [7] Song Fei. (2014). Research on large-scale corpus-based relative frequency location method for modern Chinese basic-level vocabulary. *Applied Linguistics*, (4), 78-84.
- [8] Song Fei. (2015). Construction of basic-level condition and quality category vocabulary lexicon in international Chinese language teaching. Ph.D. dissertation, Minzu University of China.
- [9] Yang Jichun. (2011). Focusing on teaching vocabulary of basic-level category in teaching Chinese vocabulary to foreign students. *Journal of Research on Education for Ethnic Minorities*, (3), 39-44.
- [10] Yang Jichun. (2014) Theories and methods on the construction of basic-level category lexicon for international Chinese language teaching. *Applied Linguistics*, (4), 68-76.

Fei Song, Ph.D. of linguistics and applied language, Associate Professor of School of Chinese, Beijing International Studies University, Beijing, China. He focuses on Chinese language processing and international Chinese language teaching.

Qingqing Lan, Master of Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages (MTC SOL), a mandarin teacher of Marlboro High School, NJ, US, Performing arts in Chinese Class in US. She focuses on performing arts in Chinese Class in US.

Cognitive Socio-political Language Learning Theory, Multiple Input-output Hypothesis and Competitive Team-based Learning

Seyed Mohammad Hassan Hosseini
Freelance educator/researcher, Iran

Abstract—The practical results of innovative methods/approaches to teaching like Cooperative Learning (CL), which have been formulated based on constructivists' theories, are falling short of expectation in the present world circumstances. This is because they cannot reflect the realities of the real world and as a consequence have contributed to uncivilised and even maimed societies. As their ancestors, thereby, these so-called innovative interactive methods and approaches are doomed to failure. This article, as such, gives a brief but to the point introduction to the author's seminal holistic approach to teaching namely Competitive Team-Based Learning (CTBL), which has been put forward as a significant alternative to the present methods and approaches. Most importantly, the author sheds light on his approach's theoretical foundations, which consider *language as a liberating agent*, and distinguishes it from other innovative methods/approaches like Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). The results of some researches on the effectiveness of Dr Hosseini's didactic catalyst/weapon (i.e., CTBL) have also found a place in this article for the benefit of researchers/educators, who have also been provided with some significant suggestions. Teachers' accountabilities in classes run through CTBL have also been explicated.

Index Terms—cognitive socio-political language learning theory, multiple input-output hypothesis, competitive team-based learning, didactic weapon, language as a liberating agent

I. INTRODUCTION

In sharp contrast with democratic and civilized societies whose education systems are liberating agents that contribute to the prosperity of their people, dictatorial regimes' education systems are, indeed, mediational artefacts for exploiting people. To put it another way, the latter societies' educational regimes are designed in such a way that their outputs are citizens who lack socio-political awareness, critical thinking/sensibility and some other such crucial habits of mind. This kind of citizens are, in point of actual fact, blind slaves of the powerful minority as they see the world through THEIR eyes, do what THEY dictate to them, and accept THEIR dominance and strong control over their existence throughout their lives. To justify such claims, it should be reminded that before entering schools, our children tend to think critically, ask purposeful big questions, take risk, and go beyond the red lines, at least in the course of thinking. But after they graduate from schools and even universities, they lack this kind of characteristics as they have already been transformed into sheep-in-nature reticent adaptable-to-the-world recipients/objects who tend to be blind imitators and followers of their leaders. And this is exactly what THEY have designed their education regimes for!

Here in the Middle East, as in some other parts of the world, people are suffering from a number of socio-cultural, economical and particularly political problems, the root to which is our regimes of education. In addition to academic calamity, the present imperialist mode of educational regime is contributing to an increment in some socio-cultural as well as political disasters. In Iran, for instance, at least 30% of students leave schools and universities before they obtain their certificates and degrees. Upsurge in complicated crimes, robberies, broken lives, suicides, and more importantly emergence of diverse destructive ideologies and of course divorce of Islam and brain drain may be considered as some other hazardous by-products of our purposefully ill-designed dictatorial didactic regimes, the ultimate products of which are maimed societies, dictatorship, and eventually anarchism. It is in such a circumstance that instead of focusing on bringing about a thorough overhauling of the present antediluvian instructional regimes, which have already failed to bring their practitioners effective learning, values, and skills for personal and moral development (Hosseini, 2010), our rulers are recalibrating their attention towards developing their military force/power for threatening their unsatisfied and angry people. Needless to say that our rulers do not embrace or even tolerate any form of reform, particularly in the arena of education, as they are well aware of the fact that such reforms endangers their existence. This is, as noted, because of the bitter truth that it is through their psychological tool (i.e., Education system) that they have enabled themselves to establish their favourable culture for controlling their possessions' (people) thinking, beliefs, outlooks, and behaviours. What worsens the circumstances here in Iran is that as opposed to Shah's (i.e., our previous King) era when only those opposing his dictatorial regime were at risk, in our Mullahs' era it is those opposing corruption, racism, injustice, and apartheid who are at risk! THEY even target and brutally victimize our beloved to keep us silent/slaves! See <http://iranglobal.info/node/66352>

All this researcher means to say is that it is not possible to envision the contribution of these power-thirsty corrupt wolf-in-nature sheep-like politicians to their nation's prosperity - to live, humane, healthy, creative, and civilised societies and world peace. It is in such a circumstance that this researcher, as a liberal educator, thought that if students/tomorrow citizenry, who live under tyrannical/fascist regimes, had the opportunity to feel the taste of democracy, and if their teachers could contribute to empowering and turbo charging their minds with critical approaches to analytical and divergent thinking skills, then they would willingly and systematically take the course of action against totalitarianism/corrupt regimes. This researcher, thereby, as an agent of change, designed and developed his *didactic catalyst/weapon* (i.e., CTBL) based on his own edu-political theories in order to operationalise his dreams. He suggests the implementation of his seminal liberal approach to democratic education (CTBL), to teachers/educators particularly in dictatorial regimes in order to enable them to orchestrate/facilitate a peaceful shift to democracy in their countries.

II. COMPETITIVE TEAM-BASED LEARNING: DR HOSSEINI'S (THIS RESEARCHER'S) EDUCATIONAL WEAPON

Before continuing our discussion, please watch the 17-minute video of this researcher's introduction to his educational weapon at <https://youtu.be/cPtOUaIkJlk> or at <http://www.aparat.com/v/i32tK>. As this researcher (Hosseini, 2010) has confirmed, CTBL is a holistic contextualized approach to teaching and learning that reflects the real world holism. It tries to produce a more realistic depiction of the real-world norms and settings in the classroom, as the microcosm, in order to more effectively connect learners to the real world, the macrocosm (Hosseini, 2014). As explained in the above video, the procedure for presenting a unit/lesson, in CTBL classes, follows a regular systematic cycle through two phases each of which incorporates five main components. It is such multi-layered mechanisms underlying CTBL settings, which is enriched with an atmosphere of ambiguity, doubt, and conflict, that provides an ideal matrix for group discussion and interaction and outpouring of the variety of opinions, strategies, thoughts, ideas, and of course solutions to problems. Another characteristic of CTBL which distinguishes it from the present cooperative learning (CL) methods and approaches refers to the fact that competition, in classes run through CTBL, is encouraged among teams via different mechanisms, chief among which is its evaluation system. Competition among teams, by its turn, contributes to further involvement and co-operation of team members with one another too. Another focus area of CTBL's special evaluation system is on bringing individual responsibility among all team members, which has been neglected by the present CL methods and approaches. As it has been shown in the video, the procedure in classes run through CTBL *is not* a loose anything goes one as it is with other so-called innovative interactive methods and approaches. It is highly structured, purposeful, strategic, and effective.

Competitive Team-based Learning and Teachers' Accountabilities

If one attempts to construe the philosophy beyond the politics of education systems implicit in today education, we may, this researcher reckons, discover certain mysterious shocking principles:

1. To talking to/lecturing and dictating from the above in contrive environments, which contribute to negation of negotiation/discussion and encourage passivity, is opposed talking with in semi/authentic environments which encourage democratically learning/living, collaboration, contribution, and development;
2. To learning through survival skills and stratagems in order to pass the course and get a degree towards a dream job is opposed real learning, practicality, and usefulness;
3. To repeating, parroting back and syllogistic reasoning is in sharp contrast to the development of metacognition and critical and creative thinking which are the essential requirements for mind empowerment and emancipation of the Other;
4. To training students to be blind slaves for Capitalism is in direct contradiction to humanitarian principles;
5. To insisting upon antediluvian syllabi and textbooks is opposed having integrity in serving God's ends;
6. To envisaging the future based on Hitlerian outlooks is opposed building sustainable futures based on the realities of tomorrow, and
7. To learning from experiences and passively acting is opposed learning from reflecting upon experiences and proactively strategic reacting.

In the current scenario of ongoing globalisation, which is highly multicultural, incredibly complicated, and of course developmentally and fiercely competitive, teachers need to view their tasks from a more panoramic perspective which, in its turn, solicits an understanding of pedagogical and socio-political objectives and commitments. As educational goals are being broadened to include teaching metacognitive knowledge, higher level thinking and reasoning skills, and problem solving for successful life-long learning, interaction, working, and living, new challenging expectations and multifarious roles and responsibilities are being expected from the present world teachers. Today teachers are expected to play key roles in ensuring not only true learning and academic success of students but also the development of humane and compassionate societies and civilizations. This is possible via CTBL as it suggests teaching tomorrow citizenry humanitarian ways of interaction, co-operation, competition, and living.

Teachers, in CTBL settings, have plenty of opportunities to plant, nurture, and develop human values, morals, and attitudes in their wards, who are tomorrow's citizens of the globe. Below are some related pro-social and life-long learning and interaction skills and strategies, which reflect the needs of working and living in today world context, emphasised by this researcher:

1. The ability to listen and to be flexible in thinking in order to be able to consider each and every person, idea, philosophy, etc. objectively first, in such a way as if it were new (i.e., the ability not to be adversely influenced by preceding impressions);
2. The ability to bear a responsibility to others and develop and consider different solutions to problems at hand;
3. The ability to gather the relevant information from among the ocean of irrelevant and at times false information;
4. The ability to communicate precisely and effectively;
5. The ability to think creatively and critically but rationally, strategically, and efficiently in order to be able to realise facts from among diverse information, opinions, and ideas;
6. The ability to criticise effectively, with reason, logic, and evidence;
7. The ability to manage conflicts peacefully and make collective sound decisions about personal and civic affairs, in real-world settings;
8. The ability to refuse to accept false conclusions;
9. The ability and the courage to fight the battle against any sources of hegemonic ideas, condescending looks, Hitlerian outlooks, repression, corruption, and destruction, and
10. The ability to generate 'the truth' throughout the world as it would contribute to the emancipation of the Oppressed majority, who are almost always the majority but marginalized in our societies.

These are part of the reasons as to why this researcher is of the stand that teaching, particularly in today world context of anxiety, racism, oppression, corruption, and destruction is more than science: It is, and must be appreciated as, an art which involves a very complicated 'socio-political process'. Therefore, teachers who would like to employ CTBL for the sake of it's magic transforming power should be willing to convert themselves first if they want to reap the target results out of it's implementation. A thorough understanding of CTBL's spirit, its origin, objectives, etc. would give them the willpower and the courage to transform themselves into intellectual agents of critical awareness, attitudinal change, and social disorder and, in short, CHANGE; change in cognition, thinking styles, beliefs, attitudes, and actions of the inhabitants of their milieus, for uprooting apartheid, fascism, and dictatorship from among their societies. This way, they could contribute to security, development, and peace in their societies and consequently in the world.

To such ends, teachers should first and foremost know that the success of CTBL, as any other pedagogical practice, is essentially accompanied with the kind of relationship they have with the learners. As this researcher (Hosseini, 2009, 2010) has explicated, in CTBL classes, they should adapt integrative rather than dominating roles if they want to bolster the status quo inherent in CTBL settings more effectively. This is because leaders who adapt autocratic roles ignore and even disregard the judgment and desires of their people and convey the idea that they are nothing but objects/animals. Such groups of teachers also, knowingly or unwittingly, not only obstruct the process of growth in their people but, in the long run, contribute to dictatorship, the ultimate result of which is anarchism. This is by virtue of the fact that although authoritarianism, as Freire (1973) also eloquently confirmed, 'leads to apathy, excessive obedience, uncritical conformity, lack of resistance against authoritarian discourse, self-abnegation, and fear of freedom', it will also cause people to adopt 'rebellious positions, defiant of any limit, discipline, or authority'. Teachers who are integrative in behaviour, on the other hand, are open-ended in their outlook, flexible and logical and, as ordinary and responsible members of their lands, try to understand their people. They are able to listen to them patiently, show genuine interest in their ideas, respond tactfully, and observe and evaluate their progress/development carefully. Such groups of leaders are able to think democratically and so are open to divergent, yet productive thoughts, and intact solutions based on the discussions, in an environment which involves mutual trust and respect. They are likewise able enough to welcome constructive criticism diplomatically - with a broad outlook, and above all evaluate and modify their own strategies of class management and leading/teaching from the authentic feedback they receive in course of their interactions with their people. Finally, they never hesitate to acknowledge/reward the value of individual suggestions and particularly constructive criticism. It is such characteristics of CTBL's teachers that encourage people to trust, and respect them and follow their instructions enthusiastically.

Another point for teachers to take heed of is that as it is context that gives meaning to content in CTBL environments, the provision of a psychologically safe social climate that reflects acceptance, care, genuineness, reciprocal and interpersonal trust, tolerance, and respect should be given top priority. It goes without saying that such atmospheres naturally impetus risk taking, giving and receiving influence, creativity, and critical thinking. Teachers, therefore, at the initial stages of conducting their courses, must explain about CTBL, define academic and social objectives and skills that students are to master and apply, discuss the learning culture, identify norms, and specify and model desired behaviours. They should also elaborate on the criteria for success and evaluation procedures for the appraisal of team and member performance. Importantly, they ought to take care of team formation and composition, the arrangement of classroom, tasks, and activities. They should structure teams and the learning tasks and class activities in such a way that they improve the cohesion of the teams and bring reciprocal meaningful interaction among team members, and encourage their individual responsibility for their own learning and the learning of their teammates, in a relaxing environment.

Teachers should also bear it in mind that they are not the predominant source of information who try to infuse knowledge into vacuumed minds as it is in traditional teacher dominated methods like the Lecture Method/the Banking

Method through which the teachers take the role of interveners/depositors. Nor are they merely fellow facilitators of the learning process and scaffold providers as it is in the so-called innovative methods and approaches like Collaborative Learning, Interactive Learning, and the conventional methods in the arena of CL. Nor are they merely communication models and facilitators of the communication tasks for language learning as it is in CLT. But rather, they are expected to perform several roles simultaneously. Besides to the above-mentioned roles, CTBL's teachers should play their roles as dissectors, psychologists, discerners of current needs and demands, interactors, frontiers of knowledge, and most importantly models of criticism, innovation, and change. As their classes' leaders, they should be able to problematise the learning/living contexts in such a way that it encourages doubt, negotiation, conflict, and discussion. They should also be able to play their roles as mind decolonisers, attitude re-orienters and Agents of critical awareness and social change and development. They should also be good orchestrators of opportunities for effective learning and personal growth on the part of the students. They should, at the same time, actively monitor their people behaviours, achievements, and the functioning of teams and their dynamics, and provide continuous authentic feedback on individual as well as communities/teams' progress in order to tactically engineer and soften the learning/development process. Teachers should ensure that there are enough and equal opportunities for all team members, in their heterogeneous teams, to think, brainstorm, discuss, and solve problems collectively – in a congenial ambience. In providing assistance, they should act as midwives, who give birth to challenging ideas and knowledge in students' minds and help them to generate their knowledge and thoughts actively, critically, and creatively. All these enable teachers to bring the students' cognitive, emotional, and intellectual involvement as well as their active participation and contribution in the learning process in class activities for their comprehensive awareness, empowerment, and growth for a life-long successful learning and living.

Teachers should ensure that emphasis is laid on authentic tasks and strategy training so that internalisation occurs through scaffolding and application of new acquired knowledge and strategies, in contexts that value dialogue, which involves respect, in lieu of monologue, which involves issuing communiqués, and negation of negotiation, critical thinking and reasoning and development. Other effective variables such as vocabulary and grammar acquisition through, for example, reading of authentic texts and most important of all adhering to the CTBL culture of learning should not be neglected in language classes if teachers want to have more effective language courses via CTBL. The point is that teachers should teach the academic concepts and strategies and social norms and principles simultaneously - as a whole - in appropriate contexts (contextualised teaching) with an eye to the outside of the classroom, to the real world. Therefore, merely focusing students' attention on learning the language is never sufficient. The stratagem of 'teaching students to retell and then forget' is also strongly prohibited in CTBL settings. But rather, teachers must try their utmost to immerse the students in the learning process not merely to learn but also to learn how to learn, compete, defeat or even fail, at class and social level. Teachers need to make students be aware of the full range of tactics and strategies available to them. They could train them to learn to think about what happens during the language learning process (meta-cognition), which in turn will enable them to develop more effective learning strategies, especially monitoring strategies. But they should also raise their students' awareness of the patterns of interaction in their milieu, outside the classroom. Teachers should analyse such patterns, directly or indirectly, and shed light on their consequent effects on the condition of their students' existence. To put it another way, teachers must increase their students' socio-political awareness and contribute to their socio-political competencies. Students' reactions on the agents of such patterns in their milieu will take care of itself, in the long haul though.

As this researcher (Hosseini, 2010) has explained, at a more concrete level, at the class level, teachers should be on a constant lookout for appropriate opportunities to problematise the learning context via posing captivating and at the same time challenging ideas or questions in order to reinforce the students meta-cognition and tap into and activate the innate skills and abilities assumed to be potentially present in them all. Teachers should possess the art and the ability of 'leading' to more effective learning and development 'by questioning' in their lands. But the imperative point is that merely posing questions is not enough; the kind of questions teachers ask make a world of difference to, for example, the quality of ultimate results. In fact, it differentiates between inspiring people allegiance or sabotage. Therefore, teachers should be able to address challenging queries to push the edges of students' thinking and motivate a pursuit for resolution via fostering especially 'outside-the-box' thinking. Such open questioning not only give students a voice and stimulates effective and authentic discussions, but also broadcasts respect for their opinions, expertise, and communicates value. It thus lends itself well to various settings like creative problem solving, team building, more effective participation and teamwork, a successful learning ethos and direction-setting, and valuable learning/living. To be successful in CTBL classes, thereby, teachers should learn to ask genuine powerful questions that target activating the critical attitude of students' minds (critical thinking) and encourage risk taking in thinking (creative thinking). One more point of crucial importance that teachers who would like to run their classes through my instructional approach should bear in mind is that merely enabling students to answer their strategic questions is never sufficient. They need to train their wards in such a way that it ensures their power to *develop* pertinent questions also, if they want to influence the world. They stimulate them to more effectively and comprehensively exercise their brain cells in critical thinking and, in the process, come up with fresher, more innovative, and more powerful ideas. Asking such questions unleashes students' dammed creativity and paves the way to new opportunities and real knowledge.

Leaders, who run their lands through CTBL, must, at the same time, also be able to diagnose and even predict the affective, cognitive, and environmental oriented problems and barriers to learning and be ready to resolve them appropriately whenever they arise. They need to know how to tackle different unpredictable problems, for example, with extremely disruptive citizens. They must be able not only to manage conflicts but to harness them to fulfill their socio-pedagogical/political goals. More specifically, they must pay special attention to low status, timid, shy, slow, and weak learners/people, and take heed of the fact that not every person can be fitted with any team.

One more thing which needs to be reminded is that because of the deficiencies in teaching English at primary and secondary levels, particularly the college teachers have another important professional challenge which must be met. They ought to fill the gaps in knowledge of students and wipe out the fossilized deterrent strategies of learning and the effects of bad learning. They should also modify their people's the sort of attitudes towards subject area, learning/living, and their milieu which if allowed to linger, they would barricade further learning and social/nation development. Teachers should also encourage citizens to participate and use English, as an international lingua franca, in their state/small team discussions with proper accent, which requires patience and strategies.

In CTBL settings, thereby, teachers must be able to think like scientists who have sufficient knowledge in the components of their profession such as subject matters, applied psycholinguistics, teaching methodology, and typologies of learners, and act like artists. They should be well informed of the principles as well as the latest issues and theoretical perspectives in the related disciplines such as social and cognitive psychology, sociology, anthropology, economics, philosophy, and particularly political science. Furthermore, they should have a comprehensive understanding of their people demands and expectations, personalities, competencies, learning/living styles, and of course the nature of learning and the contexts and processes under which it occurs more effectively. Most important of all, leaders should be cognisant of their people socio-political/cultural backgrounds and norms. It is also necessary for teachers to be adaptable and flexible enough to make the best use of the latest findings in their fields of concerns. It is, then, that they could exploit their arts to harness their knowledge for meeting CTBL pre-established objectives and goals, which is awakening and empowering tomorrow citizenry, and turbo charging their minds in such a way not only to survive in the face of untoward circumstances (occasioned by the side effects of the phenomenon of globalisation) but also to have significant impacts upon their milieu and even upon the world.

Finally, CTBL classes can also be supported through connecting learners to virtual learning environments (see Hosseini, 2007). Through developing their classes' blogs, wikies, websites, and moodles, for instance, which are supported by online technologies like podcasting and vodcasting, teachers can enhance the attainment of the CTBL's socio-political objectives. To sum up this section, it is in such a mindset about teachers' responsibilities that this researcher believes that science and art are two strong wings for teachers without either of each they cannot succeed to proceed.

III. MAJOR THEORETICAL BUILDING BLOCKS OF CTBL

A. *Cognitive Socio-political Language Learning Theory: Theory of Language of CTBL*

As noted, the practical results of the present interactive methods and approaches like Cooperative/Participative/Interactive Learning, which have been introduced by constructivists, are falling short of expectation in the real world situations as they are not able to mirror the real world holism. It is in such a context that this researcher believes that in addition to sociolinguistic/socio-cultural factors, economical and particularly *political factors* should be prioritised in (language) learning environments as they affect students' motivation and zest not only for learning but for living as well. This is the reason as to why this researcher insists on the idea that *socio-political* competency should be added to students' communicative competency in our classes. This researcher is of the opinion that learners are socio-politically situated- rather than isolated individuals in communities, and that language is a tool for socio-political relations and performance of socio-political transactions among individuals and communities.

In its theory of language, thereby, as this researcher (Hosseini, 2010) has explained, CTBL postulates language use and language learning as interactive activities which occur best in contexts where encourage discussion and negotiation of meaning, and learner active involvement and participation in team activities that involve risk taking, hypothesis testing, plan/decision making, problem solving, and making judgments about the achieved progress (i.e. developmental evaluation). In words of one syllable, CTBL espouses the 'interactional' view of language, the developed combination of structural and functional views of language, and so prioritises both the knowledge of appropriate use of meaningful language and the ability to manage discourse interactions, in *socio-political contexts*.

Therefore, as opposed to constructivists who deem language as a social phenomenon and as a means for communication and constructing knowledge, this researcher believes *language is a socio-political phenomenon* and a *means for any form of reform and constructing just societies* also. To put it another way, the truth is that language is a means for thinking as one may not be able to think without (mental/verbal) use of language. Simply put, language facilitates managing/engineering mental activities/thinking. Keeping this in mind, the point, in this researcher's view, is that thinking, which is perhaps the mere possession over which we, the oppressed, have absolute control and no one can deprive us of, is crucial not just for (language) learning to take place and for successful social interaction, it is also the very requirement, if not the key, for any form of reform, change, and *transformation*. (Hosseini, 2010) This is possible because *thoughts* gather together to shape our attitudes. And our attitudes impact upon and reorient our beliefs. And

there is POWER in our beliefs as they influence and go forth in our behaviours and actions, which by their turn, lead on to our destinies. *Thinking*, thereby, this researcher reckons, is the most powerful as well as complex psychological tool or artefact for any form of reform and building organised and *just* societies, which better contribute to world peace. (Hosseini, 2010)

But the kind of thinking this researcher is discussing about is something totally different from the ilk of thinking the conventional instructional methods and approaches like the Traditional Lecture Method or the Banking Method are encouraging. The sort of thinking this researcher is discussing about is a complicated profession as he is of the stand that just as there is nothing easier than to think, so there is nothing more difficult than to think appropriately. The kind of thinking he suggests exacts techniques and methods, as it involves objectivity, direction, approach, style, and quality. Therefore, what is essential for this researcher's students to consider in the course of thinking is that they should try to

1. Decolonize their minds and approach new things, ideas, persons, etc. objectively first.
2. Think about not only the lines and between the lines but also beyond the lines, which exacts critical awareness.
3. Be risk takers and go beyond the red lines.
4. Think from a higher level and do not engage too much in details.
5. Think holistically, creatively, logically, critically and analytically.

The bare truth is that such sort of thinking leads us to the truth, and as holly prophet Jesus confirmed, the truth will liberate us. One hour appropriate and strategic thinking thereby is much more valuable than years blind prayer particularly for the underdogs in countries ruled by despots or some wolf-in-nature sheep-like leaders.

To sum up, from the point of view of this researcher's Cognitive Socio-Political Language Theory (CSPLL theory), language is something more than a means for merely communication. This researcher believes that *language is a liberating agent* also as he is of the opinion that language has the potential to provide us a channel through which we have the significant opportunity to convey our ideas, ideology, dreams, beliefs and thoughts to our audience, to our students who are tomorrow citizenries. This is very important because that way we can contribute to a change in their approaches to thinking and even to a change in their thoughts. The point, as explained, is that their thoughts shape their destinies. This is as to why this researcher believes that teachers are agents of change. We, teachers, thereby, as AGENTS of CHANGE, have the potential to change our present peasant societies into more civilized nations and civilizations, through availing ourselves of the purposeful language in our classes. It was in such a context that this researcher suggested teachers to run their classes through his liberal approach to teaching which was designed based on his own CSPLL theory. You may also search Dr Hosseini Didactic Weapon on the net to see his introductory video to his innovative approach for which he received his PhD in language teaching methodology from the biggest democracy in the world. As mentioned, this researcher is of the stand that his educational weapon contributes effectively to the overthrow of corrupt and dictatorial regimes as it is, in point of actual fact, an approach to the education of the Oppressed.

This researcher's (Hosseini, 2010) CSPLL theory, which considers language as a liberating agent, and its affiliated approach to various forms of transformation per se could justify the reason as to why the mechanisms underlying CTBL are directed towards improving thinking abilities of students. They focus upon promoting *different aspects of thinking* (particularly higher order of incisive and analytical thinking) abilities of students with special attention to the significance of the process of thinking in reasoning growth. It is based on such premises that CTBL provides *all* students with more *equal opportunities* to obtain knowledge, understand it, analyse it, synthesize it, evaluate it and make judgments *via the application of language* (i.e., thinking) to highly motivating genuine *shared learning environments*, with the scaffold of their peers. (See also the section on Multiple Input-Output Hypothesis)

In CTBL bona fide environments, students have significantly more opportunities not only to listen to their more capable pairs or partners in their teams, while they are thinking aloud, which allows them to acquire their styles of and approaches to thinking, but also to *use language - to think -* in such contexts. Moreover, CTBL supplies students with the significant opportunities to *produce/use language* in more complicated contexts such as in class-wide discussions or in team tournaments wherein they are also challenged to support their answers/ideas with reason and logic (i.e. to practice *purposeful thinking - by using language in the course of interaction with others*). To put it another way, one outstanding feature of this researcher's approach to teaching refers to the fact that despite the present methods and approaches cherished by our antediluvian dictatorial didactic regimes, it draws on language *as a tool for empowering individuals' minds with critical approaches to incisive, analytical, and divergent thinking skills* in order to enable them to have greater impact on their milieu and in so doing to transform the conditions of not merely their own existence but also that of the humanity. All these are possible as it is language, in this researcher's classes, that is the instrument to think, negotiate meaning, and discuss understandings and ideas, and criticize one another for more comprehensive and effective achievement, growth, and development. Thinking, meaning, and social interaction are, thereby, appreciated as the key to successful (language) learning/living, in CTBL settings. (Hosseini, 2010)

Therefore, contrary to the traditional methods and approaches' theoretical foundations which consider language learning as a simple shallow exercise that could be learnt through passively listening, emulating, and reproducing the material already memorised in contrived environments, CTBL's theory of language deems language learning as a complicated process. This process involves active involvement of *all of the students* in interactive semi/authentic socio-political environments. Such environments are highly contributive to the development of objectivity, creativity, social skills, socio-political awareness, higher-quality cognitive strategies, and higher order of incisive and analytical thinking

skills such as abstract thinking and critical deductive reasoning, rather than survival strategies and lower forms of mental behaviour/thinking (e.g. syllogistic reasoning).

In sum, from the point of view of CSPLL theory, language, as a socio-political phenomenon, is the cornerstone of human prosperity. That is, language develops best in interaction of individual with others, and, in its turn, contributes to their thinking/reasoning abilities. And an individual with a powerful mind, who is naturally rational, would have a more successful social relationship and would more effectively contribute to just societies and world peace. (Hosseini, 2010)

As indicated in Figure 1, in this researcher's opinion, social interaction, language development, reasoning abilities, learning, successful relationships, and social development and world peace are inextricably interwoven.

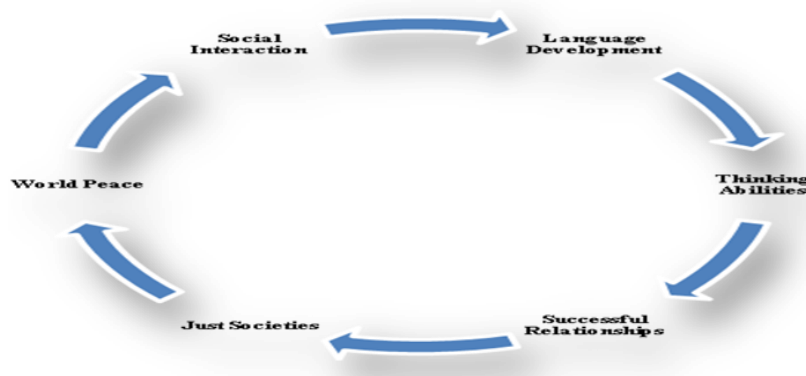


Figure 1. The cyclical interplay among social interaction, language development, thinking/reasoning abilities, learning, successful relationships, and social development and world peace proposed by CSPLL theory. (Hosseini, 2012a).

As noted in the video and in the above sections, CTBL is not limited to developing the ability of students for merely appropriate use of language and/or to focusing on communicative competence of students, as it was posited by founders of the present instructional methods and approaches like CLT. Nor does it focus on developing merely social skills of students as it is in present innovative cooperative learning methods and approaches. CTBL has a far broader and much more realistic outlook as this researcher is of the opinion that successful survival in the present real world settings and being able to face the realities of this dynamic and complicated tough competitive world demands something more than the appropriate use of the language in benign environments (Hosseini, 2007). Through applying CTBL, teachers have enormous opportunities to impact upon thinking styles and approaches of tomorrow citizenry, improve their socio-political awareness, recalibrate their attitudes, redirect their beliefs and change their behaviors, all of which affects our shared destinies. Furthermore, as explained, in CTBL settings, where using the language to learn it rather than learning to use it is encouraged, students learn to take responsibility not just for their own learning in the course of constructing knowledge but for constructing just societies in the real world situation.

This researcher hopes that his theory would involve a paradigm change in the present ideological trends in the arena of Education in general and ELT in particular.

B. Multiple Input-output Hypothesis: The Present Hypotheses Are Not Enough

According to the Noticing Hypothesis, only that part of the (comprehensible) input which is noticed could find a mental home and so become *intake*. Let this researcher continue that this may best happen *if the environment is relaxing and affective filter is low, and if interaction is encouraged*. (Hosseini, 2010) To put it another way, the Noticing Hypothesis, Input Hypothesis, Affective Filter Hypothesis, and Interaction Hypothesis contribute to ELT, but they are not enough. The point is that mere intake, for the contribution to which the mentioned hypotheses have been put forward, is not adequate: Students also need to *communicate* their understandings (The Output Hypothesis). *The problem*, however, is that, as a number of researchers like Jiang (2010) have also averred, not all the intake could be *transformed* into productive skills (i.e. writing and speaking), albeit they more easily contribute to listening and reading abilities of students. Worse yet, to this researcher's best knowledge, there is no didactic theory or hypothesis that proposes an effective solution for contribution to this kind of transformation. This thought-provoking lacuna in the present related literature inspired this researcher (Hosseini, 2010) to propose his hypothesis, Multiple Input-Output Hypothesis (MIO hypothesis), as under, in order to address the dilemma, and in so doing to contribute to the success of ELT:

Though input, low affective filter, noticing, output, and even interaction (even as it is considered by constructivists like Vygotsky) are crucial, they are not sufficient conditions for more effective and comprehensive language acquisition to take place in language classes: Greater and more systematic focus should be on *the transformation of the intake into productive skills*. And the provision of *multiple sources* of both 'input' and 'output' in learning environments is an appropriate solution for more effective contribution to this kind of transformation. (Hosseini, 2010, p. 239)

Realising the importance of multiple sources of input and output in language acquisition as one of the major requirements for more effective and comprehensive language learning and development, this researcher proposed the MIO hypothesis. Consequently, he (Hosseini, 2010) has tried to bring multiple sources of input and output through the implementation of a variety of activities and strategies in bona fide and highly structured motivational- as well as dialogic-based CTBL relaxing interactive environments to contribute to the explained transformation. Valuing language as a whole (i.e. integrating all facets of language, which is not appreciated in the arena of ELT today), encouraging peer discussion in different stages (i.e., through pair work, teamwork and class-wide discussions), AND appreciating the significance of multiple whos are among them.

To appreciate the integration of all (sub-) skills of language even in specific courses for reading, for instance, this researcher (Hosseini, 2010) tries to consider listening, speaking and writing as complementary skills to reading. He believes that the whole language, rather than its isolated parts, carries more meaning, which should be negotiated and processed in this researcher's classes. Furthermore, these skills have many characteristics in common, and so their effects are interrelated. The ideas in a text can contribute to more effective communication (i.e. listening and speaking), and hence the development of writing abilities of students which is in turn conducive to reading. Moreover, as this researcher (Hosseini, 2010) put it, the fact is that in order to prove their academic reading abilities, especially at the collegiate level, students need to communicate properly. These are parts of the reasons for accommodating writing activities like note taking, outlining, paraphrasing, and summarizing in learning environments that highly encourage *oral* negotiation of themes and ideas as complementary activities to reading in this researcher's reading classes.

These activities in such situations are conducive to further involvement and active participation and contribution of students in collaborative learning and encourage them to focus and concentrate not just on semantic but also on syntactic components of texts at hand which make learning more purposeful. Needless to say that this kind of context seeks mutual input-output treatment and also deeper analysis of both input and output not just for meaning but for accuracy and frequency as well and so solicits deeper levels of cognition. And all these, in their turn, contribute to students' in-depth *comprehension* of the material and also to their productive skills. These in-this researcher's-classes social activities (i.e., reading, listening, speaking and writing), thereby, not only serve his classes as multiple sources of input and output but also contribute to improving their own interwoven effects. The nature of the interactive learning situation occasioned by the appreciation of these four skills plays its role as a mediator between *input* and *output*. In sum, all these mechanisms help to *turn* input into *understanding* and understanding into output; that is, they contribute to *the transformation*. (Hosseini, 2010)

It goes without saying that such communicative situations provide learners with the opportunities to learn not merely about the language but also about how to use the language appropriately in semi/authentic environments. They develop students' higher-quality cognitive strategies, which in their turn contribute to productive skills and long-term retention of information, which is a criterion for real learning. (Hosseini, 2010) More importantly, such contexts are also more likely to bolster students' various aspects as well as quality of *thinking* abilities, in implicit and explicit ways, which are contributive to purposeful living. This researcher's MIO hypothesis is thereby a great asset to modern ELT. (Hosseini, 2010)

Apart from the theory and the hypotheses discussed in the present article, there are likewise a considerable number of theories which confirm the relevance of CTBL. Andragogy-, socio-cultural-, engagement-, speech-, motivational- and even behavioural learning- theories are among them. (See Hosseini, 2010)

IV. DISTINGUISHING CTBL FROM CLT AND OTHER INTERACTIVE METHODS AND APPROACHES

As opposed to Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), this researcher's innovative instructional approach

1. Has strong and unique theoretical foundations;
2. Supplies pragmatic guidelines to effective and systematic implementation of teamwork, which is of paramount importance for the success of language classes;
3. Systematically caters to learners with different ability ranges and learning styles;
4. Is not restricted to the PPP (Present, Practice, Produce) model of presentation as this researcher has, for instance, introduced another P which stands for *Personalising* what is learnt by the part of learners;
5. Appreciates the significance of multiple sources of input and output and some other crucial context variables like motivation and active as well as total engagement of all learners in the learning process;
6. Generates highly relaxing and at the same time motivating learning atmospheres for more effective language acquisition and learning;
7. Conveys crystal-clear views regarding the learning process and the mechanisms under which effective language learning occurs;
8. Is not limited to a particular view of language learning or a particular type of syllabus;
9. Facilitates simultaneous development of all aspects of communicative competence of students, including their socio-political competence, which has been overlooked by even modern educational theories and approaches like CLT;
10. Takes great care of moral and human values, and
11. Never forgets the idea that learners are human beings as it does not focus on merely enabling learners to communicate: CTBL is cognizant of the fact that successful living in the present real world settings and being able to

face the realities of this dynamic and complicated competitive world demands something more than the appropriate use of the language in benign environments. (See Hosseini, 2007)

Therefore, as this researcher (Hosseini, 2014) explains, CTBL is of high value particularly for today world language classes in the sense that the mechanisms underlying it are naturally favourable not only to language acquisition and to the development of all aspects of communicative competence of students. They are also highly conducive to critical sensibility of students and the quality of their understandings and reasoning that are contributive to the accuracy of their long-term retention, personal growth, and disposition.

What is more is that contrary to the present Cooperative/Interactive Learning Methods and Approaches, CTBL

1. Helps the best students feel satisfied and puts an end to their objection and unwillingness to contribute their efforts into the success of their groups;
2. Enforces individual accountability of all group members, and thus limits the scope for social loafers and free riders;
3. Brings for students not merely a zest for true and active shared learning but further opportunities to be more clearly aware of their capacities and capabilities in a broader sense also;
4. Equips students for current globalized environment which requires workforce and citizens who are competent in skills like teamwork, conflict management, and successful collective decision making amidst competitive environments, and
5. Contributes to learning humanitarian democratic values and hence to the elimination of dictatorship and apartheid which means the development of live, humane, healthy, creative, and civilised societies and world peace. (See Hosseini, 2012, 2018)

V. SOME RESEARCHES ON THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THIS RESEARCHER'S INSTRUCTIONAL INNOVATION

A number of researches have illustrated the significance and effectiveness of this researcher's instructional approach, Competitive Team-Based Learning (CTBL). In his MA research study, this researcher (Hosseini, 2000) compared the effectiveness of his own approach (CTBL) with the Traditional Lecture Method (TLM). He found significant results for the effectiveness of CTBL in improving the reading comprehension of Iranian high school students. Also, he found that his approach contributed to the development of reading comprehension abilities of lower performers more effectively than the TLM.

This researcher's PhD research study (Hosseini, 2009, cited in Jahanbazian, 2015), which was a comparative empirical research study sought to explore and examine the complex effects of his educational innovation, CTBL, with Learning Together and the Traditional Lecture Method (TLM) on Iranian and Indian EFL/ESL undergraduate learners': (a) reading comprehension in English, (b) language learning strategies, (c) attitudes towards English language learning and the select teaching methods, and (d) retention of information. All these objectives were addressed with respect to different-level achievers of the target groups with the help of field studies and experiments in Iran and India. It should be mentioned that Learning Together or Cooperative Group-Based Learning (CGBL) method has been developed by Johnson and Johnson at the University of Minnesota in the USA.

It became evident from the analysis of the data gathered that CTBL and CGBL served to (a) increase acquisition of texts contents, (b) widen repertoire of language learning strategies, (c) generate positive attitudes, and (d) improve retention of information, on the part of the target groups more significantly than the TLM. (Hosseini, 2014) Further analysis of the data revealed that whereas CGBL was substantially more effective in developing the reading skills of the participants, CTBL was more successful in developing their metacognitive and affective strategies. It was likewise noted that CTBL facilitated the participants' long-term retention of information or their depth of understanding of the texts contents more effectively than CGBL. The results also indicated that it was CGBL, rather than CTBL, that was more successful in Iran. But, in India, it was CTBL.

In another study, this researcher (Hosseini, 2012b) found that CTBL contributed to the language proficiency of Iranian EFL college seniors more effectively than Structured Academic Controversy method of Johnson brothers at the University of Minnesota in the USA. Also in 2014, in another study, he compared the effectiveness of his method with Group Investigation, developed by Sharan and Sharan (1992) at Tel Aviv University, in Israel, with reference to the language proficiency of Iranian EFL intermediate students. This researcher found that his method was more effective in promoting the language proficiency of Iranian EFL intermediate students.

In her study, Jahanbazian (2015) intended to look and compare the possible effects of CTBL with Learning Together (LT) – the most popular method of Cooperative Learning (CL) -- on oral performance of Iranian EFL intermediate students. She also wanted to measure the participants' attitudes towards language learning, individualistic class structure, CL, and the selected methods before and after the study. The results of the study showed that CTBL had a more significant effect on improving the oral performance of Iranian intermediate students. Analysis of the quantitative questionnaire results confirmed that there was more tendency towards supporting the implementation of cooperative strategies. More specifically, the participants had more positive attitudes towards CTBL rather than LT.

Akbarzadeh's (2016) study was an experimental investigation on the effects of CTBL and Student Teams Achievement Divisions (STAD), developed by Slavin and associates (1977) at Johns Hopkins University, in the US, on the reading comprehension of Iranian EFL intermediate students. After conducting an IELTS Reading test to a total population of 75, sixty students were selected, based on their scores in the pretest. Then they were randomly assigned to control and

experimental groups – thirty per group. Each class was divided into seven teams of four – the two remained students in each class worked in pairs. The control group was instructed via STAD technique, which is a well-known technique of cooperative learning, while the experimental group were instructed via this researcher's approach to (language) teaching (i.e., CTBL). The reading comprehension test (posttest) was used at the end of the study to assess the probable progress in the reading comprehension ability of the students. The results of the study confirmed the significant effects of CTBL on the participants' reading comprehension achievement.

In another study, Salimi Bani (2017) studied the effect of CTBL and Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC) on the reading comprehension of Iranian intermediate EFL learners. She found significant results which proved the superiority of CTBL over CIRC in improving the reading comprehension of Iranian intermediate EFL learners.

And finally, Salari (2018, 2019) studied the effect of CTBL vs. Reciprocal Teaching of Reading (RTR), developed by Palinscar, at the University of Michigan, and Brown (1985), at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, on reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners. She also tried to gauge the attitude of the participants towards these methods before and after the study. In her study, after administering Interchange placement test to a total population of 75, and after ensuring that the participants were at the intermediate level and that they were homogenous, sixty students were selected, based on their scores in the pretest. Then, they were randomly assigned to two experimental groups – thirty per group. Each class was divided into seven teams of four – the two remaining students in each class worked in pairs. Before the experiment, we conducted the Interchange reading test and the questionnaire. In the course of experimentation, while the first experimental group was instructed via RTR method of CL, the second experimental group was instructed via this researcher's method of (language) teaching (i.e., CTBL). At the end of the study the questionnaire was applied once again. The reading comprehension test (posttest) was also used to assess the probable progress in the reading comprehension ability of the students. The results on independent samples T-test verified the significant impact of CTBL on the participants' reading comprehension achievements. That is, CTBL was more effective than RTR in improving the reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL intermediate students. It was also found that the participants had developed more positive attitudes towards CTBL.

VI. CONCLUSION AND CLOSURE

The common belief is that language is a means for communication. But in his PhD thesis, in 2009, this researcher rebutted such a traditional definition. As explained, in his theory and hypothesis, this researcher has castigated the present theories and hypotheses in the field of ELT/Education and has gone beyond the red lines occasioned by imperialist and dictatorial Education regimes' theorists/think tanks. This researcher has done such in an attempt to formulate his beliefs about education into a systematic educational approach for overthrow of corrupt/dictatorial regimes thereby tackling the present eduo socio-economical and particularly political problems at local, national and international levels.

Contrary to the conventional instructional methods and approaches, the nature and the characteristics of this researcher's pedagogical innovation not only contribute to language learning (strategies) and excellence in the learning. They likewise promote true and flexible active learning, interactive competence, long-term retention, and especially the acquisition of some crucial habits of mind such as objectivity, and critical and creative thinking. Another outstanding feature of this world-class approach to ELT/Education refers to the fact that it facilitates tomorrow citizenry to instil humanitarian interpersonal skills and democratic values, principles, and norms which are essential requirements for successful life-long learning, working, interdependence, and survival in today world context. (Hosseini, 2011)

The importance of CTBL, as a fundamentally different approach to ELT/Education, thereby, goes beyond academic achievement of participants. That is what highly differentiates CTBL from the conventional methods and approaches lies in the fact that it focuses upon foundational facets of contemporary education by aiming at forming and moulding interdependent competent life-long learners who will be able to flourish both academically as well as socially. More particularly, the significance of CTBL for today world context refers to the fact that in addition to developing communication abilities and social skills of today students, it aims at *empowering* and turbo charging *their minds* in order to *transform* them into tomorrow's agents of change or the Subjects who will have the capacity to influence the world and contribute to more civilised social order/cohesion and eventually to world peace.

As a highly structured, psychologically and socio-politically based learning-centered strategic didactic approach, which mingles affective, cognitive and socio-political aspects of learning, CTBL is an exceptional edu-political approach that aims at awakening, empowering and emancipating the oppressed majority, who have been ignored and even belittled in the present world circumstances. As this researcher has explained in his weblog (Hosseini, 2011), considering its magic transforming power for converting today students/objects to agents of change or the subjects who have the capacity to influence the world, his inimitable revolutionary innovation is in essence a *catalyst for change*. CTBL, thereby, has been introduced to compensate the deficiencies of the present methods and innovations and reduce the discrepancy between what the present education system makes out of our nations and what the realities of today world context exacts them to be. (See Hosseini, 2014)

Competitive Team-Based Learning is the sum total of this researcher's academic life. As a major building block to modern democracy, CTBL derives inspirations from his philosophy. His CSPLL theory serves CTBL as an *axis*. His

MIO hypothesis is the *skeleton* of CTBL. His especial evaluation system serves his approach to the education of the Oppressed as a *heart*. His educational materials, tasks, techniques, and activities shape its *flesh*. This researcher's ethos manifest in the form of his approach's *spirit*. And his objective and syllabus guides CTBL as its *brain*. CTBL is this researcher's *vow*: His vow against any sources of condescending look, Hitlerian outlook, oppression, corruption, destruction, and terror and bloodshed, at societal, social, and global level. *CTBL's main mission is to unfold the real worth of despots after he awakens their soldiers and possessions* – the people/ the feeble. This researcher will fight the battle against the despot, who plays the role of an oppressive god, to give meaning to his sufferings, and to heal his wounds occasioned by his special guard.

This researcher has brought himself, by long meditation, to the conviction that the dawn of CTBL connotes the demise of the remainders of the ancient barbarous despots/emperors in today world context as he strongly believes that the fate of empires depends on teachers' approaches to the education of the youth. CTBL, this researcher's *realistic approach to liberal education* is, thereby, in the last analysis though, an ensured pathway to human security, development, and prosperity all of which contribute to global peace, the ultimate dream of humanity in today world context of racism, injustice and despotism. CTBL is a future oriented edu-political approach which responds to the need for a paradigm shift in today world Education. It involves a shift in teaching paradigms, a shift in the way of thinking about teaching and living.

To sum up, the illocutionary force of this article is the implementation of this researcher's didactic weapon by teachers, in the present dog-eat-dog world context of racism, injustice and despotism, if they want to contribute to just societies and world peace. But for the perlocutionary effect of this article to come true, there is a need for the teachers, particularly in corrupt/dictatorial regimes, to have the courage to transform themselves first into intellectual sources of critical awareness and *agents of change* (change in cognition, thinking styles, beliefs, attitudes, and actions of the inhabitants of their milieus). This kind of transformation accelerates transforming of their students for uprooting any sources of corruption, oppression, fascism, terror and bloodshed, and destruction from among their societies. This way, they could ensure appropriate developments in their societies and consequently in the world. Hence the necessity of realising and the very need for redefining *teaching* as a *complicated eduo-political process* which involves democratic thinking – at the global level, and diplomatic acting – at the class level, if we want to contribute to world peace.

For more comprehensive understanding of CTBL, it's salient features, techniques, evaluation system, syllabus, materials, tasks and activities, and also for teachers as well as students responsibilities in classes run through CTBL, rationale beyond the success of CTBL, and much more information contact this researcher or see his 17th seminal guidebook titled *Competitive Team-Based Learning: Beyond Current Didactic Methods*, which was published by Lambert Academic Publishing, Germany, in 2015/2018 (ISBN 978-613-9-88479-7). As this researcher has explicated (Hosseini, 2011), this seminal 676-page volume has special foci upon:

1. Penetrating deep into the conventional antediluvian dictatorial didactic regimes, which cherish the Banking Method, and excoriating the beyond;
2. Shedding light on the chronological development of language teaching methodology for justifying the need for accommodating Dr Hosseini's innovation in education regimes;
3. Engineering the conventional educational methods and approaches towards CTBL;
4. Differentiating CTBL from other innovative methods/approaches, and discussing the significance and relevance of this holistic approach against the backdrop of on-going globalisation which means a great deal of competitive spirit in today world context;
5. Bringing to the fore the author's Multiple Input-Output Hypothesis and Cognitive Socio-Political Language Learning Theory, which is the core of theoretical foundations of CTBL;
6. Implementing CTBL via the emerging online technologies state/country wide, and
7. Stimulating the readers' critical, analytical, and creative thinking skills, and promoting their personal growth especially through the 13 chapter-end thought-provoking discussion questions.

This invaluable resource manual, which introduces teaching as the heart of modern democracy, will be of immense help particularly to those educators who are committed to the cause of nation as well as peace building. As a gold mine of the latest issues in ELT/Education, it will also be found highly useful for ELT students, teachers of all subjects at all levels, and in-service programmes and seminars for instructors. Policy makers, educationalists, researchers, syllabus designers, and material developers could also take note of the noteworthy benefits this manuscript proposes. (Hosseini, 2011) You can download the first edition of this book for free from <http://iranglobal.info/node/67290> or contact this researcher to send you the *second edition* of the book.

VII. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This researcher suggests theorists/specialists to compare his theory and hypothesis with the present theories/hypotheses from different angles. He also suggests language teachers and researchers at all grade levels to compare the effectiveness of his approach to (language) teaching with other methods and approaches with regard to all skills and sub skills of language. That way, they could help the authorities of foreign language learning and language teaching in ministries of education and science and technology make decisions about implementing CTBL in schools and universities. Furthermore, this researcher believes that CTBL has more significant impacts on the development of

students' higher-quality cognitive/learning strategies and higher order of incisive, critical and analytical thinking skills such as abstract thinking and critical deductive reasoning. Also he is of the strong opinion that his innovative revolutionary approach to teaching, which focuses upon the implementation of systematic teamwork amidst competitive environments, contributes to tomorrow citizenries' objectivity, creativity, social skills, socio-political awareness and in the last analysis to nation building, more civilised societies, modern democracy and world peace more effectively than the present methods and approaches. These areas could be investigated by teachers/ researchers in other fields of education also.

REFERENCES

- [1] Akbarzadeh, M. (2016). A Study into the Effects of Competitive Team-Based Learning And 'Student Teams- Achievement Divisions' on The Reading Comprehension of Iranian EFL Intermediate Students. Unpublished MA Thesis, Islamic Azad University of Roudehen, Iran.
- [2] Brown, A. L. (1984). Reciprocal teaching of comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring activities. *Cognition and Instruction*, 1, 117–175.
- [3] Ellis, R. (2003). Task-Based language learning and teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [4] Freire, P. (1973). Education for critical consciousness. New York: Continuum.
- [5] Hosseini, S.M.H. (2000). The Impact of Competitive Team-Based Learning on the Reading Comprehension of Iranian High School Students. Unpublished MA Thesis, Islamic Azad University of Garmsar, Iran.
- [6] Hosseini, S.M.H. (2007a). ELT in Higher Education in Iran and India: A Critical View. *Language in India*, 7, 1-11. Retrieved from <http://www.languageinindia.com/dec2007/eltinindiaandiran.pdf> (accessed on: 24/01/ 2019).
- [7] Hosseini, S.M.H. (2007b). Infusion of Emerging Online Technologies into ELT: The Need of the Hour”, Published at *Perspectives in Education*, 25(2009): 119–127. Also, [Online] Available at: <http://eltweekly.com/2009/06/eltweekly-issue22-research-paper-by-mohammad-hassan-hosseini/> (accessed on: 30/01/ 2019).
- [8] Hosseini, S.M.H. (2009). Effectiveness of Cooperative Learning Methods: A Study with Iranian and Indian Undergraduate Learners. Unpublished PhD Thesis, Mysore University, India.
- [9] Hosseini, S.M.H. (2010). Theoretical foundations of Competitive Team-Based Learning. *Canadian International Journal of English Language Teaching* 3, 229 - 243.
- [10] doi:10.5539/elt.v3n3p229. Retrieved from <http://www.ccsenet.org/journal/index.php/elt/article/view/7236> (accessed on: 24/01/ 2019).
- [11] Hosseini, S.M.H. (2011). <http://www.beyondelt.blogfa.com>
- [12] Hosseini, S.M.H. (2012a). Beyond the present methods and approaches to ELT/education: The crucial need for a radical reform. Tehran: Jungle Publication.
- [13] Hosseini, S. M. H. (2012b). A study of the effects of Competitive Team-Based Learning and Structured Academic Controversy on the language proficiency of Iranian EFL college seniors. *The International Journal of Adult Vocational Education and Technology*, 3, 100-105. doi: 10.4018/javet.2012100105.
- [14] Hosseini, S. M. H. (2014). Competitive Team-Based Learning versus Group Investigation with reference to the language proficiency of Iranian EFL intermediate students. *International Journal of Instruction*, 7, 176-188.
- [15] Hosseini, S.M.H. (2015). Method Engineering: Towards a Strategic Approach to the Empowerment of the Other. *International Journal of SYLWAN*, 4(2),159-168.
- [16] Hosseini, S.M.H. (2018). Competitive Team-Based Learning: Beyond current didactic methods. Germany: Lambert Academic Publishing.
- [17] Hosseini, S.M.H. (2019). Competitive Team-Based Learning vs. Reciprocal Teaching of Reading: A Study in Reading Classes. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, May Issue. Forthcoming.
- [18] Jahanbazian, T. (2015). A study into the effects of 'Competitive Team-Based Learning' and 'Learning Together' on the oral performance of intermediate EFL Learners. *Iranian Journal of Research in English Language Teaching*, 3, 60-73. Retrieved from http://relp.khuisf.ac.ir/article_533624_3a87dbba748748e68ba1f08bc20cd106.pdf (accessed on: 24/01/ 2019).
- [19] Jahanbazian, T. (2015 b). A Study into the Effects of Competitive Team-Based Learning and Learning Together on the Oral Performance of Intermediate EFL Learners. Unpublished MA Thesis, Kohgiluyeh And Boyer Ahmad Islamic Azad University, Iran.
- [20] Jahanbazian, T. (2015). Competitive team-based learning in conversation classes. Germany: Scholar Press.
- [21] Jiang, Y. (2010). A feasibility study of applying “double-output hypothesis” into task-based teaching approach in second language acquisition. *Language Teaching and Research*, 1, 397-400. doi: 10.4304/jltr.1.4.397-400.
- [22] Krashen, S. D. (1985). The input hypothesis: Issues and implications. London: Longmont.
- [23] Long, M. H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Hand book of second language acquisition* (pp. 413–468). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- [24] Salari, F. (2018). The Effect of Competitive Team-Based vs. Reciprocal Program in Reading Comprehension Ability of Iranian EFL Learners. Unpublished MA Thesis, Quchan Islamic Azad University, Iran.
- [25] Salimi Bani, K. (2017). The Effect of Competitive Team-Based Learning (CTBL) and Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC) on the Reading Comprehension of Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners. Unpublished MA Thesis, Khorasgan (Isfahan) Islamic Azad University, Iran.
- [26] Schmidt, R. (2001). Attention. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- [27] Slavin, R. E. (1978). Student teams and achievement divisions. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 12, 39–49.
- [28] Stern, H. H. (1992). Issues and options in language teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [29] Swain, M. (1993). The output hypothesis: Just speaking and writing aren't enough. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 50, 158–164. doi: 10.3138/cmlr.50.1.158.



Seyed Mohammad Hassan Hosseini, as an Iranian liberal educator, is interested in democratic education and has a zest for awakening, empowering, and emancipating the oppressed majority. He succeeded to publish more than 150 bookticles during his stay in India, in the course of pursuing his PhD, in ELT. Dr Hosseini has suggested *language* as a *liberating agent* in his seminal *Cognitive Socio-Political Language Learning Theory* based upon which he introduced his instructional weapon, a weapon for the overthrow of dictatorial regimes. Particularly, he recalibrates the critical attitude of his mind towards the philosophy beyond curricula in corrupt regimes and focuses upon the importance of his didactic weapon for educators in today world context of tyranny. Although Dr Hosseini has the experience of teaching in different universities both in Iran and overseas, he has been obliged to teach at a *school for backward students* in Mashhad. Dr Hosseini is now

searching for a job in another country.

A Study on the Influence of Teachers' Questioning in High School English Reading Class on Students' Critical Thinking

Wenjuan Song

School of Teacher Education, Shanxi Normal University, Shanxi, China

Abstract—This article studied whether teachers' questioning has an impact on the critical thinking of high school students in English class. Firstly, the author went to the practice school personally for a two-month classroom observation and recorded teachers' question in the classroom. This article referred to Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives, and divided the cognitive process into six dimensions: Remember, Understand, Apply, Analyze, Evaluate, Create. The first two of the six types were primary cognitive problems, and the last four were advanced cognitive question. In order to analyze whether the questions help or improve the critical thinking of high school students, the author wrote down the number of each question asked and the proportion of the total number of questions. Then author gave the students questionnaires and interviewed teachers about relative questions. Based on the collected data, this article analyzed the correlation. This study showed a certain degree of positive correlation between the Teachers' questioning and the students' critical thinking scores through the classroom observation record table and the students' reading scores in the test, as well as the students' critical thinking questionnaire data.

Index Terms—teachers' questioning, critical thinking, high school English reading teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

Critical thinking, commonly known as speculative ability, can be traced back to Socrates' "elicitation teaching theory". In short, it is a way for people to deal with information and is a process of intellectual training. It involves a series of mental activities and cognitive processes that are difficult to quantify and describe in terms of language. Since American philosopher and educator, John Dewey, known as the "father of modern critical thinking," wrote in *How We Think*: "Reflection is positive, continuous, and a careful examination of the basis of any belief or assumption of the form of knowledge and the conclusions derived from it." This statement is recognized as the earliest definition of the concept of critical thinking. "The basic elements that make up critical thinking are claims, issues, and arguments. Identifying, analyzing, and evaluating these components are the key to critical thinking." In Western society, critical thinking ability is considered to be an important resource for individual citizens in private life and social life. The United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, Canada and other countries have listed the cultivation of speculative ability as one of the important tasks of higher education. In recent years, it has also been widely mentioned in China, and there are many related researches. Zhong Qiquan (2002) said that the era of knowledge economy is an era of advocating "critical thinking" because it is the main driving force for the advancement of the knowledge society. However, the study of "critical thinking" and "critical thinking teaching" in China is almost blank. This is incompatible with the principle of promoting "quality education." The "innovative spirit and practical ability" emphasized by "quality education", if left the teaching of "critical thinking", it will be an empty talk. However, there is little research on the critical thinking of middle school students, and there is room for further exploration.

Research scholars on teachers' questioning have also done a lot. Qiao Jinfang (2012) of Northeast Normal University said that one of the important methods for teachers guiding students to read is to ask students questions. Teachers' questioning is not only an important part of classroom teaching, but also the most common form of interaction between teachers and students in classroom teaching. Questioning provides an important source for students to input language, and provides opportunities for students to output language, and promotes interaction and communication between teachers and students, and even between students and students. Effective teacher questioning can stimulate students' participation awareness and help students better understand the text and develop students' ability to solve problems, so as to improve the teaching effect of reading class." The effectiveness of teachers' questioning and the interrelationships between various aspects were very detailed.

Most of the researches on English teaching and even classroom questioning and critical thinking focus on the study of college students. Professor Cheng Xiaotang (2015) proposed that English learning is conducive to the development of students' critical thinking ability. In English learning, it can be adopted. Guiding students to identify and analyze the attitudes of language response, implied meanings, and presets to develop students' critical thinking ability. Yu Hang (2016) talked about teachers' questioning that "Teachers' questioning can be designed by teachers based on the topic of the text. These questions are not fixed. It can inspire students to think boldly and express their opinions." Through

questioning and answering, not only the students' critical thinking ability but also their speaking ability is cultivated." in her "College English Teaching and the Cultivation of Students' Critical Thinking Ability". Yang Lifang (2015) of Beijing Foreign Language University discussed the role of waveform questioning methods in the development of the thinking ability of English majors. There is not much research on middle school students. We need to continue to deepen and discover more deep connections. We will take corresponding measures in practical teaching to help middle school students learn better and cultivate critical thinking. According to Piaget's cognitive development theory, the formal computing stage (11-15 years old), children at this stage form logical thinking to solve various problems, from the specific image of the previous stage to the abstract reasoning. At this stage children can already start the hypothetical scenario.(Dong Jinping, 2015). During the youth period, all kinds of thinking have made great progress and development. At the critical stage of human thinking development, it is worthwhile to study and discover, so as to put forward better suggestions and help them to grow better. However, in China, English teaching of the most middle school still focus on the acquisition and teaching of English language knowledge. Vocabulary, grammar and reading are still the most important things and the cultivation of students' critical thinking skills are ignored. Because high school is at a critical stage of life growth, critical thinking is also in an important period of development, so it must be paid attention to and cultivated to promote the optimal development of individuals.

II. METHODOLOGY

This study aims to answer the following questions:

1. What is the tendency of high school students to think critically?
2. What is the use of teachers' questioning in the middle school English class? Through the class record table [(1) the type of questions the teacher asks in the class; (2) the number of questions asked by each question, the proportion of questions; the total number of questions; (3) whether the question is targeted, inspiring;)
3. What is the relationship between the teacher's questioning situation and the critical thinking tendency of high school students (English scores, reading grades)?

In this article, the author went to the Experimental School of Shanxi Normal University where she was in the internship school and followed eight high school teachers for two months to do classroom observation. The author mainly observed the types of teachers' questioning and their proportions, and interviewed 8 teachers. In addition, 384 high school students were selected as subjects for questionnaires and reading ability tests. The English of these high school students is at the general level of the city and is more representative. Eight teachers are also ordinary teachers. The students were from class 299, 300, 302, 303, 305, 307, 309, and 310, with a total of 50, 47, 44, 52, 41, 45, 52, and 53 people. It mainly investigates students' critical thinking tendency, and compares the English test scores of eight classes in October, especially reading grades, in order to explore the relationship between the two items.

The research methods mainly used in this study are: literature method, classroom observation method, questionnaire survey method, test method and interview method. The most important ones are classroom observation method, questionnaire method and test method. The classroom observation method is to analyze teachers' questioning situation of the eight classes English reading class in the Experimental Middle School of Shanxi Normal University. The questionnaire method and the test method respectively analyze the relationship between teachers' questioning and students' critical thinking tendency in high school English reading teaching through questionnaire and English month test paper. The author used two months to attend classes in the school, observe the classroom, and do the classroom recording of each lesson by doing lecture notes and mobile phone recording. At the end of the month, the student's monthly test scores, especially the scores of the reading part, are used to observe how the teacher's questioning situation of different teachers affects the students' reading performance. This article uses Lu Ziwen and the Critical Thinking Survey (Chinese version) questionnaire presented by the California Critical Thinking Tendency Test (CCTDI) to study the critical thinking scores of students. The questionnaire is divided into seven parts. They are seeking truth, open thought, analytical ability, systematic ability, self-confidence, curiosity, and cognitive maturity of critical thinking (Lu Ziwen, 2010). Each part has ten questions, each setting has six degrees of discrimination, 1=very agree, 2=quite agree, 3=compared, 4=general approval, 5=quite disapproval, 6=very disagree, representing one to six points respectively. The results are used to analyze the current state of critical thinking among high school students, the horizontal and vertical comparisons between dimensions, and how teachers' questioning relate to them.

First of all, the author selects eight high school teachers to number as T1, T2.....T8 in the internship school. And then followed each teacher for one week (10 lessons), observed their class and wrote down the class observes table, recorded the information you needed. In addition, the author interviewed the eight teachers during the spare time after class. The author had five questions asked the eight teachers, and made a record about teachers' opinions. The author recorded students' monthly test scores in October, especially in the reading section, comparing different classes that existing differences. And then the author gave out questionnaires of critical thinking for students which calculating the scores of each student, comparing the average scores of each class, and using SPSS 21 to do data analysis in order to find out the relevance of teachers' questioning, reading scores and critical thinking tendencies.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A. Results and Discussion of Teacher Questions (Analysis of Classroom Observation Survey Results, Analysis of Interview Results)

In this study, eight English teachers and eight classes students from a high school English group in Linfen City were selected for a two-month classroom observation, and the teaching of reading lessons for each English-speaking teacher was observed. The author selected a same subject teaching unit of the eight English teachers (six lessons), unit3 Travel Journal, and conducted an analysis according to the classroom observation project table.

Studies have shown that the primary cognitive problems accounted for more than 70% of the questions asked by the eight teachers. In the reading class, the teachers' questioning is about basic knowledge, including vocabulary, grammar knowledge and reading. These all help students understand the basic content of the text, the frame of the reading text body, and the analysis of the components of the long and difficult sentences. After reading class, there will be a small part of the analysis about the text content, topic and evaluation of the subject. Students can put forward their own views in the class and come to exchange, discuss with teachers and classmates, crash sparks of thinking. The results of the questionnaire indicated that there were many high-level questions in the teacher's class, and the corresponding critical thinking scores of the students in the class were slightly higher. The primary question with less overall questions and the questioning had a larger proportion of the class, and the students' critical thinking scores were also average. This preliminary indicated that the teacher's questioning type and the student's critical thinking were positively related. It can be seen that the problem of high-level cognition in the teacher's class helped to cultivate students' critical thinking.

In order to gain a deeper understanding of the teacher's questioning behavior and purpose, the author interviewed with the teacher after the class observation and discovered that teachers' attitudes and opinions on questions directly affect whether they will reasonably set high-level questions to ask students through interview surveys and teachers' personal information. For the first question, "What do you think about the teachers' questioning in the English reading class?" T1...T8 teachers all believed that teachers' classroom questions were important and essential classroom links. First of all, the role of the teacher's questioning was affirmed on a macro level, and then the specific functions of the teacher's question were recorded from the details. The second question "Do you think that the teacher's question has an impact on the students' reading ability in the reading class?" All teachers thought that the questions in the class had a great influence on the students' reading ability. And appropriate in-depth questions can stimulate students to think. So for the types of questions studied in this paper, the primary questions can be used to detect the degree of knowledge of students, the familiarity with the textbook content and the mastery of the grammar vocabulary of the knowledge points in this section, and the higher leveled questions can encourage students to be active and think about evaluation and promote the development of students' critical thinking.

At the same time, the reading scores of the students' monthly test paper scores are also more obvious. The scores of high-level questions teachers asked more and more interactive reading comprehension classes are higher than the ones that teachers less likely to ask questions or ask for higher grade cognitive questions. That explains that teachers' high-level questions can help students to improve their reading comprehension and critical thinking skills.

B. Analysis and Discussion of the Investigation Results of Critical Thinking

In this paper, the author drew on the Chinese version of the Critical Thinking Questionnaire (Lu Ziwen, 2010) written by CZDI2000, referring to Ran Yun of Chongqing Normal University, to investigate the current situation of critical thinking of high school students. The critical thinking questionnaire is divided into seven modules: search for truth, open mind, analytical ability, systematic ability, self-confidence, curiosity, and cognitive maturity of critical thinking (Lu Ziwen, 2010). Each module has ten questions, and each question has six degrees of discrimination, representing one to six points.

There are some about evaluation of the critical thinking ability of high school students. That are studies (Wang Kuanming of Guizhou Normal University, Ran Yun of Chongqing Normal University, etc.) that the scores of less than 210 points indicates that the subject's critical thinking ability is very weak or indicates the subject's thinking tendency is seriously opposed to critical thinking. Scores of 210-280 points indicates that the subject's critical thinking ability is weak or that the critical thinking tendency is in contradiction. Scores between 280-350 indicates that the subject's critical thinking ability is strong or that the subject maintains a positive attitude towards critical thinking. Those students whose scores reach or exceed 350 points indicating that the subject's critical thinking ability is very strong or indicates the subject's critical thinking tends to be stronger. According to the final data of the questionnaire, the critical thinking ability of high school students was generally weak. Most students, more than 80% of students had a critical thinking ability scores of less than 280 points. Each individual dimension is considered as 40 critical points to judge the positive and negative tendencies of critical thinking. A score of 30 or less indicates that critical thinking is contrary to some critical thinking tendency in the scale. In the 30-40 points, the subject is contradictory to the thinking tendency. At 40-50 the scores indicate that the subjects have a positive attitude towards this aspect of critical thinking. Those above 50 points indicate that the subject has a strong tendency to critical thinking (Lu Ziwen, 2010).

In the study of this paper, less than 210 students accounted for 10% of all students, their thinking tendency was opposite to critical thinking. Most students hold the thinking tendency mainly concentrated in 210-280 points, accounting for 64.8%, and explained that their critical thinking is contradictory and not strong enough. Only 25.2% of students had a critical thinking ability at 280-350, they were positively positive about critical thinking. No more than

350 students, that is to say there were no students with a strong tendency to think critically. This result indicated that the critical thinking ability of high school students was not very mature.

According to this judgment criterion, it also reflected the negative tendency of students in critical thinking such as analytical ability, self-confidence of critical thinking and curiosity from the analysis of the proportion of the figures in the critical thinking of this study. It also confirmed that the point mentioned by the teacher in the interview was that the students were not confident. They would come up with different opinions, but they would be convinced by others soon because they were uncertain or no confidence in their content, so they would change their mind soon and couldn't stick to themselves. As for the reasons that may cause this result, the author puts forward the hypothesis that the teacher may lack the training of the critical thinking of the students in the usual classroom, the lack of interaction with the students when asking questions, and the appropriate encouragement and affirmation.

C. Discussion on the Correlation between Teacher Question Type and Critical Thinking

In the research of Tian Qing of Si chuan Normal University, it was concluded that there was a significant correlation between different types of teachers' questions and students' critical thinking; high and low cognitive level questions and their six types of teachers' questions and students' critical thinking tendencies and each of its dimensions had different correlations. In the study of Shen Ping of the School of Foreign Languages at Kaili College, it was also pointed out that these were related to critical thinking ability according to Bloom's classification. The author conducted in-depth interviews with students based on these four types of questions. Through the analysis of the interview data, Shen Ping found that most of the students believed that the problems raised by the teachers in the higher-level cognitive field were too few, which was not conducive to the improvement of their critical thinking. It can be seen that the conclusions drawn by the above researchers were not only in their region, but also applicable to us. From many related studies, it can be inferred that the general situation of English teaching in primary and secondary schools in China and the critical thinking of students should be almost the same.

In this study, we can see from the classroom observation table, the critical thinking questionnaire and the scores of the students' monthly test paper readings that there were many high-level questions in the teacher's class, the reading scores in the test paper were higher, and the students' critical thinking scores were higher. It can be preliminarily speculated that there was a certain degree of positive correlation between them. Of course, a student's high scores and high critical thinking scores were formed by the long-term effects of many factors. However, this paper only studies whether teachers' teacher questioning and students' critical thinking have a relationship. The conclusion can be established and the final result presented a certain degree of positive correlation.

IV. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Finally, the results of this study showed that teachers' questioning and critical thinking do have a positive correlation. Students' critical thinking scores are higher and critical thinking is stronger if teachers ask high-level cognition questions, targeted and instructive questions. Therefore, the author puts forward some suggestions. The author hopes that teachers can strengthen their professional quality learning, improve their theoretical understanding, pay attention to the frontier dynamics of English teaching research, and actively learn the strategies of asking questions. At the same time, they can pay attention to the individual differences of students and rationally set up efficient problems. On the basis of completing teaching tasks, teachers can help to develop students' critical thinking ability. Meanwhile, the school can also provide opportunities for teachers for further study, help them to make progress, introduce excellent teachers, and go out to learn advanced teaching methods. Schools and teachers should work together to help students learn to think and train their critical thinking skills.

REFERENCES

- [1] Dewey, J. (1933). *How We Think: A Restatement of the Reflective Thinking to the Educative Process*. Boston: Health & Company
- [2] Dong Jinping. (2015). The Revelation of Piaget's Cognitive Developmental Theory in Language Education. *Journal of Qiqihar University (Phi & Soc Sci)*, 1,178-179.
- [3] Gao Zhiyan. (2017).The cultivation of critical thinking--On the role of teachers in the speculative teaching of English majors. *Shaanxi Education (Higher education)*, 11, 17-19.
- [4] Liu Ying. (2016). *A Study on Teacher Questioning Types of English Reading and Critical Reading Ability of Students in Junior High School*. Yan Bian University.
- [5] Lorin, W. Anderson &David R. Krathwohl (et al.) (2009). *A Taxonomy for learning, Teaching, and Assessing-A Revision of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- [6] Lu Ziwen. (2010). <http://blog.sina.com.cn/s/blog-4b0f72620102e2e1.htm>.
- [7] Qiao Jinfang. (2012). *An Investigation into teacher questioning in English Reading Class of a Junior High School*. Northeast Normal University.
- [8] Ran Yun. (2016). *A Study of Improving Critical Thinking by Classroom Questioning: A Case Study of English Reading Teaching in Senior High School*. Chongqing Normal University.
- [9] Shen Ping. (2014). *Case Study of Teacher Questioning Behavior and Students Critical thinking in the College Reading Classroom*. *Science Teaching (Curriculum Teaching)*, 10, 106-107. DOI:10.16400/j.cnki.kjdkz.2014.10.035.

- [10] Tian Qing. (2018). A Study on the Correlation of Teacher Questions and Students' Critical Thinking Cultivation in Senior High English Reading Classes. Si Chuan Normal University.
- [11] Wang Kuanming. (2016). An Investigation on the Status Quo of Critical Thinking Ability of Senior Middle School Students. *Journal of Educational Development (Moral education and psychology)*, 12, 42-45.
- [12] Yang Lifang. (2015). Cognitive Characteristics of Reading Teachers' Questioning and Cultivation of Thinking Ability. *Foreign Languages in China*. Vol.12 No.2 (General Serial 64), 68-79.
- [13] Yu Hang. (2017). College English Teaching and the Cultivation of Students' Critical Thinking Ability. *Science & Technology Industry Parks*, 4, 71-73+76.
- [14] Zhong Qiquan. (2002). "Critical Thinking" and its teaching. *Global Education*. VOL.31.NO.1. 34-38.

Wenjuan Song was born in Shanxi province, China in 1992. She majored in English (translation) while undergraduate. She has received her bachelor's degree in 2016.

She is currently pursuing a master's degree in education at Shanxi Normal University and majoring in curriculum and teaching methodology (English). She mainly studies English teaching and development. She will graduate soon in 2019.

Song wenjuan is a part-time English teacher at the School of Modern Arts and Sciences, Shanxi Normal University.

An Analysis of Linguistic Differences between Different Genders of Chinese Children from the Communicative Strategies*

Yingying Ma

School of Foreign Language, Zunyi Medical University, Zunyi, China

Abstract—This research investigates gender difference in verbal interaction of Chinese Children around 3 and a half years old. It based on corpus linguistic study and focused on comparing the MLU (Mean Length of Utterance) and frequency of use of word parts between boys and girls, to find whether there are significant differences in language competence between boys and girls. Meanwhile, this research provides some practical strategies to facilitate the language learning process from the aspect of different genders.

Index Terms—gender difference, MLU (Mean Length of Utterances), frequency of use of word parts, communicative skills

I. INTRODUCTION

Background

The cognitive ideas of the Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget (1959) have been a major influence on the study of language development. Although Piaget died in 1980, his proposals continue to stimulate a great deal of interesting research on the relationship between language and thought in children. Like Chomsky, Piaget viewed the child as actively constructing language rather than simply imitating it. However, on the other hand, Piaget did not view the human mind as having a separate language processing capacity or any inborn knowledge about language like Chomsky. The study of child language in China didn't come to an age of development until 1978. Most researchers in this field are professors of psychology, and many researches revealed that the reasons why children's language development showed differences. From the middle of 1980s, some linguists like Professor Gui Shichun began his research in this field. However, most researches were focused on the characteristics of child language in different ages, and ignored the differences in communicative skills between boys and girls. Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) summarize from over 1,500 studies on gender differences of children's cognition, emotion and sociality, and report that girl's verbal ability is higher than boy's. Australian scholars also work out a precise tri-dimensional picture of human brain after anatomizing 30 brain organizes, which proves that there are much larger space in female's than male's brain for learning languages, reading and writing and getting knowledge. British researchers further prove that girls are verbally competent than boy since two years old, and this is determined by their genes, and it is believed that different genes produce different hormone, which leads to their different verbal abilities. Zhou Jing (2006) reports that boys tend to use more aggressive and assertive language than girls, and boys often use onomatopoeic words while girls often use the interjections. A parallel finding by Nohara (1996) reveals a tendency for boys to use *no* when correcting or prohibiting their playmates' behavior more often than girls. Another more notable finding reveals that girls provide explanations as to why they deny or reject their partners' propositions or suggestions more often than boys.

The Mean Length of Utterances (MLU)?

MLU is an effective way to weigh children's linguistic development. The research of Pan shows that complicated sentence structures make the length of sentences longer. Therefore, the MLU is a significant sign to weigh the complicated degree of the sentences, which can reflect children's language level directly. In our country, there are two ways which can calculate the mean length of children's utterances: one is taking the Chinese character as a standard of measurement, the other is taking the word as a standard of measurement. This research takes the Chinese character as a standard of measurement and calculate the mean length of children's utterances.

MLU of children can be found by calculating the total number of utterances used by children and dividing that number by the total number of utterances used by the same children. We can separately calculate MLU of boys and girls. When calculating MLU of children, the following points should be focused on: 1) Brown (1973) pointed that when calculating MLU, the repeated utterances can only be regarded as one utterance, so we should use [/] to mark the repeated utterances, which can be deleted when running the CLAN program. 2) [+Y] can be labeled as a mood word that can lonely be a sentence; [+R] can be marked as the meaningless utterances. However, the calculating program cannot delete such utterances automatically, so we should add some commands manually to delete the meaningless

* This paper is sponsored by China Scholarship Council.

utterances. For example, $mlu + t^* chi - s [+R] - s [+Y] + f^* . cha$. “+ t* chi” can only analyze children’s utterances; “-s” means the deletion of the content; “+f” means the saving of the results. 3) If the obscure utterances should be contained when calculating the MLU, we should use “xx” instead of “xxx”, because the CLAN system will ignore the marks of “xxx”. After the calculation of data, we can go on performing independent t-test. With the help of SPSS13.0, the contrast between boys and girls in terms of the two different mean length of utterances will be conducted by using independent-samples t-test analysis, to examine whether there is a significant difference of the mean length of utterances between boys and girls. Based on the result of the t-test, we can compare the length of utterances between boys and girls.

This research aims at comparing girls’ verbal interaction with boys’, and finding the reasons why there are significant differences in language competence between boys and girls. It provides some ways which can be adopted to help children improve their expressive ability and offers some productive insights that will profoundly influence the child language development of different genders. The reason why we choose children around the age of three and a half years old is that most researchers think that the critical period is not up to the puberty but around three to four years old. It is until 1989 that the critical period was designated up to a certain age by Janet Werker from Canada. That’s why we put our effort to analyze the early child language acquisition at the very beginning ages of the children.

II. RESEARCH DESIGN

Research Overview

This research aims at pursuing answers for the following two questions:

- (1) What are the differences when the boys and girls interact with others with regard to the parts of speech?
- (2) Are the boys’ MLU (Mean Length of Utterances) significantly different from girls?

The software ICTCLAS is used for the automatic word segmentation and part-of-speech tagging in the corpus. So ICTCLAS can help us to tag the part-of-speech of children’s speaking. Because of inaccuracy of pronunciation of children, child-direct language, and the self-creation words, researchers have to proofread the text manually after the automatic segmentation of ICTCLAS.

With regard to the comparison of mean length utterances between boys and girls, independent t-test can be adopted in this research to analyze the data that are calculated by CLAN system.

Participants

In the research, thirty-three children will be chosen, seventeen of which are boys and sixteen are girls whose ages are around three and a half years old.

Corpus Construction

We will record their half an hour conversations with adults and obtain 16.5 hours data. Because child language is so complicated that it cannot be distinguished by the automatic transcribed tools, we have to convert the video data to text files manually and then revise them and get about 120,000 characters, including more than 20,000 characters of children’s. When converting the video data, we should obey the basic coding rule of CHAT. Then we can use CLAN program to analyze the text automatically. After the transcription of the data, we should use Microsoft Word to edit the text, and save it in the name of genders and acronyms of children’s name. When we use the CLAN to analyze the text, we should save the text. For example, BLLT (B stands for the boy, and LLT is the acronyms of boy’s name); GZJY (G stands for the girl, and ZJY is the acronyms of girl’s name). At last, some databases are established, and the construction of the corpus provides a real foundation for the frequency of word-classes and mean length of utterances.

Observation

To collect more accurate linguistic data of children, the researcher should keep a close eye on progress. The researcher, therefore, should take part in parent-child activity every week, and observe children’s language development. The purpose is to compare linguistic characteristics of boys with girls so as to investigate in which environment or which topic can stimulate children to express smoothly. It is important for observation to be systematic, thus, the researcher designs an observation checklist. The statements of observation checklist include children’s interest, behavior, utterances, and the different reactions when boys and girls speak to different targets, for example, teachers, parents, fellows and strangers. When observing the conversations of children, the researcher should notice the gender differences consciously to find the linguistic characteristics between boys and girls.

An interview

In order to find more children’s linguistic characteristics between boys and girls, the researcher should interview parents to know children’s process of language learning, and the language environment that parents create for children. The researcher randomly interviews 6 parents, three of which are boys’ parents and three are girls’. The interview is about some language activities parents designed for their children. There are several questions in this interview, such as “Do you often speak to your son/daughter, even some meaningless talk?” “Do you read the story for your son/daughter everyday, if yes, after reading the story, will you ask some questions for your children to lead them repeat the story?” “Do you use normal language to communicate with your children, rather than using the child-direct language?” “What do you think about your children’s utterances, do they often use long sentences to speak or they just like using some short and illogical sentences to express themselves?” “Will your children imitate others’ utterances when they heard some funny talk?” The purpose is to know if there are some differences when boys and girls join in the language

activities at home.

Recording

Recording is a necessary way to construct the corpus. We choose the voice recording pen as the tool for recording, because it is so small that children cannot find it. Then they can speak naturally without distraction. When we record children's conversations, we can choose various topics to stimulate children to talk, such as their toys, entertainment, activities in nursery, and delicious snacks. After recording, we can save them in mp3 format.

Data collection

It is based on the self-built corpus which comprised of data collected from 33 Mandarin-speaking children. All children are chosen to be within the age around three and a half years old, and there are seventeen boys and sixteen girls whose parents all get the associate degree or above.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Analysis of Word Frequency of Boys and Girls

Analysis of word frequency of boys and girls can reveal that the use of word tendency of boys and girls. The frequency of calculation method is in the following:

$$f = \frac{n}{N}$$

"f" stands for the frequency of words; "n" is the token of words; "N" stands for the whole number of words that boys and girls uttered.

The table 1 and table 2 show the situations of the use of vocabulary between boys and girls around three and a half years old. "n" stands for the tokens of words for each part of speech, and "N" represents the total number of words of boys and girls, that is 21101.

TABLE 1
THE STATISTICS OF WORDS USE OF BOYS

Function of words	Types of words	Token of words	Frequency
Nouns	719	1852	8.7768
Verbs	386	3123	14.8002
Adjectives	78	631	2.9904
Prepositions	18	225	1.0663
Quantifiers	35	178	0.8436
Adverbs	49	863	4.0899
Pronouns	45	1426	6.7580
Interjections	30	713	3.3790
Conjunctions	8	11	0.0521
Mood words	20	735	3.4832
Numeral words	21	101	0.4787
Total	1409	10458	49.5616
Average frequency	0.0343 %		

TABLE 2
THE STATISTICS OF WORDS USE OF GIRLS

Function of words	Types of words	Token of words	Frequency
Nouns	758	2053	9.7294
Verbs	312	2532	11.9994
Adjectives	112	829	3.9287
Prepositions	17	256	1.2132
Quantifiers	23	232	1.0995
Adverbs	57	1073	5.0850
Pronouns	43	2006	9.5067
Interjections	41	812	3.8482
Conjunctions	9	13	0.0616
Mood words	19	668	3.1657
Numeral words	25	169	0.8009
Total	1416	10643	50.4384
Average frequency	0.0350 %		

From the table 1 and 2, boys use 1445 types of words, and girls use 1478 types of words, and the total token is 21101 (10458+10643=21101); the frequency of words boys used is 49.5616%, and the frequency of words girls used is 50.4384%; the average frequency of words of boys is 0.0343%, and for girls is 0.0350%. The table shows that girls use more words to communicate than boys, and the frequency of words girls used is also higher than boys'. However, boys can use more verbs and mood words in their speaking, especially the verbs. Different from Li Yuming's research (1995), the results of our research show that boys use more verbs than girls in their conversations. Many researchers found that no matter what gender is, children tend to use nouns rather than verbs. However, Tardif's research (1999) shows that

boys are good at using verbs because boys are active and they also utter the words to fit in their actions. Tardif even found that the conversation situation plays an essential role in the relation between the verbs and nouns. If giving toys to children, the frequency of verbs is higher. In our experiment, we do not claim whether parents can give the toys to children or not. Since boy's language communication ability is weaker than that of the girl, boys often use mood words to express themselves, which can reduce the chances that they use the new words or difficult words, and this process is an obstacle to the boys' language competence.

B. Results of MLU (Mean Length of Utterances) between the Boys and Girls

TABLE 3
THE MLU BETWEEN BOYS AND GIRLS OF 3-4 YEAR

Gender	The number of sentence	The number of words	The MLU
Male	3412	14316	1.675
Female	3489	16325	2.898

The table 3 shows that boys can speak 3412 sentences, and girls can speak 3489 sentences. The number of MLU of boys is 1.675, and girls is 2.898. However, we cannot conclude that girls are better than boys in verbal communicative skills just from this table. Independent t-test has to be conducted to examine if there are significant differences of the MLU between boys and girls.

The researcher also analyzes the results of the independent t-test of mean length of utterances between boys and girls.

TABLE 4
INDEPENDENT T-TEST OF MEAN LENGTH OF UTTERANCES OF BOYS AND GIRLS

Gender	Number	Average Age	Std	t	Mean Difference	df	sig
Male	16	3.5	.3071	-11.86	-1.31	18	.001
Female	17	3.6	.0952				

In order to compare children's mean length of utterances of boys and girls, the researcher used the Independent-samples t-test to analyze the result. The data in the above table indicated that the boys and girls demonstrated significant differences of mean length utterances at the 0.05 level according to independent T-test. From the mean difference -1.31 (see Table 4) and the p value 0.001 ($p < 0.05$), it could be concluded that boys' MLU is lower than girls', and it shows that girls are better at verbal communication than boys according to the results of comparison of MLU between boys and girls.

The table 3 and 4 show that girls' mean length of utterances is longer than boys'. Our research only calculated the words that children utter vocally, however, in practical conversation, many children like using the non-verbal language to express their ideas. Especially for boys, they are good at using actions and gestures to dialogue with others. Relatively, girls tend to use verbal words to express themselves rather than use the actions because of their shy personality. From this aspect, we can only say girls are better to use the verbal words to express themselves, and we cannot conclude girls' language ability is superior to boys', because language ability not only includes the verbal expressions but also the understanding of the language.

IV. THE STRATEGIES TO IMPROVE COMMUNICATIVE SKILLS

The results conducted above indicate that there are some linguistic differences between boys and girls, and girls' language proficiency is better than boys'. Based on the observation and interview, combined with the experimental results, some advice will be come up with to serve as improving boys' language proficiency. Besides, such suggestions may be helpful for children with language obstacles.

A. Settings of Children's Language Environment

Whether it is the behaviorist view, the innatist view, or the cognitive view, they all take the linguistic environment as a key factor to influence children's language proficiency although the degree to which they stress its function differs. In the behavioristic theory, linguistic environment influence language acquisition directly. In the innate theory, linguistic input serves as a trigger that activates LAD. In the cognitive theory, it interacts with the brain, and plays an indispensable role in language acquisition. Language environment bears remarkable relevance to child language development. If there is nobody speak to a child, this child is separated from language environment, then it is impossible for this child to acquire any word. Studies of feral and isolated children have provided some evidence. In addition, language environment plays a key role in language learning, especially for children whose ages are around three and a half years old. Since boys' interactive ability is inferior to girls', a positive language environment should be built for boys, which cannot only stimulate them speak fluently and correctly, but also can enrich their language materials.

a. Comprehensible input should be emphasized to improve boys' communicative skills.

The role of input is of great importance in child language acquisition. Without speech input, children cannot acquire language. However, input has its restricted nature since the input a child receives may only have a limited sample of sentence types, or input itself cannot provide all the overt information of sentences. What kind of language input can

efficiently facilitate children's language acquisition process? According to Krashen, an expert specializing in language acquisition theories, "An acquirer can move from a stage I (where I is the acquirer's level of competence) to a stage I+1 (where I+1 is the stage immediately following I along some natural order) by understanding language containing I+1." (Krashen and Terrell, 1983:32) That is, linguistic input that is a little beyond the acquirer's current level of competence can best facilitate his language learning. This is Krashen's input hypothesis. Based on Krashen's input hypothesis, parents and teachers should make children learn language step by step, not only considering their current level of language competence, but also taking their ages and genders into account.

Since boys are poor in interactive skills compare with girls, more language materials should be input to boys, and make more chance to output. Boys' communicative skills can be improved progressively. The input contains aural input and visual input and most of the input exposed to children is aural input. However, no child can learn language passively only by listening to the radio or watch TV. It is because language learning relies on frequent one-on-one contact with an adult or an older partner who provides conversations, questions, comments etc. Conversations between children and adults usually follow the "here-and-now" principle. Parents can use speech that directs attention to particular aspects of their messages. Evidences from studies conducted by Cross (1978), Ellis and Wells (1980), and Barnes et al. (1983) shows that the way parents talk to their children influences the speed and characteristics they acquire the language. Therefore, to foster boys' communicative ability, parents should give them efficient language input, because language heard but not addressed directly at the boys does not help. There are some tips for parents to improve boys' language ability: Firstly, repeated words tend to be shorter, quieter, lower-pitched, and less variable in pitch than first-mentioned words (Fisher and Tokura, 1995); Secondly, parents should speak in a way that highlights attention on new words or sentences at the expense of older words or sentences, and boys' current linguistic level should be considered; lastly, boys should be encouraged in participating in adults' conversations, if parents find boys are not interested in adults' conversations, they can change their topics to cater for boys' interests. For example: transportation (cars, buses, trains, ship, plane and so on), their favorite toys (robots, transformers, balls.....) and some natural phenomena (rain, thunder, wind, rainbow and snow). According to our interview, we find if parents can talk something that boys are fond of, they can be involved in the conversations quickly.

b. Leading children to communicate with others.

How to make children speak smoothly? How to lead children to speak logically? Especially for boys who always keep silent lose many opportunities to express themselves. Finding some interesting topics or asking relevant questions to them, which can arouse them speak freely and automatically.

Leading children to narrate what happened in a day.

In our experiment, there is a boy named Fan Junchen who are good at communicating with others, in that he always chats with his teacher and tells the teacher what he did at home, he could even completely narrate the story for his classmates in the nursery when he was just three years old. The interview of Fan Junchen's parents indicated that his mother paid more attention to the cultivation of his language expression at his early age. The most frequently used way the mother adopts is that personal narrative. When the boy was only 20 months, his mother used this way to lead him speak even though the boy could not speak the complete sentence. His mother just gives us an example to show how she leads her son to speak:

MOT: Where have you been today?

CHI: Great grandpa's home.

MOT: Who did you go with?

CHI: Grandma.

MOT: Is it funny at Great grandpa's home?

CHI: Yes.

MOT: Who brought you out to play?

CHI: My aunt.

MOT: Where did you go?

CHI: Downstairs.

MOT: Did you play with other children?

CHI: No.

MOT: Are the foods tasty in Great grandpa's home?

CHI: Very delicious!

MOT: Which food did you like most?

CHI: Meat.

MOT: Will you go there next week?

CHI: Yes.

From the above example, this mother uses some simple questions to lead the boy to narrate what he did at his grandma's home. Considering his age, the following points should be paid attention to: Firstly, questions should be simple, and children can use only less than five words to answer. Secondly, parents would better obey the time sequence when asking questions, so that children can have a clear thinking when answering the questions. Finally, when asking questions, the speed and intonation should be taken into consideration. Slow speed and exaggerated intonation may

arouse children to answer the questions fluently.

For children who are under 3 years old, parents are in dominant role when leading children to speak, parents can use some strategies to stimulate their children to talk. However, for children who are over 3 years old, parents' dominant role should be changed into the secondary role, and children's speaking words are increased greatly. Here is another example about Fan Junchen and his mother's conversation when this boy was three and half years.

CHI: Mum, I was so happy today!

MOT: Why?

CHI: I was praised by the teacher, because I could do something by myself. I put on the clothes and shoes on my own.

MOT: Oh, that's great!

CHI: But Huhu could not, so he was criticized by the teacher.

MOT: Was Hanhan praised?

CHI: No, because she could only put on her shoes, but not the clothes on her own, even she cried loudly today.

MOT: Why?

CHI: She put off her shoes when she had a meal, then the teacher took her shoes away, and she cried.

From this short conversation, we see when Fan Junchen's mother talked to him, she just used a few words to lead Fan Junchen to speak, such as: "oh, then, why". However, Fan Junchen can speak a lot under the guidance of his mother, and we can see he used long sentences to respond to his mother. What's more, he used appropriate conjunctions to connect sentences, for example, because, then, and, furthermore, and however.

Leading children to speak by a story.

Reading a story for children, and asking them some questions that are related to the story. Or after reading the story, parents or teachers can lead children to narrate the whole story. Taking a famous fairy tale "The Little Red Riding Hood" as an example, after reading the whole story for children, the following questions can be adopted for leading children's speaking:

- (1) Why was this girl named "little red riding hood"?
- (2) What did the little red riding hood's mother tell before she went to her grandma's home?
- (3) Whom did the little red riding hood meet in the forest?
- (4) Why did the little red riding hood not go to grandma's home directly? And what did she do on the way of her grandma's home?
- (5) Why did the wolf pretend the little red riding hood to go to her grandma's home?
- (6) How many people did the wolf devour? Who are they?
- (7) Who did discover that the wolf swallowed the little red riding hood and grandma? And what did he do?
- (8) Where did the little red riding hood go?

Questions mentioned above can examine children's comprehension of the whole story. Children will think and talk according to the questions. In this process, children have to think how to arrange words to answer questions, so this way even stimulates children to talk logically. Although some children cannot answer the questions accurately and smoothly, most of them can understand the whole story and answer the questions exactly if parents can read the story for the second time. They can be absorbed in listening to the story, because they know there is the task (answer the questions) for them after the end of story.

Finding a quiet place to practice the conversation with children

Parents can find a tranquil place where just mother or father and your child stay at, then the child can pay full attention to talk with their mother or father. If spending 20 minutes everyday, and persevering for only one month, you may find your child's language ability developed greatly. In our experiment, there is a boy who named Zhu Jianyu. his parents adopted this method to improve his language ability, although they just stick to this way for only 19 days, they found that Zhu Jianyu's language ability developed greatly. Before practicing, Zhu Jianyu could also communicate with others without any obstacle, but he could just use some scattered and disorderly words instead of a logic sentence to express his ideas. Based on his parents' interview, we know after taking this method, he can use orderly and logic sentences to talk with others, and he knows how to use proper conjunctions to connect sentences, and find suitable adjectives to modify the nouns. He can even express his ideas like adults. There are some examples that Zhu Jianyu's parents offered to us.

(In Zhu Jianyu's bedroom, Zhu Jianyu is talking with his mother)

MOT: What did you have in the nursery today?

CHI: I had apples and cakes. Besides, I had the noodles and eggs.

In this short conversation, "besides" is a word that Zhu Jianyu never used before the training of conversations with his parents, he knows "besides" can be used for progressive relation.

MOT: Tomorrow is the Saturday, and where do you want to go?

CHI: I want to go to the square or the park.

In this short conversation, "or" is the word that Zhu Jianyu used for the first time, and obviously, he knows "or" can be used in the relation of the choice.

MOT: Don't watch TV today.

CHI: Why? Today I am so obedient to get the dinner, although I only get a few vegetables, I get a great bowl of rice.

This short conversation shows that “although” is used to express unsatisfied feeling. This boy can choose suitable conjunctions to connect sentences which indicate the adversative relation.

Such several short conversations mentioned above imply that Zhu Jianyu can answer his mother’s questions quickly, and the word choice is appropriate, the relationship of sentences is logical and reasonable.

Creating cooperative environment for boys and girls

Based on our observation, we find that personality is another important factor influencing children’s communication. Generally speaking, outward children like communicating with others, so that their linguistic acquisition develops faster than inward children. Our research shows that many girls get easily familiar with others and are willing to talk with people in a polite way, for example, they are proactive in greeting others. Girls prefer to choosing some topics they are interested in, or using some objects they like, so that the adults can have a talk with the girls successfully. However, boys are relatively hard to get along with, let alone have a further talk with them. According to our statistics, there are thirteen girls who can communicate with us pleasantly, only three of them have less talk with us. On the contrary, there are only five boys who communicate with us without difficulty, for the rest of them, some boys always ignore us even if we use the toys and the delicious snacks to stimulate them to communicate with us; some of them can only stammer over several words, and there is no logical meaning among words and sentences. Therefore, parents or teachers should set up a suitable language environment where boys and girls can collaborate to communicate with each other. Girls can use their passion to drive the boys to do the collaborative games. In this process, boys tend to imitate their peers’ language and actions, so this is an effective way that can push boys to speak. In addition, outgoing children are more confident and risk-taking and they dare to imitate others’ words under any circumstances. Thus, they have more opportunities to learn vocabulary. On the opposite, inward children are shy and timid. They tend to be more careful and conservative in using language, so that they lose a lot of chances to learn words. Therefore, the number of words that outward children and inward children acquire differs.

B. Improvement of Cognitive Ability

Children’s cognitive ability is closely related to their language ability, and child language development should be based on the accumulation of experience and improvement of cognitive ability. Children’s cognitive development is the process from the concrete to the abstract, so does the language development. There exist some differences in the development of children’s cognitive ability, which may improve or hinder child language acquisition. Through the observation and interview, we find the more experiences children obtain, the higher interactive ability they possess. Therefore, the way to improve boys’ cognitive ability can make up for their inferiority of language ability. There are some positive ways which can be adopted by parents and teachers.

a. Traveling is a positive way to improve children’s cognitive ability. For boys, their personality is bravery, adventurous and challengeable, so traveling is undoubtedly a good means to enrich boys’ knowledge and experiences. When traveling, boys are always excited, and they always think when they contact new things in the process of traveling, therefore, they can easily remember the names of new places. After traveling, they are eager to talk about what they see and what they experience to others. Mo Jingyan’s mother told us Mo Jingyan became talkative after the traveling. She even found Mo Jingyan could use more words and long sentences to express his traveling experience. According to Mo Jingyan’s teacher, Mo Jingyan was unwilling to talk to other classmates in the nursery, however, after the traveling, he always tries to communicate with his classmates, and he can even tell every place’s name he went during the traveling. For example, Chendu, Dujiangyan, Huanlegu, Emeishan and so on. Why can he memorize such names accurately, and speak them clearly? That is undoubtedly due to his traveling experiences. During his traveling, he saw what he was fond of, he touched what he was interested in, he was attracted by what he never saw, or he felt excited because of fresh things. Therefore, it demonstrates that children’s memory and language is closely connected with their experiences, that is to say, children’s expressive ability is affected by what they see, touch and feel.

b. To improve children’s cognitive ability, the cultivation of the imaginative, and creative ability is very important. Children’s language ability is associated with their imaginative ability as well as creative ability. According to Zhou Jing, if children always imagine what will happen, they will have more language materials to express, and their imagination is the stimulus which pushes ahead with language development. Most boys may have strong imaginative ability, so parents should cultivate boys’ language ability based on the way of the cultivation of imaginative ability. There is a related way that the parents offer to us: using the pictures to make boys think and speak. For example, there are two trees, a house and a dog in a picture, and parents can ask their sons to describe what they can see in the picture. Then parents may let their sons to make up a story based on this picture. In this process, parents should encourage sons to exert imaginative ability to talk about what they can think.

c. To enrich boys’ life experience is an effective method to develop their language ability. Abundant life experience is the source for children to communicate. For boys, parents should help them to accumulate life experience, even at home. Therefore, parents should encourage boys to get experience from household affairs to fresh things outside. Zhou Jing once pointed out the reason why girls are good at talking to others lies in the focus of their attention. Parents often talk to girls concerning household affairs while most parents do not want to talk such affairs to boys, because this is Chinese traditional ideas that boys should not pay more attention to household affairs. However, from children’s cognitive development, they tend to be interested in the household affairs due to the familiarity, if parents can input more

language about household affairs, children can acquire such kinds of language quickly. Therefore, girls have more language materials to output than boys. In fact, some traditional ideas obstruct boys' language ability.

V. CONCLUSIONS

From studying the gender difference of child language acquisition, the author finds that cognitive view and gender differential language of children play an essential role in it. According to the results of our research, the author comes up with some effective methods to help boys to overcome their linguistic weakness. Stimulus or linguistic input, response, imitation and practice are indispensable for boys to acquire language easily. In the language acquisition process, children actively use their brain and cognition to acquire the language including exploration of the words' usage, sentence formation and narration of occurrence. However, the claim that there is a language acquisition device or universal grammar in the child's brain is doubtful. Both the behaviorists and the innatists have gone to extreme in their theories. On the contrary, the cognitive theory is the most convincing and scientific one. It gives us the insight into the gender differences of child language acquisition. Besides, we can see that linguistic competence is acquired through the interaction of the environment and the biological conditions. Many researchers try to explore the linguistic characteristics of boys and girls respectively, and then find the linguistic differences according to biological differences.

A. *Research Findings*

Based on the quantitative research, the following three major findings can be summed up:

a. Boys and girls' linguistic differences may depend on the structures of brain to some extent, because boys tend to use the half hemisphere of the brain to think while the girls often use both hemispheres to think. Since the left hemisphere control people's language most, so boys' language ability develops later than girls' due to the different biological structures. Besides, the findings also suggested that children's language ability will be influenced by their cognitive ability.

b. There indeed exist some linguistic differences between boys and girls around the age of three and a half years old in our research. On one hand, from the comparison of high frequency words between boys and girls, we find boys tend to use verbs, quantifiers and interjections while girls tend to use adjectives, pronouns and mood words. It attributes to the different language environment, cognitive modes, personality, and the number of language input. On the other hand, after the experiment, the researcher finds there are significant differences of mean length of utterances between boys and girls, and the MLU of girls are longer than boys.

c. The data from our research indicates boys' language ability can be improved if parents and teachers give them more chances to practice. And from the way of imitation, reciting, narration, retelling and interesting conversations, boys' interactive ability will be developed quickly. Only if parents can pay attention to cultivate their communicative skills, will boys also have excellent performance in language acquisition.

B. *Implications for Teachers and Parents*

The findings of the studies seem to have important implications for nursery teachers, parents and language researchers. The fact is that there are indeed some linguistic differences of boys and girls around the age of three and a half years old. The researcher provides some useful and practical ways to help boys make up for their language defects. So it is vital for parents to be aware that the linguistic differences between boys and girls lie in their brain structures, cognition, interests and language environment. Then parents and teachers can consciously design appropriate methods for boys to improve their interactive skills.

C. *Limitations of the Present Study*

After discussing the implications of the study, it was important for the researcher to outline the limitations of the study. The study has its own limitations except its strengths, due to which the present research was only a tentative one, leaving too much room to improve.

Firstly, it is hard to collect data of children's speaking, because we have to consult with their parents and teachers, and in the recording process, if children are tired or want to discontinue the activity, we should respect their wishes, and take a break or return at another time to complete the investigation. Besides, it is possible that their parents perfected their children's speech. Perhaps the parents could not remember their children's original words and then expressed their children's meanings in another way.

Secondly, to the limited capacity of the researcher, the sample sizes we choose are relatively small, and our recordings of children's conversations are for only brief periods.

Thirdly, this study only concentrates on the comparison of linguistic characteristics of different genders, despite of children's linguistic characteristics in different ages.

D. *Suggestions for Further Study*

To overcome limitations of this research, the present researcher puts forward the following suggestions: Further studies should contain large and consistent samples, carefully explained procedures. It is notable that this research only reveals linguistic differences between boys and girls around the age of three and a half years old in frequency of the word class and mean length of utterances. Therefore, further research should involve in other fields about child

language of different genders, including the comparison of errors, self-initiated repairs, and child directed language.

REFERENCES

- [1] Anderson, R. & Shirai, Y. (1994). Discourse motivations for some cognitive acquisition principles. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 16(1), 133-156.
- [2] Brown, D. (2002). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- [3] Chomsky, N. (1968). *Language and mind*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- [4] Chomsky, N. (1995). *The Minimalist program*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- [5] Cook, Vivian and Mark Newson. (2000). *Chomsky's universal grammar: An introduction*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- [6] Foster-Cohen, Susan H. (2002). *An introduction to child language development*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- [7] Lakoff, R. (1975). *Language and women's place*. New York: Harper & Row.
- [8] Lenneberg, E.H. (1967). *Biological foundations of language*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- [9] Maccoby, E. E. & Jacklin, C. N. (1974). *The psychology of sex differences*. Stanford: Stanford University Press.
- [10] MacWhinney, B. (1995a). *The CHILDES Project: Tools for analyzing talk*. Second Edition. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- [11] MacWhinney, B. (2000b). *The CHILDES Project: Tools for Analyzing Talk*. Third Edition. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- [12] Nohara, M. (1996). Personal boys and girls use no differently. *Child Language*, 23(2), 417-429.
- [13] Paradis, J. (2007). Bilingual children with specific language impairment: theoretical and applied issues. *Applied Psychology*, 28, 551-564.
- [14] Pearson, B. Z. et al. (1997). The relation of input factors to lexical learning by bilingual infants. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 18, 41-58.
- [15] Piaget, J. (1955). *The language and thought of Child*. Cleveland, OH: World.
- [16] Piaget, J. and Inhelder, B. (1969). *The psychology of the Child*. New York: Basic Books.
- [17] Tardif, T. (2006). But are they really verbs? Mandarin words for action. In K. Hirsh-Pasek, R.M. Golinkoff (Eds.), *Action meets word: How children learn verbs*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [18] Thierry Nazzi & Josiane Bertoncini. (1997). Before and after the vocabulary spurt: two modes of word acquisition? *Journal of Child Language*, 24(2), 535-565.
- [19] Zhou Jing. (2001). *Preschool children's language education*. Nanjing: Nanjing Normal University Press.

Yingying Ma was born in Guizhou Province, China in 1981. She finished her MA in Foreign and Applied Linguistics in Guizhou University, China in 2013. She is currently a visiting scholar in the School of Education and Human Services, Oakland University, Michigan, US. She is an associate professor in English Teaching at Zunyi Medical University. Her research field includes child language acquisition and second language teaching.

A Survey Study: The Correlation between Metacognitive Strategies and Reading Achievement

Sukris Sutiayatno
STMIK Bina Patria Magelang, Central-Java, Indonesia

Sukarno
Universitas Tidar (UNTIDAR) Magelang, Central-Java, Indonesia

Abstract—The aim of this research is to reveal the effect of metacognitive strategies on students' reading achievement. The research employed a quantitative approach with survey research. The data of metacognitive strategies were collected by means of questionnaires and scores of reading achievement used test. The data were analyzed by using correlation product moment (r). The finding of the research showed that the coefficient correlation of Product Moment ($r = 0.721$ with the sig. $0.000 < 0.05$ and explained that there was a correlation between metacognitive strategies and reading achievement of undergraduate students. The result of the research implied that the students should increase the understanding of metacognitive deeper to help them understand English text books better.

Index Terms—a survey study, metacognitive strategies, reading achievement

I. INTRODUCTION

The strategies that teachers often use to support the students in figuring out how they learn many kinds of skills in the learning environment are metacognitive strategies. It can encourage the learners in deciding how they implement the thinking process (Oxford, 2013). Rationally, these processes will make students understand their own capabilities. Further, the teachers mostly apply it in order to push the learners to be strategic thinkers. It helps in influencing the brain process that supports individuals in overcoming various routine problems. It can also involve a scientific approach that can help in the assessment of one's thought processes. Although metacognitive regulation helps to direct the learning process, students should be set open to various teaching methods (Azevado & ALeven, 2013). After realizing one's knowledge, students are able to manage their mind processes in many ways but always within the curriculum outputs.

Louca (2003) illustrates metacognition as cognition about cognition because it entails examining the brains' processing during the process of thinking. Reading as a cognitive process explains indirectly that metacognition during the process of reading could direct to better comprehension. Then, Iwai (2011) declares that metacognition plays an essential role in reading comprehension since it is related to the development of linguistic, cognitive, and social skills. During reading comprehension, "the process of metacognition is explained through strategies which have characteristics such as procedural, purposeful, effortful, willful and essential and facilitative" (Alexander & Jetton, 2000).

Meanwhile, Reading comprehension is determined as the grade of analysing a text which comes from the relation between the words that are written and how they trigger knowledge outside the text. It would be difficult to study a foreign language without learning this skill (Jafari & Ketabi, 2012). To implement strategies of metacognitive, readers are classified into two categories; skilled readers and unskilled ones (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). Skilled readers apply one or more metacognitive strategies to analyze the texts effectively and to promote their capability in this regard.

Steinbach (2010) investigates the metacognition strategies skills like planning, problem-solving, monitoring effectiveness, self-assessment, self-correction and evaluation with the view of progress. During learning students have the awareness of using these processes involved in metacognitive strategies. Then, Shah (2012) contended that students in many institutions depend on these strategies to realize better academic achievement. In addition, Zohar & Dori (2012) described that these strategies will push them in understanding what they understand about social studies, what they should do, what they have studied and whatever they can do to improve on what they have acquired.

Metacognition means thinking about what one is doing while reading (Pressley, 2002). Metacognition plays an essential role in students' learning, Graham (1997) explains that metacognitive strategies that make students able to plan, control and examine their learning are more crucial than strategies that increase interaction and input. Metacognitive strategies can construct something more than an inclination towards cooperation, namely self-esteem and self-confidence given by the skill to select and evaluate the strategies of one's learning, moreover the value of each strategy and the independence in studying that keeps up with them (Boghian, 2016, p.55).

The implementation of metacognitive approaches, for instance, self-monitoring or awareness helps in improving self-learners who have the capability to plan on their studies for the rest of their learning process. This links to the self-guidance that the process inculcates in the lives of such learners. Through this, metacognition improves and develops learning experiences in the given field of study. Through the improvement of learning experiences, learners are capable of achieving better problem-solving and learning skills. Metacognitive strategies encourage learners to analyse their development of learning and thus provide good guidance (Herrera, Holmes & Kavimandan, 2011).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The term 'meta-cognitive thinking', meta-knowledge, thinking about thinking' and 'awareness of thinking' is used synonyms for 'meta-cognition', which, in turn, means one's awareness of their cognitive progress, mental activities as well as learning and self-techniques that are used in learning, understanding, planning, management and problem solving (Ersolu & Arslan, 2009). Metacognition is a basic concept of cognitive psychology that "emphasize the responsive participation of the individual in his or her process of thinking" (Stewart & Landine, 1995, p.17). Meanwhile, Belet et. al. (2011) confirmed that the meta-cognitive thinking links to one's awareness of thinking, and the processes they make use in different learning situation so that they can analyse and control thinking, make knowledge construction active and easy, and use their abilities to manage, organize, plan, modify cognitive behaviour. Teachers' emotional behavior and empathy, their ability to show understanding for their students' feelings and actions, plays a very important role in making the teaching learning process more comfortable and successful (Sutiayatno, 2018, p. 431).

Then, Edwards, et al. (2014) explain that knowledge of metacognition is the consciousness to one's thinking processes. It refers to a process through which individuals realize their processes of thought. Hopefully, learners who have awareness of metacognitive strategies understand what to do when they don't know what to do; that is, they have strategies for understanding what they need to do. Metacognitive strategies can ignite one's thinking and can direct to much deeper learning and improved performance, especially among learners who are struggling. Understanding and managing cognitive processes can be one of the most crucial skills that teachers can conduct students to increase their achievement. Vagle (2009) puts metacognitive thinking at the peak level of mental activity since it keeps individual aware of themselves and others during the process of thinking to overcome the problems.

Cohen & Dornyei (2002) describe that metacognitive strategies indicate to "those processes which learners consciously use in order to monitor their language learning, 'which' permit learners to lead their own cognition by designing what they will do, evaluating how it is going and then examining how it went'. Briefly, strategies of metacognitive are acting upon what you know—i.e. directing, improving, increasing etc. what you know. Clegg (2015, p.4-5) suggests a synthetic presentation of metacognitive, cognitive and social-effective learning strategies. We will present and describe them further because we trust that they are all relevant for language learning and also because the cognitive and social-affective strategies support the building and formation of metacognitive skills.

The crucial reason as to why most educationists utilize metacognitive approaches in education correlating to the instant impact it has on the students (Bentahar, 2012). Metacognitive knowledge contributes to students in reflecting on what they are thinking or what they already understand. The consciousness of knowledge also contributes to the students in understanding what they do not understand (Cohen, 2014). Then, the awareness of metacognitive can push the students to make improvement in their ways of dealing with the difficult elements of learning. For example, students may make the decision to develop their shortcuts in overcoming the problems (McInerney, 2013).

Meanwhile, Khezrlou (2012, p.50) explained that when reading in order to analyse a text, learners use a variety of strategies that may be: (1) cognitive: guessing, translating, summarizing, linking with earlier knowledge or experience, using grammar rules, guessing meaning from text, (2) metacognitive: self-evaluation, planning, monitoring one's process of learning. The process of metacognition is implemented by using strategies, which are "procedural, purposeful, effortful, willful, essential, and facilitative in nature" during reading (Alexander & Jetton, 2000, p.295). Through metacognitive strategies, a reader provides with serious attention controlling, monitoring, and evaluating the reading process (Pressley, 2000; Pressley et al., 1995).

Proficient readers apply one or more metacognitive strategies to analyse the text. The application of strategies has grown over time as the reader studies which ones are best related to contribute in comprehension (Pressley, Wharton-McDonald, Mistretta-Hampston, & Echevarria, 1998). Tierney (2005) states that learning to read is not only learning to understand words; it is also learning to make sense of texts. Successful language learners must have the ability to supervise, evaluate, and control their thinking (Koda, 2007).

Metacognition is an essential characteristic of effective reading and reading instruction (Israel, 2007, p.1), so is metacognitive consciousness of the reading strategies one uses. In particular, the strategies of reading used by the readers, their metacognitive consciousness, and reading proficiency are very closely correlated. Essentially, successful readers use more strategies compared to less successful students and use them more frequently. Meanwhile, Sahin (2011) infers that meta-knowledge strategies are complex intellectual skills that are taken into consideration the essential factors of smart behaviour for processing information.

Brown (2004, p.185) explains that reading means skill that teachers simply hope the learner to acquire, basic, beginning-level textbooks in a foreign language. Reading, debatably the most crucial skill for successful achievement in all educational contexts remains a skill of great importance. In addition, Taraban & Rynearson (2004, p.69) declares

that college students select and apply reading strategies that are focused on success in academic achievement. Reading has been a crucial position in either second language teaching or foreign language teaching and plays an essential role in improving the students' English proficiency.

III. RESEARCH METHOD

This research has made use of quantitative approach with the correlational method. Correlational research involves data collection to decide whether, and to what degree, a relationship is available between two or more quantitative variables. The correlational method has two major objectives: (1) to know the relationship between variables and (2) to predict the score on a variable from subjects' scores on other variables (Borg & Gall, 1989, p.577).

The technique of data analysis in this research used the product moment correlation coefficient, usually related to as the Pearson r. This analysis was used to predict the degree of relationship of Independent variable-- metacognitive strategies on dependent variable-- the reading achievement of the students.

The research population is the third year students of English Department of UNTIDAR Magelang that consists of 121 students with the sample of 55 students

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Description of the Research Data

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
SCORES	55	35.00	93.00	82.6000	9.30472
METACOGNITIVE	55	67.00	132.00	108.4182	14.12863
GLOBAL READING STRATEGIES	55	27.00	59.00	46.9455	6.65949
PROBLEM-SOLVING STRATEGIES	55	16.00	35.00	29.0364	3.90139
SUPPORT READING STRATEGIES	55	21.00	40.00	32.4364	4.13998
Valid N (listwise)	55				

The instrument of metacognitive reading strategies of the respondents used the Survey of Reading Strategies (SOARS) questionnaire which was developed by Mokhtari & Sheorey (2002). The items of the questionnaire consisted of three sub-categories: Global Reading Strategies (GLOB), Problem-Solving Strategies (PROB), and Support Reading Strategies (SUP).

B. Result and Discussions

1. Result

The Relation of Metacognitive Strategies on Students' Reading Achievement

Correlations

		SCORES	METACOGNITIVE	GLOBAL READING STRATEGIES	PROBLEM SOLVING STRATEGIES	SUPPORT READING STRATEGIES
SCORES	Pearson Correlation	1	.721**	.769**	.620**	.638**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	55	55	55	55	55

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Based on table 1 above the coefficient correlation of Product Moment (r) = 0.721 with the sig. $0.000 < 0.05$ explains that there is a correlation between metacognitive strategies and reading achievement of the undergraduate students. Meanwhile, the result of analysis from three sub-categories of metacognitive strategies; Global Reading Strategies (GLOB) has coefficient correlation of 0.769 with the sig. $0.000 < 0.05$, Problem Solving Strategies (PROB) has coefficient correlation of 0.620 with the sig. $0.000 < 0.05$ and Support Reading Strategies (SUP) has coefficient correlation of 0.638 with sig. $0.000 < 0.05$. Among the three subcategories, Global Reading Strategies (GLOB) has the biggest correlation on the students' reading achievement.

2. Discussion

The result of the analysis explains that there is a correlation between metacognitive strategies and students' reading achievement, This finding of research is in line with the research of Jafari (2012, p. 4) Stating that the result of the research indicates that practising in metacognitive language learning strategies helps learners develop their listening and reading skills and raise their language proficiency. He also declares that the differences between skilled and less skilled readers and reports the strategies of reading, their use of global and reading strategies (such as underlining, guessing, reading twice), their metacognitive awareness, their perception of a good reader, and their self-confidence as readers.

Ismail & Tawalbeh (2015) has conducted a quasi-experimental study examining the effect of the strategies of metacognitive reading on EFL low achievers in reading. The study reveals that training on the use of metacognitive strategies among low achieving EFL readers improves reading comprehension performance. Channa, et. al. (2015) reveals that this study will encourage readers to think over metacognitive strategies as the input to construct material of reading comprehension and syllabus based on planning, monitoring, and evaluating strategies of the students to increase reading skills for the learners' better comprehension of the text according to their needs as well as teachers scaffold to improve reading and comprehending abilities of the students.

Better readers have better metacognitive awareness of their own strategy use, which leads to enhanced reading ability (Hamdan et al., 2010, p.135). Then, Boulware-Gooden et. al (2007) evaluate how instruction of metacognitive strategies promote reading comprehension and vocabulary attainments of third-grade students. In addition, Nejad & Shahreabaki (2015) reveals that there is a significant positive relationship between the students' metacognitive strategy use and their reading comprehension performance.

Jafari & Ketabi (2012) have found that the instruction of metacognitive strategy has a positive impact on the desirable noticing of strategy use in terms of awareness-raising. It is very urgent to give more attention that metacognitive strategy instruction encourages learners of EFL to solve their difficulties in reading comprehension and provide the participants with a means of pushing them to develop their reading comprehension.

Research reveals that metacognition is a strong predictor of learning. Metacognitive practices make a particular contribution to learning over and above the effect of intellectual capability. The impact of this research is that developing a student's metacognitive practices can recompense for any cognitive restrictions they may possess (Veenam & Wilhelm, & Beishuizen, 2004; Wang, Haertel & Walberg, 1990).

Estacio (2013) declares that it is revealed that the application of the metacognitive reading strategies is a means of reading comprehension achievement predictor. Hustre (2011) also explains if metacognitive reading strategies can act as a predictor of text comprehension and she reveals that problem-solving strategies have a positive impact on reading comprehension.

In addition, students who have effective reading strategies can employ in higher thinking skills about texts and their relations to that text (Hernandez-Laboy, 2009, p.4). In other words, strategic readers are very metacognitive and they realized the ongoing of the process of reading and how a text can be difficult (Pressley, Warthon & Mc Donald, 1997).

Further, a research on metacognition indicates that metacognitive strategy is closely related to success in second/foreign language learning. Learners who are provided with metacognitive strategies, realize their learning and they understand how and when to use the most relevant strategies to complete a given task; they understand how to finish a special task in the most effective strategy. They prepare their learning in advance, supervise their learning during the task performance, and examine their learning after task completion (Zhang & Goh, 2006).

Meanwhile, learners who apply metacognitive strategies in their learning seem to be more self-regulated learners. Improving learners' self-managed learning and independence have received a good attention and overwhelm educational organizations nowadays. The metacognitive direction is an effective method to increase learner-focused and learner autonomy. Various researches have performed that the direction of metacognitive strategies encourages learners to be more self-regulated, self-discipline and successful in their learning (Goh, 1997; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Vandergrift, 2003).

Alshammari (2015) has found that metacognitive strategies help individual students in understanding the learning skills that they are required to have in their classroom. From this study, it is evident that the students with metacognitive strategies develop better learning skills compared to the others without such strategies. Through metacognition, students will be able to receive feedback for learning. This process helps in motivating the learners to develop their skills in learning (Wathen, 2010).

Students using metacognitive strategies are able to learn readily what they expect in order to overcome the academic handicaps that they have as specified (Azevedo & Aleven, 2013). Meanwhile, Ramdass & Zimmerman (2008) studied the effects of training students to use metacognitive strategies to improve mathematics achievement. The practices of metacognition have been exhibited to increase academic attainments across a range of ages, cognitive abilities, and learning domain (Dignath, Buettner & Langfeldt, 2008). Similarly, Hauck (2005) states that learner who has improved their metacognitive understanding are probably to become more autonomous language learners. In addition, Chamot (2005) confirms that unsuccessful language learner does not possess the knowledge of metacognitive required to choose appropriate strategies. Then, Estacio (2013) finds that the metacognitive reading strategies play a role to predict reading comprehension test score

On the contrary, Wallace (2005) has surveyed that in reading classes of EFL, students usually have a little chance to be participating in higher level thinking tasks. Consequently, the students do not study to read comprehensively, nor do they achieve an evaluative understanding of the text as well as improve their critical thinking ability. As a result, learners get disappointed and degraded spirit for independent reading because their classroom tasks do not go beyond sitting and listening to their teacher's long-winded explanations and speeches (Wallace, 2005). Koroteva (2012) explains that the strategies of metacognitive in reading comprehension of education majors and reveals that the respondents performed metacognitive strategy use really ineffectively.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Based on Table 1 above the coefficient correlation of Product Moment (r) = 0.721 with the sig. $0.000 < 0.05$ and explains that there is a correlation between metacognitive strategies and reading achievement of undergraduate students. It means that this research revealed that metacognitive strategies have a correlation with students' reading achievement and metacognitive strategies play an important role to improve the students' reading achievement. The result of this research implies that the students should increase the understanding of metacognitive deeper to help them read English text books better.

REFERENCES

- [1] ALshammari, M.K. (2015). The effect of using metacognitive strategies for achievement and the trend toward social studies for intermediate schools students in Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of Education, Learning and Development*, vol. 3, No. 7, pp. 47-5
- [2] Alexander, P.A., & Jetton, T.L. (2000). Learning from text: A multidimensional and development perspective. In M.L. Kamil, P.B. Mosenthal, P.D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of Reading Research*, vol. 3, 285-310
- [3] Azevado, R. & Aleven, V.A.W.M.M. (2013). *International handbook of metacognition and learning technologies*. New York: Springer
- [4] Belet et. Al. (2011). "Metacognitive strategy usage and epistemological beliefs of a primary school teacher", *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice*. 11:1, 51-57.
- [5] Bentahar, A. (2012). Can ESL Teachers Teach Reading Metacognitive Strategies?: The case of ESL students struggling with reading comprehension. Saarbrücken: LAP LAMBERT Academic Publishing
- [6] Boghian, I. (2016). Metacognitive learning strategies in teaching English as a foreign language. *Journal of Innovation in Psychology, Education and Didactics*, vol. 20 no. 1 pp (53-62).
- [7] Borg, R.W. & Gall, M.D. (1989). *Educational Research: An Introduction*. New York: McGraw Hill
- [8] Boulware-Gooden, R., Carreker, S., Thornhill, A. & Joshi, R. (2007). Instruction of metacognitive strategies enhances reading comprehension and vocabulary achievement of third-grade students. *Reading Teacher*, 61 (1). 70-77.
- [9] Brown, H. D. (2004). *Language assessment; Principle and classroom practices*. New York: Pearson Education
- [10] Channa, M. A., Nordin, Z. S., Siming, I. A., Chandio, A. A., & Koondher, M. A. (2015). Developing reading comprehension through metacognitive strategies: A review of the previous study. *Journal of English language Teaching*, Vol. 8, No. 8, 2015, 181-186.
- [11] Chamot, A. U. (2005). Language learning strategy instruction. Current issues and research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 25, 112-130.
- [12] Clegg, J. (2015). Metacognition. An overview of its uses in language learning. Retrieved on June 20th 2016, from http://www.puglia.istruzione.it/portofolio_new/allegation/j_clegg_metacognition_an_overview_of_its_uses_in_language_learning.pdf.
- [13] Cohen, A., & Dornyei, Z. (2002). Focus on the language learner: Motivation, styles and strategies. In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *AN Introduction to applied linguistics* (pp. 170-190). London: Arnold.
- [14] Cohen, A.D. (2014). *Strategies in learning and using a second language*. London: Routledge
- [15] Dignath, C., & Buettner, G., & Langfeldt, H.P. (2008). How can primary school students learn self-regulated learning strategies most effectively? *Educational Research Review*, 3, 101-129.
- [16] Edwards, A.J., Weinstein, C.E.T., & Alexander, P.A. (2014). *Learning and study strategies: Issues in assessment, instruction, and evaluation*. New York: Elsevier
- [17] Ersozlu, et. al. (2009). The effect of developing reflective thinking on meta-cognitive awareness at primary education level in Turkey. *Reflective Practice*, 10(5), 683-695.
- [18] Estacio, M.J. (2013). Bilingual readers' metacognitive strategies as predictors of reading comprehension. *Philippine ESL Journal*, 10, 179-199.
- [19] Goh, C. (1997). Metacognitive awareness and second language listener. *ELT Journal*, 51(4), 361-369. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/elt/cc1002>.
- [20] Graham, S. (1997). *Effective and cognitive learning. Positive strategies for advanced level language learning*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters
- [21] Hamdan, A. R., Ghafar, M. N., Sihes, A. J., & Atan, S.B. (2010). The cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies of foundation course students in Teacher Education Institute Malaysia. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 13 (1), 133-144.
- [22] Hauck, M. (2005). Metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive strategies and CALL. In J. Egbert & G. Petrie (Eds.), *CALL research perspectives*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 65-86.
- [23] Herrera, S.G., Holmes, M., & Kavimandan, S. (2011). *Crossing the vocabulary bridge: Differentiated strategies for the diverse secondary classroom*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- [24] Hernandez-Laboy, O.I. (2009). *Reading strategies ESL teachers utilize to enhance comprehension in students; Implication for classroom practices*. Dissertation presented to the Department of Graduate Studies College of Education University of Puerto Rico
- [25] Hustre, C. A. (2011). Belief about reading, metacognitive strategies and text comprehension among college students at a private university. *Philippine ESL Journal*, 7 (July 2011), 28-47.
- [26] Ismail, N. M., & Tawalbeh, T. L. (2015). The effectiveness of a metacognitive reading strategies program for improving low achieving EFL readers. *International Education Studies*, 8(1), 71-81.
- [27] Israel, S.E. (2007). *Using metacognitive assessments to create individualized reading instruction*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

- [28] Israel, S. E. (2007). Thinking metacognitively. Using metacognitive assessment to create individualized reading instruction. Newark, DE: International Reading Association
- [29] Iwai, Y. (2011). The effects of metacognitive reading strategies: Pedagogical implication for EFL/ESL teachers. *The Reading Matrix*, 11 (2), 150-157.
- [30] Jafari, D., & Ketabi, S. (2012). Metacognitive strategies and reading comprehension enhancement in Iranian Intermediate EFL setting. *International Journal of Linguistics* Vol. 2 (3), 1-14.
- [31] Khezrlou, S. (2012). "The relationship between cognitive and metacognitive strategies, age and level of education". *The Reading Matrix*, 12 (1), 50-61.
- [32] Koda, K. (2007). Reading and language learning: Crosslinguistic, constraints on second language reading development. *Language Learning*, 57 (1), 1-44.
- [33] Koroteva, I. V. (2012). Metacognitive strategies in reading comprehension of education majors. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Science*, 69 (2012), 1895-1900.
- [34] Louca, E, P. (2003). The concept and instruction of metacognition. *Teacher Development*, 7 (1), 9-30.
- [35] McInerney, D. M. (2013). Educational Psychology: Constructive learning. Person: Higher Education AU.
- [36] Mokhtari, K., & Sheorey, R. (2002). Measuring ESL students reading strategies. *Journal of Development Education*, 25 (3), 2-10.
- [37] Monsakorn, N. (2012). Awareness of reading strategies among EFL learners at Bangkok University. *International Journal of Social Behavior, Educational, Business and Industrial Engineering*, 6 (5), 821-824.
- [38] Nejad, B, S., & Shahrehabaki, M, S. (2015). Effects of metacognitive strategy instruction on the reading comprehension of English language learner through the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA). *International Journal of Languages' Education and Teaching*, 3 (2), 133-164.
- [39] O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). Learning strategies in second language acquisition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- [40] Oxford, R. L. (2013). Teaching & Researching: Language Learning Strategies. New York: Routledge
- [41] Pressley, M., & Afflerbach, P. (1995). Verbal protocols of reading: The nature of constructively responsive reading. Hillsdale NJ: Erlbaum
- [42] Pressley, M., Wharton-McDonald, R. (1997). Skilled comprehension and its development through instruction. *School Psychology Review*, 26 (3), 448-466.
- [43] Pressley, M, Wharton-McDonald, R, Mistretta-Hampston, J., & Echevarria, M. (1998). The nature of literacy instruction in ten grade-4/5 classrooms in upstate New York. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 2, 159-194.
- [44] Pressley, M. (2002). Metacognition and self-regulated instruction. In A. Farstrup & S. Samuels (Eds.). *What research has to say about reading instruction* (3rd ed., pp. 291-309). Newark, DE: International Reading Association
- [45] Ramdass, D., & Zimmerman, B. J. (2008). Effects of self-correction strategy training on middle school's self-efficacy, self-evaluation, and mathematics division learning. *Journal of Advanced Academics*, 20, 18-41.
- [46] Sahin, A. (2011). Evaluating pre-service Turkish teacher's reflective thinking tendencies according to various variables. *Electronic Journal of Social Sciences*. 10(37), 108-119.
- [47] Shah, S.T. (2012). Examining the impact of selected metacognitive strategies on learning. UMI. Second Edition
- [48] Steinbach, J.C. (2010). The effect of metacognitive strategy instruction on writing. Lexington: First Edition.
- [49] Stewart, J., & Laudine, J. (1995). Study skills from a metacognitive perspective. *Guidance & Counseling*, 11, 16-20.
- [50] Sutiayatno, S. (2018). The effect of teacher's verbal communication and non-verbal communication on students' English achievement. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*. Vol.9 (2) March 2018, 430-437.
- [51] Taraban, R., Kerr, M & Rynearson, K. (2004). Analytic and pragmatic factors In college students' metacognitive reading strategies. *Reading Psychology*, 25, 67-81, 2004.
- [52] Tierney, J, E. (Ed.). (2005). Reading strategies and practices (6th ed). Boston: Pearson Education
- [53] Vagle, Mark (2009). "Locating and exploring teacher perception in the reflective thinking process", *Teacher and Teaching*. 15:5, 579-599.
- [54] Vandergrift, L. (2003). From prediction through reflection: Guiding students: Through the process of L2 listening comprehension. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 59(3), 425-440. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.59.3.425>.
- [55] Veenman, M.V.J., Wilhelm, P., & Beishuizen, J.J. (2004). The relation between intellectual and metacognitive skills from a development perspective. *Learning and instruction*. 14, 89-109.
- [56] Wallace, C. (2005). Critical reading in language education. *EFL Journal*, 59 (3), 187-188.
- [57] Wang, M.C., Haertel, G.D., & Walberg, H.J. (1990). What are influences learning? A content analysis of review literature. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 84, 30-43.
- [58] Wathen, T.E. (2010). Developing intentional engagement in adolescents: Volitional and metacognitive strategies use in the classroom. Thesis (Ed.D)—Talbot School of Theology, Biola University.
- [59] Zhang, D., & Goh, C. C. (2006). Strategy knowledge and perceived strategy use: Singaporean students' awareness of listening and speaking strategies. *Language Awareness*. 15 (3). <http://dx.doi.org/10.2167/la342.0>.
- [60] Zohar, A., & Dori, Y. (2012). Metacognition in science education: Trends in current research. Dordrecht: Springer.



Sukris Sutiayatno was born in Solo, Central-Java Indonesia. He graduated his S1 English Department of Muhammadiyah University of Surakarta, S2 Master of Management of STIE Mitra Yogyakarta, S2 Applied Linguistics of Yogyakarta State University and S3 Technological Vocational Education of Yogyakarta State University, he was visiting scholar at Birmingham City University (BCU) UK 2011. He is a lecturer at STMIK Bina Patria Magelang, Central-Java, Indonesia.

His areas of interest are Linguistics, Management and Educational Management. He has published four books: 1. *Kepemimpinan Pembelajaran dan Manajemen Kepuasan Siswa Instructional Leadership and Student's Satisfaction*, 2. *English for Information Technology*, 3. *English for Information Systems*, 4. *Metodologi Penelitian (Research Methodology)*, 5. *Kepemimpinan Kepala Sekolah (School Leadership)*. Dr. Sutiayatno is lecturer and head of STMIK Bina Patria Magelang, Central Java, Indonesia.



Sukarno, M. Si was born in Klaten Central-Java Indonesia. He graduated Strata 1 from English Department of Yogyakarta University, S2 post graduate of Universitas Indonesia (UI) Jakarta, and Doctorate degree (S3) from Semarang State University (UNNES). He was joining recharging program at the University of London and University of the Arts, London.

He has published many books; 1. *Symbolism in Javanese Wedding 'Pranatacara' Genre; An Interpersonal Perspective*, 2. *Action Research; Basic Principles, concept and Its Implementation*, 3. *Introduction to Linguistics: A Literacy-Based Approach*, 4. *Cross-Cultural Understanding: A Literacy-Based Approach*, 5. *Sociolinguistics from the Teacher's Perspective*. At this time, he is lecturer and Dean of Educational Faculty of UNTIDAR Magelang, Central Java Indonesia.

Exploring Reviewer Reactions to MA Theses of Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics

Zhencong Liu

Beijing International Studies University, Beijing, China

Tong Jia

Beijing International Studies University, Beijing, China

Tinghe Zhang

Beijing International Studies University, Beijing, China

Abstract—MA theses are the most important and the last step for them to attain their degree; however, their graduation dissertations must get the approval from the outside expert reviewers. Based on the analysis of 64 outside expert reviewers' reactions to the MA theses of students majoring in foreign linguistics and applied linguistics, this paper is designed to classify the expert reviewers' comments and find out the core factors that expert reviewers mostly pay attention to. Through the classifications and analysis of all the remarks, it can be seen that research background, language and research methodology are the frequently assessed part. At the end of the paper, the author gives some suggestions for both graduate students and tutors on how to efficiently avoid the common problems in the writing of the MA theses.

Index Terms—expert reviewers' reactions, MA theses, problems of graduation dissertations

I. INTRODUCTION

Because of the popularity and importance of English, more and more universities are allowed to train masters who major in English; also more and more students try their best to pursue their master degrees to gain a better life. With the reform of higher education, the government and society put more emphasis on masters' qualities, so the students who are in pursuit of their master degree face more and more challenges. It is reported that every year, more than 30 universities expand their training scale of graduates (Yan, Yang & Yu, 2014). Under this circumstance, more and more educators have been aware of the quality of postgraduates (Huo, 2013).

As the reflection of research ability, MA theses represent masters' comprehensive ability, not only their research ability, but also their writing competence. The theses of graduate students are the certificate for them to pursue their degree, so the quality of their papers must be guaranteed. In order to examine the quality of graduate students' thesis papers, expert reviewer evaluation is an indispensable part.

After graduate students finish their drafts of thesis papers, they submit their papers to their tutors and their tutors will evaluate the papers. This process will last for several times until the tutor thinks the paper has met the requirements of the MA theses. Then the graduate students submit the final draft of their thesis papers to school, the school will submit all of these thesis papers anonymously to outside expert reviewers from other different universities for further evaluation. In the review process, every MA theses will be submitted to three expert reviewers. The thesis paper should receive the affirmation from three expert reviewers, and then the student can graduate. However, if one expert reviewer fails the paper, then the paper will be submitted to another two expert reviewers, and this time the paper must receive both expert reviewers' affirmation; otherwise, the student is unable to graduate on time.

The evaluation of the thesis papers usually has a set of standards: topic, significance of the thesis paper, research ability as well as the normalization. Every aspect of evaluation has its own emphasis. As for the topic, the evaluation lies in that whether the topic is up to date, the significance of the topic, and whether the paper depicts a thorough picture of the field related to this topic. In terms of implication of the thesis paper, the assessment focuses on the paper's contribution to the future research or knowledge. When it comes to the research ability, the evaluation mainly examines the appropriacy of methodology of the paper, the citation of the paper and the student's knowledge level, while the normalization of the thesis paper is aimed to assess the structure, language quality, fluency of the thesis paper.

Based on the analysis of 64 expert reviewers' reactions to the MA theses, the current paper aims to classify the reactions and find out the common problems of MA theses. In light of the research findings, the end of the paper will give some useful suggestions for both graduate students and tutors.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Up to now, there have been a lot of studies related to outside peer review, which can be summarized as follows.

Firstly, research has been done in the field of the application of peer review in different subjects. Larson and Chung (2012) investigated the peer review for scientific manuscripts and found out the usefulness of peer review. However, there was a lack of systematic reviews to date to highlight the essential themes of the peer review process. Coniam (2012) focused on the reviewer reactions to manuscripts submitted to academic journals, in which the author classified the reviewer reactions into different categories and described a rather detailed review process. In addition, as for different fields, what standards were used to evaluate the papers by the peer reviewers was another hot issue. Molly, Margaret C., Margaret H., Judith and Marion (2010) conducted an online survey of nursing peer reviews. In order to assure the graduate degree thesis papers quality, in addition to internal management, outside peer review, as external monitoring, was also an indispensable part (Yao et al., 2011).

Secondly, research has been done in the field of backwash effect of peer review system. Taking the masters' graduation thesis papers of students majoring in medical science for example, Liu and Xing (2016) analyzed the peer review outcomes. Then, they proposed that as for the application of peer review, there was still room for improvement. From the feedback of outside peer review, it could be found that students should focus on their dissertation writing, from topic selection, design to writing and modification. In addition to students themselves, their supervisors also played rather important roles in the dissertations. If the supervisors were responsible and knowledgeable, they could provide timely and valuable help for their students during the process of thesis papers writing (Huang et al., 2008). Yu, He and Zhang (2013) adopted analytic hierarchy process to analyze the outcomes of doctors' dissertations, trying to compare the cultivation quality of doctors. Through comparing two years' feedback of peer review, Luo, Sun and Wu (2008) found that more and more students could select meaningful and worthwhile topics, design more reasonable experiment and compile higher quality thesis papers. However, some students still did worse in writing thesis papers, for they perhaps read enough journals, but they lacked opportunities to writing English journals, which was an important point for future academic writing teaching.

Thirdly, research has been done in the field of the peer review's reliability and changes before and after peer review. Kyle and Strang (2016) examined the criticisms and subsequent changes that arose in the course of peer review and investigated 52 authors regarding their peer review experience and how their article changed from initial journal submission to final publication. A system for random sampling and anonymous peer review for graduate dissertations was invented. With the application of the system, the work of dissertation review was completed successfully and in return improved the quality of graduate students' cultivation (Meng, 2015).

Fourthly, research has been done in the field of the policy of using peer review to evaluate students' graduation dissertations. Jia and Yun (2008) firstly affirmed the usefulness of outside peer review system, because it was a vital part in evaluating the masters' MA theses. However, there were also some problems of present system, such as: narrow selection of outside peer reviewers, unsuitable major, non-unified appraisal standard and so on. Therefore, it was highly necessary to strengthen the concept, attach importance to expert training and put up effective system of supervision. What's more, although peer review system is an inevitable trend, different universities have their own specific requirements. Zhang (2012) analyzed the peer review system of Yulin University. On one hand, peer review system has its own strengths; for example, it can stimulate both the students and their supervisors to pay more attention to the thesis papers, which can improve the teaching quality in return. However, on the other hand, the whole process of peer review should be supervised strictly, from the policy of peer review announced to the peer review system applied. Indeed, outside peer review was an essential step for students to ask for their degree; however, current outside peer review system had its own weaknesses. Liu (2011) indicated that the research direction of the outside expert may not be in line with that of the graduate thesis paper, so the feedback may not be that convincing. Furthermore, faced with the same evaluation criteria, different experts may hold different ideas, and this situation was more common in the evaluation of interdisciplinary thesis papers.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants are postgraduate students who have been graduated in 2016. They all come from the department of English Education in Beijing International Studies University. They were majored in foreign linguistics and applied linguistics. They were from three different programs, namely English education, business English and cross-culture communication. In addition to students, there are 64 off-campus reviewers. They are all the experts in the corresponding domains, such as the experts in English education who come from Beijing Normal University, the experts in international business English who come from University of International Business and Economics and so on. Most of them are professors and as the tutors of the doctoral students. They are experienced reviewers.

B. Data Collection

Altogether 64 reviewer reactions to MA theses of foreign linguistics and applied linguistics were collected for the sake of investigating how these evaluations of expert reviewers were distributed. The author collected the reviewer reaction with the help of colleagues and other teachers. All the reviewer reactions follow the same pattern, listing the evaluations in terms of topic selection, significance of the topic, research ability and normalization of the thesis paper. In addition to those general ratings and an overall mark of the thesis paper, the expert reviewer also pointed out the

advantages and disadvantages of every dissertation. All of these reviewer reactions were labeled with numbers.

C. Data Analysis

Coniam (2012) once explored reviewer reactions to manuscripts submitted to academic journals, and designed a theoretical scheme with 19 specific categories. All these categories can be divided into four general headings, namely scholarly background, originality and relevance, research methodology as well as language. After exploring the outside experts' feedback of masters' MA theses, taking the distinct situation of the masters' MA theses into consideration, the authors modified and revised the original scheme to retain a new scheme according to the outside experts' rating scale. The current scheme was made up of four parts, and each part consisted of several sub-parts, which reflected the overall quality of the thesis paper (see Table 1).

TABLE 1
ANALYTIC DIMENSIONS

Research Background	Theoretical background
	Research significance
	Creativity of the paper
	Potential implication
Academic Ability and Appropriacy	Normalization of literature review
	Normalization of quotation
Language	Structure of the paper
	Quality of the language
	Logic of the paper
Research Methodology	Research methodology
	Adequacy of the research question

The collected expert reviewer reactions are classified under the help of computer. 64 outside expert reviewer reactions are firstly labeled by ticks. And the each piece of evaluation is expressed with a tick or no tick. A tick “√” represents that the evaluation is shown in the expert reviewer's reactions, while no tick means that the evaluation is not included in the expert reviewer's reactions. However, sometimes the expert reviewer's reactions are ambiguous, mentioning the evaluation of two facets, so under this circumstance, this piece of evaluation is classified into the both sub-parts.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Through the analysis of 64 reviewers' reactions, the author classifies the expert reviewers' reactions into four aspects in general: research background, academic ability and appropriacy, language and research methodology. Furthermore, every general aspect can be divided into specific sub parts. In terms of research background, it can be further divided into theoretical background, research significance, creativity of the paper and potential implication. As for academic ability and appropriacy, it can be divided into normalization of literature review as well as normalization of quotation. When it comes to language, it includes structure of the paper, quality of the language together with logic of the paper, while research methodology part contains research methodology and adequacy of the research question. The specific analytic categories can be seen in Table 2.

TABLE 2
SPECIFIC DISTRIBUTION OF REVIEWERS' REACTIONS

	Evaluation Item	Number	Percentage
Research Background	Theoretical background	59	92.19%
	Research significance	56	87.5%
	Creativity of the paper	29	45.31%
	Potential implication	31	48.44%
Academic Ability and Appropriacy	Normalization of literature review	13	20.31%
	Normalization of quotation	25	39.06%
Language	Structure of the paper	44	68.75%
	Quality of the language	51	79.69%
	Logic of the paper	31	48.44%
Research Methodology	Research methodology	45	70.31%
	Adequacy of the research question	14	21.88%

A. Research Background

Research background part includes four sub parts, theoretical background, research significance, creativity of the dissertation and potential implication. Research background is the basis of the topic selection, because when graduate students have mastered enough and comprehensive knowledge of certain field, he/she can have a better understanding of this field and select a topic worth exploring. Moreover, the topic selection also affects its significance and implication.

Firstly, altogether 59 out of 64 outside expert reviewer reactions mention comments concerning theoretical

background, which implies the theoretical background is of vital importance in masters' thesis papers. Most of the experts firstly introduce the background of the study based on the graduate students' dissertations, and then give comments on the thesis papers in terms of the area graduate students choose, which is a common pattern in expert reviewers' reactions. For example:

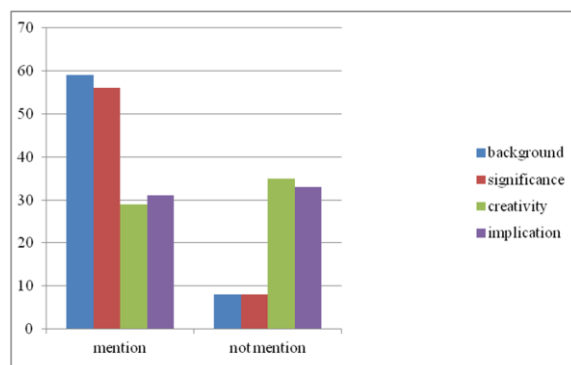


Figure 1 Distributions of Comments on Research Background, Significance, Creativity and Implication (made by the second author)

Example 1: *This paper explores the current situation of postgraduate geoscience majors' English academic paper writing based on need analysis and has a rational discussion (translated from Chinese, Expert 1 in paper ID: 100312013110169).*

Example 2: *The study entitled the study on Sino-US differences of social responsibilities of companies in terms of cross-cultural angle, aims to analyze the situation of China Oil and Foodstuffs Corporation emerging into the world, which has good practical meaning (translated from Chinese, Expert 2 in paper ID: 100312013110178).*

Example 3: *The paper conducts an empirical study on vocabulary teaching of Business English based on Chunk Theory, which contains rich theoretical significance (translated from Chinese, Expert 3 in paper ID: 100312016000006).*

From the above three examples, it can be found that the expert reviewers firstly review the background of the research, and give an overall comment of the research basis. Research background lays a solid foundation of the study, so the research background is indeed of vital importance for a paper. Only after clarifying the research background, can the graduates find the appropriate starting point of their papers. However, in addition to the outside experts' positive reactions, there is also some negative feedback from the outside experts.

Example 4: *Based on testing theory, this dissertation tries to compare the differences of reading test of Test for English Majors Band 4 (TEM-4) and College English Test Band 6 (CET-6) in content validity and washback effect. Furthermore, the author chooses two different kinds of tests, which are used to test different levels of students, so there are not some points worth of comparing. However, actually, the paper does not involve any useful washback effect (translated from Chinese, Expert 4 in paper ID: 100312013110168).*

The pattern still accords with the traditional structure, from the general review of the topic to the outside expert's comments. But this feedback is a negative one, which indicates that the chosen topic and research angle need to be revised. Although when the graduates select their research field and topic, they nearly master some related theories and have their own ideas, they still need their supervisors to lead them to explore whether the topic is worth doing. Indeed, for the supervisors, this throws light upon the cultivation of masters. The supervisors can pay much attention to the research background of their students' thesis papers to ensure the students make an explicit statement of the research background. As for the students, they should accumulate enough theories to prepare for their dissertation writing.

Secondly, in general, 56 out of 64 expert reviewer reactions mention comments about research significance, which can be seen that research significance also is an essential part in determining the quality of graduate students' thesis papers. Expert reviewers usually decide the dissertation's significance from both theoretical usefulness and practical value.

Example 5: *The paper presents great theoretical and practical significance (translated from Chinese, Expert 5 in paper ID: 100312013110171).*

Example 6: *Actually, the paper provides guidance for the current English teaching and education, and is also helpful for students' autonomic learning (translated from Chinese, Expert 6 in paper ID: 100312013110176).*

Example 7: *This paper has good practical significance and theoretical meaning to some extent (translated from Chinese, Expert 7 in paper ID: 100312013110183).*

Example 8: *The selection of the topic has valuable practical meaning, which shades light on the future's English teaching (translated from Chinese, Expert 8 in paper ID: 100312016000011).*

The above examples present that most expert reviewers just give a rather general comment in terms of the significance of the research. The significance, either theoretical significance or practical significance depends on the selection of the topic, so the selection of the topic is the foundation. When choosing the research field or topic, both the students and the supervisors should take the significance of the research into consideration, which provides the direction

for future academic writing teaching.

Thirdly, in general, nearly half of the expert reviewer reactions mention comments contain creativity of the paper part. In one outside expert's reaction, the expert says that: "*The current study uses those existed theories to analyze the selected corpus, failing to put forward any new idea*", which directly points out the dissertation lacking creativity. In addition, "*Creativity needs to be improved*" is another common evaluation in the expert reviewers' reactions from which it can be seen that currently graduate students lack creativity, that is to say, they cannot transfer what they have learned theoretically to practice. While on the other hand, some graduate students choose a rather worthy topic, combining the theory and practice, and once solved properly, it will expand the theory or provide the cases for the theory.

Example 9: *The paper has a good pointcut and it is very creative (translated from Chinese, Expert 9 in paper ID: 100312013110170).*

Example 10: *The paper imitates the previous studies, so it does not have creativity (translated from Chinese, Expert 10 in paper ID: 100312016000015).*

We can see from the above examples that the expert reviewers judge whether the paper is creative from the selection of the topic and the background of the research. Therefore, it is of great essence for students to make a detailed review of the research background. Based on the research background, the research questions can be proposed appropriately. And the study should be closely associated with the theory itself or the application of the theory. Creativity is an ability that every graduate should develop. As for this facet, in order to assist the students, the supervisors can introduce the latest journals to students, which can help know the developing trend of the field. As for students themselves, they should develop their critical mind; when they read some journals, they should transfer what they read to thought and based on the articles, they should put forward their own ideas and comments, trying to find the research gap, which is their creative point.

Fourthly, all in all, 31 expert reviewer reactions include comments about potential implication, especially common in thesis papers of students majoring English education, because the application of a certain teaching theory may easily give implication for future language teaching and learning. However, some expert reviewers use ambiguous comment, which is difficult to judge whether the comment falls into the significance of the paper or the potential implication, so in this case, the authors divide this kind of evaluation into the both two dimensions. As dimension of potential implication is a necessary part in expert review feedback, graduate should take the implication of paper into consideration when choosing the topic. Potential implication indicates the usefulness of the study. If the study has enough potential implications, then the subsequent scholars can learn from the current study and then find their own starting point. For instance:

Example 11: *The conclusion of the study is reliable, and it has some implications on future teaching (translated from Chinese, Expert 11 in paper ID: 100312013110184).*

Example 12: *The results of the study have been testified, which is worth being popularized (translated from Chinese, Expert 12 in paper ID: 100312016000009).*

For this sub-part, the expert reviewers also just give a general comment in simple words. If the research design is reasonable, and then the results of the study can be reliable, so the results can offer some implications both from the theoretical perspective and practical perspective.

B. Academic Ability and Appropriacy

As for academic ability and appropriacy, expert reviewers evaluate the dissertations from the normalization of literature review and the normalization of citation. No matter literature review or the citation of others' studies can embody the graduate students' research competence. On one hand, writing ability is one of the most important ability to reflect graduate students overall English proficiency, while on the hand, whether graduates can write the literature review appropriately can reflect their understanding of previous studies of the similar topic home and abroad. However, only one third of the remarks involve the comments of academic ability and appropriacy, which means expert reviewers evaluate the paper from a rather general perspective and seldom focus on such specific part. Common remarks are that the citation follows a good pattern, or the format of the citation needs to be improved and revised.

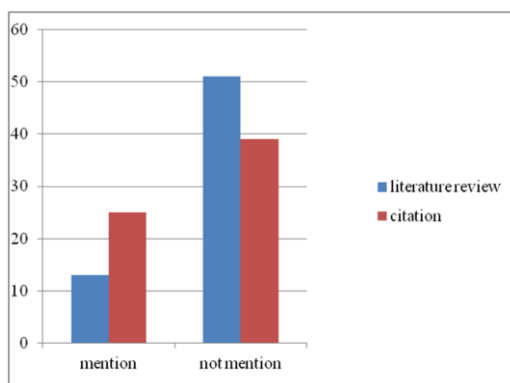


Figure 2 Distributions of Comments on Normalization of Literature Review and Citation (made by the second author)

Example 13: *The paper gives a well-rounded description of the related theories and practices in literature review, representing the author's good research ability (translated from Chinese, Expert 9 in paper ID: 100312013110170).*

Example 14: *The paper should reorganize the related studies, and follow an appropriate pattern to cite previous studies (translated from Chinese, Expert 13 in paper ID: 100312013110180).*

Example 15: *The results of the previous studies do not need to list in the literature review; on the contrary, literature review should summarize the related studies (translated from Chinese, Expert 2 in paper ID: 100312013110178).*

The above examples show that nearly one fifth comments concerning the writing of literature review, and nearly one third comments about the normalization of the citation of others' studies. Literature part is another essential part in the graduates' thesis papers, because the writing of literature review can reflect the students' comprehensive understanding and mastery of the previous related studies. Only after students absorb other previous studies related to his or her research, can he or she find the research gap and better design the research procedure. Therefore, the writing of literature review should be put emphasis. On one hand, for instructors in the university, they should train students to read more journals, and then teach students how to write literature review. While on the other hand, as for students themselves, they should browse through more journals or articles, and develop their critical thinking, so that they can absorb the previous studies better.

C. Language

Through the analysis of expert reviewers' reactions, comments related to language usually fall into the following three aspects: structure of the paper, quality of the language as well as logic of the paper. Language is a core part, which receives many comments, because language is not only a basic representation of graduate students' English competence, but also a tool for graduate students to convey his/her own opinion to the readers. Expert reviewers usually mention that the language is natural and fluent, which can fully demonstrate the main idea of the paper; however, on the contrary, the expert reviewer may contend that, the words and expressions are chaotic with many mistakes in the dissertation.

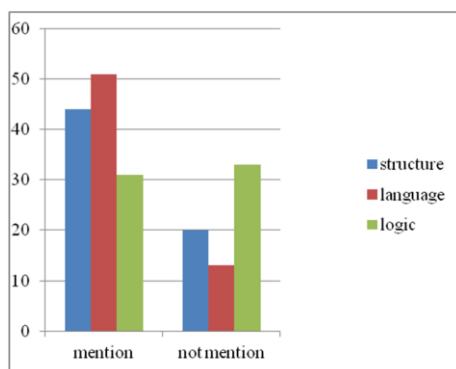


Figure 3 Distributions of Comments on the Structure, Language and Logic (made by the second author)

Example 16: *The structure of the paper is reasonable (translated from Chinese, Expert 14 in paper ID: 100312013110173).*

Example 17: *The arrangement of some chapters needs to be improved, for it is chaotic (translated from Chinese, Expert 15 in paper ID: 100312013110176).*

Example 18: *The language is fluent, and quality of the language meets the requirements of the degree of master (translated from Chinese, Expert 16 in paper ID: 100312013110174).*

Example 19: *There are many mistakes in the paper, so the paper needs a thorough revision (translated from Chinese, Expert 17 in paper ID: 100312016000014).*

Example 20: *The choice of the vocabulary should be checked again (translated from Chinese, Expert 4 in paper ID: 100312013110168).*

Example 21: *The logic of the paper is rather clear, making it easy for the readers to understand (translated from Chinese, Expert 18 in paper ID: 100312016000012).*

The above examples, including both positive comments and negative feedback, expound that language is also an essential part that attracts many expert reviewers' attention. Language, involving not only the use of vocabulary and grammar, but also the structure and the logic of the paper, is the comprehensive reflection of the students' English proficiency, and everything should be expressed in the form of language. Therefore, graduates should try their best to polish their language proficiency. In addition, students should pay attention to the academic language, for some graduates tend to use some colloquial or informal expressions in the papers, which is inappropriate.

As for instructors, they should avoid the idea that for masters, language is not a problem any longer. There is not the same equivalent in another language, so sometimes it is difficult to express one idea in another language. Especially for academic paper writing, it is different from composition or essay writing. Chinglish expressions even appear in some masters' MA theses. Therefore, the supervisors or the instructors can provide students with more opportunities to write their academic papers, which puts them a step closer to their dissertation. Instructors can also summarize some common

academic lists of words and expressions in class for the graduates.

D. Research Methodology

Research methodology is so important in thesis paper writing that it decides whether the research question can be solved. As a consequence, nearly all of the reactions contain comments on research methodology. Currently, mainly most of the thesis papers adopt research methods of both qualitative and quantitative study, which can yield more convincing results. And it is advocated that graduate students design the experiment according to the research questions and also introduce some new technologies or methods to conduct the study, which shows the creativity of the research, and it is also the indirect reflection of one's research ability.

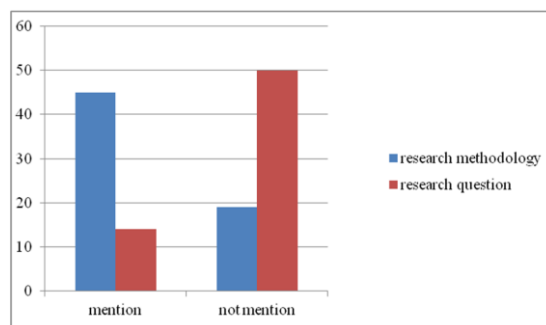


Figure 3 Distributions of Comments on the Research Methodology and the Adequacy of Research Question (made by the second author)

Example 22: *The paper combines quantitative method and qualitative method, reaching a rather reasonable conclusion (translated from Chinese, Expert 1 in paper ID: 100312013110169).*

Example 23: *The paper analyzes the data scientifically, so the results are convincing (translated from Chinese, Expert 19 in paper ID: 10031201311080).*

Example 24: *The design of the questionnaire needs to be questioned (translated from Chinese, Expert 20 in paper ID: 100312016000010).*

Example 25: *The research questions are too general to solve (translated from Chinese, Expert 21 in paper ID: 100312013110182).*

Example 26: *The description of the research questions is not detailed and scientific enough (translated from Chinese, Expert 22 in paper ID: 100312016000017).*

Research questions are the core of the study, for they lead the direction of the research. Furthermore, nearly two thirds of the comments focus on the research methodology, for research methodology is the basis of solving the pre-designed research questions. And the above examples are typical ones from all the comments. It can be seen that if the research questions are too broad, then the whole study will lose its direction; while if the research questions are too narrow, then the study will be not deep. Only after the research questions are put forward appropriately, is the tone of the research decided. In order to solve the research questions, research methodology must be selected accordingly, for every kind of research method has its own strengths and weaknesses. Therefore, for students, they should pay more attention to the research questions and the selection of the methodology, for the paper is based on the research questions and through the research methods, the research questions can be solved. While for the instructors, they should introduce more kinds of methods to students, and encourage students to apply advanced and multi-methods to their research.

V. CONCLUSION

MA these are the condensed embodiment of graduate students' academic ability, because graduation dissertations do not only embody students' writing proficiency, but also represent graduates' academic competence. Furthermore, as graduation dissertation is the certificate of graduate students to pursue their degree, the quality of MA theses should be given the top priority. Meanwhile, as the necessary part of evaluating the graduation dissertations, outside peer review can reveal many problems in the writing of the graduation dissertations. Therefore, no matter graduate students or tutors should check the items in the expert reviewer reactions to assure that the completion of the graduation dissertations have met the requirements of masters' degree.

As for students, they should accumulate more during their graduate study, so they can choose the creative and appropriate topic, propose the feasible research question, design the procedure reasonably and reach a convincing conclusion. Meanwhile, as instructor, they should lead students to explore the academic world, introduce more methods to the students, monitor the process of the students' dissertation writing, and communicate with the students more frequently to find out their difficulties.

REFERENCES

- [1] Coniam, D. (2012). Exploring reviewer reactions to manuscripts submitted to academic journals. *System* 40: 544-553.

- [2] Huang, B., Li, W., Lan, T., & Xie, Z. (2008). Reflection and measures of cultivation quality of doctoral candidates---based on the analysis and research of doctoral dissertations' results of experts review. *Journal of Inner Mongolia Agricultural University (Social Science Edition)* 10(4):171-172. (In Chinese, my translation)
- [3] Huo, D. (2013). Research on quality assurance system of graduate education in China under the perspective of international comparison. Master thesis paper. Nanjing: Nanjing University of Aeronautics and Astronautics.
- [4] Jia, Y. & Yun, S. (2008). Thought to Outside Peer Review System of Master Degree Thesis of P. E. in Hebei. *Journal of Hebei Institute of Physical Education* 22(3):28-30.
- [5] Kyle, S., & Strang, D. (2016). Peer review and scholarly originality. *Research Article* 42(1): 29-61.
- [6] Larson, B. P., & Chung, K. C. (2012). A systematic review of peer review for scientific manuscripts. *Review Article* 7(1): 37-44.
- [7] Liu, J. & Xing, J. (2016). Analysis and improvement measures based on the results of expert review of medicine major students' MA theses. *Journal of Hebei United University (Health Sciences)*. 18(1): 74-75. (In Chinese, my translation)
- [8] Liu, L. (2011). Reflection and practice of master thesis paper's peer review system. *Success (Education)*. (10):201-201. (In Chinese, my translation)
- [9] Luo, Q., Sun, Y. & Wu, X. (2008). Analysis of master thesis papers' peer review quality. *Northwest Medical Education* 16(6): 1110-1111. (In Chinese, my translation)
- [10] Meng, J. (2015). Optimization of Random Sampling and Anonymous Peer Review for Shanghai Graduate Dissertations Based on the Theory of Learning Outcomes Evaluation. *Shanghai Journal of Educational Evaluation* (6):56-60.
- [11] Molly, C. D., Margaret, C. F., Margaret, H. K., Judith, G. B., & Marion, B. (2010). Online survey of nursing journal peer reviewers: indicators of quality in manuscripts. *Review Article* 33(4): 506-521.
- [12] Yan, Jiang., Yang, Z. & Yu, C. (2014). Problems and advice on system of masters' mid-term examination. *Education Teaching Forum* (43): 216-218. (In Chinese, my translation)
- [13] Yao, Z., Zou, K., Luo, B., Kong, X. & Zhang, L. (2011). Practice of internal management and external supervision of quality of master thesis paper---taking peer review results of thesis paper in Southeast University and that in Jiangsu Province for example. *Journal of Graduate Education* (5): 31-37. (In Chinese, my translation)
- [14] Yu, X., He, W. & Zhang, L. (2013). Evaluation of geosciences major doctoral dissertations' quality based on AHP method. *Journal of China University of Geosciences (Social Sciences Edition)* (S1): 79-82. (In Chinese, my translation)
- [15] Zhang, J. (2012). Advantages, disadvantages and measures of outside expert peer review system of graduation thesis paper---taking Shaanxi Yulin University for example. *Journal of Mudanjiang University* 21(5): 147-149. (In Chinese, my translation)

Zhencong Liu was born in Guang Xi, China in 1969. He received his PH.D degree in Applied Linguistics from Beijing Foreign Studies University, China.

He is currently a vice professor in the School of Foreign Languages, Beijing International Studies University, Beijing, China. His research interests include academic writing, cognitive linguistics and English teaching.

Tong Jia was born in Da Lian, China. She received her MA degree in Applied Linguistics from Beijing Foreign Studies University, China in 2018.

She is currently a teacher in New Oriental Education & Technology Group. Her research interest includes English teaching and writing.

Tinghe Zhang was born in Cang Zhou, China. She is currently an MA candidate in Beijing International Studies University, China.

The Derivation of Verb-copying Sentence in Mandarin Chinese

Haojie Li

School of Foreign Languages, Southwest University of Political Science and Law, Chongqing, China;
Faculty of English Language and Culture, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China

Abstract—The verb-copying sentence is a special sentence in Chinese and has received extensive attention from the academic circles. Under the framework of Distributed Morphology and MP, the article makes a modified adjustment to the structure derived by phase from the narrow syntax through the post-syntactic “Feature Copying” operation, which is simply the ornamental adjustment to the resulting syntactic structure, to better explain the verb-copying sentence. This analysis does not require a specific syntactic structural hierarchy and is more natural in theory. It is also consistent with mainstream ideas such as lexical array and derivation by phase under the framework of MP.

Index Terms—verb-copying sentence, distributed morphology, MP, feature copying, lexical array, derivation by phase

I. INTRODUCTION

Verb-copying sentence is a special sentence pattern in Chinese. It means that two identical verbs appear in the same sentence. The two same verbs have an object and a complement respectively. They are represented by the symbol $S+V_1O+V_2C$, S is the subject, V_1 and V_2 are repeated verbs, O is an object, and C is a complement.

(1) Lisi qima qide henlei.

Lisi ride a horse ride very tired

Lisi was very tired to ride a horse.

(2) Zhangsan changge chang-le sanxiaoshi.

Zhangsan sing songs sing-past three hours

Zhang San has sung for three hours.

The basic characteristics of the modern Chinese verb-copying sentence are as follows:

A. Of the two verbs, only the second verb is a qualified finite verb, which can be marked with an aspect marker and can be modified by a negative word and various adverbs.

(3) a) Zhangsan changge chang-le sanxiaoshi.

Zhangsan sing songs sing-past three hours

Zhangsan has sung for three hours.

b) * Zhangsan chang-le ge chang sanxiaoshi

Zhangsan sing-past songs sing three hours

Zhangsan sang the song sing for three hours.

B. The positions between verb-object and verb-complement are fixed and cannot be reversed.

(4) a) Lisi qima qide henlei.

Lisi ride a horse ride very tired

Lisi was very tired to ride a horse.

b) * Lisi qide henlei qima.

Lisi ride very tired ride a horse

C. Objects and complements are essential.

(5) a) ta hejiu hezui le.

he drink wine drink drunk

He was drunk while drinking.

b) * ta he hezui le.

He drink drunk.

* ta hejiu he le.

he drink wine drink-past

D. The object is usually a generic term, not a nonreferential (Li&Thompson1987).

(6) a) ta hejiu hezui le.

he drink wine drink drunk

He was drunk while drinking.

b) * ta he naping jiu hezui le.

he drink that bottle wine drink drunk
 He was drunk while drinking that bottle of wine.

E. The verb-object phrase can be inserted at the beginning and in the middle of the sentence, and then ‘ah/yah’ can be inserted.

- (7) a) Lisi qima (ah/yah) qide henlei.
 Lisi ride a horse (ah/yah) ride very tired
 Lisi was very tired to ride a horse.
 b) qima (ah/yah) Lisi qide henlei.
 ride a horse (ah/ah) Lisi ride very tired

Li & Shi (1997) argue that the verb copy structure is a very young syntactic format with only about two or three hundred years of history. They discuss the grammaticalization process of this structure, and believe that the generation of the verb-copy structure is the result of the highly developed verb-complement structure, so that the object can no longer be inserted between the verb and the complement, resulting in the disappearance of the “V *de* OC” structure. In addition to using the “*de*” clause and the topic structure, the other method is to use the verb copying to express the function of “V *de* OC”.

Up to now, the researchers are still expressing their own opinions on the syntactic generation mechanism of Chinese verb-copying sentence, and have not yet reached a consensus. This paper intends to re-examine the existing related researches, pointing out their existing problems, and then, using the post-syntactic “Feature Copying” operation in DM (Embick & Noyer, 2007) to analyze the derivation of verb-copying sentence and trying to find a more reasonable solution.

II. RELATED RESEARCHES

Scholars have made the study of the Chinese verb-copying sentences from the perspective of generative grammar extensively, such as Huang (1982), Cao Fengfu (2005), Zhang Xiaorong (2009), Yang Daran, Cheng Gong (2013) and Xu Xingsheng (2013).

A. Phrase Structure Constraint (PSC)

Huang Zhengde (1982) proposed the Chinese “Phrase Structure Constraint” in the light of the X-bar theory, which stipulates that the head is only allowed to branch to the left once. If a verb carries a complementary term, it must be repeated to satisfy PSC. According to this restriction, the following example (8a) is ungrammatical because the head of the bottom projection and intermediate verbs projection are all on the left. In order to meet the PSC, the verb “ride” can only be copied, thus forming a verb-copying sentence in example (8b).

- (8) a) wo qima de henlei.
 I ride a horse very tired
 *I’m tired of riding.
 b) wo qima qide henlei.
 I ride a horse ride very tired
 I am very tired to ride a horse.

The PSC has the demerit because it cannot explain the legitimacy of sentences such as (9). In this type of sentence, there are two adjacent components after the verb, the heads of the verb projection at the bottom and in the middle are all to the left, the verb is not copied but the whole sentence is grammatical.

- (9) a) ta quguo Beijing wuci.
 he go-tense Beijing five times
 He has been to Beijing for five times.
 b) ta song wo yiben shu.
 he send me a book
 He sent me a book.

What is more, the X-bar theory has been abandoned under the framework of the MP (Chomsky 1995). In the MP framework, the syntactic analysis of the verb-copying sentence must select new theoretical tools.

B. Topic Structure Theory

Cao Fengfu (2005) and Zhang Xiaorong (2009) think that V₁ in verb-copying sentence loses the verb feature, and its object constitutes a nominal auxiliary topic, because this structure can be followed by some modal particles such as “ah” “ne” “ma” and the like to separate from other components. There may also be brief pauses, as shown in (9):

- (10) a. Ta shuohua-ba/shuo-de hen qingchu.
 he speak speak very clearly
 He speaks / very clearly.
 b. Ta chifan-a / chi-le yige xiaoshi.
 he eat meal eat an hour
 He eats / for an hour.

Li&Shi (1997) argues that the formal source of the verb-copying sentence is a topic structure. VP₁ and VP₂ have different syntactic status in the verb-copying sentence. VP₁ is a nonfinite verb that can act as the subject of the verb-copying sentence, while VP₂ is a finite verb, which keeps the number agreement with the subject. Si Fuzhen(2009) draws on “double-spec” to parse the verb-copying sentence on the basis of Li&Shi (1997). Si (2009) maintains that VP₁ is regarded as the specifier of VP₂.

C. *Linear Correspondence Axiom (LCA) and Morphological Fusion*

Yang Daran, Cheng Gong (2013) pointed out that the repetition of verbs in verb-copying sentence looks like a counterexample of the LCA proposed by Kayne (1994). According to LCA, in the same segment, a term and its "copy" cannot be simultaneously achieved in the phonological form, otherwise it will not be able to form a linear arrangement, causing the representation to collapse at the phonological level. However, the study finds that the reason why both verbs can be achieved in phonetics and form a legitimate linear output is that the fusion of the first verb and its object are sent to the phonological system after syntactic derivation. LCA treats the two as a linear alignment of a term item and other terms, which ensures that verb-copying sentence becomes a legitimate phonological expression.

D. *Derivation by Phase*

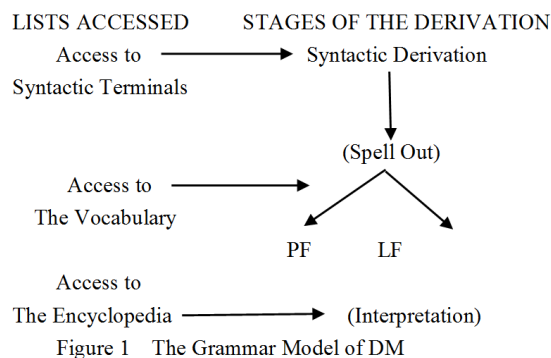
Xu Xingsheng (2013) used the Phase theory to analyze the generation of verb-copying sentence. Xu maintains that the information projection inside the verb-copying sentence should be IP << Top P << Focus P << v P on the basis of Rizzi (1997) and Belletti (2004). Xu believes that the verb-object structure in verb-copying sentence is in effect an internal topic or focus of the sentence. In order to assign the (-Top/-Focus) feature, the verb is first moved from V to v* and then moved to Spec-TopP/FocusP position and then merged with its object. However, when the verb-object structure is used as the topic or focus of the sentence, whether the verb has the (-Top /-Focus) feature is very debatable.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The important premise of studying the verb-copying sentence is the judgment of its attribution as a syntactic phenomenon or a morphological phenomenon. In this regard, our view is that the verb-copying sentence conforms to various standards of morphological phenomena. For example, it has undergone a certain historical evolution process. According to the study of Li Ne and Shi Yuzhi (1997), the generation and development of Chinese verb-copying sentence is the last two or three hundred years. It did not appear until the Qing Dynasty's “Dream of Red Mansions” era, and then slowly stabilized and has been used until now. The word “de” is not necessary for semantics and syntax and so on. Therefore, the verb-copying sentence is not a syntactic phenomenon, but mainly related to the morphology. Thus, this article takes Distributed Morphology (DM for short) as the main theoretical framework, mainly using one post-syntactic operations: Feature Copying. At the same time, it incorporates the MP idea and attempts to propose a new interpretation scheme for Chinese verb-copying sentences.

A. *Distributed Morphology*

Distributed Morphology (DM for short); (Halle & Marantz, 1993); (Embick & Noyer, 2001, 2007) is highly consistent with the MP in the basic architecture, but there is a unique insight into the relationship between syntax and shape. For the purposes of this paper, it has two core claims that can be adopted. One is “single engine hypothesis” i.e. the rules of morphology are the same as the rules of the syntax, and words and phrases are generated by basic operations such as merge and move. The second is “distributed morphology”. The biggest difference between DM and the MP is that it eliminates the Lexicon that contains the individual nature of all the vocabulary in the MP and splits the Lexicon into three lists. List 1 is called the “Syntactic Terminals”, including roots and abstract morphemes. List 2 is the “Vocabulary” whose purpose is to provide phonological content for abstract morphemes and roots. List 3 is the “Encyclopedia”, located in the end of the derivation, which is responsible for providing the final semantic interpretation. Correspondingly, the morphological correlation operation is not in the Lexicon as assumed by the classic MP once for all. The one-time completion is done in two parts. The first part starts from the syntactic terminals and ends with the Spell-Out operation, belonging to part of the narrow syntax. Pure syntactic rules are used here, namely merge and move. The second part happens during the derivation from Spell-Out to PF, where the language computational system accesses the Vocabulary and fills the most matching Vocabulary Items into the syntactic structure according to the relevant rules. This is the “Late Insertion” operation. The grammar model of DM can be represented as Figure 1.



B. Feature Copying

In the DM framework, the result of the syntactic derivation can be adjusted limitedly by Feature Copying in the process of the Spell-Out to the PF. This is an important entry point for our analysis. Below we introduce this operation.

Embick and Noyer (2007) points out that syntactic derivation generates a hierarchical structure, and the hierarchical structure enters the PF after the Spell-Out operation. Further morphological operations will be carried out in order to derive linear order of each node. Feature Copying is one of the morphological operations, among others.

(11) Feature Copying: A feature is present on a node X in the narrow syntax is copied onto another node Y at PF.

Feature Copying is an operation of features already existed in the syntactic structure, so it is a relatively economic operation. It seems that Feature Copying operations violate the Inclusiveness Condition (Chomsky 1995, 2000, 2004), a principle intended to prevent the introduction of novel material in the course of a derivation:

(12) The Inclusiveness Condition: No new features are introduced by C_{HL} .

Chomsky further expounds that a “perfect language” should meet the condition of inclusiveness: any structure formed by the computation (in particular, π and λ [i.e. PF/LF, de/rn]) is constituted of elements already present in the lexical items selected for N [the numeration de/rn]; no new objects are added in the course of computation apart from rearrangements of lexical properties...Let us assume that this condition holds (virtually) of the computation from N to LF... standard theories take it to be radically false for the computation to PF (Chomsky 1995).

As Chomsky notes, it is ordinarily assumed that various morphophonological operations, such as those relating to syllabification, prosodic structure, and a great deal of the phonology, introduce elements not present in lexical items. In addition, the addition of phonological features to nodes at PF (Late Insertion) violates this condition as well. While it appears that PF must violate Inclusiveness in at least some respects, it is also clear that PF does not have the power to add absolutely any type of feature. While all morphemes and interpretable features are present at PF, not all morphemes that are found at PF are present in the syntactic derivation. Specifically, depending on language-specific well-formedness requirements, certain morphemes are added at PF. Such morphemes are never essential to semantic interpretation, since the derivation diverges onto PF and LF branches prior to the insertion of these morphemes. Thus, we speak of the reflexes of any morphemes inserted at PF as being ornamental: they merely introduce syntactico-semantically unmotivated structure and features which ‘ornament’ the syntactic representation. These violations of Inclusiveness and other principles are perhaps forced by properties of the interface, i.e. imposed by requirements ‘external’ to language: this information is forced by the requirements of the articulatory-perceptual interface: language has a serial interface, and this requires a unique linear ordering. As such, this complication to the simplest picture has an external motivation (Embick & Noyer 2007).

IV. OUR ANALYSIS

Our research adopts the viewpoint of topic structure theory and believes that the VP_1 “qima” (ride a horse) is the topic. Adopting the integration Feature Copying in DM and derivation by phase (Chomsky, 2001, 2008) in MP (Chomsky, 1995), a unified theoretical explanation of the generation of verb-copying sentence is made.

A. Derivation Tools and Models

The DM theory and the MP are consistent in the basic structure, and the basic operation of derivation is the same, that is, merge. Therefore, although our analysis is based on the DM theoretical framework, it also consistent with the lexical array and derivation by phase under the framework of MP.

A lexical array, also called a collection of lexical items, is the starting point for syntactic derivation. It refers to the set of terms required to generate a syntactic structure. The system of syntactic derivation cannot arbitrarily and directly select words from the lexicon to form sentences. Words can only be taken from the lexical array, and the syntactic derivation is completed when the lexical items are exhausted. The lexical array not only makes it possible to eliminate the D-structure of the GB theory, but also better reflects the Economy Principle of the Universal Grammar. On the one hand, it reduces the burden of structure generation on the required memory, etc., making the derivation more economical; on the other hand, it provides a reference set for comparison that makes the Economy Principle operational.

With the continuous development of the MP, the lexical array gradually evolves the concept of lexical subarray. The way of the sentence derivation becomes the derivation by phase from the whole sentence derivation. Similar to the concept of the lexical array, derivation by phase is also an embodiment of Economy Principle. It makes it only necessary to calculate the lexical items required for a phase when the derivation proceeds and it is not necessary to take into account of other terms in the lexical array. It goes to the next phase derivation process after a phase is completely finished, and the loop is repeated until the derivation ends. In this way, it not only reduces the burden of working memory, but also greatly reduces the computational complexity of the language system, which better reflects the computability, economy and efficiency of the language system.

When generating a sentence, the language computational system first selects the abstract morphemes and roots required for the operation from the Syntactic Terminals to form an lexical array. Then, the computational system selects the terminals needed for the first phase from the lexical array to form a lexical subarray. After the terminal in the sub-array is used up, the terminals needed to generate the next phase is extracted from the array, and the loop is repeated until the entire sentence is derived. When a phase derivation is finished, the spell-out pushes the generated syntax structure to PF and LF respectively. In the process from spell-out to PF, the computational system visits the Vocabulary, inserts the phonological material conforming to the insertion condition into the syntactic structure through the Late Insertion, and determines the linear order of the various phonological forms in the syntactic structure. In this process, language-specific well-formedness requirements are introduced through Feature Copying. The operation finitely modifies the syntactic structure, resulting in a sound/form mismatch in the language. When the syntactic structure reaches PF and LF, the Encyclopedia is intervened, so that the derivation is interpreted on both interfaces.

B. Generation Mechanism of Verb-copying Sentence

The detailed derivation of verb-copying sentence is as follows:

The first step is to extract the required roots and abstract features from the syntactic terminals to form an lexical array:

LA={ta (he), ma (horse), qi (ride), de, henlei (very tired), v, T, C }

In the second step, the components extracted from the lexical array to generate the first phase P and form the lexical sub-array LA1:

LA1={ta (he), ma (horse), qi (ride), de, henlei (very tired)}

In the third step, the VP is generated according to the conceptual structure, after the details are omitted, as shown in (7):

(13) [_{VP} [_{DP} ma (horse)] [_{V'} [_V qi (ride)] [_{RP} de henlei (very tired)]]]

The fourth step is to generate the first phase P:

(14) [_{VP} [_{Pron} ta (he)] [_{V'} [_V], [_{VP} [_{DP} ma (horse)] [_{V'} [_V qi (ride)] [_{RP} de henlei (very tired)]]]]]

In the fifth step, the derivation (8) is derived to the LF and PF respectively, and further operations are carried out on the way to the PF.

The Feature Copying operation involves to copy the predicate “qi (ride)” between the agent “ta (he)” and the patient “ma (horse)” and forms a verb copying sentence:

(15) [_{VP} [_{Pron} ta (he)] [_{V'} [_V qi (ride)], [_{VP} [_{DP} ma (horse)] [_{V'} [_V qi (ride)] [_{RP} de henlei (very tired)]]]]]

The seventh step is to extract the lexical sub-array LA2 from the lexical array.

(16) LA2={T, C }

Generating a second phase CP, deriving to the PF and LF, and then obtain the final semantic interpretation through the Encyclopedia, the derivation comes to an end.

(17) [_{CP} C [_{TP} _{Pron} ta (he)] [_{T'} T [_{VP} _{Pron} ~~ta (he)~~] [_{V'} [_V qi (ride)] [_{VP} [_{DP} ma (horse)] [_{V'} [_V qi (ride)] [_{RP} de henlei (very tired)]]]]]]]

V. CONCLUSION

This study uses a combination of operations in DM and MP, adopting the idea of adding morphemes between the Spell-Out and PF in DM. At the same time the core concepts such as lexical array and derivation by phase in the MP are taken as well. All morphemes and interpretable features in the process of syntactic derivation appear in the phonological form, but not all morphemes and traits of the phonological form are the result of syntactic derivation. Some of the morphemes or features can be introduced in the phonological form to satisfy the phonetic or grammatical idiosyncrasy of a particular language. It should be emphasized that since the operation of the branch of PF occurs after spell-out, it is independent of the LF, therefore, the features or morphemes added in the PF should not affect the semantic interpretation. They simply make some “ornamental adjustment” to the structure derived from the syntax. The basic assumption of this study is that the copied verb in the verb copying sentence is added in the post-syntactic operation by Feature Copying. The PF will add certain morphemes depending on the legitimacy requirements that vary from language to language. It's useless to the semantic interpretation of these morphemes because before the insertion of these morphemes, the derivation has split into two parts: PF and LF. This study can explain the phenomenon of mismatching between the form and the meaning for the verb-copying sentence in a more reasonable way.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research is funded by General Project of 2017 Chongqing Municipal Education Commission Humanities and Social Sciences Research, P.R.C. Project Name: A Generative Study on the Derivation of the Oblique Object Construction in Mandarin Chinese under the Framework of Distributed Morphology (No. 17SKG003) and 2017 Key Project of Southwest University of Political Science and Law, P.R.C. Project Name: A Syntactic Study on the Verb-copying Construction in Mandarin Chinese (No. 2017XZZD-09).

REFERENCES

- [1] Belletti, A. (2004). Aspects of the low IP area. Luigi Rizzi. *The Structure of CP and IP*. New York: Oxford University Press: 16-51.
- [2] Cao Fengfu. (2005). *Sentence and clause structure in Chinese: a functional perspective*. Beijing: Beijing Language and Culture University Press.
- [3] Chomsky, N. (1995). *The Minimalist Program*. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.
- [4] Chomsky, N. (2000). "Minimalist Inquiries: The Framework," in R. Martin, D. Michaels, and J. Uriagereka, eds., *Step by Step: Essays on Minimalist Syntax in Honor of Howard Lasnik*, MIT Press, 89–156.
- [5] Chomsky, N. (2001). Derivation by phase. In M. Kenstowicz (eds.). *Ken Hale: A Life in Language*. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press: 1-52.
- [6] Chomsky, N. (2004). Beyond explanatory adequacy. In A. Belletti (eds.). *Structures and Beyond: The Cartography of Syntactic Structures*. Oxford: Oxford University Press: 104-131.
- [7] Chomsky, N. (2008). On phases. In R. Freidin., C. Otero.& M. L. Zubi-zarreta. (eds.) *Fouudarioual Issues in Linguistic Theory: Essays in Honor of Jean-Roger Vergnaud*. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press: 133-166.
- [8] Embick, D., & Noyer, R. (2001). Movement operations after syntax. *Linguistic inquiry*, 32(4), 555-595.
- [9] Embick, D., & Noyer, R. (2007). Distributed morphology and the syntax/morphology interface. *The Oxford handbook of linguistic interfaces*, 289324.
- [10] Halle, M., & Marantz, A. (1993). Distributed morphology and the pieces of inflection. In *The view from building 20* (pp. 111-176). Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.
- [11] Huang, C.-T. J. (1982). *Logical Relations in Chinese and the Theory of Grammar*. PhD dissertation, MIT.
- [12] Li Ne, Shi Yuzhi. (1997). The Evolution Process of Chinese Verb Copying Construction. *Contemporary Linguistics* (3): 32-38.
- [13] Li, C. N., & Thompson, S. A. (1987). Chinese: Dialect variations and language reform. *Languages and their status*, 294-335.
- [14] Rizzi, L. (1997). The Fine Structure of the Left Periphery. Lilian Haegeman. *Elements of Grammar: Handbook in Generative Syntax*. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers: 281–337.
- [15] Si Fuzhen. (2009). Multiple Feature Checking and Its Syntactic Consequences. Beijing: Beijing Language and Culture University Press.
- [16] Xu Xingsheng. (2013). A Phase-based Approach to the Derivation of Verb-copying Sentences in Mandarin Chinese. *Foreign Language and Literature* (4): 77-80.
- [17] Yang Daran, Cheng Gong. (2013). Linear Correspondence Axiom and Morphological Fusion in Mandarin Double-verb Constructions. *Foreign Languages* (4): 37-46.
- [18] Zhang Xiaorong. (2009). A Derivational Analysis of Verb-copying Construction. *Journal of Tianjin Foreign Studies University* (2): 21-27.

Haojie Li was born in Shandong, China in 1974. He received his M.A. degree in Sichuan International Studies University in 2005 and he is a PhD candidate majored in English Language and Literature at Guangdong University of Foreign Studies.

He is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Southwest University of Political Science and Law, Chongqing, China. His research interests include syntax and theoretical linguistics. He has published a number of studies in his areas of expertise, which have appeared in scholarly publications in China and Europe.

Affixation in Ardalani Kurdish Based on Distributed Morphology

Foroogh Kazemi

Department of Linguistics, Central Tehran Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tehran, Iran

Rozita Ranjbar

Central Tehran Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tehran, Iran

Abstract—among the recent generative grammar approaches to explain morphology, the distributed morphology approach can be mentioned. In this approach there is no place as lexicon or morphology for formation of words and word formation is occurred after syntax processes. The present research is trying to introduce distributed morphology as a non-lexicalist approach and consider the phenomenon of affixation in Ardalani Kurdish language by this approach. The research results indicate that affixation and the process of forming plural nouns can be explained by distributed morphology approach.

Index Terms—distributed morphology, affixation, late insertion, syntactic level, morphological level, Ardalani Kurdish

I. INTRODUCTION

The distributed morphology approach was mentioned for the first time by Halle and Marantz (1993). This theory is not specific to morphology but takes the task of word production from lexicon and distributes it among grammatical parts to provide the same analyze of morphologic and syntactic structures (Haugen, 2008, p. 21). In distributed morphology, morphology and syntax have interaction and direct relationship with each other so that syntactic characteristics are occurred in morphology directly (Embic, 1997, p. 28). In contrast to former generative theories, the morphemes that take part in word formation are affected by syntax and real words don't enter in sentence until syntax ends, which means that the sentence structure forms before the presence of the word and the words that are more adapted to the obtained syntax structure are selected from mental lexicon. In this theory, syntax specifies the part of speech of each element and also is able to make word and sentence. Thus no element belongs to the pre- syntactic grammatical part of speech. In this approach also affixes are morpheme. But in contrast to former approaches, terminal elements of syntax are distinguished from phoneme occurrence. In the other words it can be said that in distributed morphology, affixes also are morpheme but their phoneme occurrence is after syntax.

Kurdish language is of the category of north western Persian languages that is a branch of Indian and Iranian languages belonging to Indo-European language family (Ebrahimi and Daneshpazhouh, 2008). Sanandaji or Ardalani dialect belongs to central Kurdish dialect (Sorani) group. This research intends to test the performance of distributed morphology approach in Kurdish language. The problem in present study is that if distributed morphology approach has the ability to describe and explain the affixation process in Ardalani Kurdish language. And how the process of forming plural nouns in Ardalani Kurdish as a sample of affixation in this approach is done. Therefore, for conducting the research, the data of this dialect have been collected on the field. And the research was conducted according to distributed morphology approach in descriptive-analytical method. Heretofore, some studies about Kurdish language and Ardalani dialect have been done from different aspects. However, the dialect has not been studied and examined from the aspect of distributed morphology. The present study should be considered due to it has innovative goals and provides background for other studies in this field.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELEVANT STUDIES

A large number of linguists have considered distributed morphology study in different sections; for example, "Aspect and Tense Projections in the Agentive Adjectives based on the distributed morphology theory" Anoshe (2015), "Post-Syntactic Word Formation in Persian" Sasani and Aftabi (2012), "Statistical Approach to Distributed Morphology" Modarres Khyabani (2012) can be mentioned. Also Shaghghi (2012) in "Post-Syntactic Morphology" study describes distributed morphology approach and defines basic concepts in the approach. Ghatreh (2012) in her study as "Inflection in Distributed Morphology" considers verb inflection in Persian from the distributed morphology aspect". In his/her opinion, morphologic characteristics of verb stem are in terminal nodes and are achieved through various syntactic mechanisms such as core movement, in distributed morphology. These syntactic mechanisms add morphologic morpheme to verb in the form of affix. Rafiei (2012) in "distributed morphology and affixation" study introduces distributed morphology theoretical foundations and examines the phenomenon of affixation briefly. Among Non-

Iranian linguists who had researches in the field of distributed morphology, Halle (1997), Marantz (1988), and Halle and Marantz (1994) can be mentioned.

Smriti and Vaijayanthi (2010) studied nominal inflection in Hindi within the framework of distributed morphology according to Halle & Marantz (1994) and Harley and Noyer (1999). Müller (2002, 2003, 2004) for German, Icelandic and Russian nouns respectively and Weisser (2006) for Croatian nouns used distributed morphology approach to study nominal inflectional morphology. They investigated the inflectional categories, inflectional classes, morphological processes operating at syntax, the distribution of vocabulary items and readjustment rules for Hindi nouns (Smriti and Vaijayanthi, 2010, p. 308). The earlier researches about Hindi inflectional morphology were only descriptive studies of nominal and verbal categories and their inflections without discussing the role or status of affixes that take part in inflection. In these studies, the discussion of the mechanisms (morphological operations and rules) used to analyze or generate word forms are ignored. Moreover, these researches do not consider syntax-morphology or morphology-phonology mismatch during the course of word formation. They studied a large number of Hindi Noun forms which were collected from news items but evaluated them manually to verify the results. The result indicated that many of the words were left unidentified due to incorrect and variant spelling. Also, a large number of compound nouns with hyphens remain unidentified. Many entries were also uninflected nouns. Because the lexicon lacked entries.

Müller (2005) studied the core system of noun inflection in Icelandic based on distributed morphology. According to his idea, a conspicuous property of Icelandic noun inflection is that a small set of inflection markers is used to generate a large number of inflection classes (Müller, 2005, p. 230). Constant re-use of inflection markers implies that there is syncretism in abundance (Müller, 2005, p. 230). He believes that, such syncretism comes in two varieties. First, there are two cases that share a single marker; he refers to this (standard) kind of syncretism that holds within a given inflection class as intra-paradigmatic syncretism. Second, there may be two or more inflection classes which share one single marker (Müller, 2005, p. 230). He argues that a substantial number of these instances of syncretism can be derived systematically. This makes it necessary to refer to natural classes of cases and inflection classes, respectively (Müller, 2005, p. 230). Such natural classes result from decomposing standard case features (like [nom], [acc]) and inflection class features (like [class 1], [class 2]) into more primitive features: Cross-classification of these features yields full specifications representing cases and inflection classes (Müller, 2005, p. 230). Underspecification regarding these features gives rise to natural classes of cases and inflection classes that inflection markers can then refer to. Besides, the set of inflection markers which he proposes for Icelandic noun inflection will be shown to meet an iconicity requirement, to the effect that the form of an inflection marker and its function correlate (Müller, 2005, p. 230). He believes that the special choice of morphological theory becomes relevant: Whereas feature decomposition and underspecification are devices that can be used in many other morphological theories (Müller, 2005, p. 230). Distributed Morphology is unique in assuming the operations of impoverishment (see Noyer, 1992).

Harley and Noyer (1999) describe the structure of distributed morphology. Based on their explanation, there are three core properties which distinguish distributed morphology from other morphological theories: late insertion, underspecification, and syntactic hierarchical structure all the way down (Harley and Noyer, 1999, p. 3). They believe that unlike the theory of LGB (Chomsky 1981) and its lexicalist descendants, in distributed morphology the syntax proper does not manipulate anything resembling lexical items, but rather, generates structures by combining morphosyntactic features (via Move and Merge) selected from the inventory available, subject to the principles and parameters governing such combination (Harley and Noyer, 1999, p. 3). According to their believes, late insertion refers to the hypothesis that the phonological expression of syntactic terminals is in all cases provided in the mapping to phonological form (Harley and Noyer, 1999, p. 3). That means, syntactic categories are purely abstract, having no phonological content. Only after syntax are phonological expressions, called vocabulary items, inserted in a process called Spell-Out. This is more valuable that this hypothesis is stronger than the simple assertion that terminals have no phonological content (Harley and Noyer, 1999, p. 3). They believe that, there is essentially no pre-syntactic differentiation between two terminal nodes which have identical feature content but they will eventually be spelled out with distinct vocabulary items such as dog and cat (Harley and Noyer, 1999, p. 3). Harley and Noyer express that underspecification of Vocabulary Items means that phonological expressions need not be fully specified for the syntactic positions where they can be inserted. Hence there is no need for the phonological pieces of a word to supply the morphosyntactic features of that word; but, vocabulary items are in many instances default signals, inserted where no more specific form is available (Harley and Noyer, 1999, p. 3). They believe that, syntactic hierarchical structure all the way down entails that elements within syntax and within morphology enter into the same types of constituent structures (such as can be diagrammed through binary branching trees). Distributed morphology is piece-based in the sense that the elements of both syntax and of morphology are understood as discrete constituents instead of as morphophonological processes (Harley and Noyer, 1999, p. 3).

III. DISTRIBUTED MORPHOLOGY

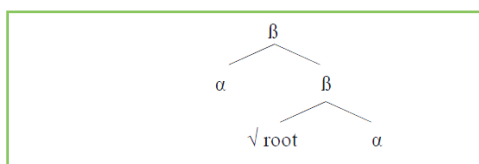
Distributed morphology is not a theory particular to morphology. And because of not having a lexicon, the tasks related to lexicon is done through grammar and other areas. Three functional characteristics of distributed morphology that distinguish it from lexicalist minimalism are late insertion, morphosyntactic decomposition, and underspecification that were mentioned by Halle and Marantz (1994, p. 275). Terminal nodes in late insertion process, which are seen as

hierarchical structures after syntactic derivation, have syntactic and semantic characteristics; but not phoneme ones. Phoneme content appropriate to each derivation after spell-out is inserted in its corresponding terminal node (Ambic and Noyer, 2001:558). Since insertion of lexical elements will be occurred after syntax, it is called late insertion (Marantz, 1997, p. 205). The second characteristic of distributed morphology is morphosyntactic decomposition that based on that roots and functional nodes will be merged in syntax and the third is underspecification. In distributed morphology the insertion of lexical units in terminal nodes relies on the assumption of underspecification of morphosyntactic characteristics. Based on that assumption, there is no need to characteristics of lexical units to be exactly given to insert a syntactic node (Ambic and Noyer 2007). In fact, underspecification is required that syntactic characteristics be determined before selection of lexical element that realizes these characteristics (Bobaljik, 2001, p. 13).

In this approach, the lexicon will be omitted completely and with different contents of different elements will be replaced that contrast to the lexicon, none of them are computational. First content contains units required by syntax including roots and a set of grammatical characteristics, which are determined by universal grammar and some principles of each language. This content is named limited lexicon (Marantz, 1997, p. 203). Second content contains the dictionaries that are created for terminal nodes and have Phonemic manifestation in syntax. And third content is encyclopedia. In the encyclopedia, special meanings of roots with regard to their syntactic contexture are listed. All of the complex units are created by applying head movement and merge mechanisms. Merge in addition to syntax can also apply changes in post syntax in offered structures. Merge can change structural relationship between two elements.

$$\beta + \alpha \longrightarrow \alpha + \beta$$

In first stage of merge a root namely lexical morpheme merges with a functional morpheme. The root lacks grammatical information and its part of speech is determined after being merged with the functional morpheme. In next stage, the whole structure can be merged with another functional morpheme. This process may be repeated several times. The following graph shows how lexical and grammatical morphemes merge with each other.



In addition to syntactic merge and movement processes, there are some post syntactic processes that occur in phonetic section and change the obtained structure to some extent. In distributed morphology the morphology expression is used to indicate the word formation processes that occur not in syntax but in phonetic section.

A. Affixation in Distributed Morphology

There is no direct indication to affix in distributed morphology neither as morphologic nor derivational. Therefore, in this approach there is no distinction challenge between derivation and morphology and the only difference between derivation and morphology elements is the ability of functional morphemes to determine some grammatical aspects of lexical morphemes. For example, it can determine its part of speech. In distributed morphology the final word formation is result of operation of syntactic merge and movement processes and also morphological process in phonetic form. In the approach, initial elements of syntax namely morphemes lack phonetic content and their phonetic content is offered in phonetic form. The mechanism offering phonetic form to morphemes is known as word insertion mechanism. According to the above descriptions, we examine the affixation process of plural noun suffix in Ardalani Kurdish using distributed morphology approach in the following.

B. The Lexicalist Hypothesis and Distributed Morphology

Harley and Noyer (1999, p. 3) believe that, there is no lexicon in distributed morphology in the sense familiar from generative grammar of the 1970s and 1980s (Harley and Noyer, 1999, p. 3). That means, distributed morphology unequivocally rejects the Lexicalist Hypothesis. The jobs assigned to the Lexicon component in earlier theories are distributed through various other components. For linguists committed to the Lexicalist Hypothesis, this aspect of distributed morphology may be the most difficult to accept, but it still is a central tenet of the theory. The fullest exposition of the anti-Lexicalist stance in distributed morphology is found in Marantz (1997a). There, Marantz discusses against the generative lexicon, adopted in such representative examples of the Lexicalist Hypothesis as Selkirk (1982) or DiSciullo and Williams (1987), using arguments from the very paper which is usually taken to be the source of the Lexicalist Hypothesis, Chomsky's (1970) 'Remarks on Nominalization'. Marantz (1997a) believes that it is crucial for Chomsky's argument that, for example, a process like causativization of an inchoative root is syntactic, not lexical (Harley and Noyer, 1999, p. 3). Chomsky argues that roots like grow or amuse should be inserted in a causative syntax, in order to derive their causative forms. If their causative forms were lexically derived, nothing should prevent the realization of the causativized stem in a nominal syntax, which the poorness of *John's growth of tomatoes indicates is

impossible (Harley and Noyer, 1999, p. 3). Other lexicalist assumptions about the nature of lexical representations, Marantz notes, are unproven: no demonstration has been made of correspondence between a phonological “word” and a privileged type of unanalyzable meaning in the semantics or status as a terminal node in the syntax, and counterexamples to any simplistic assertion of such a correspondence are easy to find. Because there is no lexicon in distributed morphology, the term “lexical item” has no significance in the theory, nor can anything be said to “happen in the lexicon”, and neither can anything be said to be “lexical” or “lexicalized” (Harley and Noyer, 1999, p. 3). Because of the great many tasks which the lexicon was supposed to perform, the terms “lexical” and “lexicalized” are in fact ambiguous. They note a few of the more usual assumptions about lexicalization, and indicate their status in the distributed morphology model: I Lexical (ized) = Idiomatized. Because the lexicon was supposed to be a storehouse for sound-meaning correspondences, if an expression is conventionally said to be “lexicalized” the intended meaning may be that the expression is listed with a specialized meaning in distributed morphology such an expression is an idiom and requires an encyclopedia entry (Harley and Noyer, 1999, p. 3). Based on their believes, the internal structure of expressions is clearly not always a product of syntactic operations (Harley and Noyer, 1999, p. 4).

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

In Ardalani Kurdish there are four plural noun suffixes / -*ân*/, /-*h â*/, /-*ân*/ and /-*gæ̃l*/ that adhere to the end of word (noun) and create plural words. Among these affixes, /-*ân*/ and /-*gæ̃l*/ affixes have more application and are used in general in this language, while /-*â*/ and /-*h â*/ have not general application and are limited.

TABLE I.
PLURAL MAKER SUFFIXES IN ARDALANI KURDISH

Row	Plural maker suffixes	Plural words	Meanings
1	- <i>ân</i>	M <i>â</i> <i>ân</i>	Houses
2	- <i>gæ̃l</i>	mna <i>lgæ̃l</i>	Children
3	- <i>h â</i>	Çeth <i>â</i>	Things
4	- <i>â</i>	xeyæ <i>lâ</i>	dreams

As was mentioned before, based on Marantz point of view the word insertion process in distributed morphology offers phonetic characteristics to plural morpheme. And relationship between word and morpheme is assumed bilinear. Since common phonetic signs in Ardalani Kurdish language are / -*â*/, /-*h â*/, /-*ân*/, and /-*gæ̃l*/, based on mentioned viewpoint, phonetic signs of these suffixes are offered to plural morpheme.

$$\begin{array}{l} /-g\ddot{a}l/ \quad \longleftrightarrow [pl] \\ /-\ddot{a}n/ \quad \longleftrightarrow [pl] \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{l} /-h\ddot{a}/ \quad \longleftrightarrow [pl] \\ /-\ddot{a}/ \quad \longleftrightarrow [pl] \end{array}$$

Among determined words to be inserted in terminal node, it is likely that more than one word, two or more, have the insertion conditions. Since in the end, only one word should be inserted in a special position, the words are placed in a competitive situation. The selection of one word among competitor words is done under supervision of subset principle. The principle was mentioned by Halle (1997) that based on that the phonetic form of a word is inserted in a position if that word is coincident with all or a subset of determined characteristics for that position. If word has characteristics in which there isn't morpheme, insertion process will not be occurred. When several words have the insertion conditions, the word that has the most coincident characteristics will be inserted. In Ardalani Kurdish language among four plural morphological suffixes, the /-*ân*/ and /-*gæ̃l*/ suffixes have the connection ability to different nominal basis, animate or inanimate; in other words, have more application in this language. As a result, the suffixes have more chance in competition with other plural noun suffixes.

In the following tables, how plural noun suffixes are admitted by animate or inanimate nouns in Ardalani Kurdish is shown.

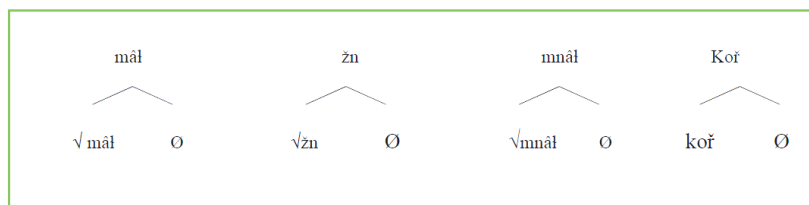
TABLE II.
THE PROCESS OF AFFIXATION IN THE WORD “HOUSE” IN ARDALANI KURDISH

Row	Plural maker suffixes	Meanings
1	- <i>ân</i>	m <i>â</i> <i>ân</i>
2	- <i>gæ̃l</i>	m <i>â</i> <i>gæ̃l</i>
3	- <i>h â</i>	*m <i>â</i> <i>h â</i>
4	- <i>â</i>	*m <i>â</i> <i>â</i>

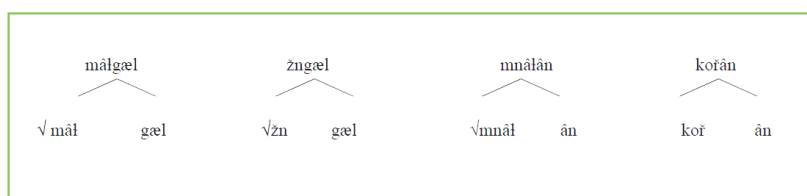
TABLE III.
THE PROCESS OF AFFIXATION IN THE WORD “WOMAN” IN ARDALANI KURDISH

Row	Plural maker suffixes	Meanings
1	- <i>ân</i>	žn <i>ân</i>
2	- <i>gæ̃l</i>	žngæ̃l
3	- <i>h â</i>	*žnh <i>â</i>
4	- <i>â</i>	*žn <i>â</i>

According to the merge process, the lexical morphemes (root) only beside the functional morphemes have part of speech. As mentioned before, these morphemes lack phonetic content and their phonetic manifestations are determined in word insertion stage. For example, in words such as houses =/mâlgæ̌l/, women =/zngæ̌l/, children =/mnâ̌lân/, and boys =/kǒrân/ the words /mâ̌l/, /zň/, /mnâ̌l/ and /kǒr/ are considered as roots and the suffixes /-gæ̌l/ and /-ân / are considered as grammatical morphemes that during the merge process operate as follow. When the word is singular, the phonetic form of plural noun suffix is null in word insertion process. The following graphs show above mentioned words formation.



In next stage a derivation process occurs for forming plural word. In this stage, phonetic manifestation of grammatical morpheme is not null. The following graphs show how the affixation process of plural noun suffix occurs in Ardalani Kurdish based on the distributed morphology.



Therefore, according to above graphs, it can be concluded that the affixation process is explainable in distributed morphology approach in Ardalani Kurdish. Since in distributed morphology there is no subject as distinction between derivational and morphological affix, thereupon all of the affixes (lexical and functional) make new words through the merge process. In the affixation process after competition of morphemes with each other, in the end the morpheme that has more coincident characteristics with root is selected and participates in the derivation process with root and manifests phonetically in terminal nodes in vocabulary insertion stage.

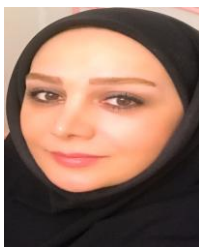
V. CONCLUSION

Examining the affixation process of plural noun suffix in Ardalani Kurdish based on the distributed morphology approach, it can be concluded that the approach has the ability to describe and explain the affixation process in Ardalani Kurdish. Since distributed morphology includes two merge and movement fundamental processes, lexical and grammatical affixes participate in the merge process. During the competition of morphemes to join to root, the affix that has more coincident characteristics enters to vocabulary insertion stage and in the end manifests phonetically in the terminal node. In distributed morphology there is no distinction between derivational and morphological affix and morphemes include two lexical (root) and functional (grammatical) categories. Thus, root's affixes select coincident morphemes and merge with them. In Ardalani Kurdish, for example, the morphemes for forming plural noun were studied according to distributed morphology approach and how they merge with root was shown in graph. Thereupon the affixation process in this language is explainable by distributed morphology approach.

REFERENCES

- [1] Anoshe, Mazdak. (2015). "Aspect and Tense Projections in the Agentive Adjectives based on the Distributed Morphology Theory", *Language Researches: Nom.* 26, pp. 49-72. [In Persian].
- [2] Bobaljik, J. D. (2001). *The Ins and Outs of Contextual Allomorphy*. Ms. McGill University: Montreal.
- [3] Chomsky, N. (1970). Remarks on Nominalization. *Readings in Transformational Grammar*, edited by R. A. Jacobs & P. S. Rosenbaum, 184–221. Waltham, Mass.: Ginn.
- [4] Chomsky, N. (1981). *Lectures on Government and Binding*. Dordrecht: Foris.
- [5] DiSciullo, A. & E. Williams. (1987). *on the definition of word*. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.
- [6] Ebrahimi, M., Daneshpazhouh, Z. and F. (2008), "Clitics and their Semantic – Syntactic Relations to Verbs in Kurdish language (Surani Dialect)". *The Research Journal of Human Sciences*: No. 58, pp.145-168. Shahid Beheshti University. [In Persian].
- [7] Embick, D. (1997). "Voice Systems and the Syntax/Morphology Interface." In *The Proceedings of the Penn/MIT Workshop on Aspect, Argument Inquiry*. Vol. 32. Nom. 4., pp. 555-595.

- [8] Embick, D. and Noyer, R. (2007). "Distributed Morphology and the Syntax-Morphology Interface" In *The Oxford Handbook of Linguistic Interfaces*, ed. G. Ramchand and C. Reis, Oxford University Press, pp. 289-324.
- [9] Ghatreh, Fariba. (2012). "Inflection in Distributed Morphology", the first morphology seminar researches, Tehran: Nevis publication, pp. 37-57. [In Persian].
- [10] Halle, M. (1993). "Distributed morphology and the Pieces of Inflection", in K. Hale & S.J. Keyser (Eds). *The View from Building 20, Cambridge (Mass)*, MIT Press, pp. 111-176.
- [11] Halle, M. and Marantz, A. (1994). "Some key features of distributed Morphology". In: A. Carnie & H. Harley (Eds). *Papers on Phonology and Morphology MIT Working Papers in Linguistics*. Nom. 21. pp. 275-288.
- [12] Halle, M. (1997). "Distributed morphology: Impoverishment and fission». In: B. Bruening, Y. Kang & M. McGinnis (Eds). *PF: Papers at the Interface MIT*.
- [13] Harley, H. and Noyer, R. (1999). "State-of-the-Article: Distributed Morphology", *GLOT International*, 4 (4), pp. 3-9.
- [14] Haugen, J. D. (2008). *Morphology at the Interface*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing
- [15] Marantz, A. (1988). "Clitics, morphological merger, and the mapping to phonological structure". In: M. Hammond & M. Noonan (Eds). *Theoretical Morphology*. pp. 253-270. NY: Academic Press.
- [16] Marantz, A. (1988). "Clitics, morphological merger, and the mapping to phonological structure. In M. Hammond and M. Noonan (Eds), *Theoretical Morphology: Approaches in Modern Linguistics*, 253-270 San Diego: Academic Press.
- [17] Marantz, A. (1997). "No Escape from Syntax: Don't Try Morphological Analysis in the Privacy of Your Own Lexicon." University of Pennsylvania Working Papers in Linguistic (Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: Upenn Department of Linguistics), pp. 201-225.
- [18] Marantz, A. (1997a). "No escape from syntax: Don't try morphological analysis in the privacy of your own Lexicon". Penn Working Papers in Linguistics, 4:2: *Proceedings of the 21st Annual Penn Linguistics Colloquium*, (Edited by A. Dimitriadis, L. Siegel, C. Surek-Clark, & A).
- [19] Modarresi Khiyabani, Shahram. (2012). "Statistical Approach to Post Syntactic Morphology", the first morphology seminar researches, Tehran: Nevis publication, pp. 111-131. [In Persian].
- [20] Müller, G. (2002). "Remarks on Nominal Inflection in German". In: I. Kaufmann & B. Stiebels, eds., *More than Words: A Festschrift for Dieter Wunderlich*. Akademie Verlag, Berlin, pp. 113-145.
- [21] Müller, G. (2003). *Syncretism and Iconicity in Icelandic Noun Declensions: A Distributed Morphology Approach*. Ms., IDS Mannheim.
- [22] Müller, G. (2004). "A Distributed Morphology Approach to Syncretism in Russian Noun Inflection". *Proceedings of Formal Approaches to Slavic Linguistics* 12, pp. 353-373.
- [23] Müller, G. (2005). "Syncretism and iconicity in Icelandic noun declensions: a Distributed Morphology approach", *Yearbook of Morphology*, pp. 229-271.
- [24] Noyer, R. (1992). *Features, Positions, and Affixes in Autonomous Morphological Structure*. PhD thesis. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT.
- [25] Rafiei, A. (2012). "Distributed morphology and Affixation", the first morphology seminar researches, Tehran: Nevis publication, pp. 59-74. [In Persian].
- [26] Sasani, F. and Aftabi, Z. (2011). "Post Syntactic Word Formation in Persian" the third morphology seminar researches, Tehran: Ahura: linguistic Society of Iran, pp. 107-122. [In Persian].
- [27] Selkirk, E. (1982). *The syntax of words*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- [28] Shaghghi, V. (2012). "Post Syntactic Morphology", the first morphology seminar researches, Tehran: Nevis publication, pp. 13-35. [In Persian].
- [29] Smriti S. and Vajjyanthi, M. S. (2010). "Hindi Noun Inflection and Distributed Morphology", Smriti Singh Indian Institute of Technology Bombay Vajjyanthi M. Sarma Indian Institute of Technology Bombay *Proceedings of the 17th International Conference on Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar* Universite Paris Diderot, Paris 7, France 'Stefan Muller (Editor) ' 2010 CSLI Publications, pp. 307-321.



Forough Kazemi was born in Iran in 1974. She is head of linguistics department and associate professor of linguistics in Central Tehran Branch, Islamic Azad University in Iran. She has published 53 articles (most of them cited in google scholar) and 15 books in linguistics. She has been teaching at graduate and Ph.D. levels in linguistics. Dr. Kazemi has been advisor, reader and referee of many linguistic theses and judge of articles in journal of linguistics. She is a member of research council in faculty of foreign languages at Central Tehran Branch. She is also a member of editorial board, quarterly of language and literature: Parneyan Kheyal. Her areas of interest are functional linguistics, sociolinguistics, typology and discourse analysis.



Rosita Ranjbar was born in Sanandaj, Iran. She received an undergraduate degree from the University of Ilam in English literature. She also received her master's degree in linguistics from Allameh Tabatabai University.

She is currently studying at a PhD in linguistics at Islamic Azad University. She has published an article in the journal of Linguistics and Khorasan Dialects, titled "Case-Marking in Kurdish (Sanandaji and Bane)", Volume 6, No.2, (2014-2015).

A Contrastive Analysis of Explicit Cohesion in English Advertising Texts and Their Chinese Consecutive Interpretation Versions

Lan Zhou

Henan Polytechnic University, Jiaozuo, China;
The University of Auckland, New Zealand

Qiang Sun*

Henan Polytechnic University, Jiaozuo, China;
The University of Auckland, New Zealand

Abstract—Although much research has been conducted on language features of advertising, little has been reported on the contrast between language use in advertisements, particularly advertisements in English and those in Chinese. Drawing on Halliday and Hasan’s theory about cohesion in text, this paper reports on the explicit cohesion devices used in advertising texts in English and Chinese. The data were derived from Singapore, a multilingual country where English and Chinese are two important languages. A total of thirty advertisements in English and their Chinese versions were analyzed for the distribution of explicit cohesive devices, i.e., lexical cohesion and grammatical cohesion. The study reveals that advertisements in English used more reference and conjunction devices than those in Chinese, whereas Chinese language advertisements employed more ellipsis devices than English language advertisements. It also finds that there were no differences in the use of substitution and lexical devices in English or Chinese language advertisements. The conclusion of the study is finally drawn and the further study is suggested.

Index Terms—grammatical cohesion, lexical cohesion, coherence, advertisement in English and Chinese, advertising

I. INTRODUCTION

Commercial advertising, according to Harris and Seldon (1962), is a public notice “designed to spread information with a view to promoting the sales of marketable goods and services” (p.40). Similarly, Arens, Weigold and Arens (2008) define advertising as “the structured and composed nonpersonal communication of information usually paid for and persuasive in nature about products, services or ideas by identified sponsors through the various media” (p.7). These definitions reveal that commercial advertising is a way of disseminating information, transmitted by means of the printed words or over the air, to the public, which aims to persuade people to take specific actions, for example buy a product or order a service. They also indicate that advertisements are usually paid for by a person, a group, an organization, or a business enterprise, to assist in achieving his or its goals. Since advertising plays a critical role in promoting sales of goods or services, it has attracted researchers’ attention from multiple perspectives, such as business (Rossiter & Percy, 1987), psychology (Snyder & DeBono, 1985), culture (Cook, 2001; Vestergaard & Schrøder, 1985), sociology (Wernick, 1991) and linguistics (Geis, 1982; Leech, 1966; Tanaka, 1994). This paper investigates the language of advertising, particularly language devices from the linguistic perspective. Linguistics choices are always carefully chosen by advertisers to attract potential consumers’ attention. Substantial advertising is created in English with advertising considered one of the most striking manifestations of English language (Graddol, 1997). Meanwhile, Chinese, spoken by around 20% of people worldwide, is likewise used by advertisers to attract Chinese speakers’ attention. Language is the vehicle of advertising, along with the visuals. The choice of words, phrases and sentences and how sentences are connected becomes crucial in constructing advertising texts.

Today with the rapid development of global economic markets, and an awareness of the crucial role language plays in advertising, a critical issue is how to advertise commercial products or services globally and internationally. In order to make advertising reach more potential consumers in multicultural societies using a range of languages, advertising is usually produced bilingually or multilingually in order to achieve large scale sales globally. In this process, the appropriateness and elegance of the advertising language determines whether the advertising achieves its purposes. An interesting question arises as to whether different languages use the same language devices in advertising. In this paper, advertising in Singapore, compiled in both English and Chinese, was selected to investigate how English and Chinese advertising texts use explicit cohesion to construct their text structures. The focus of this paper is a comparison of

* Corresponding author

cohesive devices used by the two languages.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Linguistic research on advertising has focused on the structures and functions of advertising language from several perspectives such as semantics (Emodi, 2011; Leech, 1966), pragmatics (Crook, 2004; Tanaka, 1994) and semiotics (Beasley & Danesi, 2002). Leech (1966), one of the earliest advertising language researchers, asserted that the advertising language on British television was loose and ungrammatical. Later, Tanaka (1994) investigated the relationship between advertisers and readers by analyzing the language of written advertisements in Britain and Japan. He argued that if an advertiser intentionally expressed a message in a way which triggered more than one interpretation, readers rejected the most accessible interpretation but searched for a more interesting interpretation. For example, using a pun in an advertisement catches readers' attention and stimulates the desire to purchase commercial products or services because it requires them to spend more time and energy in interpreting the language of the advertisement. Another study reported by Beasley & Danesi (2002) called for an integration of semiotics into advertising studies to increase readers' understanding that advertising uses a persuasive rhetoric to realize its goals.

Other studies cited in Smith (2006) have examined the rhetorical figures of advertising language to attract consumers' attention and to encourage the purchase of the goods or services advertised. For example, Cook (2001) identified several rhetorical figures which are frequently used in advertising material, such as metaphor, parallelism, metonymy, and puns. Myers (1994) also identified alliteration, assonance, homophones, parallelism and puns in the language of advertising. Smith (2006) reports a study of 45 English language advertisements and their translated Russian pairs which detected examples of compensation, loss and addition in a corpus of 45 English-Russian advertisement pairs. Similarly, Maria Sidiropoulou (1998) also identified differences in both content, and linguistic devices employed, in the source and target language advertisements of 55 English-Greek advertisement pairs. There are also studies of advertisements in English and French (Kelly-Holmes, 2000), Spanish (Callow & Gibran McDonald, 2005), Greek, Japanese and German (Piller, 2001), and Russian (Ustinova & Bhatia, 2005). There is, however, a lack of research both on textual cohesion of advertising languages and advertisements in Chinese language. In order to remedy this gap, this paper reports on a study of the similarities and differences of cohesive devices used in English-Chinese pairs of advertisements.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. Concept of Cohesion

The cohesion theory established by Halliday and Hasan (1976), was adopted as a framework to support the data analysis. As one of the linguistic features of a text, cohesion, together with coherence in discourse, is pivotal to the study of text linguistics and discourse analysis. Halliday and Hasan provided no direct and clear definition of cohesion but cited previous researchers' concept of cohesion contending that "the concept of cohesion is a semantic one; it refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text. Cohesion occurs when the INTERPRETATION of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another (p.4)." Cohesion is a linguistic device which ensures a text 'hangs together', and that components of the text, such as the words, are connected within a sequence. Cohesion contributes to coherence of a text.

B. Classifications of Cohesion

Halliday and Hasan (1976) not only initiated a framework of cohesion but generated categories of cohesive devices and their subdivisions. They established that there are two ways of creating cohesion in a text: grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion.

Grammatical cohesion is based on structural content, which generally consists of reference, ellipsis, substitution and conjunction (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Reference is traditionally used in semantics to define the relationship between a word and what it points to in the context of situation or the surrounding text. However, in Halliday and Hasan's model, it refers to the relationship between two linguistic expressions. In the textual sense, reference occurs when audience or listeners have to retrieve the identity of what is being talked about by referring to another expression in the same context. Substitution and ellipsis operate in a relationship with the wording rather than the semantic meanings within texts. Substitution is divided into three types: a nominal, verbal, and clausal. For example, *one* can replace a noun, like a person, an apple and a toy; *do* is used to refer to a specific action, like hit, run, and sing, etc; *so* can refer to a clause. Since substitution is rarely found in the advertisements, it is not described in detail here. Ellipsis, interpreted as substitution by zero, is the omission of elements normally required by the grammar which a speaker/writer assumes are obvious from the text or the context and therefore need not be included. Ellipsis requires retrieving specific information that can be found in the preceding text. There are three types of ellipsis: nominal, verbal, and clausal. Conjunction refers to a type of semantic relationship in which what is to follow is systematically connected to what has gone before. It acts as a cohesive tie between clauses or sections of text in such a way as to demonstrate a meaningful pattern between them.

Lexical cohesion refers to the ties created between lexical elements, such as words, groups and phrases, which occur over long passages of a text or discourse (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Lexical cohesion usually refers to reiteration and collocation. Reiteration is a form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of a lexical item, at one end of the

scale; and a number of things in between such as the use of a synonym, near synonym, or superordinate. Four main paradigmatic types of reiteration (meaning words of the same type or class) are repetition, synonymy, hyponymy, and meronymy. Collocation refers to lexical cohesion achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur based on some kind of semantic relation to one another. There is always the possibility of cohesion between any pair of lexical items which are in some way associated with each other in the language. Collocation refers to the tendency of words to co-occur (p. 577). For example, when one sees the noun *bicycle* in a sentence, it is much likely that the verb *ride* will also appear in the same sentence.

C. Cohesion and Coherence

Coherence refers to underlying conceptual relations among parts of a text and despite some differences of opinion it is generally accepted that cohesion is a necessary, but not a sufficient, condition for the creation of text coherence (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Cohesion and coherence are two aspects of text and are frequently mentioned as a pair. Cohesion is the overt linkage on the textual surface, connecting the linguistic parts to a whole while coherence is the covert linkage of the conceptual meaning of the text, connecting the linguistic text to its cultural, personal and situational contexts. Writers use grammatical, lexical, and semantic devices to connect linguistic units such as phrases, clauses, and sentences to create a coherent text. Cohesive devices are used to make a text more compact, facilitating the comprehension of the underlying semantic and logical relations.

IV. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

A. The Data

Thirty English-Chinese advertisement pairs were selected from Singapore's most widely read national English newspaper, *the Straits Times*, and the most widely circulated national Chinese newspaper, 联合早报 (*Lian He Zao Bao*). In order to be considered as a translation pair, the English and Chinese versions had to advertise the same product (mainly cosmetic products), with the same or similar graphics and written text.

B. Methodology

The thirty advertising samples selected from the two newspapers search were analyzed inductively using the theoretical framework of Halliday and Hasan's cohesion theory. Firstly, the advertising texts were transcribed and coded them according to the linguistic devices employed. Then, the coded results were summarized and compared to investigate the similarities and differences between the Chinese and English versions in terms of the usage of lexical and grammatical cohesion devices. Finally, the possible explanations for differences and similarities in relation to Halliday and Hasan's categories of cohesion were discussed. The research findings are presented in the forthcoming section.

V. RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The analysis of the coding of thirty-paired advertisements is presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1
A TOTAL NUMBER OF COHESIVE LINGUISTIC DEVICES IN THIRTY-PAIRED ADVERTISEMENTS IN ENGLISH AND CHINESE

Cohesive devices	Reference	Substitution	Ellipsis	Conjunction	Reiteration	Collocation
English versions	112	0	85	120	70	56
Chinese versions	35	0	130	40	70	56

The above table is interpreted as follows:

1. Selected English advertising samples employed reference and conjunction cohesive devices twice more than the Chinese paired sample.
2. Selected Chinese advertising samples employed ellipsis almost twice as often as the paired English advertising sample.
3. There was no evidence of substitution used in either the English or Chinese advertising paired samples.
4. Both English and Chinese advertising samples demonstrated the same number of reiteration and collocation devices to achieve lexical cohesion.

In advertising texts, a reference directs either inwardly to something within the linguistic context or outwardly to something in the real world such as an attached picture. A reference that directs to the external factors is also named as an exophoric reference since they cannot get interpreted by elements within the linguistic text. Exophoric personal or demonstrative references were evident in all of the thirty-paired samples, both English and Chinese advertisements. Twenty seven of these samples (90%) utilized exophoric references in the headline or body of the advertisements. Exophoric references in the headline play a key role in linking the picture and the headline. With them, the image in the illustration and the description in the verbal text are linked naturally and logically. The cohesive power lies, not between linguistic elements, but between the picture and the linguistic unit, that is, the verbal text and the visual context, enhancing cohesion within the advertising discourse as a whole. For example,

Sample 1,

“She asked for smooth flawless skin, and I ensured that.”
 “她想拥有完美无暇的肌肤，我给了她百分之百的保证”

This newspaper advertisement is about a cosmetic product with a picture of a beauty attached. The beauty, looking healthy and energetic, is smiling with her hand gesturing, as if she is talking to someone. Readers can easily infer that *she or 她* refers to the charming beauty in the picture. Cook (2001) has pointed out that the third person pronouns in advertising texts are possibly exophoric, referring to someone or something obvious to the participants in the context, or the common knowledge they shared. Another example,

Sample 2,

“Without *Svenson*, this is how I’d look today.....”
 “如果没有史云逊，我可能变成这样.....”

This is an advertisement with a picture of a handsome gentleman attached. It is not difficult to conclude that *I* or “我” refers to the man in the picture attached with the advert. The quotation marks imply that a person is speaking for the product *Svenson*. The reference demonstrates the function and purpose of the advertisements, which is attracting potential customers to purchase a certain of products or service. This advertisement uses a spokesperson to engage potential customers. A spokesperson, as Moriarty, Mitchell and Wells (2009) have pointed out, is often employed as an advertising technique to speak on behalf of the product to build credibility between the product advertised and readers.

Some personal references, such as *we* and *you*, referring the narrator and readers individually, are also used in advertisements to establish an intimate tie between advertisers and readers. As a result, readers may feel privileged and are willing to purchase the product advertised. A typical example representing this point is shown below.

Sample 3,

Go on to an expert like Beauty Express, here we have all the right facilities to help you achieve your desired shape, safety and effectively. Our professional aestheticians will recommend you special slimming programmes with diet control that let you relax while losing those excess pounds you will turn out healthy, fit and looking like a million dollars!

在快速美专业美容减肥中心，我们有最精良的设备，安全有效的帮助您得到梦寐以求的身段。我们的专业美容师会推荐特设的瘦身与饮食计划，让您轻轻松松的减去多余的体重，您很快就会可以成为人人艳羡的健康美丽的对象。

The use of *we* and *you* here puts the narrator and readers together at the same standpoint, making readers feel more intimate with the narrator. This technique shortens the emotional distance between the advertiser and the target audience, focusing their attention on the product advertised. Cook’s (2001) assertion, that the use of *we* and *you* is the most striking and most frequent feature contributing to the cohesion of advertising text, is evident here.

In both examples, exophoric references are used to direct attention outwardly to figures in the pictures and to the readers. Cook (2001) has argued that *you* in the advertisements has double exophoric involving reference to someone in the picture and to readers as well. When these references are translated from English into Chinese, they are usually translated equally and correspondingly. This probably explains why both English and Chinese advertisements tend to use references in the texts.

Further study indicates greater use of references, such as the relational pronouns, the personal pronouns and the demonstrative pronouns, in English advertisements than in Chinese versions. These pronouns are frequently used in English advertisements but not in Chinese versions. English pronouns denoting a relationship in a sentence are often missing from the Chinese version. For example,

Sample 4,

Eventually it all comes down to peace. The kind that you will relish coming home to.

虽处繁华兴盛的旺地，却是绝非一般的宁静，如此祥和静谧的天地。

In this example, *that* plays the role of linking with the previous sentence. In Chinese, there is no word with the same function as *that*. Therefore, *that* is omitted in the Chinese version. An explanation is likely to be that English and Chinese belong to different language patterns, hypotaxis or parataxis, with English putting an emphasis on hypotaxis and Chinese on parataxis. Hypotaxis refers to the connection of words or sentences in linguistic ways, both lexical and morphological, while parataxis refers to the connection of words and sentences by their semantic and logical relations rather than the linguistic devices (Fawcett, 2003). The English language is basically hypotactic, which is dependent on subordinate constructions, or the relationship of the constructions are linked with connectives, while the Chinese language has the tradition of being paratactic without connectives used to create the cohesion between sentences. Readers of Chinese texts have no difficulty in comprehending the meaning as they refer to the contextual situation. This is demonstrated in the following example.

Sample 5,

Bella’s new Zen Facial is a holistic and revitalizing experience for both your skin and your soul. Using a proven formula, we help reinvigorate your skin cells and promote “baby skin” texture. Your skin will look and feel smoother, well-toned and younger.

Bella 全新 Zen Facial 护肤程序，能将你的精神容颜及（你的）肌肤状态全面升华，透过最新配方，有效提高（你的）皮肤细胞活力，加速新陈代谢，让（你的）肌肤恢复出生婴儿般紧致顺滑，黯哑色泽全面褪去，面容再

现亮丽神采。

In this example, three underlined *your* is not translated in the Chinese version. English tends to be hypotaxis which necessitates the repeated use of *your* showing the completeness of the texts. In contrast, belonging to the parataxis pattern, Chinese does not require the use of these pronouns to construct coherent texts.

There was no evidence of substitution used as a cohesive device in either the English and Chinese advertisements (see Table 1). Words signaling substitution, such as *one, ones, the same, do, does, so, not*, are not spotted in the samples. In order to convey accurate product information to potential consumers and to save the production costs, advertisement texts usually use brief, concise and accurate language (Huang, 2001). Substitution words are not utilized by advertisers because readers might find it difficult to identify the words to which they refer.

Ellipsis was identified in both English and Chinese advertisements analyzed as presented in Table 1. The use of ellipsis is a characteristic of both languages and advertising. The way that ellipsis used in the advertisements contributes to the coherence of the texts also seen in the following example.

Sample 6,

Costa Delsol comprises seven towers, each 30 storeys high set amid 430,000 sq. ft. of sprawling landscaped gardens. () Forming two curvilinear crystalline waves. () Sweeping gracefully across the beautiful landscaped estate, all seven towers rise in synchronicity to embrace the East Coast-Park, mirroring the waves of the South China Sea.

旭日湾共有七栋 30 层高的雄伟塔楼，它们在面积 430,000 平方英尺的翠绿庭园中，() 组成两道晶莹剔透的波浪逶迤伸展，() 既与东海岸公园相映成趣，() 同时也映照中国海起伏的波浪，创造出和谐动人的美景。

In the English version, *seven towers* is omitted in two places which are seen in brackets. In the Chinese version, 七栋 30 层高的雄伟塔楼 is also omitted in two places. Although ellipsis is used here, two advertisements are able to be understood by their readers thoroughly. What's more, if the phrases were not omitted here, readers would feel the advertisement text was clumsy and repetitive. As Chinese is mainly a parataxis language, the clauses in the text are arranged one after the other without connectives showing the relationship between them. The omitted 七栋 30 层高的雄伟塔楼 is retrieved from the hidden meaning of the neighboring sentences, and is, therefore, omitted in the text. Another explanation may be that the cost of advertising has to be taken into account when producing advertising. Advertisements are usually paid by the space or words and so, to minimize the cost. Advertisers tend to use succinct and informative expressions especially if the ellipsis does not affect the readers' acceptability of the text. Furthermore, using the ellipsis softens the tone of sentences, lessens the formality of an advertisement and shortens the distance between the product and readers. As Cook (2001) pointed out, lack of extensive ellipsis implies formality, social distance, distrust, or a lack of shared knowledge. Ellipsis creates an atmosphere of proximity and intimacy and, eventually, the potential consumers are motivated to purchase the product.

On further analysis, it was found that ellipsis is employed more frequently in Chinese advertisements than in English advertisements. An example of this point is illustrated as follows.

Sample 7,

When you hit 25, you start to blossom with feminine charm. But at this stage, your skin's ability to renew itself slows down. And your complexion is not as rosy and smooth as before. Your figure starts deteriorating and needs extra maintenance to keep it in top form.

女性过了 25 岁之后，(你) 开始散发成熟的女性韵味，但 (你的) 代谢系统已经开始缓慢下来了，(你) 需要细心呵护、保养，才能拥有更大的自信。

In this example, *you* and *your* in the English advertisement are omitted in the corresponding Chinese version. This is because Chinese is a parataxis language. The syntax of Chinese is featured by the arranging of clauses one after the other in a text. The subjects of clauses are usually omitted because they lie in the context and are easy to be inferred. Shen (1991) stated that the ellipsis of subjects reflected the Chinese philosophy of a harmony between nature and human beings. By contrast, English is a hypotaxis language which involves using connective words to express the meaning of texts.

Conjunctions were found in both the English and Chinese advertisements to express the usefulness of the products they advertised. For example,

Sample 8,

Fortunately, with Beijing 101's help I was able to attend my son's wedding in full crowning glory.

幸亏有北京 101 帮助我重获了头发，高高兴兴地出席儿子的婚礼，使我终身难忘。

Fortunately or 幸亏 claims that a user of the advertised product was appreciative of the effectiveness of this product. The advertiser here uses a quotation to enhance advocacy for the effectiveness of product. As Huang (2001) said, advertisers often use celebrities, well-known people or product users to assure the potential consumers of products' function. The conjunction words with this function are usually evident in Chinese advertisements.

There were, however, more conjunctions found in English advertisements than in their Chinese counterparts. The most frequent category of conjunctions in advertising discourse are additive, such as *and*. Advertisers prefer to use *and* to highlight the numerous merits the advertised product has. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), *and* has the sense of "there is something more to be said" (p. 245), with which it can imply "The brand X not only...but also..." with an increase in degree. In Sample 3, the advertiser has listed three merits of the advertised product by using *and* to connect

them. Hu (1994) said that using conjunctive words enabled readers to understand the semantic meaning in any types of texts. The use of conjunctions helps readers work out the meaning either within a sentence or between two sentences and therefore, is frequently used in advertisements in English. Chinese, however, is a paratactic language in which words and sentences are connected by their semantic and logical relations rather than linguistic devices. In the Chinese version of the above sample, *and* is omitted but the three merits of the products are still expressed in a coordinated manner. Another example,

Sample 9,

The therapy exfoliates the top layer of the skin with aluminum oxide microcrystals. And at the same time, it stimulates collagen and elastic production. The result was a smoother, firmer and evenly refined skin.

这种护理疗法是利用氧化铝微晶体来清理表皮,()同时加强胶原蛋白和弹力素的生长。

and in this advertisement is not translated in the Chinese version. The differences in the use of conjunctions between English texts and Chinese texts lie in two aspects-explicitness and implicitness (Zhu, Zheng & Miao 2003). In other words, the implicit conjunction is usually adopted by Chinese advertisements, whereas explicit conjunction is preferred by English advertisements.

In all, conjunction plays a critical role in advertising text. First, they contribute to the coherence of the text. The roles that these conjunctive words play in the text are just like cement plays in the armored concrete, firmly and strongly. Second, a plethora of conjunctive words strengthen the function of advertising. Meanwhile, it is also revealed that conjunctive words in English advertisements playing the role of organizing the text are usually omitted in the Chinese version, while those words not only play the role of forming the text but take the aim of strengthening the effect of advertising promotion are usually rendered in the Chinese version. Here note that grammatical cohesive devices are discussed separately, and actually they are not independent from each other, and may co-occur in a text.

Finally, in regard to the lexical devices used in the advertising text, reiteration was found in all advertisements samples. This is not surprising as advertising particularly revolves around a product and its positive characteristics. This is evident in the advertisement below.

Sample 10,

"I lost all my hair after an illness and so my friend recommended me Beijing 101...All Beijing 101 products are made of 100% Chinese herbs and thus there are no side effects...Beijing 101 helped me regain my confidence once again...Fortunately, with Beijing 101's help I was able to attend my son's wedding in full crowning glory...I even recommended Beijing 101 to my brother who is suffering from thinning hair problems, I am a living testimony of their success!"

“去年的了一场病之后，我的头发完全脱光，幸好朋友介绍我到北京 101 护发中心...北京 101 护发中心制订出适合我的 100%纯草药配方，以现代先进科技方法提炼制成，无副作用...我到北京 101 护发中心复诊...重获头发，恢复了以往的信心...幸亏有北京 101 帮助我重获了头发，高高兴兴地出席儿子的婚礼...最近我也介绍有脱发问题的弟弟到北京 101 护发中心，因为我是护发成功的见证者。”

In this example, reiteration is frequently used in both English and Chinese advertisements. The product *Beijing 101* or 北京 101 护发中心 is repeated five times in order to deepen its impression on readers. For the same reason, the Chinese translation of *Beijing 101*, 北京 101 护发中心 is also repeated five times with a purpose of drawing readers' attention to the product.

Collocation was frequently used in all the advertisements. In introducing a product, a plethora of vocabulary with similar meanings are employed in the advertisements. Thus, long cohesive chains were built up out of lexical relations of this kind. For example,

Sample 11,

Bella's new Zen Facial is a holistic and revitalizing experience for both your skin and your soul. Using a proven formula, we help reinvigorate your skin cells and promote "baby skin" texture. Your skin will look and feel smoother, well-toned and younger.

Bella 全新 Zen Facial 护肤程序，能将你的精神容颜及肌肤状态全面升华，透过最新配方，有效提高皮肤细胞活力，加速新陈代谢，让肌肤恢复出生婴儿般紧致顺滑，黯哑色泽全面褪去，面容再现亮丽神采。

In this cosmetics advertising, there are a series of words and phrases such as *revitalizing*, *reinvigorate*, *smoother*, *well-toned* and *younger*. These words are connected through a semantic relationship based on the cosmetic's functions and features. The advertiser has attempted to present the good qualities of the advertised product to readers so as to attract, and persuade them to purchase the product. The Chinese version uses the same lexical cohesive device, collocation, as the advertisement in English. Here, the collocations act as cohesive devices enhancing the role of the advertisement. Therefore, when translating the English advertisements to Chinese, similar collocations should be applied, that is taking account of vocabulary belonging to the same language groups and the practical traits of the text-advertising. Both English advertisements and Chinese advertisements belong to the same genre, sharing common similarities in achieving cohesion.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

Based on the cohesion theory of Halliday and Hasan, the use of grammatical devices and lexical devices in thirty

pairs advertisements for the same products in English and Chinese were compared in this study. The research findings reveal that while there are many common features in the usage of both grammatical devices and lexical devices, there are also differences in the construction of advertising texts. Both English and Chinese versions rarely used substitution and tend to use the same lexical devices including reiteration device and collocation device, whereas English versions used more references and conjunctions, but fewer ellipsis than Chinese versions. It is argued that, due to the hypotaxis of English and the parataxis of Chinese, English versions tend to use more reference and conjunction devices but fewer ellipsis device than Chinese versions. On the other hand, as advertisements, both English and Chinese versions have to keep the same features and possess the same goals in advertising, some cohesive devices, such as substitution and lexical devices, were equally employed by two languages advertisements.

Studying the commonalities and differences of cohesive devices used by English and Chinese advertisements has some implications for producing advertisements in English and Chinese and English as a foreign language learning (EFL) and Chinese as a foreign language learning (CFL). Bearing the differences of cohesive devices used between English and Chinese advertisements in mind, advertisers enable to produce fluent and comprehensible advertisements, further makes advertised products reach into potential target consumers as many as possible. Additionally, understanding the differences of cohesive devices between English and Chinese advertisements alerts EFL learners and CFL learners not to make mistakes in their construction of English texts and Chinese texts. They need to draw their attention to the differences of their first language (English or Chinese) and their targeted language (Chinese or English).

This paper reports and contrasts the usage of explicit cohesive devices in two languages, English and Chinese. The role of implicit cohesive devices such as context and social cultural factors underlying two languages are recommended for further study in English and Chinese advertising language.

REFERENCES

- [1] Arens, W. F., Weigold, M. F., & Arens, C. (2008). *Contemporary advertising* (11th ed.). Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill Irwin.
- [2] Beasley, R., & Danesi, M. (2002). *Persuasive signs: The semiotics of advertising*. Berlin, Germany: Walter de Gruyter.
- [3] Callow, M., & Gibran McDonald, C. (2005). The 'Spanglification' of advertising campaigns in hispanic media? A comparison of approaches in Spanish-only and dual language magazines. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 11(4), 283-295.
- [4] Cook, G. (2001). *The discourse of advertising* (2nd ed.). London, UK: Routledge.
- [5] Crook, J. (2004). On covert communication in advertising. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 36(4), 715-738.
- [6] Emodi, L. N. (2011). A semantic analysis of the language of advertising. *African Research Review*, 5(4), 316-326.
- [7] Fawcett, P. D. (2003). *Translation and language: Linguistic theories explained*. Manchester, UK: St. Jerome.
- [8] Geis, M. (1982). *The language of television advertising*. New York, NY: Academic press.
- [9] Graddol, D. (1997). *The future of English*. London, UK: The British Council.
- [10] Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English*. London, UK: Longman.
- [11] Harris, R., & Seldon, A. (1962). *Advertising and the public*. London, UK: ANDRE DEUTSCH.
- [12] Hu, Z.L (1994). *Yupian de fenxi yu lianguan [Discourse Cohesion and Coherence]*. Shanghai, China: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- [13] Huang, G.W (2001). *Yupian fenxi de lilun yu shijian-guanggao yupian yanjiu [Theory and Practice of Discourse Analysis: A Study in Advertising Discourse]*. Shanghai, China: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- [14] Kelly-Holmes, H. (2000). Bier, parfum, kaas: Language fetish in European advertising. *European Journal of Cultural Studies*, 3(1), 67-82.
- [15] Leech, G. (1966). *English in advertising: A linguistic study of advertising in Great Britain*. London, UK: Longmans.
- [16] Moriarty, S., Mitchell, N., & Wells, W. (2009). *Advertising: Principles & practice* (8th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- [17] Myers, G. (1994). *Words in ads*. London, UK: Arnold.
- [18] Piller, I. (2001). Identity constructions in multilingual advertising. *Language in Society*, 30(02), 153-186.
- [19] Rossiter, J. R., & Percy, L. (1987). *Advertising and promotion management*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- [20] Shen, X.L. (1991). *Yuwen de chanshi [The Elucidation of Chinese]*. Shenyang, China: Liaoning Education Press.
- [21] Sidiropoulou, M. (1998). Advertising in translation: English vs. Greek. *Meta: Translators' Journal*, 43(2), 191-204.
- [22] Smith, K. (2006). Rhetorical figures and the translation of advertising headlines. *Language and Literature*, 15(2), 159-182.
- [23] Snyder, M., & DeBono, K. G. (1985). Appeals to image and claims about quality: Understanding the psychology of advertising. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 49(3), 586-597.
- [24] Tanaka, K. (1994). *Advertising language*. London, UK: Routledge.
- [25] Ustinova, I. P., & Bhatia, T. K. (2005). Convergence of English in Russian TV commercials. *World Englishes*, 24(4), 495-508.
- [26] Vestergaard, T., & Schrøder, K. (1985). *The language of advertising*. Oxford, UK: Basil Blackwell.
- [27] Wernick, A. (1991). *Promotional culture: Advertising, ideology and symbolic expression*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- [28] Zhu, Y.S, Zheng, L.X., & Miao, X.W. (2003). *yinghan yupian duibi yanjiu [A Contrastive Study of Cohesion in English and Chinese Texts]*. Shanghai, China: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.

Lan Zhou is a lecturer in Henan Polytechnic University, Henan province, China. She received her M.A degree in linguistics from Shanghai International Studies University, China in 2008. Currently, she is pursuing his PhD study in the Faculty of Education and Social Work, the University of Auckland, New Zealand. Her research interest includes language education and applied linguistics.

Qiang Sun is a senior lecturer in Henan Polytechnic University, Henan province, China. He received his PhD degree in the Faculty of Education and Social Work, the University of Auckland, New Zealand. His research interest includes teacher education, language education and applied linguistics.

A New Look at Chinese Network Catchphrases

Hongyan Hua

College of International Studies, Southwest University, China

Abstract—This paper explores how contextual factors govern the meaning making of Chinese network catchphrases. Kovecses' context theory concerning metaphor studies is used as the theoretical framework to make a research into the metaphorical meaning making in Chinese network catchphrases. According to Kovecses, context in metaphor can be classified into four kinds, namely, situational context, discourse context, bodily context and conceptual-cognitive context, among which situational context can be further divided into physical environment situation context, social situation context and cultural situation context. By careful examination of Chinese network catchphrases from the contextual perspective, it is concluded that the meaning making of Chinese network catchphrases is not just a mapping process between two domains, a view that the traditional metaphor theory has always been adhering to, but a context-driven and emerging process in which various contextual factors have played their roles. And this conclusion seems to be more in line with the new discovery of the nature of human cognition, that is, embodied cognition.

Index Terms—Chinese network catchphrases, context, meaning making, context-driven, emerging

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is the reflection of an era and mirror of society. With the rapid development of information technology, especially mediums of transmission, a lot of Chinese network catchphrases have come into being and become popular in various walks of life. Apart from their own features of being economical in wording and conveying creative and metaphorical meanings in vivid manners, the reason why these Chinese network catchphrases win their popularity is that there are creative metaphors entailed in them.

Metaphor, regarded as “a matter of thought and action and only derivatively a matter of language” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 153), has always been a hot topic in language studies. This article will focus on a particular kind of metaphorical expression—Chinese network catchphrases, trying to give an account of how and why these metaphorical expressions are possible from the perspective of context, and mainly selects Chinese network catchphrases during these ten years as data to support our research. It takes Kovecses' context theory concerning metaphor studies as its theoretical framework, exploring how context is involved in the meaning making of Chinese network catchphrases, and the exploration is mainly confined to two important questions:

First, what are the contexts that underline the meaning making of Chinese network catchphrases? Second, how do these contexts govern the meaning making of Chinese network catchphrases?

In the following parts, these two questions will be addressed in turn. The main viewpoint in response to the first question will be that there are four kinds of contexts that underline the production and interpretation of Chinese network catchphrases, namely, situational context, discourse context, bodily context and conceptual-cognitive context. Turning to the second question, it is argued that in this article the role of the body in the meaning making of Chinese network catchphrases should be reinterpreted, that is to say, the body is just one of the several contexts from which Chinese network catchphrases can emerge and the meaning making of Chinese network catchphrases is accordingly an emergent process of several contexts.

II. STUDIES ON CHINESE NETWORK CATCHPHRASES

As a novel language phenomenon, Chinese network catchphrases have drawn the attention of scholars from different fields, say, linguistic field, the field of communication, psychology, sociology and so on. Since this article is about language research, literature review of it should be conducted mainly from linguistic perspectives, which roughly includes the pragmatic perspective, semantic perspective and cognitive perspective.

Let's begin with the literature review in pragmatics. Much of the pragmatic studies of Chinese network catchphrases are carried out under the guidance of economy principle, politeness principle, memetics and other pragmatic theories, explaining how Chinese network catchphrases spread as well as their social and cultural function. For example, He Ziran (2014) gives a detailed interpretation of Chinese network catchphrases from the perspective of memetics and explains why they are popular. Some researchers approach their studies from pragmatic aspects, namely contextual features, linguistic style and stylistic features, which is a leap forward in the pragmatic study of network catchphrases (Lin Yun, 2012). Still there are some others who take theory of adaptation as their theoretical foundation. Besides the pragmatic approach, a lot of researchers also show great interests in the semantic aspects of Chinese network catchphrases, placing their emphases on the semantic variation of them. Although these semantic studies do elaborate a lot on the quick semantic deviation of Chinese network catchphrases, they fail to mention the concerned meaning

making processes.

Nowadays, with cognitive linguistics becoming popular, more and more researchers begin to give cognitive accounts of Chinese network catchphrases, using theories of conceptual metaphor, conceptual blending, construction grammar etc to explain the mental activities going on in the mind. However, among these researchers, most of them are inclined to take a conceptual metaphor approach towards their studies. Conceptual metaphors are made up of “sets of systematic correspondences, or mappings, between two domains of experience” (Kovecses, 2015, p.ix), under the guidance of which, the meaning of one certain metaphorical expression realizing an underlying conceptual metaphor is based on such correspondences. Or, in other words, the inner activities of metaphorical meaning making are “described in terms of the mappings between different kinds of abstract, schematic, disembodied knowledge” (GIBBS, 2006b, p.434). All this has brought about the situation that there appear a lot of followers of conceptual metaphor theory who are confined to metaphors prestored in human’s conceptual system and ignore the contextual factors when carrying out their research. In addition to this, despite its overwhelming influence, however, in recent years, with the new paradigm of embodied cognition or grounding cognition being widespread, conceptual metaphor theory has been criticized by a large number of scholars, and the essence of these criticisms comes from its failing to pay enough attention to the contextual factors concerning metaphorical expressions’ actual occurrence (Kovecses, 2010).

From what has been reviewed above, it can be seen that researchers have laid much of their emphasis on the generation, transmission and formation of Chinese network catchphrases as well as the conceptual metaphors which underline them. Nevertheless, they have, to a certain extent, ignored the significance of context in their studies. Even those researchers who are engaged in studying the meaning making of Chinese network catchphrases still follow a context-absence style, unable to integrate context into the model of metaphorical meaning making. Starting from this, it seems much more obliged for us to include context into the study of Chinese network catchphrases. So, in this article, a new theory of contexts in metaphor, which is put forward by Kovecses, is introduced and made as the theoretical foundation of this research. Kovecses’ context theory not only gives a clear explanation of various contextual factors that are involved in shaping human’s conceptual system but also discusses in a detailed manner how these contextual factors work in the conceptualization of metaphorical utterances.

III. CONTEXT CLASSIFICATION THEORY

In this part, by introducing Kovecses’ classification of context in metaphor, a reply to the first question raised in introduction will be given, and then in part 4 through an analysis of Chinese network catchphrases from the perspective of context, the second question will be answered. Before discussion of context classification, it is necessary to have a general idea of what context is.

Context has for a long time been a concern in the field of semantics, pragmatics, philosophy and other disciplines and finally become one of the most popular topics of research in the 21st century. Its popularity in various disciplines bears a lot to the linguistic turn which happened in the 20th century. Due to the linguistic turn, the emphasis in language study has been shifted from language structure to language function, which in turn brings about the emergence of various disciplines that value the importance of linguistic function, such as pragmatics, sociolinguistics, functional linguistics and applied linguistics. Subsequently there comes the situation that context has gained unprecedented attention for its critical role in analyzing linguistic function.

Despite this, context studies have not been so satisfying. As for context itself, up to now, there has not been a unified and fixed definition of it since scholars with different backgrounds hold different views towards it. For example, Chinese scholars He Ziran & Ran Yongping (2006) regard context as one of the three key elements in interaction except for language user and the language used; Malinowski (1930) defines context as the culture, the social life and the custom in which a language is used; Firth(1951) holds the opinion that context consists of series of situational context and that each smaller one is embedded into a larger one to the extent that all the situational contexts have their significant role in the whole cultural context; Halliday’s contribution to context study is his putting forward of the notion “register”(Halliday,1975); Lyons (1977) emphasizes the embodiment of context by stating that utterances’ fitness for one certain situation relies on the knowledge that speakers possess; van Dijk (2008, 2009) thinks context is not merely about the objective social situations themselves but a mixture of objective social situations and participants’ subjective representations of the social situations and that context is a special and dynamic metal model.

In light of what have been discussed above, it seems clear that despite difficulties in defining context, there are indeed some improvements in this defining process, and we begin to think about a question that has close kinship to context’s definition, that is, classifications of context.

As for classifications of context, Wang Jianhua (2002) gives a summary of what have been achieved by previous scholars, saying that context classification can be different according to different criteria. For example, if approached from the criterion of function, context can be classified into objective context, subjective context and temporary subjective context; there also exist dynamic context and static context if the classification is conducted according to the criterion of stability; Besides, he also gives his own classification of in-language context, by-language context and ex-language context, among which in-language context can be further divided into inter-sentential context and textual context, by-language context into physical context and accompanying context and ex-language context into social-cultural context and cognitive context. Leech (1983) states that there are some other context classifications,

according to which context can be classified into linguistic context, non-linguistic context, direct context and indirect context.

From the above, we can see that although a lot of work have been done, there still exists much more space for context classification to be further refined. Here this article will introduce the latest context classification put forward by Kovecses (2015) who classifies context in a more refined manner when he is conducting metaphor studies. According to his view, there are two major kinds of contexts: local context and global context. The former refers to the specific knowledge communicators have about some aspects of one immediate communicative situation, while the latter is about communicators' general knowledge of the non-immediate situation that characterizes a community. Kovecses also adds that there is not a sharp dividing line between these two contexts but a gradient from which the local context will have the tendency to turn into the global one. However, this rough classification of context into the local and global one is not the end in his discussion. Again Kovecses puts forward a relatively precise classification by dividing these two contexts into four refined ones, that is, situational context, discourse context, bodily context and conceptual-cognitive context.

Given that Chinese network catchphrase is one kind of metaphorical expression realized in network communication, here by introducing the four kinds of contexts in metaphor a reply to the first question is given: Kovecses' classification of context in metaphor is applicable to the context concerned in the study of Chinese network catchphrase, that is to say, there are also four kinds of contexts governing the meaning making of Chinese network catchphrases.

IV. CONTEXTUAL ANALYSIS OF CHINESE NETWORK CATCHPHRASES

In this part, context classification theory proposed by Kovecses will be applied in the contextual analysis of Chinese network catchphrases. That is to say, a detailed explanation of the four kinds of contexts as well as a discussion of how these contextual factors influence Chinese network catchphrases' conceptualization process will be conducted.

A. *Analysis from the Situational Context*

The key element of situational context is "situation", which can be further divided into physical environment situation, social situation and cultural situation. In order to know how these situations shape metaphorical meaning, it is necessary to have a comparatively clear understanding of them. We will begin with the physical environment context.

Physical environment is a term of broad sense, ranging from particular flora, fauna, landscape, temperature, weather, to dwellings, other people and so forth that people living in a certain region habitually interact with. Different people live in different physical environment and usually they are not so conscious to these differences, which in turn bring about the fact that metaphorical utterances that people speaking different languages and varieties of languages use will also be various. For example, American English is a language developed in a different physical environment, that is, North America, and the metaphors that American English speakers use are characteristically different from those which are used by people from other English speaking countries. (Kovecses, 2005) Apart from the influence of the large-scale physical environment on the choice of metaphors, the small-scale, local physical environment also has its influence on the shaping of particular metaphors in discourses or utterances. Put it simply, it is the influence of the physical environment upon its speakers that affects the metaphorical meaning making and subsequently the choice of metaphors. Here an example from Kovecses' book will be cited to illustrate this. The physical environment in which the metaphorical utterance happened is like this: there was the G8 summit meeting held in Scotland in 2005, and meanwhile a major rock concert called Live 8 was also held there. As for the assessments of the summit, some participants thought highly of it, while others didn't; and those who didn't of course gave such a negative comment as the following one:

(1) Dr Kumi Naidoo, from the anti-poverty lobby group G-Cap, said after the "roar" produced by Live 8, the G8 had uttered "a whisper". (Semino, 2008)

Here in this example there was a metaphorical expression "a whisper" which means "lack of resolve and effectiveness". Obviously the production of this metaphorical expression stems from the local physical environment—the holding of Live 8 rock concert. It is known to us that one important physical feature of a concert is its loudness, which is in contrast to the silent situation of the summit. So, for the participant, the meaning making of the metaphorical expression "whisper" arises from the physical context in which there is a very loud concert and a comparatively quiet summit meeting.

Social situation involves a lot of elements, say, social relationship, gender roles etc, and they can affect the shaping of metaphorical meaning making as well. One typical example of situational context is the distinctions between men and women, which in turn influence men's and women's choices of metaphors. According to Kolodny (1975, 1984), due to gender roles, American men and women exploit extremely different images when they conceptualize the world. For example, men tend to think of the frontier as a virgin land to be taken, whereas women always conceptualize it by means of the image of a garden.

The last branch in situational context is cultural situation context. In cultural situation context, there are unique and salient concepts and values that characterize particular cultures as well as the governing principles of a given culture. For people of a certain culture, these concepts and values have permeated into some domains of their experience, and accordingly have played a crucial role in their conceptualization of the world. Boers & Demecheleer (1997, 2001) point out that due to their salience in a certain culture concepts of hat and ship contribute more in the production of

metaphorical idioms in English than in French. And this is also true in Chinese metaphorical meaning making, for example, in Chinese, due to the Yin and Yang culture there is an “ANGER IS GAS” conceptual metaphor and its corresponding linguistic metaphors.

Then, how do situational context influences the meaning making of Chinese network catchphrases? Consider the following examples:

- (2) 我的 评论 “上墙” 了!
 Wo de pinglun shangqiang le!
 my opinion on the wall of a building
 “My opinion became public on the screen of microblog.”
- (3) 村 务 “上墙”.
 Cun wu shangqiang.
 village affairs on the wall of a building.
 “village affairs became public on the screen of microblog.”
- (4) 麦莎 比 预计 晚 了 几 个 小时。
 Maisha bi yuji wan le ji ge xiaoshi
 Maisha compare expectation late several hour
 “Compared to expectation, Maisha was late for several hours.”
- (5) 麦莎 轻轻地 掠过 这座 城市, 却是 那样的 温柔。
 Maisha qingqing di lveguo zhe zuo chengshi, que shi nayang de wenrou.
 Maisha quietly sway this city, still so gentle.
 “Maisha swayed this city quietly, still so gentle.”

The new metaphorical expression “shangqiang (上墙)” has the figurative meaning that new or interesting things sent out by netizens are made public on the screen of microblog. And in this new expression, there is an underlying metaphor “NETWORK IS A BUILDING”, which governs the linguistic realization “shangqiang (上墙)”. But how does that underlying metaphor come about? This has something to do with the development of network in modern times, that is, the social situation, which subsequently brings about the fact that network, for us, is as important and essential as buildings, and therefore we are justified to use the concept “BUILDING” to understand the concept “NETWORK”. Just as buildings have walls on which we can poster some paper expressing our thoughts, we can also poster our opinions upon the network. It is obvious that the situational context of network’s development triggers the underlying metaphor “NETWORK IS A BUILDING” and its corresponding linguistics metaphors.

As for “Maisha(麦莎)” in examples (4) and (5), it can be easily got that there is an underlying metaphor “NATURAL DISASTER IS A PERSON”, the meaning construction of which is due to the physical environment of typhoon’s coming in this example and people’s awareness of the similarity between the slow coming of typhoon and the slow pace of a high-heeled women during her walk.

B. Analysis from the Discourse Context

Discourse is made up of elements such as the speaker, the hearer and the entity or process talked about (topic), and accordingly discourse context refers to the knowledge about these major elements. How do these elements participating in discourse, such as the speaker, the hearer and topic, influence the metaphorical uses in a discourse? Let’s begin with one example which shows that topics of discourses govern the conceptualization of the novel and unconventional metaphors. The background of the example is like this: in the January 25-27 issue of the American newspaper USA TODAY, there was a long article about cyclist Lance Armstrong’s confessions about his doping as well as his not so satisfying performance in cycling. So, concerning the topic discussed in this article, one specialist in crisis management gave the following comment in an interview:

(6) “To use an analogy from Tour de France, he is still in the mountain stage, and will be for some time” (Cited from Kovecses, 2015, p.54)

It should be pointed out that in example (6) the specialist have enough knowledge about the topic of the discourse, such as Armstrong’s doping scandal, his career experience of participating in Tour de France events several times as well as the encyclopedic knowledge that this race has several mountain stages, all of which help trigger the conceptual metaphor “ACTION IS MOTION” and the corresponding metaphorical utterance meaning that Armstrong is still on his way towards success.

Knowledge about the speaker also has a similar influence on the metaphorical meaning making in discourse. For example, as a painter who painted mural advertisements in New York City, Frank Jump has AIDS, and his knowledge about himself helps shape his use of the novel metaphor SURVIVING AIDS DESPITE PREDICTIONS TO THE CONTRARY IS FOR THE OLD MURAL ADVERTISEMENTS TO SURVIVE THEIR EXPECTED “LIFE SPAN” (Kovecses, 2005).

Besides, surrounding discourse, also called linguistic context, plays a role in the choice of different metaphors, as is shown in the following example:

(7) When the Electoral Commission came to make its choice between referring the case to the police and taking no action it was this defense, described by an authoritative source as showing “contempt” for the law, which helped to tilt

the balance-and Mr. Hain-over the edge. (Cited from Kovecses, 2015,p.110)

Here in this example, “tilt the balance” is a conventional metaphorical expression which is derived from the conceptual metaphor UNCERTAINTY IS BALANCE, whereas the expression “[tilt] Mr. Hain over the edge” is a novel metaphorical expression produced under the influence of the preceding discourse.

Moreover, discourse context also shows its great influence upon the metaphorical meanings of Chinese network catchphrases, which can be supported from the following discussion:

(8) 暖气 太 给力 了。

nuanqi tai geili le.

heating very giving force

“The heating is very efficient.”

(9) 这个 表演 太 给力 了。

zhege biaoan tai geili le

this performance very giving force.

“This performance is very good.”

(10) 关于 艳照门 , 我 是 打 酱油 的。

guan yu yanzhaomen , wo shi da jiangyou de.

as for news of illicit love , I just buy soysauce

“As for news of illicit love, I show indifference to it.”

(11)为什么 公司 越大 打 酱油 的 越多?

wei shenm gongsi yueda dajiangyou de yueduo?

why company bigger people who buy soysauce more

“Why the bigger the company is, the more indifferent people are there in it?”

In example (8) and (9), the new expression “给力” means being brilliant or awesome, from which we get the “力”IS A SUBSTANCE” metaphor. Once “给力” appears in different discourses, new metaphorical meanings will be created. For example, in the above examples there are different conceptual metaphors entailed respectively: “力”IS THE efficiency OF HEATING;“力” IS A GOOD PERFORENCE. From the newly-created conceptual metaphors above, it is easily seen that previous discourses can influence the meaning making of these underlying conceptual metaphors , making the target domain“力”more specific and much easier to understand.

As for the new expression“打酱油”in examples(10)and(11), literally it means the act of buying soy sauce, and in these examples it is used to express an attitude of indifference figuratively. It is supposed that there exists a conceptual metaphor “INDIFFERENCE IS THE ACT OF BUYING SOY SAUCE” in these Chinese network catchphrases. Similar to the expression“给力”, the expression“打酱油”is also endowed with specific figurative meanings once it appears in different discourse contexts. And we attribute these figurative meanings to the conceptual metaphors newly created in different discourse contexts, such as “THE ATTITUDE TO NEWS EVENTS IS THE ACT OF BUYING SOY” and “NO CARING ABOUT COMPANY IS THE ACT OF BUYING SOY”. From what has been discussed above, it can be seen that discourse context also shapes the metaphorical meaning making of Chinese network catchphrases.

C. Analysis from the Bodily Context

Bodily context, as its name suggests, takes body as one kind of contexts, and it includes many factors relating to the body ,say, from organism of human body ,mental state of health to the universal or specific bodily experience. Kovecses(2015) states that the body, in particular , those aspects of it that can be activated in the ongoing situation, can influence metaphorical meaning making. Take the bodily experience for example: when we are happy, we have the bodily experience of being physically up and active rather than down and inactive, and these experiences help shape the corresponding emotional metaphors, such as expressions” I am in high spirits”, “I feel low” etc. Moreover, specific bodily experience also can influence particular people’s use of metaphors. An experiment of Casasanto (2009) shows that left-handers are more likely to use metaphorical expressions governed by conceptual metaphor “moral is left” when they want to express something relating to morale. How does bodily context influence the meaning making of Chinese network catchphrases? An explanation of this question can be obtained from discussing the following examples:

(12) 雷 人 的 镜头。

lei ren de jingtou.

to thunder people de scene.

“shocking scene.”

(13) 好 雷 人 啊 , 芙蓉姐姐 开 唱 了。

hao lei ren a , Furong jiejie kai chang le.

Very to thunder people , Furong sister began sing.

“(it is)Very shocking that Furong sister began to sing.”

(14) 通过 “海选”, 村民 的 民主 权利 得到 了 充分的 保障。

tongguo “hai xuan”, cunmin de minzu quanli dedao le chongfen de

baozhang.

through sea election, villagers democracy rights gain enough protection.

“Through mass-election, democracy rights of villagers gained enough protection.”

(15)“海选” 选出了县长。

“hai xuan” xuanchu le xianzhang.

sea election select mayor.

“Through mass-election, the mayor was selected.”

“Lei ren”(雷人) in examples(12)and(13) has the metaphorical meaning of being surprised, shocked and speechless, which has something to do with its original meaning—one kind of natural phenomenon of discharging. We usually have the bodily experience of being scared and shocked when hearing thunder, and the metaphorical meaning of Chinese character“lei”(to thunder) derives from such a universal experience, which in turn brings about the production of the underlying conceptual metaphor “SHOCK OR SURPRISE IS THUNDER” as well as its corresponding metaphorical expressions.

“hai xuan(海选)” in examples (14) and (15) refer to a way of election occurring in the mass people. Similarly, the meaning making of the metaphorical expression“hai xuan(海选)”is also influenced by the bodily context: We usually have the visual experience of broadness and vastness every time when we watch ocean and this visual experience helps shape the conceptualization of the underlying metaphor “THE LARGE NUMBER OF CANDIDATES IS OCEAN” and its corresponding linguistics metaphors. Discussions of the above examples (12)— (15) clearly explain how bodily context influences the metaphorical meaning making of Chinese network catchphrases.

D. Analysis from the Conceptual-cognitive Context

Conceptual-cognitive context includes the conceptual system consisting of construal operations and a system of concepts, history memory (short-term memory or long-term memory), interests and concerns about the world, and other factors. This kind of context can influence the meaning construction of metaphorical expressions relating to the same topic. Or in other words, given an intended metaphorical meaning, the metaphorical conceptual system can be exploited to produce best choices of metaphors. For example, the conceptual metaphor “argument is war” can be made use of to produce such a metaphorical expression as “He defends his opinions on this matter”. Also, some of the concepts that are in a metaphorical relationship with one another may lead to the production and comprehension of novel metaphors, such as “My wife is an anchor”. Here, for sake of space, this article won’t give any examples that demonstrate how history, memory, interests and concerns about the world as well as other factors influence metaphorical meaning making. Now let’s look at how conceptual-cognitive context plays an important function in the comprehension and production of Chinese network catchphrases.

(16) 在“河蟹”社会 乱停车 现象 非常 严重。

zai “hexie” shehui luan tingche xianxiang feichang yanzhong.

In crab society parking carelessly very serious.

“In the unharmonious society parking carelessly is very serious.”

(17)“河蟹”社会的 公务员 真是“敬业”， 时刻 显示着 自己的优越感。

“hexie” shehui de gongwuyuan zhenshi “jingye”, shi ke xianshizhe ziji de youyuegan.

crab society de public servant really “delicated”, every minute showoff own priorities.

“In the unharmonious society, public servants are really ‘delicated’, showing off their own priorities every minute.”

Here, in these examples, “‘crab’ society(‘河蟹’社会)”is the homophonic replacement of“‘harmonious’ society(‘和谐’社会)” in Chinese, which imparts a flavor of humor and irony of unharmony and inequality in the society. The meaning construction of “‘hexie’shehui (‘河蟹’社会)” involves the conceptual-cognitive context for the following reasons: First, the long-term memory fostered in the Chinese culture tells us that crabs are the representation of ignorance, which brings about the conceptual metaphor “ARROGANCE IS A CRAB”; second, in our conceptual system, there exist conceptual metaphors, such as “PEOPLE ARE ANIMALS” and “SOCIETY IS A RIVER”. Given the above three conceptual metaphors in human’s conceptual-cognitive system, it is no wonder that Chinese people conceptualize this unfair phenomenon by means of the metaphorical expression“‘crab’ society (‘河蟹’社会)”.

V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

In the article a cognitive explanation of Chinese network catchphrases from a new perspective, that is, contextual perspective, is given. This new explanation is not in total accordance with the main tenets of conceptual metaphor theory in that it pays more attention to the role of context in the meaning making of Chinese network catchphrases. The main theory this paper makes advantage of is Kovecses’ context theory concerning metaphor studies, under the guidance of which the conclusion is derived that the meaning of Chinese network catchphrases is not solely from conceptual metaphors, their mappings as well as their potential entailments, but also depends heavily on contextual factors, such as situational context, discourse context, bodily context and conceptual-cognitive context. In general, in light of such an

analysis, it can be easily seen that context is of great significance in metaphor studies and that there exists a wide range of contextual factors governing the creation and comprehension of Chinese network catchphrases in the actual network communication, which seem to be more in line with the new discovery about the nature of human cognition, that is, grounding cognition. (see Pecher and Zwaan, 2005; Gibbs, 2006a; Barsalou, 2008).

REFERENCES

- [1] Barsalou, Lawrence W. (2008). Grounded cognition. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 59, 617–645.
- [2] Boers, F. & M. Demecheleer. (1997). A few metaphorical models in (western) economic discourse. In W.A.Liebert, G. Redeker, and L. Waugh (eds.). *Discourse and Perspective in Cognitive Linguistics* (pp.115–129). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- [3] Boers, F. & M. Demecheleer. (2001). Measuring the impact of cross-cultural differences on learners' comprehension of imageable idioms. *ELT Journal*, 55, 255–262.
- [4] Casasanto, D. (2009). Embodiment of abstract concepts: good and bad in right and left handers. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 3, 351–367.
- [5] Firth, J.R. (1951). *Papers in Linguistics, 1934-1951*. London: Oxford University Press.
- [6] Gibbs, Raymond W. Jr. (2006a). Embodiment and Cognitive Science. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [7] Gibbs, Raymond W. Jr. (2006b). Metaphor interpretation as embodied simulation. *Mind and Language*, 21, 434-458.
- [8] Halliday, M. A. K. (1975). *Learning How to Mean: Explorations in the Development of Language*. (Explorations in Language Study Series). London: Arnold.
- [9] He, Z.R. & Ran, Y.P. (2006). *A general introduction to pragmatics*. Hunan: Hunan Educational Press.
- [10] He, Z.R. (2014). Memetic understanding of language in fashion. *Shandong Foreign Language Teaching*, 2, 8-13.
- [11] Kolodny, Annette. (1975). *The Lay of the Land: Metaphor as Experience and History in American Life and Letters*. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press.
- [12] Kolodny, Annette. (1984). *The Land Before Her: Fantasy and Experience of the American Frontiers* (pp.1630-1860). Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press.
- [13] Kovecses, Z. (2005). *Metaphor in Culture: Universality and Variation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [14] Kovecses, Z. (2010). A new look at metaphorical creativity in cognitive linguistics. *Cognitive Linguistics*, 21(4), 663–697.
- [15] Kovecses, Z. (2015). *Where Metaphors Come From: Reconsidering Context in Metaphor*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- [16] Lakoff, G. & M. Johnson. (1980). *Metaphors We Live By*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- [17] Leech, G.N. (1983). *Principle of Politeness*. London: Longman.
- [18] Lin, Y. (2012). A pragmatic analysis of present popular internet popular language. *Journal of Yichang College*, 2, 56-59.
- [19] Lyons, J. (1977). *Semantics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [20] Malinowski, B. (1930). The problem of meaning in primitive languages. In Ogden, C.K. & I.A. Richards (eds.). *The Meaning of Meaning* (pp. 296–336). Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- [21] Pecher, Diane and Rolph A. Zwaan (eds.). (2005). *Grounding Cognition: The Role of Perception and Action in Memory, Language, and Thinking*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [22] Semino, E. (2008). *Metaphor in Discourse*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [23] Van Dijk, T.A. (2008). *Discourse and Context*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- [24] Van Dijk, T.A. (2009). *Society and Discourse: How Social Contexts Influence Text and Talk*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [25] Wang, J.H. (2002). The constitution and classification of context. *Applied linguistics*, 3, 2-9

Hongyan Hua was born in Zhengzhou, China in 1983. She is now a PHD Candidate in Southwest University, China. Her research interests include pragmatics and cognitive linguistics.

She is a member of China Pragmatics Association.

Oman's General Foundation Programs: Focus on General Education Principles and Standards

Victoria Tuzlukova
Sultan Qaboos University, Muscat, Oman

Meenalochana Inguva
Sultan Qaboos University, Muscat, Oman

Pooja Sancheti
Sultan Qaboos University, Muscat, Oman

Abstract—Contemporary research in education has placed the growing emphasis on general education principles and standards intended for empowering students and developing them as personalities with the related discussions set in different socio-cultural and geographical contexts. This paper explores how principles and standards of general education are integrated and implemented to support students' development and enhancement of their skills in the context of the foundation program at Sultan Qaboos University in Oman. In more detail, utilizing personal views and perceptions of the programs' administrators (department heads, program coordinators and course leaders) involved in constructing and offering the English language foundation program courses, this paper explores how principles and standards of general education are integrated and implemented to support students' development and academic growth. A qualitative research paradigm is used to provide detailed descriptions, discuss experiences, achievements, challenges, and inform future decisions. The results demonstrate that the English language foundation program courses have good potential for building solid basis for students' skills and knowledge development, however, more efforts that include revisions in curriculum and teaching practices are required to develop students into educated, responsible and productive citizens for their own advantage and the benefit of the community.

Index Terms—general education, principles and standards, foundation program students, skills, Oman

I. INTRODUCTION

Education is of crucial importance in relation to the individuals' development and success in the 21st century (Trilling & Fadel, 2009). In addition to a solid system of education, what is deemed necessary is "the collegiate experience which addresses the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values characteristic of educated persons" (The Virginia Community Colleges Policy Manual, 2011, p.3). Such type of experience is often described in literature as "general education", especially when referring to both the educational foundations of skills, knowledge, habits of mind, and values that prepare students for success in their majors, personal and professional lives after graduation, and to the programs of education (as practiced in some liberal-art colleges and secondary schools) intended to develop students as personalities rather than trained specialists and to transmit a common cultural heritage (General education, 2018, n.p.). Having been developed in response of the local and global communities' call to enhance the quality of higher education teaching and learning, the construct of general education is also aimed at producing coherent curriculum that educates students, attends to their experiences, feelings, and needs (Austin, 2011, n.p.). This understanding is inseparable from a prospect stated by Ban Ki-moon, former United Nations Secretary General (2012), suggesting that quality education is a major impetus in individuals' progress and development.

The guiding principles for the general education programs comprise a number of propositions that best fit them and serve as their foundation, including their general and multidisciplinary nature, high quality, integration with the major programs, incorporation of extracurricular activities, and delivery by highly qualified faculty with appropriate institutional support (Liberal Studies Program 2.0, 2016). Additionally, the general education programs are "not limited by subjects or disciplines, while holding the connections among bodies of knowledge in high esteem" (The Virginia Community Colleges Policy Manual, 2011, p.3).

Research indicates that general education focuses on a number of core areas for its objectives. These areas may include, for example, effective communication, quantitative reasoning and computer literacy, which are constructed on such pillars, as breadth of knowledge, critical thinking, integration of knowledge and social responsibilities (Tuzlukova, Inguva, Sancheti, & Bayburtsyan, 2018). Palomba and Banta (1999) argue that the outcomes of general education programs are the competencies or goals for learning and development upon which they are based, namely knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values that students will need to be successful in work, family, and community. In education, the

desirable competencies for students to possess include communication, cultural and social understanding, information literacy, personal development, quantitative reasoning, and scientific reasoning (The Virginia Community Colleges Policy Manual, 2011, p.3). These competencies or general education outcomes, as explained by Leskes and Wright (2005), are cross-cutting skills that need to be encouraged from all the components of education.

The ideas of general education and its outcomes, which are also prevalent in general education literature, overlap significantly with some dimensions in local contexts of teaching and learning. General education programs are designed, for example, to expand students' worldview and knowledge base, give them opportunities to learn outside their areas of familiarity and gain experience and expertise (Liberal Studies Program 2.0, 2016). Indeed, students in different educational contexts have different aptitudes and needs. As a result, to cater to the needs of these students, it is not just desirable but also essential for education to be customized to local circumstances and realities (Peng, McNess, Thomas, Wu, Zhang, Li & Tian, 2014).

II. BRIEF OVERVIEW OF GENERAL FOUNDATION PROGRAMS IN OMAN

General foundation programs are a relatively new phenomenon in Oman's system of education. Similar to other programs of study that use the component "general" in its name, the general foundation programs in Oman can be characterized as formal and structured programs of study designed to prepare students for their postsecondary and higher education studies. In Oman, general foundation programs are provided by country's licensed higher education institutions. These institutions "teach and assess students, and review and improve" (Carroll, Razvi, Goodliffe & Al Habsi, 2009, p.17) their curriculum in line with the national standards.

The history of general foundation programs in the country's tertiary education institutions goes back to 2008, when, following the decision of the Oman's Higher Education Council, a Ministerial Decision was issued stating the required adoption of these programs by all public and private higher education institutions operating in the country (Oman Academic Standards, 2010). The main goal of the newly adopted general foundation program was to cover the gap between school and higher education (Baporikar & Ali Shah, 2012) and meet the academic requirements of English-medium higher education providers.

The primary focus of the general foundation programs, as stipulated by their developers, is on learning outcomes attained by students as "the result of carefully planned and executed formal programs of study" (Oman Academic Standards, 2010, p.4). For example, the foundation program at Sultan Qaboos University includes such components, as the English language, mathematics, information technology and study skills. These components are offered in both traditional and virtual learning environments where students are given various activities and tasks devised to enhance their learning motivation and help them adjust more easily to university life. The curriculum developed for the program is a truly comprehensive document. It lists the prerequisites for each course and the materials and testing matrixes used. Also, the curriculum includes the learning outcomes along with the necessary descriptors as well as the administrative procedures and rules for both teachers and students. Moreover, it describes the best practices and supporting methodology to be followed thus covering all areas of teaching and learning and providing support and guidance to teachers (Comprehensive Curriculum Document, 2017).

Bowden and Boyle (1995) make it clear that "the quest for quality in any activity is a constant struggle to maximize the extent to which goals have been achieved despite constantly changing contexts: contexts which not only affect both process and outcome but also catalyze changes in goals" (p.12). The general foundation programs offered in Oman's public and private institutions of higher education can be described as "miniature communities" that mirror the social relations and activities of the larger society in which they have been set (Dewey, 1980). To reach and maintain their focus, general foundation programs have been designed and developed by higher education institutions in Oman as complex teaching and learning contexts. These contexts incorporate multiple factors, such as, for example, stake holders, culture of the society, local and global needs of the future citizens, social communities, communication networks, collaboration among various institutions/universities. All these factors support and actively encourage interaction and a sense of community [that] enable learning (Cornell, 2002). To illustrate, addressing the importance given by Oman's government to ensure quality of higher education that responds to the needs and requirements of the 21st century, Baporikar & Ali Shah (2012) outline internal and external factors responsible for the acquisition of knowledge and skill in general foundation programs, including motivation, pedagogy/teaching, methodology, curricula, infrastructure, facilities, policies, strategies, and rules. These factors are related to both students and teachers. For example, teacher factors are teachers' knowledge about the subject, background, culture, experience of teaching at different levels and places, self-efficacy, duration of employment at a place, well planned curriculum, issues related to organizational and interpersonal communication, relationships between teachers and students, and monitoring standards. As stated by Sivaraman, Al Balushi and Rao (2014), "it is the effectiveness of teaching that is translated into the skills that the students gain, and in turn is reflected as the employability of the students" (p.29). Student factors that may have an impact on teaching and learning include the family background of a student, socio-economic status of the parents, attitude to learning, awareness about his/her responsibilities as a student, communication skills, working in teams/groups and openness to learning from different perspectives (Creating, 2009). Administrative factors refer to providing safe and secure environment for both teachers and students, awards for teachers and students for their best

performances III, providing all needed support such as good library, technological support and all related policies in place (Contextual factors, 2018).

III. THE STUDY

Leithwood (2016) explains that well-functioning departments are powerful centers for improvement. Since administrators are involved in nearly all aspects of their programs, they play integral roles in ensuring these programs function smoothly. Additionally, position based and distributive leadership does not only make difference. It is also related to student outcomes (Mulford, 2003).

Acknowledging the importance of the general foundation programs' administrators (department heads, program coordinators and course leaders), especially those involved in constructing and delivering its English language component courses ranging from general English to English for Specific Purposes, and from English for Humanities to English for Sciences, this study aimed at identifying their views and perceptions about how principles and standards of general education are integrated and implemented into English language foundation program courses to empower and develop students. In particular, the researchers sought for detailed descriptions of the practices in place, experiences, achievements and challenging issues.

A. Methodology

To provide detailed descriptions and fully explore the established experiences of Oman's higher education institutions' foundation programs with regard to integration of general education principles and standards, and students' development support, a qualitative research paradigm was used (Coyle, 2007) in this study. Particular attention was given to narratives and personal experiences of general foundation programs' administrators (department heads, program coordinators and course leaders) collected through semi-structured face-to-face interviews. The interview questions for the administrators were designed to have an extended conversation with key qualities (Rubin & Rubin, 2005).

Within the framework of the study, the developed interview questions sought understanding about the processes and phenomena related to general education teaching, learning and outcomes in the framework of the English language area of the general foundation programs in Oman. The questions in the interview asked the participants about their personal stories as both language educators and administrators. To examine situations in depth, questions related to individual practices and experiences of running the foundation programs, including the challenges faced and the successes achieved, were explored. These questions were related, for example, to understanding the concept of general education, providing students with opportunities to develop as personalities, and to following general education principles and standards, such as, to exemplify, effective communication; quantitative reasoning (=application of basic mathematics skills); computer technology and literacy; content knowledge enhancement; critical thinking; integration of knowledge; teaching social responsibilities; study skills and knowledge application; educating students about global and local cultures and intercultural skills and abilities.

B. Participants

The study involved the general foundation programs in both public and private higher education institutions in Oman's Muscat, Al Batinah, Al Bureimi, Ad Dhahirah, Dhofar and Ash Sharqiyah governorates.

The interviews covered administrators at different positions in foundation programs, which included heads of the English language departments, English language program coordinators and course leaders, but all played integral roles in the development and implementation of the foundation programs' English language components, and brought into discussion diverse experiences, views and perspectives.

The decisions regarding subject selection for interviews were based on the research question, theoretical perspectives, and evidence informing the study (Sargeant, 2012). Other important factors involved participants' beliefs about their own qualifications, years of work experience and subject area, and their motivation to offer and able to achieve an objective and truthful account (Hollway & Jefferson, 2000). These factors, as explained in the research by Macovec (2018), have a significant influence on the development of the teachers' professional identity. Hence, the subjects sampled were considered by their role as English language administrators and experience of teaching English language foundation program courses to be able to inform important facets and perspectives related to the study. Ten participants in Oman's higher education institutions were interviewed. The participants were approached by an email. The pre-interview emails were sent to the potential participants explaining the purpose of the study, seeking their consent and explaining the interviewing and discussion procedures. The participants had rights of confidentiality, anonymity, and voluntary participation in this research.

During the interviews, the participants were firstly asked to share their personal stories both as administrators and English language educators by telling the researchers about how they started working in higher education institutions in Oman, foundation program courses they taught, and describing their teaching and administrative experience in the foundation programs. Then, the researchers sought information about the administrative issues related to the running of the foundation program, e.g. aims, objectives, values, general education principles and standards. These were about the

participants' views and perceptions of the challenges they faced while supporting the foundation program courses and their personal achievements in relation to programs' effective running and students' development.

The data collected during the interviews was audio recorded, and then transcribed and analyzed by the researchers. Pseudonyms (e.g. Fatima, Ola, Mohammed, Faisal, Tom, Emma, Peter, Sultan, Ali and Jim) were used in place of the participants' names for labelling all collected data. A large amount of descriptive data was obtained and to analyze the data, constant comparative analysis technique was used. Pickard (2007) explains that this technique involves taking one piece of data and judging it with all others that may be related or diverse in order to develop conceptualizations of the potential relations between pieces of data.

C. Results and Discussion

The first and most important finding in this study supports the concept of general education as referred to "educational programs that intend to transmit cultural knowledge and develop students as personalities rather than trained specialists" (General education, 2018, n.p.). However, the foundation programs that are currently in place in Oman's tertiary education institutions are constantly developing contexts of teaching and learning (Burns, 2013). Therefore, administering foundation programs is an interesting but challenging event in the professional lives of the administrators. All study participants explained that they were always open to extend all the support to both teachers and students in their departments, programs and courses. This is done, for example, according to Jim, through open door policy, online communication via discussion board, text messages and emails, regular meetings and discussions on academic and administrative points, mediation, mentoring and assistance. The challenges participants face while running the department, program or course, in terms of academic issues and in terms of administrative issues, were mostly, as worded by Fatima, another study participant, due to "insufficient experience in administrative work in a situation of programs' rapid development and expansion". Some other challenges involved, for example, "lack of collaboration between schools and higher education institutions" (Tom), "need to harmonize issues related to organizational, professional and interpersonal communication" (Ali). To illustrate, Ali mentioned the need to keep up with a balance between the senior management's requirements and faculty satisfaction. Mohammed spoke about various faculty-related day-to-day issues which include timetabling, teaching assignments, multinational teaching community with faculty representing different cultures, ways of thinking and dealing with things, and behaviors. He also emphasized the importance of "moving and progressing at the same rate even if the administrative tasks were added", as well as "getting exposure to the maximum number of teaching and professional development opportunities", including teaching a variety of the English foundation program courses, participating in projects on designing, developing, reviewing and revising materials, courses and learning modules. And this experience as explained by Faisal was "very rich". To exemplify, the position helped him to "accumulate a wide knowledge about teaching craft and explore diverse teaching practices". In Emma's view, working in a foundation program was "a rewarding experience". She further went on to say that "it is nice to see student's improving on the targeted skills and learning outcomes, challenging at times though". Mohammed was of the opinion that experience of working in foundation program "enriches" every administrator. In addition, according to Mohammed, administrators were always engaged with faculty support issues. These include, but were not limited to designing and implementing staff development policy, involving teachers in research, initiating and organizing staff development activities, in particular, in-house professional development workshops, seminars, conferences, and training sessions. Ola fully supported Mohammed's views, and to quote her "in order to successfully implement foundation program courses, the most required administrative support should be related to teacher development".

Within the foundation program English language courses that are framed to improve students' skills for further studies and develop their linguistic competency and cognitive skills (Goodliffe, 2010), general education principles and standards are followed, as explained by Jim, "by ensuring they are included in the learning outcomes for each course. These learning outcomes are written as can-do-statements that students review, practice and are assessed on throughout their courses". According to him, to ensure that students are nurtured in discharging their social responsibilities, it's crucial to "work on building a strong relationship with them not only in the role as an administrator, but also as a teacher, guide, and facilitator". His views gain credence corroborating Bobbit (1918) that "human life, however varied, consists in the performance of specific activities. Education that prepares for life is one that prepares definitely and adequately for these specific activities. However numerous and diverse they may be for any social class they can be discovered. This requires that one go out into the world of affairs and discover the particulars of which their affairs consist. These will show the abilities, attitudes, habits, appreciations and forms of knowledge that men need." (p.42).

According to participants' narrations, through the foundation programs students enjoyed series of experiences which were also the objective of the programs. These included, for example, diverse extra-curricular activities that provided more immersive learning environments for the students, such as students' clubs and societies, activities for using English outside the four walls of the classroom, e.g. "The English Souk" and "The Gallery of Nations" (Mohammed), introduction of blending learning components (Emma), numerous opportunities for autonomous learning (Fatima). Other illustrations are from the interviews with Faisal and Peter. While sharing his stories of success and personal achievements in relation to effective running of the foundation program, Faisal mentioned an online course on Moodle platform that was designed to prepare students for college life and features some videos with teaching episodes, handouts and audio scripts. It also provided student involvement in teaching and learning process by giving feedback

about course books, teaching and learning, challenges in the classroom, and challenges related to the assessment. As per Peter's response, he emphasized that the foundation program courses in his higher education establishment were designed to prepare "students academically and as citizens with a personality". According to him, among most effective activities were seminars and workshops for students on first aid, safe driving, traffic rules, etc. These extra-curricular activities helped students be aware of their social responsibilities, and they grew as socially and inter-personally responsible citizens.

The English language courses offered at the foundation programs in Oman's higher education institutions have good potential for effective integration of general education principles and standards, and building solid basis for students' skills and knowledge development. For example, these include, but are not limited to integrating critical thinking skills in the curriculum, teaching practice, instructional materials and in-house books. To cite an instance, Emma recalled being involved in curriculum revision aimed at identifying the scope for promoting critical thinking skills of the students. According to her, the focus of the foundation program curriculum is on developing students as systematic, analytical and reflective thinkers. Maria mentioned a series of actions taken at her institution to make students better thinkers. These included materials' revision, use of innovative computer-assisted methods of teaching and assessment procedures. Also, all the participants in the study were strong believers of the importance of critical thinking as a key consideration for ensuring student success. To illustrate, Ali explained that "critical thinking could help students gain knowledge, improve their analytical and problem solving skills, and help them assess and reconstruct meaning". He also mentioned that "empowering students with critical thinking skills" may lead to developing them "as mindful communicators who are free from bias".

As maintained by the participants, in terms of its aim, objectives and values, the foundation program English language courses offered at their higher education institutions also follow principles and standards of general education related to effective communication and to educating students about global and local cultures. In Tom's opinion, for example, "global and local cultures are effectively introduced in the text books and supplementary teaching materials for foundation program students". This finding further substantiates several other studies conducted in similar contexts (Al-Busaidi & Tuzlukova, 2013; Tuzlukova, Inguva, Sancheti & Bayburtsyan, 2018). However, as perceived by all the participants in this study, more emphasis should be placed on quantitative reasoning, computer technology and literacy, content knowledge enhancement, teaching social responsibilities, study skills and knowledge application, and intercultural skills and abilities.

As for the student support, foundation programs offer students multiple opportunities. Ola, for example, talked about supporting foundation program students through academic advising scheme that involved an academic advising coordinator responsible for ensuring that the advising process was smoothly and properly conducted. She provided the example of writing skill teachers who, in her educational context, supported students in the capacity of academic advisors; and the quantity and frequency of contact hours put by the teacher consequently resulted in the ability to identify students' problems. Fatima gave examples of Tutorial Centers. Student Success Centers were given as an instance of foundation program students' support by Mohammed. In line with Arrand's study (2014) that shows evidence of increased use of peer tutoring as exchanges to enhance the curriculum and support students through transitional stages of university life, the study participants emphasized that peer mediated strategies are becoming essential components of foundation programs. According to them, peer tutoring schemes that involve a wide array of tutoring arrangements, e.g. one student helping another one, one student helping a group of other students to practice language skills, master content and some aspects of the curriculum, etc., are utilized in all the higher education institutions where the participants work.

The stories of success and personal achievements in administering the English language component of the foundation programs at different levels, narrated by the participants, clearly demonstrate that general foundation programs in Oman are implemented to provide students with additional support, place them in the position of active learners, and hone their skills and abilities through a variety of pedagogical approaches and tasks. Some of these stories are also related to learning outside the classroom and developing students as personalities. For example, Jim talked about community-based projects that became an integrated part of the writing and study skill research project, which provided students with active and authentic learning opportunities. Mohammed shared some very interesting examples of community outreach initiatives. The initiative called 'Together we Communicate' includes several student-centered activities, focusing at developing students' effective communication and critical thinking skills, and teaching them social responsibilities, etc. through charity work and knowledge sharing, like visits to the local hospitals, schools, giving presentations, fundraising, etc. In 'Together we Read' initiative, students and faculty visit elementary schools in Muscat to offer some reading activities for the school students. In preparation to this activity which was a great learning experience for students, they worked hard to choose stories, prepare tasks and activities, games, gifts, etc. As for the community outreach activity called 'Together we Stand against Plagiarism', students conduct visits to secondary schools in Muscat aiming to spread awareness among students regarding issues related to plagiarism and academic integrity. With their simple knowledge on plagiarism, students share their ideas by giving presentations and showing videos of their own.

When the core areas of general education, such as effective communication, quantitative reasoning, and computer literacy, were discussed, the participants emphasized that these areas are embedded in the foundation program

curriculum with an emphasis on natural progression from less to more complex foundation program courses, but they are “not fully integrated or interdisciplinary” (Fatma). The participants’ responses give a picture of a foundation program curriculum in which effective communication, quantitative reasoning, and computer literacy are mainly sustained by integration of knowledge “... through individual educators’ initiatives” (Fatma), especially in such aspects, as breadth of knowledge, development of the critical thinking and inculcation of social responsibilities. This result corroborates findings of previous research on general education principles and standards and their incorporation into foundation English language curriculum and teaching practice in similar contexts (Tuzlukova, Inguva, Sancheti & Bayburtsyan, 2018). Consequently, as Peter described it, “more efforts are required to bring out the potential”.

IV. CONCLUSION

Without any doubt, “the search for evidence to develop high quality, sustainable education systems, continues to intensify as national economies seek to compete globally” (Peng, McNess, Thomas, Wu, Zhang, Li and Tian, 2014, p.77). This study overall aim was to explore views and perceptions of the foundation programs’ administrators about how principles and standards of general education are integrated and implemented into English language foundation program courses to empower and develop students. The evidence from the study suggests that the English language foundation program courses offered in Oman’s higher education institutions have potential for effective integration of general education principles and standards, and building a solid basis for students’ skills and knowledge development. It’s a valuable experience for students to grow academically, boost their competencies and skills, and develop as personalities. However, to ensure that foundation program courses follow general education principles and standards, adequately prepare students for the 21st century teaching and learning and serve as an integrated, interdisciplinary and applied learning opportunity, more efforts are required. These should include, first and foremost, raising awareness of these standards among faculty, revisions in curriculum and teaching practices as well as helping students become more responsible and productive citizens, thus benefiting both students and the community.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to extend their sincere appreciation and gratitude to the Deanship of Research at Sultan Qaboos University for supporting this study by an internal research grant.

REFERENCES

- [1] Al-Busaidi, S. & V. Tuzlukova. (2013). An introduction: Research on the general foundation programs in Oman. In Al-Busaidi, S. & V. Tuzlukova (eds.), *General foundation programs in higher education in the Sultanate of Oman: Experiences, challenges and considerations for the future*. Muscat: Mazoon Press and Publishing, 9-14.
- [2] Al Salmi J. (2014). The contextual factors that influence the adoption of Electronic Theses and Dissertations (ETD) programs in the Arab Gulf Universities. In *Proceedings of the SLA-AGC 20th Annual Conference*. www.qscience.com/doi/pdf/10.5339/qproc.2014.gsla.2 (assessed 1/8/2018)
- [3] Arrand, K. (2014). Peer tutoring. *Journal of Pedagogical Development*, 1(4). <https://www.beds.ac.uk/jpd/volume-4-issue-1/peer-tutoring> (assessed 1/11/2018).
- [4] Austin, M.W. (2011). The value of general education. *Psychology Today*. <https://www.psychologytoday.com/blog/ethics-everyone/.../the-value-general-education> (assessed 30/3/2018).
- [5] Baporikar, N. & I. Ali Shah. (2012). Quality of higher education in 21st century. A case of Oman. *Journal of Educational and Instructional Studies in the World*, 2(1), 9-18. <http://www.wjeis.org/FileUpload/ds217232/File/02.baporikar.pdf> (assessed 12/5/2018).
- [6] Bobbitt, F. (1918). *The Curriculum*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- [7] Bowden, J.A. & P. Boyle (1995). *Understanding RMIT’s approach to educational quality assurance*. Melbourne, EPI Group, RMIT.
- [8] Burns, S. (2013). The rest of the iceberg. In Al-Busaidi, S. & V. Tuzlukova, (eds.), *General foundation programs in higher education in the Sultanate of Oman: Experiences, challenges and considerations for the future*. Muscat: Mazoon Press and Publishing, 29-34.
- [9] Carroll, M., Razvi, S., Goodliffe, T. & F. Al Habsi. (2009). Progress in developing a national quality management system for higher education in Oman. *Quality in Higher Education*, 15 (1), 17-27.
- [10] *Comprehensive Curriculum Document* (2017). Centre for Preparatory Studies, Muscat: SQU Printing Press.
- [11] Contextual factors can affect the teaching and learning process in a classroom. <https://www.scribd.com/document/107160661/Contextual-Factors-Can-Effect-the-Teaching-and-Learning-Process-in-a-Classroom> (assessed 18/10/2018).
- [12] Cornell, P. (2002). The Impact of change in teaching and learning on furniture and the environment.” In Chism, N. & D. Bickford (eds.), *The importance of physical space in creating supportive learning environments*. New directions for teaching and learning. 92. San Francisco: Jossey Bass, 33-42.
- [13] Coyle, N. (2007). Qualitative research: What this research paradigm has to offer to the understanding of pain. *Pain Medicine*, 8 (3), 205–206.
- [14] *Creating effective teaching and learning environments*. (2009). <http://www.oecd.org/education/school/43023606.pdf> (assessed 19/10/2018).
- [15] Dewey, J. (1899/1980). *The School and society*. Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.

- [16] General education (2018). Merriam Webster. <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/general%20education> (assessed 12.5/2018).
- [17] Goodliffe, T. (2010). Developing National Standards for Foundation Programs in Oman. In Al-Mahrooqi, R. & V. Tuzlukova (eds.), *The Omani ELT Symphony: Maintaining Linguistic and Socio-Cultural Equilibrium*. Muscat: Sultan Qaboos University Printing Press, 373-390.
- [18] Hollway, W. & T. Jefferson. (2000). *Doing qualitative research differently: Free association, narrative and the interview method*. London: Sage Publications.
- [19] Leithwood, K. (2016). Department-head leadership for school improvement. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 15(2), 117-140
- [20] Leskes, A., & B.D. Wright. (2005). *The art & science of assessing general education outcomes: A practical guide*. Washington, D.C.: Association of American Colleges and Universities.
- [21] Liberal Studies Program 2.0. (2016). <https://www.wcu.edu/WebFiles/PDFs/LiberalStudiesDocument-Approved-1-27-2016.pdf> (assessed 1/9/2018).
- [22] Macovec, D. (2018). The teacher's role and professional development. *The International Journal of Cognitive Research in Science, Engineering and Education (IJCRSEE)*, 6(2), 33-46. <http://www.ijcrsee.com/index.php/ijcrsee/issue/view/1/IJCRSEE%20Volume%206%20Issue%202%202018.pdf> (assessed 10/10/2018).
- [23] Mulford, B. (2003). School leaders: Changing roles and impact on teacher and school effectiveness. A paper commissioned by the Education and Training Policy Division, OECD, for the Activity Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers. <http://www.oecd.org/education/school/2635399.pdf> (assessed 12/10/2018).
- [24] Oman Academic Standards for General Foundation Programs. (2010). <http://www.squ.edu.om/Portals/162/pdf/GFP%20Standards%20FINAL.pdf> (assessed 23/2/2018).
- [25] Palomba, C. A. & T.W. Banta. (1999). *Assessment essentials: Planning, implementing, and improving assessment in higher education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- [26] Peng, J.W. et al. (2014). Emerging perceptions of teacher quality and teacher development in China. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 34, 77-89.
- [27] Pickard, A. J. (2007). *Research methods in information*. London: Facet.
- [28] Rubin, H.J. & I.S. Rubin. (2005). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data*. Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Publications.
- [29] Sargeant, J. (2012). Qualitative research part II: Participants, analysis, and quality assurance. *Journal of Graduate Medical Education*, 4(1), 1-3.
- [30] Sivaraman, I, Al Balushi, A. & D.H. Rao. (2014). Understanding Omani students' (University) English language problems. *International Journal of Sciences: Basic and Applied Research (IJSBAR)*, 13(1), 28-35. <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.800.4914&rep=rep1&type=pdf> (assessed 15/9/2018).
- [31] The Virginia Community Colleges Policy Manual. (2011). <http://www.vccs.edu/about/where-we-are/policy-manual/> (assessed 15/5/2018).
- [32] Trilling, B., & Fadel, C. (2009). *21st century skills*. San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- [33] Tuzlukova, V., Inguva, M., Sancheti, P. & Bayburtsyan, K. (2018). General Education for students' development: A case study in Oman. *Asian Journal of Management Sciences and Education*. 7(2), 85-98.
- [34] UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon launches "Education First" to send every child to school. (2012). <http://www.unaids.org/en/resources/presscentre/featurestories/2012/september/20120927educationfirst> (assessed 15/5/2018).

Victoria Tuzlukova obtained her PhD in Applied Linguistics from Pyatigorsk University of Foreign Languages in Russia. She has also held a PhD in Comparative Linguistics from Moscow State University since 2002. She has over 30 years teaching and research experience in Russia and Oman. Currently she is on the faculty at the Centre for Preparatory Studies of Sultan Qaboos University in Oman, which she joined in 2006. During her time at the Centre she has been involved in a number of research projects and initiatives. Her research interests focus on sociolinguistics, intercultural communication, foreign language acquisition and the role of culture in foreign language teaching and learning. Dr. Victoria Tuzlukova has presented and published in a broad variety of international conferences and journals.

Meenalochana Inguva has received her PhD in language teaching and teacher education from the Central Institute of English and foreign Languages, Hyderabad, India. She has more than 30 years of teaching and teacher training experience across various levels. Currently she is on the faculty at the Centre for Preparatory Studies of Sultan Qaboos University in Oman, which she joined in 2000. During her time at the Centre she has been involved in curriculum design and development for the foundation program courses. Dr. Meenalochana Inguva worked as the Centre's Head of the Curriculum Unit for 3 years and then became the Standing Member of the Central Curriculum Committee. She has conducted several workshops for teachers of English. Her research interests focus on and include class-room based research, inter-cultural communication and evidence-based teaching.

Pooja Sancheti has obtained her Master's degree in English Language and Literature from Himachal Pradesh University in India and has just submitted her M. Phil thesis. She has a collective experience of more than twenty years in teaching English to young adults and training middle school teachers. Currently, she is the Deputy Director for Professional Development and Research at the Centre for Preparatory Studies at Sultan Qaboos University in Oman. Pooja Sancheti has participated in and initiated several material development and review projects. She has presented her ideas through paper presentations and workshops at many international conferences concerning skills development. Pooja's research interests include EFL teaching and testing approaches and using critical thinking skills to enhance language acquisition. She believes that thinking critically is the key to learning, and education is all about pursuit of knowledge.

Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

Aims and Scope

Theory and Practice in Language Studies (TPLS) is a peer-reviewed international journal dedicated to promoting scholarly exchange among teachers and researchers in the field of language studies. The journal is published monthly.

TPLS carries original, full-length articles and short research notes that reflect the latest developments and advances in both theoretical and practical aspects of language teaching and learning. We particularly encourage articles that share an interdisciplinary orientation, articles that bridge the gap between theory and practice, and articles in new and emerging areas of research that reflect the challenges faced today.

Areas of interest include: language education, language teaching methodologies, language acquisition, bilingualism, literacy, language representation, language assessment, language education policies, applied linguistics, as well as language studies and other related disciplines: psychology, linguistics, pragmatics, cognitive science, neuroscience, ethnography, sociolinguistics, sociology, and anthropology, literature, phonetics, phonology, and morphology.

Special Issue Guidelines

Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 15 to 30 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
- Review process for the selection and rejection of papers
- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
 - Submission of extended version
 - Notification of acceptance
 - Final submission due
 - Time to deliver final package to the publisher

If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

If a proposal is accepted, the guest editor will be responsible for:

- Preparing the “Call for Papers” to be included on the Journal’s Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal’s style, together with all authors’ contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

More information is available on the web site at <http://www.academypublication.com/tpls/>

(Contents Continued from Back Cover)

A Study on the Influence of Teachers' Questioning in High School English Reading Class on Students' Critical Thinking <i>Wenjuan Song</i>	424
An Analysis of Linguistic Differences between Different Genders of Chinese Children from the Communicative Strategies <i>Yingying Ma</i>	429
A Survey Study: The Correlation between Metacognitive Strategies and Reading Achievement <i>Sukris Sutiyatno and Sukarno</i>	438
Exploring Reviewer Reactions to MA Theses of Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics <i>Zhencong Liu, Tong Jia, and Tinghe Zhang</i>	445
The Derivation of Verb-copying Sentence in Mandarin Chinese <i>Haojie Li</i>	453
Affixation in Ardalani Kurdish Based on Distributed Morphology <i>Foroogh Kazemi and Rozita Ranjbar</i>	459
A Contrastive Analysis of Explicit Cohesion in English Advertising Texts and Their Chinese Consecutive Interpretation Versions <i>Lan Zhou and Qiang Sun</i>	465
A New Look at Chinese Network Catchphrases <i>Hongyan Hua</i>	473
Oman's General Foundation Programs: Focus on General Education Principles and Standards <i>Victoria Tuzlukova, Meenalochana Inguva, and Pooja Sancheti</i>	480
