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# Japanese Pronoun Acquisition by L1 English Adults: Further Evidence from a Coreference Judgment Task\*

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**Abstract**—This paper presents the results of a study investigating L2 learners' interpretations of Japanese overt and empty pronouns in a coreference judgment task. The results show counterevidence to Kanno's (1997, 1998) claim that learners at an early stage of language study obey the Overt Pronoun Constraint (Montalbetti, 1984). Furthermore, it supports evidence by Masumoto (2008), Pimentel and Nakayama (2012a) showing that learners at the early levels of Japanese learning do not show a knowledge of the constraint, but that this knowledge is acquired by the time they reach an advanced level of study.

**Index Terms**—overt and empty pronouns, OPC, bound variable, *kanojo*, *kare*, L2 Japanese

## I. INTRODUCTION

A major research question in the field of second language (L2) acquisition research has been to what degree do adult learners achieve native-like competence in a target language. This is of special interest when linguistic features of the first language (L1) differ from those of the second. Japanese differs from English in that it is a language that can have either an overt or empty (*pro*) pronoun in the subject position of a finite clause. In Japanese, *kanojo* and *kare* correspond to the pronouns 'she' and 'he' in English.<sup>1</sup> Consider the sentences below.

- (1) a. Luna<sub>i</sub>-ga [*pro*<sub>i</sub>/*kanojo*<sub>i</sub>-ga kirei da] to omotteiru  
Luna-NOM she-NOM beautiful is that is-thinking  
'Luna<sub>i</sub> thinks that she<sub>i</sub> is beautiful.'  
b. Dono onna<sub>i</sub>-mo [*pro*<sub>i</sub> kirei da to omotteiru]  
Every woman-too beautiful is that is-thinking  
'Every woman<sub>i</sub> thinks that she<sub>i</sub> is beautiful.'  
c. \*Dono onna<sub>i</sub>-mo [*kanojo*<sub>i</sub>-ga kirei da] to omotteiru  
Every woman-too she-NOM beautiful is that is-thinking  
'Every woman<sub>i</sub> thinks that she<sub>i</sub> is beautiful.'

Sentence (1a) shows that regardless of whether the embedded subject pronoun is empty (*pro*) or overt (*kanojo*), it can take the referential NP (Luna) in the matrix clause as its antecedent. Sentences (1b) and (1c) contain a quantified NP antecedent in the matrix clause (i.e. *dono onna-mo*). Sentence (1b) shows that when the embedded subject is an empty pronoun (*pro*), it can take a quantified NP as its antecedent. Therefore, this particular interpretation where every woman thinks that she herself is beautiful is evinced, yields what is called a bound variable (BV) interpretation. On the other hand, sentence (1c) shows that when the embedded subject is an overt pronoun (*kanojo*), it cannot take a quantified NP as its antecedent, thereby making it ungrammatical.<sup>2</sup> This restriction is known as the Overt Pronoun Constraint (OPC) (Montalbetti, 1984).

Japanese as a foreign language (hereafter JFL) learners whose first language (L1) is English are tasked with acquiring the relevant distinction between how overt pronouns with quantified NP antecedents function in the target language (i.e. Null Subject Parameter resetting). Sentential input containing a quantifier and an overt pronoun is infrequent and the constraint on BV interpretations is not explicitly taught in language classes (i.e. *poverty of the stimulus* argument). Thus, the question arises as to whether or not L1 English speakers learning Japanese can make the correct interpretations with respect to this phenomenon.

\*The results in this paper are from my unpublished doctoral dissertation (Pimentel 2014), and were first presented with Mineharu Nakayama as a poster at the 14<sup>th</sup> Annual International Meeting of the Japanese Society of Languages Sciences (JLS) in Nagoya, Japan in 2012. An extended abstract of the results appeared in the handbook for the JLS conference (Pimentel and Nakayama, 2012b).

<sup>1</sup>Hoji (1991) argues that *kanojo/kare* are demonstratives rather than pronouns, but others (e.g. Kanno 1997, 1998) consider them to be pronouns. For the sake of consistency with Kanno (1997, 1998) and others, they will be referred to as pronouns in this paper. Regardless of nomenclature, *kanojo/kare* exhibit similar distributional patterns to pronouns of other pro-drop languages (e.g. Spanish, Korean, Turkish, etc.)

<sup>2</sup>This follows Montalbetti's (1984) Overt Pronoun Constraint (OPC), which is formally defined as follows: "overt pronouns cannot link to formal variables iff the alternation overt/empty obtains." Note that the OPC becomes irrelevant if Japanese overt pronouns are indeed demonstratives. Since Kanno (1997, 1998) refer to the OPC, the author also mentions it in this paper. Even if the OPC itself is irrelevant theoretically, the fact that *kare* cannot have a quantifier antecedent remains. Thus, the main point does not change in this paper.

A coreference judgment task conducted by Kanno (1997, 1998) gives evidence for JFL learners' ability to reset the Null Subject Parameter and thereby have knowledge of the OPC from a very early stage in their language learning. Masumoto (2008) and Pimentel and Nakayama (2012) provide counterevidence using a truth value judgment task. Their findings suggest that it takes time to reset the parameter, but that eventually by the advanced level of learning, JFL learners have acquired this knowledge.

This paper presents the experimental results of a coreferential judgment task designed to provide further inquiry. It focuses on L1 English speakers' grammatical judgments of sentences such as (1b) and (1c) above. In other words, it seeks to answer the following question: Do L1 English speakers acquire the knowledge that embedded overt pronouns cannot have main clause quantified NPs as their antecedent in Japanese?

The organization of this paper is as follows: section II presents the experiment, methodology, results, section III presents the discussion, and section IV presents the concluding remarks.

## II. EXPERIMENT

The study compares five experimental groups: (i) a native control group; (ii) a group of 2<sup>nd</sup> year L2 Japanese students; (iii) a group of 3<sup>rd</sup> year L2 Japanese students; (iv) a group of 4<sup>th</sup> year L2 Japanese students; (v) a group of 5<sup>th</sup> year L2 Japanese students.

### A. Participants

Forty-one native English speaking JFL learners (11 participants in 2<sup>nd</sup> year Japanese (280 instructional hours), 12 in 3<sup>rd</sup> year (350 hrs), 9 in 4<sup>th</sup> year (550 hrs), 9 in 5<sup>th</sup> year (beyond 600 hrs)), and twenty Japanese native speakers (the control group) participated in the experiment. The participants were students taking Japanese language classes at a large midwestern university in the United States. The native speaker control group consisted of either graduate students at the same university or people who had studied at an American university for at least one year. All of the native speaker participants had finished their primary and secondary education in Japan and are fluent in English. Both the JFL learner group and the native speaker control group were recruited for participation by the experimenter either through direct means, which involved recruiting participants from their Japanese classes, or through e-mail solicitation. All of the participants were paid a nominal fee for their participation.

In Kanno's (1997, 1998) studies her participants were those who had 52 weeks of Japanese instruction. In the present study, the lowest level (Level 2) had approximately 280 hours of Japanese instruction, and was in the third quarter of their second year of Japanese study. As in Kanno's studies none of the Level 2 participants had ever lived in Japan or with a native speaker.

### B. Methodology

The experiment employed a coreference judgment task in the form of a written questionnaire modeled after the one used in Kanno (1997, 1998). The participants were instructed to read the test sentences and answer a question that would determine their interpretation of the subject in the embedded clause. The answers were displayed in a multiple-choice format. The instructions clearly explained that the participants had the option of choosing answer (a), answer (b) or *both* (a) and (b) (hereafter referred to as answer (c)). The instructions were written in English and the test sentences were written in Japanese (*hiragana*, *katakana* and *kanji*). All of the vocabulary items were those that the students had previously studied. *Furigana* was listed over all of the words written in *kanji* to ensure that the students could read all of the sentences. The same questionnaire was given to both the JFL learners and the native speaker control group. The subjects were given the questionnaires to take home and complete at their leisure and then collected via written submission or e-mail at a later date.

The test sentences discussed in this paper comprised 4 types. Type 1: 3 sentences containing the quantified NP antecedent *dare* with an overt pronoun (*kare/kanozyo*). Type 2: 3 sentences containing the quantified NP antecedent *dare* with an empty pronoun. Type 3: 5 sentences containing the quantified NP antecedent *dono X mo* with an overt pronoun (*kare/kanozyo*). Type 4: 5 sentences containing the quantified NP antecedent *dono X mo* with an empty pronoun. The following are examples of the test sentences. The correct possible answers are in bold:

#### (2) [Type 1] **Overt pronoun with a quantified NP (*dare*) antecedent**

Dare-ga kinoo [kare-ga eewaziten-o kasita to itteiru n desu ka].

Who-NOM yesterday he-NOM English-Japanese dictionary-ACC lent that is saying that COP Q

'Who is saying that he lent the English-Japanese dictionary yesterday?'

Q: Dare-ga kinoo eewaziten-o kasita n desyoo ka.

Who-NOM yesterday English-Japanese dictionary-ACC lent that suppose Q

'Who do you suppose lent the English-Japanese dictionary yesterday?'

a) same as *dare*    **b) another person**    c) both (a) and (b)

#### (3) [Type 2] **Empty pronoun with a quantified NP (*dare*) antecedent**

Dare-ga kyoo [bideo-o miseru to] itteiru n desu ka].

Who-NOM today video-ACC show that is saying that COP Q

'Who said that (he) will show the video today?'

Q: Dare-ga kyoo bideo-o miseru n desyoo ka.  
Who-NOM today video-ACC show that suppose Q  
Who do you suppose will show the video today?

a) same as *dare* b) another person c) both (a) and (b)

(4) [Type 3] **Overt pronoun with a quantified NP (*dono X mo*) antecedent**

Dono ueetoresu-mo [kanozyo-ga Zyonson-san-ni denwa-suru to] itteimasu yo].

Which waitress-too she-NOM Johnson-DAT call-do that is saying  
'Every waitress is saying that she will call Johnson.'

Q: Dare-ga denwa-suru n desyoo ka.

Who-NOM call-do that suppose Q

'Who do you suppose will call?'

a) same as *dono ueetoresu* b) another person c) both (a) and (b)

(5) [Type 4] **Empty pronoun with a quantified NP (*dono X mo*) antecedent**

Dono daigakusee-mo rainen [huransugo-o toru to] itteimasu yo].

Which college student-too next year French-ACC take that is saying  
'Every college student is saying that next year (he) will take French.'

Q: Dare-ga huransugo-o toru n desyoo ka.

Who-Nom French-ACC take that suppose Q

'Who do you suppose will take French?'

a) same as *dono daigakusee* b) another person c) both (a) and (b)

Sentences of Types 1 and 3 contain a quantified NP antecedent (*dare* and *dono X mo* respectively) with an embedded overt pronoun (*kare/kanozyo*). Accordingly, the correct answer for these sentence types is (b). Sentences of Types 2 and 4 contain a quantified NP antecedent with an embedded empty pronoun, and accordingly, the correct answer for these sentence types can be either (a), (b) or (c). This is because these particular sentences are ambiguous in the sense that there are two possible interpretations: (i) coreferential reference and (ii) disjoint reference. Coreferential reference would be the interpretation where the empty pronoun takes the question word/quantifier as its antecedent. Disjoint reference would be the interpretation where the empty pronoun takes a sentence external antecedent.

### C. Results of QNP Sentences: Type 1

Let us compare the results of the Type 1 sentences (*dare* with an overt pronoun) across all of the five JFL learner groups and the native speaker control group. The results are shown in Table I.

TABLE I.  
RESULTS FOR QNP DARE OVERT (TYPE 1) SENTENCES

Level	Answer (a)	Answer (b)	Answer (c)
L2 (n=11)	21/33 (63.6%)	11/33 (33.3%)	1/33 (3%)
L3 (n=12)	9/36 (25%)	26/36 (72.2%)	1/36 (2.8%)
L4 (n=9)	3/27 (11.1%)	21/27 (77.8%)	3/27 (11.1%)
L5 (n=9)	0/27 (0%)	26/27 (96.3%)	1/27 (3.7%)
Natives (n=20)	0/60 (0%)	56/60 (93.3%)	4/60 (6.7%)

In Levels 2 to 5, we see that Level 2 had the highest number of errors with 63.6% followed by a decrease in errors from Levels 3 to 5. Level 3 made errors 25% of the time, followed by 11.1% of the time in Level 4. The Level 5 group contained the lowest number of errors at 0% or at most 3.7% when (a) and (c) are combined. Comparatively, the number of correct rejections of the quantified NP (*dare*) as the antecedent of the overt pronoun was the lowest in Level 2 with 33.3% followed by an increase in the higher levels with 72.2% in Level 3, 77.8% in Level 4, and 96.3% in Level 5. The native speaker control group made slightly more errors than the L5 group, however, they were comparable in that in both groups, no participants chose answer (a) only. However, the native speakers chose answer (c) higher (6.7%) than the L5 learners (3.7%). Although the native speakers did make some errors, their responses were still consistently accurate.

A one-way ANOVA reveals that the JFL and native speaker groups' (a) and (c) responses were significantly different ( $F(4,178)=16.705$ ,  $p<.001$ ). A post-hoc Bonferroni test revealed a significant difference between the native speaker group and Level 2 ( $p<.001$ ). Level 2 also showed a significant difference with Levels 3 to 5 (all  $p<.001$ ). No significant difference was found between the native speaker group and Level 3 ( $p=.069$ ).

A one-way ANOVA of the Type 1 sentence percentages of students who chose only answer (a) showed a significant difference ( $F(4,178)=21.128$ ,  $p<.001$ ).<sup>3</sup> A post-hoc Bonferroni test resulted in a significant difference between the native speaker group and each of Level 2 ( $p<.001$ ), Level 3 ( $p<.05$ ), and Level 4 ( $p=.047$ ). Significant differences were also found between the Level 2 group and each of Levels 3 – 5 (all  $p<.001$ ).

The percentage of individuals that consistently had incorrect (2 or more) responses by level. Incorrect responses were

<sup>3</sup>The total number of strictly (a) answers for Level 2 was 21 ( $M = 1.91$ ,  $SD = 1.04$ ). The total number of strictly (a) answers for Level 3 was 9 ( $M = 0.75$ ,  $SD = 1.06$ ). The total number of strictly (a) answers for Level 4 was 3 ( $M = 0.33$ ,  $SD = 0.71$ ). The total number of strictly (a) answers for both Level 5 and the native speakers was 0.

considered to be those responses other than (b) (i.e., choice (a) or (c)). These percentages are as follows: Level 2, 8 participants (73%), Level 3, 3 participants (25%), Level 4, 2 participants (22%), Level 5, 0 participants (0%), Native participants, 0 (0%). From these percentages, we can see that the Level 2 learners had the highest number of consistently incorrect responses at 73%. The lowest percentage of consistently incorrect responses was found in Level 5 at 0%. This percentage was the same as for the Native participants. The percentages show that the percentage of inconsistently incorrect answers decreases by level from Level 2 to 5.

#### D. Results of QNP Sentences: Type 3

Table II shows the percentages of the Type 3 sentences (*dono X mo* with an overt pronoun) across all of the levels.

TABLE II  
RESULTS FOR QNP *DONO* OVERT (TYPE 3) SENTENCES

Level	Answer (a)	Answer (b)	Answer (c)
L2 (n=11)	21/55 (38.2%)	26/55 (47.3%)	8/55 (14.5%)
L3 (n=12)	12/60 (20%)	35/60 (58.3%)	13/60 (21.7%)
L4 (n=9)	9/45 (20%)	30/45 (66.7%)	6/45 (13.3%)
L5 (n=9)	1/45 (2.2%)	39/45 (86.7%)	5/45 (11.1%)
Natives (n=20)	10/100 (10%)	84/100 (84%)	6/100 (6%)

From the results, we can see that Level 2 had the highest number of errors with 38.2% and Level 5 had the lowest number of violations with 2.2%. In fact, the Level 5 learners surpassed the native speaker control group in overall correct responses, but this was likely due to the fact that Level 5 had fewer participants (9) as compared to the native speakers (20). The Level 5 students also chose both answer (a) and (b) more (11.1%) than the native speaker control group (6%).

Interestingly, Level 3 and Level 4 had the same number of incorrect (a) responses at 20%. However, the number of correct (b) responses was lower in Level 3 (58.3%) than in Level 4 (66.7%). The percentages for (c) responses was also higher in Level 3 than in Level 4 which shows that the Level 3 students were more likely to accept choice (a) as well as (b) as a possible correct answer more than the Level 4 participants. What we see in the results is a general trend for the Level 2 learners to treat the quantified NPs as viable antecedents for the overt pronouns in both the Type 1 and Type 3 sentences, and that as the level of the JFL learners increases, the number of correct rejections of the (a) answers decreases.

A one-way ANOVA reveals that the JFL and native speaker groups were significantly different in their (a) and (c) answers ( $F(4,300)=9.112$ ,  $p<.001$ ). A post-hoc Bonferroni test showed that the native speaker group was significantly different in their (a) and (c) answers from the Level 2 and Level 3 groups ( $p<.001$  and  $p<.05$ , respectively). Both Levels 2 and 3 showed a significant difference from Level 5 ( $p<.001$  and  $p<.05$ , respectively).

Examining the strictly answer (a) percentages for the Type 3 sentences resulted in a significant difference ( $F(4,300)=7.603$ ,  $p<.001$ ).<sup>4</sup> A post-hoc Bonferroni test showed a significant difference between the native speaker group and Level 2 ( $p<.001$ ). The Level 2 and 3 groups showed no significant difference ( $p=.079$ ), but the Level 2 and 5 groups did show a significant difference ( $p<.001$ ).

The percentage of participants that had consistently incorrect (3 or more) responses by level are as follows: Level 2, 7 learners (64%), Level 3, 6 learners (50%), Level 4, 3 learners (33%), Level 5, 1 learner (11%), Native participants, 3 (15%). In other words, seventeen out of fifty-one learners were consistently wrong. These results indicate that the Level 2 learners had the highest percentage of consistently incorrect responses (64%) while the Level 5 learners had the lowest percentage of incorrect ones (11%).

#### E. Comparison of Type 1 and Type 3 Sentences

Comparing the results from the Type 1 (QNP *dare* overt) and Type 3 (QNP *dono* overt) sentences, we see that for both sentence types the Level 2 participants made the most errors in comparison with Levels 3 to 5. They also were significantly different in their responses from both the Level 5 participants and the native speaker control group. What is also observed is that as the level of the JFL learners increases, the number of errors decreases, which indicates that the Level 2 learners are utilizing a transfer strategy in their treatment of the overt pronouns, but learners at higher levels acquire the knowledge of the bound variable readings. This is in support of Masumoto and Nakayama (2009) and Pimentel and Nakayama's (2012a) claims that it takes time for JFL learners to learn that *kare/kanozoyo* cannot take a bound variable reading.

A comparison of strictly (a) or (b) answers for each of the two sentence types shows that in Level 3, Level 4, and Level 5, the Type 1 sentences showed a higher percentage of correct (b) answers, but for the Level 2 group this percentage was higher in the Type 3 sentences. Similar to Level 3 to Level 5, the native speaker control group's responses revealed a higher percentage of correct (b) answers in the Type 1 sentences (93.3% versus 84% in Type 3).

Comparing the individual responses, we see that the Level 2 learners had the highest percentage of errors with 73%

<sup>4</sup>The total number of strictly (a) answers for Level 2 was 21 ( $M = 1.91$ ,  $SD = 1.22$ ). The total number of strictly (a) answers for Level 3 was 12 ( $M = 1.0$ ,  $SD = 1.41$ ). The total number of strictly (a) answers for Level 4 was 10 ( $M = 1.0$ ,  $SD = 1.32$ ). The total number of strictly (a) answers for Level 5 was 1 ( $M = 0.11$ ,  $SD = 0.33$ ). The total number of strictly (a) answers for the native speakers was 10 ( $M = 0.5$ ,  $SD = 1.0$ ).

in both the Type 1 and Type 3 sentences. This was followed by a general decrease in the number of errors from Level 3 to Level 5. In the case of both sentence types, the Level 5 learners had the lowest percentage of consistently incorrect responses. Although the percentage of errors was higher for the Type 3 sentences for Levels 3 to 5 and the Native speaker group, this could have been due to the higher number of overall questions in the Type 3 sentences.

Eight out of the 51 JFL learners got two out of the three Type 1 sentences, and three out of the four Type 3 sentences wrong. In other words, 8 JFL learners chose consistently incorrect answers for both the Type 1 and 3 sentences. Out of these eight learners, five were in Level 2, two were in Level 3, and one was in Level 4. None of the Level 5 learners made consistently incorrect answers across both sentence types.

#### F. Type 1 and Type 3 Sentences Combined

Table III below shows the results of the Type 1 and 3 sentences combined.

TABLE III.  
RESULTS OF TYPE 1 AND 3 SENTENCES COMBINED

Level	Answer (a)	Answer (b)	Answer (c)
L2 (n=11)	42/88 (47.7%)	37/88 (42.1%)	9/88 (10.2%)
L3 (n=12)	21/96 (21.9%)	61/96 (63.5%)	14/96 (14.6%)
L4 (n=9)	12/72 (16.7%)	51/72 (70.8%)	9/72 (12.5%)
L5 (n=9)	1/72 (1.4%)	65/72 (90.3%)	6/72 (8.3%)
Natives (n=20)	10/160 (6.25%)	140/160 (87.5%)	10/160 (6.25%)

The results show that the Level 2 learners made the most errors at 47.7% and accepted answer (c) 10.2% of the time. The Level 5 learners made the lowest number of errors at 1.4% choosing answer (a), 90.3% choosing answer (b) and 8.3% choosing answer (c). The native speaker control group made more errors than the Level 5 learners (6.25% and 1.4% respectively for answer (a) only). The percentage of errors was higher in Level 3 (21.9%) as compared with Level 4 (16.7%). The combined percentages show that there was a decrease in the number of overall errors from Level 2 to Level 5.

Let us now look at the number of individuals who made consistent errors in both the Type 1 and Type 3 sentences. These numbers are as follows: Level 2, 5 learners (45%), Level 3, 2 learners (17%), Level 4, 1 learner (11%), and Level 5, 0.<sup>5</sup> These results show a decrease in the number of consistent errors by group indicating that over time and with exposure to Japanese, the learners are gaining knowledge that overt pronouns cannot be bound by quantified NP antecedents.

#### G. Results of Type 2 Sentences

Table IV lists the results for the Type 2 sentences. These sentences contained an empty pronoun with *dare*. In these sentences the participants had to decide whether the empty pronoun would be coreferential with the quantified NP antecedent *dare* or an extra-sentential referent. All the answers below are correct and show the preferences of the participants.

TABLE IV.  
RESULTS OF QNP DARE EMPTY (TYPE 2) SENTENCES

Level	Answer (a)	Answer (b)	Answer (c)
L2 (n=11)	23/33 (69.7%)	8/33 (24.2%)	2/33 (6.1%)
L3 (n=12)	28/36 (77.8%)	8/36 (22.2%)	0/36 (0%)
L4 (n=9)	22/27 (81.5%)	2/27 (7.4%)	3/27 (11.1%)
L5 (n=9)	12/27 (44.5%)	5/27 (18.5%)	10/27 (37%)
Natives (n=20)	27/60 (45%)	22/60 (36.7%)	11/60 (18.3%)

As per the results, we can see that all of the JFL learners and the native speaker control group showed a higher preference for the intra-sentential quantified NP antecedent *dare* to be the antecedent of the empty pronoun. Interestingly, the answer (a) responses rose from Level 2 to Level 4 (L2: 69.7%, L3: 77.8%, L4: 81.5%). The percentage of answer (b) responses also decreased by level from Level 2 to Level 4 (L2: 24.2%, L3: 22.2%, L4: 7.4%). The percentage of (c) responses was lowest in Level 3 (0%) and highest in Level 5 (37%). These results indicate that the JFL learners prefer the quantified NP to be the antecedent of *kare/kanozzyo*. Comparing the Level 5 learners with the native speakers, we find that both groups showed higher percentages for answer (a) (44.5% and 45% respectively), but that the native speaker group percentage for answer (b) was higher.

A one-way ANOVA showed the groups were significantly different in their (a) and (c) answers ( $F(4,178)=2.481$ ,  $p<.05$ ). A post-hoc Bonferroni test showed that the native speaker control group was significantly different from Level 4 ( $p<.05$ ).

Now let us look at the number of participants that consistently chose (a) (two out of three times). The percentages by level are as follows: Level 2, 8 learners (73%), Level 3, 10 learners (83%), Level 4, 9 learners (100%), Level 5, 3

<sup>5</sup>The sum of strictly (a) answers for the Type 1 plus the Type 3 sentences in Level 2 was 42 ( $M = 3.82$ ,  $SD = 1.78$ ). For Level 3, the sum was 21 ( $M = 1.75$ ,  $SD = 1.86$ ). For Level 4, the sum was 12 ( $M = 1.33$ ,  $SD = 1.22$ ). For Level 5, the sum was 1 ( $M = 0.11$ ,  $SD = 0.33$ ). For the native speakers, the sum was 10 ( $M = 0.5$ ,  $SD = 1.0$ ).

learners (44%), and Native participants, 9 (45%). The percentages for participants that consistently chose (b) (two out of three times) by level are as follows: Level 2, 2 learners (18%), Level 3, 2 learners (17%), Level 4, 0 learners (0%), Level 5, 1 learner (11%), and Native participants, 8 (40%). The percentages for participants that consistently chose (c) (two out of three times) by level are as follows: Level 2, 1 learner (9%), Level 3, 0 learners (0%), Level 4, 0 learners (0%), Level 5, 3 learners (33%), and Native participants, 3 (15%).

These results showed that the JFL learners had a generally high preference for the QNP *dare* to be the antecedent of the empty pronoun. An increase was found in the percentage of (a) answers from Levels 2 to 4. However, the Level 5 participants showed the lowest consistency for (a) answers (45%) and the highest consistency for (c) answers (33%). The Native speakers showed a higher consistency for (a) answers (40%) than (b) answers (45%) with (c) showing the least consistency (15%) in this group. The higher percentage of consistently (a) answers for Levels 2 to 4 indicates a much higher preference for (a) answers among these groups.

#### H. Results of Type 4 Sentences

The results of the Type 4 sentences in Table V show that the JFL learners showed a higher percentage of (a) responses with comparison to (b) and (c) across the four groups. This means that the JFL learners showed a higher preference for the quantified NP *dono X mo* to be the antecedent of the empty pronoun in contrast with either an extra-sentential antecedent (answer (b)) or both the quantified NP and an extra-sentential antecedent (answer (c)).

TABLE V.  
RESULTS FOR QNP *DONO X MO* EMPTY (TYPE 4) SENTENCES

Level	Answer (a)	Answer (b)	Answer (c)
L2 (n=11)	34/55 (61.8%)	11/55 (20%)	10/55 (18.2%)
L3 (n=12)	33/60 (55%)	3/60 (5%)	24/60 (40%)
L4 (n=9)	29/45 (64.4%)	10/45 (22.2%)	6/45 (13.4%)
L5 (n=9)	23/45 (51.1%)	4/45 (8.9%)	18/45 (40%)
Natives (n=20)	90/100 (90%)	2/100 (2%)	8/100 (8%)

In comparing answer (c) across the JFL learner groups, we see that the highest percentages for this choice were in Level 3 and Level 5 (40% each), and the lower percentages were in Level 2 and Level 4 (18.2% and 13.4% respectively). The native speaker control group showed a strong preference for the quantified NP to be the antecedent of the empty pronoun (answer (a)) at 90%. They only chose answer (b) and answer (c) 2% and 8% of the time, respectively. A one-way ANOVA revealed a significant difference in the (a) and (c) answers ( $F(4,300)=6.043, p<.001$ ). A post-hoc Bonferroni test showed that the native speaker group's responses were significantly different from the Level 2 and Level 4 groups ( $p<.05$  and  $p<.001$ , respectively). The Level 2 and Level 3 groups did not show a significant difference ( $p=.057$ ), but the Level 3 and Level 4 groups did show a significant difference ( $p<.05$ ).

The percentages for participants that consistently chose (a) are as follows: Level 2, 7 learners (64%), Level 3, 8 learners (67%), Level 4, 6 learners (67%), Level 5, 6 learners (67%), and Native participants, 19 (95%). From this we can see that the percentage of learners that chose (a) consistently differed very little from Levels 2 to 5. The percentages of learners that chose (b) consistently by level are as follows: Level 2, 1 learner (9%), Level 3, 0, Level 4, 2 learners (22%), Level 5, 0, and Native participants, 0. The percentages of learners that chose (c) consistently by level are as follows: Level 2, 3 learners (27%), Level 3, 4 learners (33%), Level 4, 1 learner (11%), Level 5, 3 learners (33%), and Native participants, 1 (5%).

For the percentages of participants that consistently chose (a), an increase in the number of individuals by level from Level 2 to 4 was observed in the Type 2 sentences, but this was not the case in the Type 4 sentences. Rather, in the Type 4 sentences, the percentages of individuals that consistently chose (a) were very similar across the levels (Level 2, 64%, Level 3, 67%, Level 4, 67%, Level 5, 67%). The number of individuals that consistently chose (c) also increased in the Type 4 sentences but remained the same in Level (5).

#### I. Results of Type 2 and Type 4 Sentences Combined

Table VI lists the results for both the Type 2 and Type 4 sentences combined.

TABLE VI.  
RESULTS OF TYPE 2 AND 4 SENTENCES COMBINED

Level	Answer (a)	Answer (b)	Answer (c)
L2 (n=11)	57/88 (64.8%)	19/88 (21.6%)	12/88 (13.6%)
L3 (n=12)	61/96 (63.5%)	11/96 (11.5%)	24/96 (25%)
L4 (n=9)	51/72 (70.8%)	12/72 (16.7%)	9/72 (12.5%)
L5 (n=9)	35/72 (48.6%)	9/72 (12.5%)	28/72 (38.9%)
Natives (n=20)	117/160 (73.1%)	24/160 (15%)	19/160 (11.9%)

Levels 2 to 4 showed a high preference for (a), but the Level 5 learners showed the least preference for (a) (48.6%). Rather, they were more divided in their answers and showed the highest number of (c) answers (38.9%). This is interesting because the native speaker group showed the highest preference for (a) with only 15% for (b) and 11.9% for (c). This means that in an overall comparison of sentences containing empty pronouns with quantified NP antecedents,



the tendency was for the Level 5 learners to choose either that NP or an extra-sentential referent as the antecedent.

None of the individuals in any of the JFL groups or the Native speaker group chose all (a) responses for all of the Type 1 to 4 sentences. Only two learners in Level 2 chose (a) consistently in all of the Type 1 to 4 sentences. This suggests that most of the participants were discriminating in their choices across the different sentence types.

### III. DISCUSSION

The overall results show that 2<sup>nd</sup> year learners' judgments on sentences with overt pronouns and quantifier antecedents (i.e. Type 1 and Type 3), differ from those of the native speaker control group. The results from the sentences with empty pronouns and quantifier antecedents (i.e. Type 2 and Type 4) showed that although these sentences could be ambiguously interpreted since there was no discourse context, all groups showed a preference for choice (a). It is not clear why the native speakers did not show a high preference for option (c), although the combined Type 2 and Type 4 sentence percentages show that the Level 5 learners showed the highest preference for option (c).

### IV. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the results show that 2<sup>nd</sup> year Japanese learners treat the quantifiers as viable antecedents for the overt pronouns in the test sentences (i.e. disobeying the OPC), but that as the level of the learners increases, the number of correct rejections tends to increase, and the learners eventually acquire the OPC with more exposure to the language. This follows the findings of Masumoto (2008) and Pimentel and Nakayama (2012a) and offers further evidence against Kanno's (1997, 1998) results. The present study was limited in that it only examined learners' judgments of sentences containing overt and empty pronouns. Future research is needed to examine how JFL learners would apply empty and overt pronouns in a production task. Furthermore, from the perspectives of both comprehension and production, more studies are necessary to determine what possible input triggers there might be that account for JFL learners to eventually acquire knowledge of the correct distribution of overt and empty pronouns in Japanese.

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# The Application of Conceptual Metaphors to Teaching English Idioms to English-majored Students in Viet Nam

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**Abstract**—The discovery that several figurative idioms are semantically motivated by a common conceptual metaphor (CM) has opened up a path to more systematic and insightful learning. However, it was still unclear to what extent the elaboration of conceptual metaphors (CMs) could facilitate learners' reception and production of idioms over time. To address this issue, a quasi-experiment was conducted, with the pre-test – post-test design, on a sample of 69 Vietnamese undergraduates. Results revealed that the explanation of CM was especially beneficial for the students' idiom reception over time, and to a lesser extent for their use of idioms. Though not outstanding in the short term compared with the traditional method, this cognitive approach showed its relatively long-lasting value in terms of both idiom reception and production.

**Index Terms**— idioms, conceptual metaphors, CM-inspired instruction, reception, production

## I. INTRODUCTION

An English native speaker may use approximately 20 million idioms throughout his or her lifetime of 60 years (Cooper, 1998). Due to their pervasiveness, the lack of idiomatic knowledge can be a great hindrance to EFL learners' communication with native speakers and their progress in achieving native-like fluency.

The problem is that English idioms are “notoriously difficult” to learn due to their “rather rigid structure, quite unpredictable meaning and fairly extensive use” (Liu, 2003, p. 671). Besides, idioms are not only cross-linguistic, but also cross-cultural phenomena (Kövecses, 2002). Even a learner with profound knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary still has difficulties in comprehending and using idioms if he or she is not aware of the cultural diversity underlying these expressions.

Despite the importance of learning English idioms and the learners' difficulties when facing them, this area of language is often ignored in EFL classrooms and textbooks. Many teachers in Vietnam even have a tendency to avoid using or teaching idioms in classroom since they believe that idioms are too difficult for learners, which leads to Vietnamese students' poor idiomatic competence (Tran, 2013).

Due to the alleged arbitrary nature of idioms and their fixed structures, rote memorization appeared to be the only way for learners to acquire these expressions, which were believed to be “isolated” and “independent of any conceptual system” (Kövecses, 2002, p. 200). However, since 1980, cognitive linguistics has proved that idioms are not arbitrary; it is, in fact, rooted in human thought and perception (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). According to the Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT), idioms are not dead metaphors and the occurrence of particular words in idiomatic expressions is, to some extent, semantically motivated by conceptual metaphor (CM) – a central concept in Cognitive Linguistics, opening up a new path to more systematic and insightful learning. This finding is an inspiration for the current research, the aims of which can be addressed through the following research questions:

(1) To what extent does the application of conceptual metaphors facilitate English-majored students' reception of the target idioms over time?

(2) To what extent does the application of conceptual metaphors facilitate English-majored students' production of the target idioms over time?

In this study, the application of CMs is proposed as a promising method to present idioms to EFL students, shortly referred to as the CM-inspired instruction as compared to the traditional instruction that encourages rote learning. Due to the limitation of the study, the term “reception” is used to refer to the recognition and comprehension of idiomatic expressions in reading context (rather than listening) and “production” is involved in the recall and use of idioms in writing (rather than speaking).

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Conceptual Metaphor

The primary function of metaphor is to aid the understanding of one concept in terms of another, typically a more abstract and unfamiliar concept (i.e. target domain) in terms of a more concrete, physical and familiar concept (i.e. source domain) (Kövecses, 2002). Owing to its important function, metaphor is found to be “pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 3). It is, therefore, necessary for EFL learners to build a large repertoire of figurative expressions for comprehension and use. This inevitably leads to the quest for effective methods of teaching and learning idiomatic language.

A conceptual metaphor is defined as a cross-domain mapping, i.e. “a fixed set of ontological correspondences between entities in a source domain and entities in a target domain” and is expressed as TARGET-DOMAIN IS SOURCE-DOMAIN or TARGET-DOMAIN AS SOURCE-DOMAIN, in which capital letters is used as mnemonics to name mappings (Lakoff, 1993, p. 245). These cognitive mappings of metaphors are tightly structured and asymmetric. The following table shows an example of the mapping of ANGER AS HEATED FLUID IN A CONTAINER.

TABLE I.  
ONTOLOGICAL CORRESPONDENCES OF ANGER AS HEATED FLUID IN A CONTAINER

ANGER IS HEATED FLUID IN A CONTAINER		Metaphorical expressions
Source domain: HEATED FLUID IN A CONTAINER	Target domain: ANGER	
The container	The body	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• He was <i>filled with anger</i>.</li> <li>• She was <i>brimming with rage</i>.</li> </ul>
The heated fluid	The anger	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• His <i>pent-up anger welled up</i> inside him.</li> <li>• Her rudeness <i>made my blood boil</i>.</li> </ul>
Heat scale	Anger scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Let him <i>stew</i>.</li> <li>• Racial tension <i>reached boiling point</i>.</li> </ul>
Pressure in container	Internal pressure in the body	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• He was <i>bursting with anger</i>.</li> <li>• She'll <i>flip her lid</i> when she finds out.</li> </ul>
Explosion	Loss of control	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I'm sorry I <i>blew up</i> at you.</li> </ul>
Coolness in the fluid	Lack of anger	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>Simmer</i> down!</li> </ul>

(adapted from Kövecses, 1986, pp. 17-18)

It can be seen that a considerable number of idioms can be traced back to a limited number of CMs, forming a coherent system of metaphorical concepts. For instance, all the expressions *flip one's lid*, *reach boiling point* and *simmer down* relate to one single conceptual metaphor ANGER IS HEATED FLUID IN A CONTAINER. Specifically, the container, e.g. a pressure cooker or an enclosed kettle, is our body. The increase in temperature and the rising of the fluid inside the container are associated with the growth in anger intensity. Intense heat creates pressure on the container, corresponding to internal pressure in the body, and an attempt being made to keep the pressure back is similar to how a person tries to control his anger. When the pressure in the container becomes extremely high, the container explodes. Likewise, when anger is too intense, the person loses control and explodes. These reasonable ontological correspondences and elaborations thanks to the discovery of CMs have provided a guarantee for a more systematic and insightful learning of idiomatic expressions.

### B. The Application of Conceptual Metaphors to Teaching Idioms

In recent years, there has been growing interest in contrastive analysis of CMs in English and Vietnamese metaphorical and idiomatic expressions (Nguyen, 2015; Nguyen, 2016; Pham, 2016; Dinh, 2017; Ha, 2018). The findings from their research generally support and further develop the CMT, building a sound foundation for the application of CMs to EFL teaching in Vietnamese context. However, so far, there seems to be little empirical research on the pedagogic advantage of the application of CMs to idiomatic acquisition.

Beyond the boundary of Vietnam, several empirical researches have been conducted in order to explore how to employ the cognitive approach effectively to teach English vocabulary and idiomatic language in particular.

The major theme running through several studies is that metaphor awareness can enhance idiomatic competence (Kömür & Çimen, 2009; Vasiljevic, 2011; Doiz & Elizari, 2013; Khoshniyat & Dowlatabadi, 2014; Kartal & Uner, 2017; Pérez, 2018; Chen, 2019). Though the use of CMs is proved to be beneficial to idiom acquisition, their effects over time are still a matter for debate.

In Vasiljevic (2011), the students' idiomatic knowledge was measured in terms of both recognition and production. There were two groups: the experimental group (EG), which received the CM-grounded instruction, and the control group (CG), which was exposed to the traditional method, i.e. memorizing idioms in a list. As regards the receptive knowledge test administered immediately after the instruction and four weeks later, the EG only performed better than the CG when imperfect answers, i.e. “correctly selected idioms” without entirely correct forms, together with perfect answers, were also considered as correct. The result of the productive knowledge test was rather different: the EG significantly outperformed the CG regardless of whether the imperfect answers were counted or not in both immediate and delayed post-tests, except the case of strict marking in the delayed post-test. However, a study by Doiz and Elizari (2013) provided different results from the findings of Vasiljevic (2011). In this study, the EG outperformed the CG in terms of comprehension and short-term retention of idiomatic meaning and form. However, concerning the longer-term effect, the EG did not maintain its superiority. In Kömür & Çimen's (2009), Kartal & Uner (2017), and Chen (2019) the EG outperformed the CG in the acquisition and retention of figurative idiomatic expressions, including phrasal verbs,

but the question about the learners' long-term retention of the taught expressions remained unanswered. In sum, the conflicting findings among previous studies seemed to add to the general confusion about this issue rather than solve it adequately.

Such inconsistent conclusions from prior studies may have resulted from problems in research methodology, including the lack of a delayed post-test (as in K m  r &  imen, 2009; Kartal & Uner, 2017; and Chen, 2019), no control group (as in K m  r &  imen, 2009 and P  rez, 2018), inadequate exposure to the CM instruction, i.e. only one or two lessons (as in Doiz & Elizari, 2013 and Chen, 2019). Besides, the treatment in Khoshniyat & Dowlatbadi (2014) included both the explicit teaching of CMs and Disney movies as the manifestation of the CMs, which led to the uncertainty about whether the positive results from the tests were actually due to the combination of CM instruction and Disney movies or simply the fascination of the movies themselves. Moreover, not all CMs can be illustrated with movie scenes, which made the method inapplicable to several cases.

Given the unresolved problems in the research methodology and the inconsistent findings of previous studies, the researcher felt there was a need to improve the research methodology for more valid conclusions about the effect of the cognitive semantic approach over time. Moreover, due to lack of research and practice regarding this issue in the context of Vietnam, a study conducted in Vietnam was of importance to promote the pedagogic application of CMs to teaching idiomatic expressions.

### C. Theoretical and Empirical Guidelines for the Study

Based on the findings and suggestions from previous research, this study proposed the following sequence of steps when applying CMs to teaching idioms:

- (1) introduce the notion of CM
- (2) activate the source domain vocabulary
- (3) explain the ontological mappings of CMs
- (4) guide learners to apply CMs to interpret idiom meaning
- (5) refine or rectify their interpretations

## III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### A. Participants

This study was conducted at a public university named Thu Dau Mot University, Binh Duong Province, Viet Nam. 99 English-majored students from two intact classes volunteered to take extra hours to participate in the research. One class was randomly selected as the control group who was instructed in the traditional way, i.e. rote learning, whereas the other was the experimental group who learned the target idioms under the CM-inspired instruction.

In order to guarantee the comparability of the two groups in terms of English proficiency and idiomatic knowledge, the Quick Placement Test (QPT) (UCLES, 2001) and the Idiom Knowledge pre-test were administered to the classes. Among 99 sophomores, only 71 students who reached the intermediate or upper-intermediate level (equivalent to B1 and B2 CEFR) were selected as participants of the study because idioms are multi-word and, in most cases, non-literal fixed expressions, which require learners to have a good command of English to fully understand their figurative meanings (Liu, 2003; Boers, 2013). Throughout the experiment, two students who missed the post-tests were excluded from the study. As a result, the total number of the participants was 69.

The description of the participants is summarized in Table II, which shows that the two groups shared a large number of similarities regarding their age range, gender and English proficiency.

TABLE II.  
DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS

		Control group (CG)		Experimental group (EG)	
		Raw count	Percentage	Raw count	Percentage
Number of students		34	100%	35	100%
Gender	Male	5	15.6%	5	14.7%
	Female	29	84.4%	30	85.3%
Age	20	30	87.5%	32	91.2%
	21	4	12.5%	3	8.8%
English Proficiency	B1	25	75%	28	79.4%
	B2	9	25%	7	20.6%

The two groups were also very similar in terms of idiomatic knowledge before the treatment. In the Idiom Receptive Knowledge pre-test, the Independent T-test showed that there was no significant difference ( $t = .362$ ,  $df = 67$ , two-tailed  $p = .719 > 0.05$ ) between the mean scores of the CG and the EG (Table VII). Likewise, in the Idiom Productive Knowledge pre-test, no statistically significant difference was found, via the Mann-Whitney U Test, in the two groups' scores irrespective of marking methods ( $U = 577.000$ ,  $N1 = 34$ ,  $N2 = 35$ , two-tailed  $p = .541 > 0.05$ ) (Table III) as the students could hardly deal with any question in the test before the teaching instruction.

TABLE III.  
RESULTS OF THE MANN-WHITNEY U TEST IN THE PRODUCTIVE IDIOM KNOWLEDGE PRE-TEST

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Strict marking	577.000	1207.000	-.612	.541
Less strict marking	577.000	1207.000	-.612	.541

### B. Teaching Materials

Ten CMs, i.e. HAPPY IS UP and SAD IS DOWN, ANGER IS HEATED FLUID IN A CONTAINER and ANGER IS FIRE, LIFE IS A JOURNEY and LIFE IS A GAMBLING GAME, RELATIONSHIP IS A JOURNEY and RELATIONSHIP IS A LIVING ORGANISM, BUSINESS IS WAR and AN ORGANIZATION IS A GARDEN, were selected for the study, together with 60 idiomatic expressions, each of which was motivated by one of the CMs above. In each lesson, the EG was introduced to 2 CMs related to one semantic topic, e.g. happiness/sadness, anger, life, etc.

Rather than teaching all the target idioms within one or two intensive lessons as previous research, the experiment of this study was spread out over five lessons so that the students were not overloaded with such heavy memory work. In each lesson, the two groups were introduced to 11-13 idioms related to one semantic topic. The handouts of each lesson were distributed to the participants at each meeting. There were three sections in their handouts, including (1) a short story or extracts from newspapers, books, etc. that provided contexts and illustrated the use of most of the target idioms in the lesson, (2) the explanation of the idioms that appeared in the story or extracts as well as other expressions of the same topic, and (3) controlled and freer practice of the target idioms. The first and the third sections in the handouts were the same for two groups; the only difference was found in the second section, concerning the inclusion of CM-inspired instruction and the organization of the target idioms.

Unlike the EG which received the CM-inspired instruction, following a sequence of 5 steps, the CG inferred the meaning of the new idioms by using the contexts given in the reading texts, and then got correction from the instructor. In addition, while the CG had the target idioms organized in alphabetical order in the list of new phrases and was given time to memorize them, the EG learned the idioms in two subsets, categorized by CM and was encouraged to apply CM to interpret and elaborate the meanings of the target expressions.

### C. Research Instrument

The Idiom Knowledge Test was designed to measure the subjects' knowledge, including receptive knowledge and productive knowledge, of the idioms taught in the experiment.

TABLE IV  
SUMMARY OF ITEM TYPES IN THE IDIOM KNOWLEDGE TEST

Idiom Knowledge Test		Item type (in each sub-test)	Section	Item sub-type (in each section)
Sub-test 1	RECEPTIVE KNOWLEDGE TEST	30 selected-response items	Section A	20 multiple-choice items
			Section B	10 gap-filling items (with selection from banks)
Sub-test 2	PRODUCTIVE KNOWLEDGE TEST	30 constructed-response items	Section C	15 gap-filling items (with no bank)
			Section D	15 sentence transformation items

The validity of the test was confirmed by the supervisor and advisor of the researcher. To ensure its reliability, the test was piloted on 25 students of the same population, using the test-retest method. The correlation coefficient of .805 ascertained the high reliability of the test. The internal consistency among the test items was also evaluated with the alpha coefficient of reliability. The Cronbach's alpha ( $\alpha$ ) for each subtest and the average alpha for the whole test was all above .800, which were above the borderline of acceptability. Because of its stability over time and high internal consistency, this test was used as pre-test and post-tests in the main study.

The total score of the test was 60 for 60 items, including 30 for receptive knowledge test and 30 for productive knowledge test. In order to ensure the consistency in scoring, strict grading was a requisite. However, an initial examination of the data in the productive knowledge post-tests showed that a large number of the students' responses were mostly, but not completely, correct. They managed to provide the right targeted keywords or content words but had a tendency to make a mistake in using articles and possessive adjectives, and confusing singular with plural noun form. These mistakes were taken into special consideration in this study as such mistakes did not seem to be serious as they were grammatical rather than lexical mistakes. Besides, learning is a process and learners are inclined to make several mistakes before they can become a competent language user. Thus, this study proposed two ways of marking for the productive knowledge test: (1) considering only completely correct responses and (2) including idioms which did not have an entirely correct form due to unserious grammatical mistakes.

### D. Procedure

The following steps were taken to collect the necessary data. First, the students in both groups took the QPT and the pre-test to ensure their homogeneity in terms of English proficiency and idiomatic competence. Then each group went through five lessons during five weeks in a row. There was one meeting each week, and the lesson about idiomatic language last about 60-75 minutes. After five weeks of learning idioms, the students did the immediate post-test, including two subtests, for measuring their reception and production of the taught idioms, within 60 minutes. Then, on

the fifth week after the immediate post-test, without being informed in advance, the subjects were required to take the second post-test.

Regarding the data analysis procedure, in order to find out whether the CM-inspired instruction had a significant effect on the students' receptive and productive knowledge of idioms over time, as stated in Research Question 1 and 2, a Repeated-measures ANOVA was expectedly conducted on the mean scores of the three test administrations, i.e. pre-test, post-test 1 and post-test 2, for within-group comparison. The evaluation of the effects of the application of CMs would have been incomprehensive without between-group comparison. Specifically, the Independent-Samples T Test was expected to be performed to examine the mean scores of the EG and the CG, to find out which type of instruction was more effective in facilitating the students' idiomatic knowledge.

An initial analysis of the data revealed that not all the data in this study were normally distributed. Specifically, the data in the Productive Idiom Knowledge Pre-test were found to deviate from the normal distribution. Thus, the Friedman Test and the Mann-Whitney U Test, which do not rely on the data with a normal distribution, were performed (instead of the Repeated-measures ANOVA and the Independent-Samples T Tests) whenever the statistical tests had the scores from the Productive Idiom Knowledge Pre-test as part of their data.

#### IV. RESULTS

##### A. Results of the Receptive Idiom Knowledge Test over Time

To examine whether the CM-inspired instruction facilitated the student subjects' reception of the target idioms over time, within-group and between-group comparison were made via Repeated-measures ANOVAs and Independent Samples T-Tests.

Descriptive statistics of all three test administrations and the results of the within-group comparison were presented in Tables V, VI and VII.

TABLE V.  
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE RECEPTIVE IDIOM KNOWLEDGE TEST IN 3 TEST ADMINISTRATIONS

Group	N	Pre-test		Post-test 1		Post-test 2	
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation
CG	34	5.15	3.295	24.38	3.660	18.00	3.861
EG	35	4.86	3.362	25.20	3.376	23.91	3.364

The total score of the Receptive Idiom Knowledge Test is 30.

TABLE VI.  
RESULTS OF THE REPEATED-MEASURES ANOVA FOR THE RECEPTIVE IDIOM KNOWLEDGE TEST IN 3 TEST ADMINISTRATIONS

	Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
CG	time	Sphericity	6527.196	2	3263.598	4474.652	.000	.993
	Error(time)	Assumed	48.137	66	.729			
EG	time	Sphericity	9084.362	2	4542.181	12047.241	.000	.997
	Error(time)	Assumed	25.638	68	.377			

Table VI revealed that the scores at three different testing stages were statistically different in the case of the CG ( $F(2,66) = 4474.652, p = .000 < .05$ ) and the EG ( $F(2,68) = 12047.241, p = .000 < .05$ ). Overall, the scores of both groups followed a similar pattern. As compared to the pre-test results, the participants in the CG and EG showed considerable improvement in their reception of the target idioms in both post-tests. However, five weeks of in exposure to the instruction caused a marked decline in both groups' retention of idiom meaning as compared to the immediate post-test, though the mean scores of the delayed post-test were still significantly higher than those of the pre-test ( $p = .000 < .05$ ), as shown in the Bonferroni post-hoc test result (Table VII).

TABLE VII.  
PAIRWISE COMPARISONS FOR THREE ADMINISTRATIONS OF THE RECEPTIVE IDIOM KNOWLEDGE TEST

(I) Time	(J) Time	Mean Difference (I-J)		Std. Error		Sig.	
		CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG
1	2	-19.235	-20.343	.184	.147	.000	.000
	3	-12.853	-19.057	.232	.164	.000	.000
2	1	19.235	20.343	.184	.147	.000	.000
	3	6.382	1.286	.203	.127	.000	.000
3	1	12.853	19.057	.232	.164	.000	.000
	2	-6.382	-1.286	.203	.127	.000	.000

Notes: The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

1 represents the first test administration (pre-test), 2 the second test administration (post-test 1), and 3 the third test administration (post-test 2).

To find out whether the result gained by the CG was statistically different from that of the EG in each test administration, the Independent Samples T-Test was run for between-group comparison at each time point, as summarized in Table VIII.

TABLE VIII  
RESULTS OF THE INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE RECEPTIVE IDIOM KNOWLEDGE TEST IN 3 TEST ADMINISTRATIONS

Receptive Knowledge Test			Equal variances assumed	Equal variances not assumed
Pre-test	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	F	.036	
		Sig.	.849	
	t-test for Equality of Means	t	.362	.362
		df	67	66.994
Post-test 1	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	F	.059	
		Sig.	.809	
	t-test for Equality of Means	t	-.965	-.964
		df	67	66.202
Post-test 2	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	F	1.045	
		Sig.	.310	
	t-test for Equality of Means	t	-6.790	-6.776
		df	67	65.200
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000

Results indicate that the mean score of the CG ( $M = 24.38$ ,  $SD = 3.660$ ) was not significantly higher ( $t = -.965$ ,  $df = 67$ , two-tailed  $p = .338 > .05$ ) than that of the EG ( $M = 25.20$ ,  $SD = 3.376$ ). In other words, the two types of instruction seemed to exert similar effect on the students' acquisition of idiom meanings immediately after the teaching stage. However, 5 weeks after the instruction, the EG ( $M = 23.91$ ,  $SD = 3.364$ ) gained a significantly higher score ( $t = -6.790$ ,  $df = 67$ , two-tailed  $p = .000 < .05$ ) than the CG ( $M = 18.00$ ,  $SD = 3.861$ ). Moreover, the smaller standard deviation of the EG (3.364) shown in Table V suggests that the scores of this group were more homogeneous and more consistent than that of the CG (3.861). In short, these results indicate that the CM-instruction offered more long-term benefit and yielded more consistent results than the traditional instruction in terms of idiom reception.

#### B. Results of the Productive Idiom Knowledge Test over Time

To investigate whether the CM-inspired instruction facilitated the students' production of the target idioms over time, within-group and between-group comparison were made via Friedman Test and Independent Samples T-Tests.

Descriptive statistics of all three test administrations and the results of the within-group comparison were presented in Tables IX, X and XI.

TABLE IX  
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PRODUCTIVE IDIOM KNOWLEDGE TEST IN 3 TEST ADMINISTRATIONS

		Idiom Productive Knowledge Test						
		Pre-test		Post-test 1		Post-test 2		
		Strict marking	Less strict marking	Strict marking	Less strict marking	Strict marking	Less strict marking	
CG	Mean	.06	.06	21.91	23.03	13.85	14.53	
	Std. Deviation	.239	.239	3.980	3.896	3.669	4.407	
	Percentiles	25th	.00	.00	20.00	21.00	11.75	12.00
		50th (Median)	.00	.00	22.00	24.00	15.00	15.00
75th		.00	.00	25.00	25.50	16.25	18.25	
EG	Mean	.03	.03	21.29	23.37	15.86	18.29	
	Std. Deviation	.169	.169	3.494	3.255	2.982	3.885	
	Percentiles	25th	.00	.00	19.00	21.00	14.00	16.00
		50th (Median)	.00	.00	21.00	24.00	16.00	18.00
75th		.00	.00	24.00	26.00	18.00	21.00	

The total score of the Productive Idiom Knowledge Test is 30.

TABLE X  
RESULTS OF THE FRIEDMAN TEST ON THE RESULTS OF THE PRODUCTIVE IDIOM KNOWLEDGE TEST IN 3 TEST ADMINISTRATIONS

		Strict marking	Less strict marking
CG	N	34	34
	Chi-Square	68.000	68.000
	df	2	2
	Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000
EG	N	35	35
	Chi-Square	70.000	70.000
	df	2	2
	Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000

Results indicate that there was an overall statistically significant difference among the mean ranks of the CG ( $\chi^2(2) = 68.000$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ) and among the mean ranks of the EG ( $\chi^2(2) = 70.000$ ,  $p = .000$ ) in the three testing administrations, irrespective of the marking methods. As the Friedman test does not pinpoint exactly where those differences lie, post hoc tests were run to find out which specific pairs of means differed, as follows.

TABLE XI  
RESULTS OF THE WILCOXON SIGNED-RANK TESTS ON THE PRODUCTIVE IDIOM KNOWLEDGE TEST OVER TIME

		Strict marking			Less strict marking		
		Post-test 1 – Pre-test	Post-test 2 – Pre-test	Post-test 2 – Post-test 1	Post-test 1 – Pre-test	Post-test 2 – Pre-test	Post-test 2 – Post-test 1
CG	Z	-5.092	-5.096	-5.113	-5.096	-5.094	-5.126
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
EG	Z	-5.165	-5.167	-5.374	-5.167	-5.164	-5.201
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

As can be seen from Table XI, the  $p$ -value of each pair in the case of each group was below .05, irrespective of marking procedure. Thus, it can be concluded that, as regards the Productive Knowledge Test, the scores of three test administrations for the EG were significantly different from one another. A similar conclusion can be drawn for the CG.

To clarify which type of instruction had a statistically greater effect on the learners' performance, the Independent Samples T-Test was run for between-group comparison at each time point, as summarized in Table XII.

TABLE XII  
RESULTS OF THE INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE PRODUCTIVE IDIOM KNOWLEDGE POST-TESTS

Productive Idiom Knowledge Test			Strict marking		Less strict marking	
			Equal variances assumed	Equal variances not assumed	Equal variances assumed	Equal variances not assumed
Post-test 1	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	F	.223		.413	
		Sig.	.638		.523	
	t-test for Equality of Means	t	.695	.694	-.396	-.396
		df	67	65.356	67	64.249
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.490	.490	.693	.694
Post-test 2	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	F	1.483		.243	
		Sig.	.228		.624	
	t-test for Equality of Means	t	-2.493	-2.486	-3.806	-3.800
		df	67	63.541	67	65.848
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.015	.016	.000	.000

Results reveal that, in the case of strict marking, there was no statistical difference ( $t = .695$ ,  $df = 67$ , two-tailed  $p = .490 > .05$ ) between the mean score of the CG ( $M = 21.91$ ,  $SD = 3.980$ ) and that of the EG ( $M = 21.29$ ,  $SD = 3.494$ ). The same conclusion was drawn for less strict marking as the  $p$ -value (.693) was also higher than .05. All things considered, the two types of idiom instruction seemed to have a similar impact on the students' productive knowledge of idioms right after a 5-week treatment.

The single most striking observation to emerge from the data comparison is that a more lenient way of marking could bring more points for the EG and even reverse the situation in the immediate post-test. When only complete idioms were coded as right answers, the CG mean score ( $M = 21.91$ ,  $SD = 3.980$ ) was slightly higher than that of the EG ( $M = 21.29$ ,  $SD = 3.494$ ). However, when a less strict way of marking was applied and those that did not have an entirely correct form were also considered as correct, the EG was at the advantage with its mean score ( $M = 23.37$ ,  $SD = 3.255$ ) even higher than the CG score ( $M = 23.03$ ,  $SD = 3.896$ ). A closer look at the answers of the students to the Productive Idiom Knowledge Test discloses that, in some cases, the EG students, though unable to recall the whole idiom, managed to provide the right keywords of the target idiom and gained the score for that item. Meanwhile, some in the CG remembered the wrong keywords or just left the space blank and got no point for that even when a more lenient scoring system was adopted. Further analysis is given to the standard deviation. Though the EG mean was higher, its standard deviation (3.255) was smaller than that of the CG (3.896). This finding reveals that the scores of the EG were more tightly clustered around the mean and, therefore, more homogeneous. For these reasons, the arguments in support of the CM-inspired instruction were more valid and strong.

Unlike the results from the immediate post-test in which the CM's effect was not particularly outstanding, there was a statistically significant difference (strict marking:  $t = -2.493$ ,  $df = 67$ , two-tailed  $p = .015 < .05$ ; less strict marking:  $t = -3.806$ ,  $df = 67$ , two-tailed  $p = .000 < .05$ ) between the mean score of the CG (strict marking:  $M = 13.85$ ,  $SD = 3.669$ ; less strict marking:  $M = 14.53$ ,  $SD = 4.407$ ) and that of the EG (strict marking:  $M = 15.86$ ,  $SD = 2.982$ ; less strict marking:  $M = 18.29$ ;  $SD = 3.885$ ) in the delayed post-test. In two cases of scoring, the higher means justified the superiority of the EG over the CG regarding long-term benefit of the application of CMs to teaching idioms.

Briefly, as regards the second research question, it can be concluded that the CM-inspired instruction had a considerable effect on the students' production of the target idioms over time. Though it seemed not to be superior to the traditional instruction immediately after the treatment, the CM-inspired instruction turned out to be outstanding in the long term.

## V. DISCUSSION



### A. *Idiom Reception over Time*

Overall, these findings are in agreement with a great deal of previous work in this field, which proved that the awareness of these underlying metaphors can facilitate the learner's comprehension and retention of idiomatic meaning. However, a closer examination reveals that there are some important differences in the level of effectiveness of the CM-inspired instruction and its benefits over time among the studies.

The similarity of the two groups' results in the immediate post-testing stage is in contradiction with Vasiljevic (2011). Specifically, in the immediate post-test, her analysis indicated a significant difference between the two conditions, whereas no statistically significant difference was found between the two groups' results in this study. The contrast in the findings of the two studies might stem from the difference in the presentation of the target idioms for the CG. In Vasiljevic (2011)'s research, the EG learned idioms organized along three metaphoric themes, i.e. IDEAS ARE FOOD, LOVE IS A JOURNEY, and LIFE IS A GAMBLING GAME; one theme was taught each week. Unlike the CM group, the CG were exposed to these idioms in a mixed order, which means each week they had to learn idioms of the three topics (IDEAS, LOVE and LIFE) at the same time and all of them were not categorized even into topics. It was apparent that the CG was at a great disadvantage due to such disorganization. Thus, any superior learning effects under the experimental condition could be merely the result of the idioms being grouped for the EG and the mere ineffectiveness of the comparison treatment for the CG.

Different from Vasiljevic (2011)'s research, the CG in the current study learned idioms organized under topic headings, and, like the EG, they only learned about one topic in each lesson. This ensured the input given to the CG was, to some extent, systematized. Such lexis grouping allowed a meaningful comparison between the effects of the traditional treatment with the experimental treatment. As a result, both types of idiom instruction were found to be quite effective in facilitating the students' idiom reception right after the instruction, though it should be emphasized that the CM-inspired instruction showed superior strength in the longer term.

These findings were also in contrast with Doiz and Elizari (2013). Specifically, they found that the EG obtained a significantly higher score mean than the CG in the immediate post-test, while there was no significant difference between two groups' performance in the delayed post-test. Such a contradiction between the two studies may be due to the difference in the experiment duration. Whereas the teaching stage in Doiz and Elizari (2013) last within only one lesson, the instruction in the current study ran over 5 lessons during 5 weeks. The experiment duration in Doiz and Elizari (2013) seems to be relatively short for the researchers to draw a conclusion about the effect of CMs. As the concept of CM was entirely new to the participants, it might be quite demanding for them to comprehend and employ it to learn the target idioms within only one lesson. In other words, a greater time length for the experiment seems to be a necessary condition for the students' familiarization with the treatment so that they could get the full benefit from it.

There are four main reasons for the success of this approach. Firstly, thanks to the teaching of CMs, the students had the chance to learn idioms in a more systematic way thanks to the metaphorical sub-themes in each topic. Secondly, the CM-inspired instruction raised the students' awareness of the semantic motivation behind the target expressions; therefore, they viewed these expressions as meaningful parts of certain structured networks rather than rigid and isolated pieces of language. Thirdly, the cognitive approach in teaching idioms assisted the subjects to create mental images, allowing dual coding of information. Since CMs are grounded in bodily experience and in cultural and social practices (Kövecses, 2002), the explicit instruction of these metaphors could possibly stimulate the learners' visualization of the input and improve their comprehension and memory. Lastly, the students' mental processing of the information at a deeper level was facilitated thanks to the employment of CMs. During the instruction, the students were encouraged to activate their prior knowledge about a familiar, concrete or physical concept to understand an unfamiliar and abstract concept, and simultaneously associate the verbal information with a mental image. This process provided a stimulus for the input to be converted into intake which was then stored in the learners' memory.

### B. *Idiom Production over Time*

In comparison with the Receptive Idiom Knowledge Test, both groups' performance in the Productive Idiom Knowledge Test seemed to be less satisfactory. It seems that the success obtained through CM-inspired instruction was less pronounced in the case of idiom production. In fact, this result is not surprising as the production test was more demanding than the reception test. Since idioms are fixed in their structures, the students in both groups faced considerable difficulty in recalling the precise composition of those multi-word expressions, though several students could identify the right idioms for the given situations, which means the students could understand more idioms than they could really use.

The most striking result to emerge from the data of this study is the relatively long-lasting effect of the CM-inspired instruction five weeks after the treatment. Though the number of idioms that they were able to recollect inevitably decreased over time, the EG was still at a significant advantage over the CG in both scoring procedures. A closer look at the students' answers to the Productive Idiom Knowledge Test discloses that a large number of the EG's errors were involved in the wrong use of articles, possessive adjectives, and prepositions as well as the wrong addition or omission of the noun plural suffix. This may be due to the semantic orientation of the CM-inspired instruction as it tends to draw the students' attention to the motivation behind the meaning of the idiomatic expressions rather than their precise lexical make-up. Nevertheless, thanks to insightful learning, the EG correctly recalled more content words than the CG, as

evidenced by the higher mean score of the EG in both the immediate post-test and delayed post-test when a more lenient scoring procedure was adopted.

The universality of CMs and the role of the participants' first language (L1) were also of importance in the in-depth analysis of the students' responses. As several CMs taught in this experiment exist in the participants' L1, the activation of these CMs might facilitate L1 transfer. This influence may have usefully accelerated the learning process, as in the case of HAPPY IS UP / SAD IS DOWN (*with a heavy heart* = *với c ã lòng nặng trĩu*, *raise your spirits* = *lên tinh thần*). Nevertheless, L1 transfer is also a common source of errors. Some idioms have very close equivalents which share the same CMs, but have a slight difference in the surface structure; it is this minor difference in wording that may have led to the wrong substitution of keywords. Take the expression *to add fuel to the fire* as an example. Its translation term in Vietnamese is *thêm dầu vào lửa* (*to add oil to the fire*), which is also based on ANGER IS FIRE as its English CM equivalent. Perhaps due to L1 interference, 18 EG students and 11 CG students substituted *fuel* with *oil* in the delayed post-test. More EG students made this transfer error probably because the CM-inspired instruction tended to draw the students' attention to the motivation behind each idiomatic expression rather than rote learning the precise idiomatic form. Since the EG were encouraged to activate their prior knowledge to analyze the new target idioms, several of them had recourse to their L1 perception and tended to translate directly from L1 to the target language when they needed to recollect the form of the idioms for production. However, this does not mean that the traditional instruction was more effective over time in this case. Actually, more students in the CG were unable to recall this idiom; they tended to give no answer or replace it with a non-idiomatic phrase. Overall, despite L1 interference in some cases, the CM-inspired instruction showed its relative effectiveness over time in facilitating the students' recollection of the form of the idioms, though partial in certain cases, thanks to the use of CMs as a mnemonic device.

To foster the retention of the exact form of the target idioms, more activities aimed at structural elaboration must be integrated with the CM-inspired instruction. According to Boers and Lindstromberg (2008), the lexical composition of several (semi-)fixed phrases is explicable in terms of alliteration and assonance. In fact, some common mistakes in word selection made by the students in this study can be rectified via this technique. For example, it is hard to explain, via semantic elaboration, why the idiom is *add fuel to the fire* rather than *add oil to the fire* as in the Vietnamese equivalent, or *flip your lid* rather than *flip your top* or *flip your roof* though "lid," "top" and "roof" are nearly synonymous. Phonological motivation may be helpful in these cases as in word combinations "euphonious word strings are preferred over same-meaning but non-euphonious word strings" (ibid., p. 330). Thus, the teacher can explain that "fuel" was selected rather than "oil" in the idiom *add fuel to the fire* because it alliterates with the word "fire" at the end of the phrase; likewise, in *flip your lid*, "flip" rhymes with "lid" and, therefore, sound pleasant when standing together. Similar cases can be found in several idioms taught in this study: *fan the flames*, *bite the bullet*, *gain ground on*, *set your sights on*, etc. (alliteration); *seventh heaven*, *a dead end*, *down in the mouth*, *a flash in the pan*, etc. (assonance). Hopefully, this technique can help the students better understand the motivation, i.e. both semantic and phonological, behind the target idioms and later effectively recall the precise components in these idioms for production.

## VI. CONCLUSION

It can be concluded that the application of CM to teaching idioms could have significant effects on the students' reception and production of idiomatic language over time. Though its effectiveness might not be particularly outstanding relative to the traditional instruction in the short term, the CM-inspired instruction is likely to provide a relatively substantial long-term benefit for the students. However, every method has its own limitations, and this type of instruction is not an exception. To overcome its shortcomings, structural elaboration is proposed to be used concurrently with the CM-inspired instruction.

The fact that CMs can be used as a strategy to learn idiomatic language may have radical implications for EFL learners, teachers as well as textbook designers. By explaining the motivation behind several idiomatic expressions, the CM-inspired instruction indeed brings many problems concerning idioms to light and helps relieve students' burden of rote learning. With the knowledge of CMs, the learner no longer has to depend upon only one single channel of acquiring idioms, i.e. encountering idioms in context and blindly memorizing them. In fact, a variety of learning activities can be designed with CMs as an organizer and motivator of the target idioms for systematic and insightful learning.

It is also noteworthy that the application of CMs should be considered as part of a learning program and be integrated with other approaches to teach vocabulary in general and idioms in particular. Rather than adopting a single method in teaching idioms, EFL teachers can use a variety of techniques in order to enhance their students' idiomatic knowledge and inspire them with innovative activities, and one of the best options is the employment of CMs. EFL syllabus designers as well as textbook writers can include CMs in their language learning program as a viable method to develop the learner's metaphorical competence in general and idiomatic competence in particular.

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# Understanding the Critical Role of Applied Linguistics with Other Disciplines of 21<sup>st</sup> Century

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**Abstract**—The present study describes the need and importance of Applied Linguistics in present world. It aims to explore all the areas of applied linguists, where it plays a major role. The introductory section describes applied linguistics with its definitions along and references to renowned authors. The second part discovers a brief historical view of applied linguistics that represents it as a distinct field to explore. It portrays about the emergence of this field that is changing with different periods by its professional and academic activities. The third part of a study demonstrates the scope of applied linguistics and its relation to other disciplines. It suggests the future development of applied linguistics with the emerging new scientific disciplines. The fourth section highlights a hot debate of a current scenario that shows the vitality of applied linguists with respect to Linguistic Human Rights (LHRs). The paper aims to explain the importance of applied linguistics around with current perspective of World. Later, it reveals the real situation to violation of Linguistic Human Rights (LHRs) that are specifically contextualized within states of Pakistan and India. Along with this, it also portrays the picture of the future World to a case if no sincere efforts are taken to protect the Linguistic Human Rights, it can prove fatal for researchers and teachers of applied linguistics in general. The final section concludes a study with an over view of applied linguistics to its historical perspective and its relation with other disciplines, specifically with Linguistic Human Rights.

**Index Terms**—applied linguistics, language problems, scope, Linguistic Human Rights (LHRs).

## I. INTRODUCTION

Language works at the heart of human existence. In this modern world, where every other individual is surrounded with new technological inventions and progressive education marks but at the very same time, they still left with many questions that are related to educational and social problems within the civilized society. To answer these questions, it is reasonable to explore and understand the use of language constructively. With the help of investigation, the gained knowledge is structured and formulized into rational deliberation and critical analysis. This whole process leads to the action that is taken as part of practice for the present problems. This is what Applied Linguistics is meant for. Linguistics is taken as the scientific approach to study a language. Therefore, Applied Linguistics is concerned with language-relevant research that is applied to solve the language problems which has a significant validity within the real world. According to Kaplan and Widdowson (1992) opinion; “Applied Linguistics is practiced where every language problems are dealt, like of how languages can be taught in a better way, how the examinations should be conducted in order to test one’s language learning and how language planning policies should be made to save and develop many other indigenized languages by their proper implementation as well. The word ‘Applied’ itself is considered as a kind of technology that develops ideas and research findings to solve language issues within a given society. Therefore, the field of applied Linguistics intervenes between theory as well as its practice. According to Grabe (2002), the field of applied linguistics is mainly focused to give a try in resolving different lingual issues for which people usually face in relation to their real world situations. No doubt, the positions do vary at every phase, they may they be the language learners, tutors, who teaches a language, a supervisor to language activities and academicians, the professional outlook may either be concerned with professions of law, along with the services that provides, what is required to deal in many other social services. The example of test takers can also tend to measure the requirements, so are the policy makers, lexicographers, the translators, who translates the business transaction and it is so sum of entire range that acknowledges business clients. According to Corder (1974), who has rightly pointed about the field of applied Linguistics as it is the application of knowledge which is gained from linguistic research in order to improve the effectiveness of some realistic tasks to language is taken as a main component of study and practice. It is therefore

stated that the field of Applied Linguistics uses and draw theories from other relevant fields that are either directly or indirectly concerned with a language use. It creates its own theory with the aim of finding solutions to the language-based issues in the social world.

## II. HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS

The field of Applied Linguistics as a separate discipline was introduced in 1948 when first journal was named "Language Learning: A journal of Applied Linguistics" published in this respect. In 1950s, Applied Linguistics was meant to explore Second Language Teaching (SLT), language arts and first language literacy issues. Later in 1960s, this was meant to be applied within language teaching domain, which had direct relation with the practical issues. According to Davies (1999); the mid of end 1960s have witnessed that the field of Applied Linguistics emerged as an authentic language-centered problem solving activity. In 1970s, this field emerged at a broader concept that focused not only on language-based issues of the real world but it also took insights from many other grown natural and social sciences sub-fields, like language policy planning and its implementation, the issue of bilingualism and multilingualism, Second Language Acquisition (SLA), language assessment, language minority rights to name the few with still many other practical disciplines. In 1980s, the field of Applied Linguistics extended systematically by moving from one step beyond disciplines of language teaching and learning issues. It has also engaged itself with unsolved provisions on language use within professional situations. Till 1990s, the Linguistics and Applied Linguistics both fields were considered as separate and diverse fields of research agendas. According to the *British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL)*, it was defined as "it is study of language use, learning, teaching and development of interdisciplinary association". Whereas on the other hand, according to the view of Davies and Elder (2004), they claimed that it was decision by British researchers to describe about Applied Linguistics as an independent field of study. Therefore, other models should be constructed by Applied Linguists in research domains by carrying the path of research to various other subtle issues. According to Corder (1973), the concept given was that an observation within the field of linguistics is intimately connected with applied linguistics when it comes to explain the language. Later, Widdowson, (1984), raised an argument. According to the argument about the issue of language that has explained the linguistic models by showing an analyst's point of view on language with a criterion under applied linguistic models that shows language users' perceptions to language related with their real world situations, which are commonly neglected in practices of teaching and research. After twenty century, the concepts seemed to emerge more in these respective fields. Davies and Elder (2004), have rightly point out the distinction between linguistics and applied linguistics. According to Davies and Elder (2004), the field of linguistics is concerned primarily with a language as an end itself along with diverse language issues which are the main sources to present evidences towards acknowledging of language description in a better way. It can be even further linked with explanation of a linguistic theory. On the other hand, the field of applied linguistics is moreover focused on language with its problems that could reveal a significant role within pupils' personal and collective daily lives to as desire for whether its intervention could be possible or is it a mere wish.

## III. SCOPE OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS IN PRESENT WORLD

### A. Importance in Field of Research

Applied linguistics mainly focuses on the research in learning, teaching and education that further reinforces the concepts of learning with proper attention, language awareness, and the ways of student-teacher interaction, the task-based teaching and action research that are carried by teacher as a the researcher. The focus has been shifted towards development of language of teacher as well. The teachers can engage themselves within the process of action research. Teaching and learning processes show effective progress in local classrooms because teachers are trained as reflective practitioners.

### B. Importance in Critical Studies

The words 'critical study' are itself the umbrella terms that connotes with many other related notions like Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), critical assessment practices, critical pedagogy and ethics in language assessment. According to William Grabe (2010), the application of aforementioned critical studies which are still under process, where one finds many other language issues but still the support to this debate may be continued.

### C. Importance to Language Use

Applied Linguistics has explored much other varied form of ways which participants do usually use language in their professional and academic settings. It also explores many other forms through which use of applied language can be claim by knowing that the ways language can work as a mechanism to create problems if one is not aware of using appropriate conversation by regulations and expectations.

### D. Importance to Corpus Linguistics

The Application of corpus linguistics can be supported by occurrences of language use within provided large quantity of knowing the Basic English terminologies. The solution behind is hidden in the original analysis and demonstrations

rather than corpus data itself which further have described the exclusivity of grammar. Teacher- centered and learner-centered resources are also one of the important applications of corpus linguistics.

#### *E. Importance to Bilingualism and Multilingualism*

Since a large portion of the world is bilingual and multilingual. It is therefore the field of applied linguistics usually does focuses on two important notions of bilingualism and multilingualism which tend to contact through community, school and professional settings. It does explore the policy issues at national and regional levels. The issue of bilingualism is related with necessity for discussing the real life situations with other language and cultural groups. Whereas, the notion of multilingualism does focuses on the problems that usually occurs in bilingual education, migrations done by the people to new language settings, fairness and formation of equity in social services along with language policies that are concerned with use of multiple languages.

#### *F. Importance to Changing Methods of Language Testing and Assessment*

In the recent past centuries, the notion of language assessment has remained as one of the hot debates which stand at the center of knowledge measurement. The aspect of Validity has remained as a major issue for the language testers and takers. It is the job of applied linguists to give new insights for the new interpretations which are regarding to this serious matter. According to Chappelle (1999), the research aspect of validity has strong implications for all areas of applied linguistics research and specifically to procedure of data collection. Therefore, it is not simply an issue for assessment practices only. It is because of the applied linguists that a great emphasis has been shifted towards the assessment of language learning. The way of assessing students at a given particular interval of time has been shifted to assessing students in a way that can improve their learning effectiveness on ongoing basis. The goal of learner's assessment is to evaluate in all of whether the continuous learning purpose is helpful to achieve the required target or still it needs some more? In this respect, the field of applied linguistics emphasis on technological applications, ethics in assessment, innovative research methodologies, the roles of standardized assessment, standards for professionalism and critical language testing that are all reshaping the language assessment process.

#### *G. Importance to Neuro-linguistics*

The famous but rarely researched field of Neurolinguistics is one of the major branches of linguistics which demands more to contribute. It is likely to be related with language usage and its proper learning. Though, yet the scholars fail to fully prove its direct contribution with the concern to field of applied linguists. However, the medically, the formation of signs for usage within brain and language learning are recorded that can be reflected towards relation within itself. Therefore, this relation between the ways mind functions to that of language learnt is great phenomenon. It is therefore, researched and further suggested b linguist scholars that this field in future may probably become a significant sub-area of applied linguistics which a century can mark its literal progress in technological advanced decade.

### IV. APPLIED LINGUISTICS AND LINGUISTIC HUMAN RIGHTS (LHRs)

After having proved the relation of applied linguistics with other social and natural sciences, it is significant to explain the way it is linked with advanced linguistics human rights (LHRs). It is rather a specific topic and is related to field of linguistics which mainly concerns about Linguistic human rights that remained as one of the hot debate within our local context. It is because the phenomenon of Language is that factor of human's life which shapes the overall ethnic identity of individual and collective phases. When, one is referring that all of the individuals should have the benefit for a universal linguistic human right then, there is a job of applied linguists that they need to explain all the political realities of subtle unequal power relations that resides with a multi-lingual platform. According to Robert Phillipson (1992) and Tove Skutnabb Kangas (1995), they have rightly pointed out some myths of degenerative concept regarding language death. The myths are still studied and famous to take as one of the sociolinguistic research forum.

- a. The first and most important myth that is still available was the rising percentage of people who uses one language. They are termed as monolingualists and this phenomenon is known to be as mono-lingualism. This phenomenon has many aspects of monolingualist hold and advantages that focuses on to economic development of one community on behalf of other's expenses. Besides this, the phenomenon of mono-lingualism has openly violated the Linguistic Human Rights (LHRs) within a multilingual state forum.
- b. The second myth is about the minority community. The rights of many minorities are threat to worst in a state. Since the Applied linguists does play a significant part to introduce this chapter in constitution, legitimation and reproduction of language hierarchies that tend to survive nationally as well as internationally. Therefore, this is the great challenge for applied linguists and common man to elucidate those policies, which tend to implement with either to meet the worldwide standards or for Linguistic Human Rights which on apparent vision not possible.
- c. The third myth, which is less important than above two, but still is considered as important to discuss with reference to those languages which are used in some of the powerful domains like education, politics, law and etc. These some of them are usually known in sociolinguistics as dominant languages. They in common terms are also named as official, international or even national languages. Therefore, such types of acknowledgements that reveal something about extra linguistic purposes have served languages themselves to face various questions, for which its

speakers fail to answer. It is duty of applied linguists to answer for which they are mainly concerned with whether their activities does validate to standards of basic human rights (HRs).

The reference of International law states that the minority communities of linguistic concerns are openly allowed to use their languages as free individuals within their communities. The question arises then, where does problem of language subservience then exists at the national level?

The common answer that can satisfy the need of this question asked can be as the state itself is involved to suppress much of the identities of minor ethnic communities by its failing to provide an adequate power to minor languages, which are still dying in many cases within Pakistan. Moreover, the state is allowed to endorse multi -languages as national languages that cannot even discriminate minor languages at many of the occasions. However, it rather an unfortunate situation, where for the few political and an economic reason itself, the minor languages are mainly discriminated on regular basis. If it continues then state will have to lose different flowers as languages that symbolizes to make a garden as a world when are combined. According to David Crystal (2005), an Internationally recognized research linguist, have maintained that around 6000 languages that still exists today will soon disappear in coming years if serious and constructive efforts are not made in this respect to save them on possible time before it becomes too late. They are so closely connected with individual's fundamental rights like rights of culture, rights of education and to greater extend up to rights of expression. It shows that the case of India is almost the same of Pakistan. According to one survey of 1991 on languages, it was stated that around eighteen Indian languages which includes Punjabi, Tamil and Urdu with their 85 mother languages are spoken by less than almost four percent of the population. A great number of these languages have less than 10,000 speakers only. They are almost of age old resided tribal people which speak those mother languages that are almost at verge of extinction.

Similarly, the dominant languages of the world are swallowing the minor ones slowly and gradually with linguists and layman stands aghast. If the sincere steps are not taken now, then many other minor languages may disappear from this world. Now-a-days, the phenomenon of globalization along with the recent advancement of information technology has started to maintain the marketing of languages which are also used as commodities. Therefore, as a result of linguistic diversity that is at high risk of extinction, standard languages are given a high importance by a great number of consumers who does have the capacity of spending the funds for its regulation internationally. Whereas, the problem lies with languages of minority groups, specifically to those which are spoken with reference to tribal people, living in far distant areas and they even lack basic facilities for the proper propagation of their dialect. It is an extremely sorry state for a state that claims to be a multilingual state, Pakistan. The issue is signaled as deprived linguistic human right. It is therefore, the people in order to survive successfully have adopted the learning of foreign language and they tend to prefer that language with masters and usually shift towards that language. The above briefly discussed phenomenon have made it compulsory to understand the entire language scenario with proper notion to bring positive and innovative policies within assemblies of language policies for giving linguistic rights to the tribal people. However, the language policy can be reviewed by keeping in mind the provisions of Universal Declaration to Linguistic Rights (UDLRs). It is mandatory to respect the linguistic rights of indigenous people so that their mother languages can be protected and valuable knowledge related to their indigenous areas can also stay safe for future centuries.

## V. CONCLUSION

It can therefore be stated that field of Applied linguistics is itself an interdisciplinary field when it comes under the two separate domains of research and its practical paradigm. The practical paradigm is directly concerned with more often to realistic problems which are faced by people towards the language, when they study as well as made it in communication. The realistic problems are tending to be identified and then analyzed with its final step to solve through varied applying theories, approaches and its sub-approaches. It also develops new methodological and theoretical frameworks that work to solve and explore the real life problems. Applied linguistics refers to a broad range of activities that involves solving of language-related problems or addressing some language-related issues. It was first officially recognized as an independent course at the University of Michigan in 1946. In those early days, the term was used both in the United States and in Great Britain. It then became a 'scientific approach' to teach foreign languages that included English for non-native speakers. This field started to develop after 1990s. Today, the field of applied linguistics is described as the means of helping to solve varied specific problems within society which core linguistics failed to get the real answer. Applied linguists have therefore, focused on the numerous and complex areas within society in which language itself plays a vital role. The goal is to apply the findings and techniques from varied research topics within linguistics and other related disciplines in order to solve practical queries. To an observer, the most prominent change in field of applied linguistics has been its rapid growth as an interdisciplinary field. In addition to this, foreign language teaching and machine translation are the major disciplines that are considered as central to the field of applied linguistics today. It includes many topics such as Language for special purposes (LSP), language and communication problems, language disorders, law, medicine science, Language policy making and literacy issues and etc. Some of the applied linguists are only concerned with helping planners and legislators in countries to develop and implement common man benefit language policies. These for example can be in shape of planners that are working in India and Pakistan to specify and further develop roles within education as well as government for not only to English language but also for the indigenous languages. It helps the specific groups to develop scripts, materials and literacy

programs for previously unwritten languages. Other topics that applied linguists work are the broad issues of the best possible role to represent a native language within education of culturally and linguistically diverse students, the language of influence and politics towards level of language testing and evaluation. It highlights the main issue of present world's scenario regarding Linguistic Human Rights (LHRs). The imposition of a standard variety on the indigenous varieties to ghettoized people marks a violation of their linguistic human rights. It highlights Language policies of the countries that are supported with respect to power relations. The mother language of powerful native groups has become the dominant languages politically as well as economically. These are the main issues that still needs more exploration with current time can be made to solve by applied linguists.

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# A Corpus-based Analysis of TESOL EFL Students' Use of Logical Connectors in Spoken English

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**Abstract**—In the past several decades, the compilation of learner corpora and the application of corpus linguistics have been extensively employed to improve learners' use of logical connectors. However, the use of logical connectors in EFL learners' spoken discourse remains under-researched. To investigate this field, the researcher built an EFL TESOL student spoken English corpus consisting of 27 spoken English samples of 12,241 words in total. Then, this study adopts corpus-based contrastive analysis and computer-aided error analysis to compare the tokens and the frequencies of the logical connectors with those in the native spoken English corpus of MICASE. Finally, underuse, overuse, and misuse in the TESOL student corpus were exemplified and explained.

Findings reveal that the TESOL students tended to use a smaller set of logical connectors but used them more frequently than the English native speakers. Additive coordinating conjunctions such as *and*, *so*, and *but* were the most overused logical connectors. Moreover, the underuse of *if*, *when*, *so that*, and *though* shows that adverbial clauses were less frequently employed in their spoken discourse. A detailed explanation and pedagogical implications are also listed to help learners understand how to contextualize logical connectors at both syntactic and discourse level.

**Index Terms**—corpus linguistics, spoken English, logical connectors

## I. INTRODUCTION

Coherence and clarity are characteristics of comprehensible and effective communication in both written and spoken English, which can be realized by accurate and appropriate use of logical connectors of various types. According to Chafe (1994), logical connectors coordinate chunks of text and organize information flow in discourse. In other words, logical connectors help listeners comprehend and make sense of discourse. As Altenberg and Tapper (1998) mentioned, each language has a unique set of logical connectors due to the uniqueness of language and culture. Some languages such as English need overt logical connectors to indicate cohesion and coherence in the written and spoken discourse while others such as Chinese do not. Therefore, learners' native languages have the potential to influence their use of logical connectors in their second/foreign languages.

Due to the importance of the EFL learners' use of logical connectors, it can be noticed that applied linguists all around the world have participated in relevant research from the perspective of syntactical positions, frequencies, and range. In terms of syntactical positions, Green, Christopher, and Mei (2000) suggested that in English for Academic Purposes writing, Chinese EFL learners displayed their preference to place logical connectors in sentence-initial position when they wanted to introduce new information to the audience. This is consistent with the findings by Kusuyama (2003), who reported that compared with native English writers, Japanese ESL writers tended to overuse, misuse, and underuse logical connectors in sentence-initial position at the university level. Identically, Lee (2004) found that Korean learners also preferred placing them in the sentence-initial position. For the aspect of frequencies and range, based on the International Corpus of English in Hong Kong (ICE-HK) and in Great Britain (ICE-GB), Bolton, Nelson, and Hung (2002) focused on logical connector usage in Hong Kong and British university students' writing and found that both native speakers and non-native speakers of English tended to overuse various kinds of logical connectors, but they did not significantly underuse any of them. However, Lee (2004) compiled a Korean EFL learner corpus and found that Korean EFL learners obviously overused and underused some logical connectors and tended to repeat the use of logical connectors of the same types (i.e. enumeration and addition conjunctive adverbials and contrast and concession conjunctive adverbials).

In addition to the research studies above on learners' performance in written discourse, there are also ones on spoken discourse. For example, Schleppegrell (1996) demonstrated how ESL used *because* in spoken and written discourse. He realized that ESL writers used *because* to display connections between parts of discourse, to introduce segments, and to suggest the knowledge base for their declarations while in their spoken English, *because* was used quite the opposite. However, here the use of logical connector *because* was studied by case instead of an overall observation of range and frequencies in a corpus. Later, Fung and Carter (2007) discussed native speakers' and learners' use of discourse markers in spoken English in pedagogical settings based on a sub-corpus of CANCODE. They found Hong Kong

learners employed referentially functional discourse markers (e.g. *and*, *but*, *because*, and *OK*) more freely while native speakers tended to use a wider range DMs. However, the range of logical connectors is far wider than that of DM according to Halliday (1976). Therefore, a probe into logical connector frequencies and range may help teachers of English understand the influence of learners' L1 on the L2 acquisition, develop more effective teaching strategies, and fill the research gap of the lack of investigation of the frequencies and range of EFL learners' use of logical connectors. Therefore, the present study explores this very topic of EFL learners' application of logical connectors in their spoken discourse, which was examined and analyzed with the help of corpora. The present study first compiled an EFL learner corpus, the contributors of which were studying in Master of Arts in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (MA(TESOL)) at a university in Hong Kong. Then, the study compared it with the well-built spoken English corpus of Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE) to sort out some key features of the two groups.

## II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Corpus is a useful tool to diagnose the patterns and analyze the use and the contexts of logical connectors. This study adopts a corpus-based approach as the main research method. Based on previous research studies on logical connectors in EFL learners' written discourse, this section first introduces how this study categorizes logical connectors and how "use" is defined and measured. Then, this section reviews the compilation approaches of EFL learner corpora and the methodology of corpus-based analysis.

### A. Classification of "Logical Connectors"

Logical connectors can be used to join or connect two thoughts that are connected by different kinds of relationship. According to Sorensen (1997), four kinds of function words can be logical connectors: (1) subordinating conjunctions (e.g. *before*, *after*, *since*), (2) coordinating conjunctions (e.g. *for*, *and*, *nor*, *but*, *or*, *yet*, *so*), (3) prepositions (e.g. *due to*, *because of*), and (4) transitions and conjunctive adverbs (e.g. *however*, *furthermore*, *nevertheless*). These relationships can be further categorized into: sequential (time), reason and purpose, adversative (opposition and/or unexpected result), and condition (Sorensen, 1997). Halliday (1976, pp. 242-243) also proposed a systematic and well-categorized summary of connectors of various logical relationships within written and spoken discourse. He categorized logical connectors into additive, adversative, causal, and temporal. Tailoring to EFL learners' use of logical connectors in spoken discourse, this study adopts Sorensen's classification of part of speech and Halliday's classification of relationship as the framework and provides some examples of classified logical connectors in Table 1.

TABLE I.  
SUMMARY OF LOGICAL CONNECTORS BASED ON SORENSEN (1997) AND HALLIDAY (1976)

Part of speech Relationship	Subordinating conjunctions	Coordinating Conjunctions	Prepositions	Conjunctive adverbs and transitions
Additive	N/A	and, or, nor, or else, either...or..., neither...nor..., not only... but (also)...	as well as, along with, together with, with	furthermore, besides, indeed, in addition, by the way, that is, alternatively, I mean, likewise, moreover, further, incidentally, what's more, in other words, similarly, for instance
Adversative	even though, although, though, while, whereas	but, yet, but...still, yet...still	despite, in spite of	however, instead, nonetheless, rather, nevertheless, in contrast on the other hand, in fact, on the contrary,
Causal	because, since, so that, as, inasmuch as, now that, such...that, so...that, in order that	so, for	because of, due to, in order to	therefore, hence, thus, consequently
Temporal	until, as soon as, after, as long as, once, before, whenever, when, while, since	and then	during, after, before, since, until, upon	then, next, after that, following that, before that, afterwards, meanwhile, beforehand
Condition	if, whether or not, unless, only if, providing (that), provided (that), in case	or (else)	N/A	otherwise

### B. Definition of "Use"

Since the present study intends to compare the use of EFL learners and native speakers, the definition of "use" is crucial for this study. Bolton et al. (2002) conducted a corpus-based study investigating students' use of logical connectors in academic writing. They defined "use" as "the identification of linguistic items as 'connectors', the measurement of the ratio of occurrence of connectors in our data, and the calculation of 'overuse' of connectors" (p. 173). Lee (2004) collected 202 academic essays written by Korean EFL learners totaling 214,363 words and analyzed their use of conjunctive adverbials, comparing them with several native corpora. He defined "use" as the frequency of the logical connectors, the types of functions in the discourse, and the syntactic positions in the sentences and drew some pedagogical implications from the overall similarities and differences of Korean EFL learners and native speakers for future academic writing teaching.

The research studies mentioned above reflected many aspects of academic writing needed improving, and the same problems may also exist in EFL learners' spoken discourse. In light of the research studies mentioned above, the present

study starts an exploration of the EFL learners' use of logical connectors, not in written discourse, but in spoken discourse. The "use" is thus examined from the following aspects: the raw frequency, the ratio of the frequency, the calculations of overuse, underuse, and the misuse of the logical connectors. The calculation method is provided in Section 3.4.

### *C. Corpus Linguistics and Its Use in English Language Teaching*

A corpus collects spoken or written texts or both, ranging from thousands of words to millions of words, which are stored and processed by computer and are readable in electronic forms (McCarthy & Carter, 2004). Corpus linguistics has been tightly associated with the research studies of many linguists, who carefully examined the concordance lines and collocations of phrases screen after screen, attempting to make sense of features of some languages from some seemingly orderly texts and collections (McCarthy & O'Keeffe, 2010). Because of the revolutionary and innovative features and use of corpora, corpus linguistics has become a linguistic methodology, which integrates piles of naturally occurring discourse into electronic sources. In other words, to investigate the features in spoken discourse, the research approaches within corpus linguistics call for collecting a substantial amount of naturally occurring data to uncover the frequency and occurrence of the grammatical and lexical items in different language settings and examines the patterns of their relationships (Hunston & Gill, 1998; Kennedy, 2014; McCarthy, 1991).

Although corpus linguistics is neither considered as a new field of linguistics nor a new theoretical foundation for English language studies, it has the potential to further develop other perspectives of language learning and teaching (Silva & Leki, 2004). Corpus linguistics provides an approach for empirical analysis of English language; by doing so, corpus linguistics would lead to the refinement and adjustment of our use of lexical and grammatical items. To be more specific, corpus linguistics is being applied in the pursuit of wider research fields such as English language teaching and learning, pragmatics, discourse analysis, sociolinguistics, literary stylistics, and health communications. By this token, the realms that corpus linguistics may lead to are far from lexis or grammar, which can be easily answered by computational linguistics, but as far and diverse as the research tools applied by second language acquisition and media studies (McCarthy & O'Keeffe, 2010).

Corpus linguistics is widely used in pedagogical applied linguistics. First, Tribble (2002) has been promoting Data-driven Learning (DDL) and applying the analyzed results to promote language teaching and learning. He has been bringing corpus data into the classroom and turning the traditional classroom to a student-oriented learning space where corpora provide knowledge bases, and students are controlling the pace of learning and questioning the teachers (McCarthy & O'Keeffe, 2010). Second, learner corpora, which are the collection of spoken and written learner language data, have shifted the focus from native speaker dominance to learner dominance or native speaker-learner contrastive studies. Third, another important field that corpus linguistics has an influence on is language testing and teacher training. Corpora can enhance professionalization by shedding light on scoring standards and rating rubrics. Corpora, with their featured wash-back implication, provide important empirical framework and benchmarks on which to base and grade examinations with a more international perspective (Barker, 2010; Farr, 2010). Fourthly, an increasing number of language teaching materials are becoming "corpus-informed" in a way that publishers of language teaching and learning such as Cambridge University Press, Oxford University Press, and Pearson-Longman are all sophisticatedly manipulating corpora and launching continuously updating teaching and learning materials (McCarthy & O'Keeffe, 2010, p. 8).

### *D. Learner Corpora*

As mentioned in the last section, the building of corpora has shifted its focus to the context of language learning, where learner language is one popular field. By collecting examples of learner use of language and comparing them with existing corpora, the features and drawbacks in learner language can be more thoroughly uncovered in a rather profound way than traditional work on error analysis and correction is (Bonelli, 2010). Computational learner corpora are defined as the collections of spoken or written data by EFL or ESL learner in a variety of language context in the electronic form (Granger, 2002). Research on learner corpora employs the principles and benchmarks from corpus linguistics and offers language description of learners, which will be later applied to language teaching pedagogy.

Among various learner corpora, learner spoken corpora with new and valuable data have also attracted linguists' renewed interest in the corpus linguistics studies in learners' spoken language. For example, Shirato and Stapleton (2007) compared Japanese learners' and native speakers' English spoken vocabulary and calculated and categorized some underused and overused logical connectors by Japanese learners. Furthermore, Wang (2008) investigated Chinese EFL learners' use of pragmatic markers and argued that Chinese learners tended to use logical connectors in the sentence-initial position.

This study presents a list of selective examples of ESL/EFL learner written and spoken corpora (see Table 2, for a more exhaustive list of learner corpora, see Granger (2002), Granger and Leech (2014), and (Tono, 2002)). The building of learner corpora makes it possible to uncover both qualitative and quantitative differences in linguistic and discourse features between EFL/ESL learners and native speakers.

TABLE II.  
A SELECTED LIST OF FREQUENTLY USED EFL LEARNER CORPORA

Corpus name	Abbr.	Attribution	Size (words)
Longman Learners' Corpus <sup>1</sup>	LLC	All level written essays	10,000,000
Cambridge Learners' Corpus <sup>2</sup>	CLC	All level written and spoken texts	10,000,000
International Corpus of Learner English <sup>3</sup>	ICLE	University-level written essays	3,700,000
Hong Kong University of Science and Technology Corpus of Learner English <sup>4</sup>	HKUST	University-level written essays	25,000,000
Chinese Learner English Corpus <sup>5</sup>	CLEC	All level written essays	1,000,000
Standard Speaking Test <sup>6</sup>	SST	All level spoken test samples	1,000,000
Louvain International Database of Spoken English Interlanguage <sup>7</sup>	LIDSEI	Higher intermediate to advanced learners' informal interviews	1,000,000
Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English <sup>8</sup>	MICASE	Learners' and native speakers' academic speech events	1,848,364
International Corpus Network of Asian Learners of English <sup>9</sup>	ICNALE	University-level written essays and spoken samples	1,800,000

### E. Methodological Approaches to Learner Corpora

One of the advantages of corpus-based analysis is its sufficiency in conducting both quantitative and qualitative analysis. For learner corpora analysis, the two frequently used methodological approaches are contrastive interlanguage analysis and computer-aided error analysis (Granger, 2002). The first method, as the method which has been employed in most of the Native Speakers (NS)/Non-native Speakers (NNS) and NNS/NNS corpus-based contrastive analysis, can accomplish both quantitative and qualitative comparisons. For another, the second method uses computer software to tag, retrieve, and analyze learners' errors and use of a language (Granger, 2002; Hunston & Gill, 1998).

The corpus-based contrastive analysis aims to:

[u]ncover the features of non-nativeness of learner language. At all levels of proficiency, but especially at the most advanced ones, these features will not only involve plain errors but differences in the frequency of use of certain words, phrases or structures, some being overused, others underused. (Granger & Leech, 2014, p. 13).

By this definition, corpus-based contrastive analysis pays more attention to L2 learners' use of particular lexical and grammatical items in comparison with those of native speakers. Multiple linguistic features such as discourse markers, complement clauses, adjective intensification, connectors, and direct questions have been investigated with the help of this approach. For example, Biber and Reppen (1998) investigated the coherence of marked themes in undergraduate students' essays by comparing the complement clauses in HKUST corpus of learner English with those in native English texts of *the Grammar of Spoken and Written English*. They found that Chinese learners prefer using connecting devices in the theme position while NS may place them more flexibly such as in sentence-final position.

Computer-aided error analysis closely examines learners' error in texts, using multiple major functions of computer programs. Considering that the conventional error analysis has been examining and criticizing the individual errors and giving feedback case by case, it gives negative feelings to the learner. By contrast, the computer-aided error analysis adopts a high degree of standardization, thus presenting the errors within the full context (Granger, 2002). The research can simply input an error-prone linguistic item such as a logical connector in this study and scan the corpus to search for all the cases of misuse with the help of the standardized text retrieval software such as *WordSmith* and *AntConc*.

### F. Research Questions

According to the research studies above, we can see that learners' overuse, underuse, and misuse of logical connectors in the written discourse have been closely examined by the comparison with the norms in the native speaker corpora, but few research studies were conducted on learner spoken discourse. This study intends to fill this research gap. Adopting the contrastive interlanguage analysis and computer-aided error analysis, this study first compiled a learner spoken corpus of TESOL students and then compared their use of logical connectors with those in MICASE. The present study examines the following research questions:

1. What are the overall frequencies of the logical connectors in the TESOL student corpora and MICASE?
2. What are the similarities and differences (i.e. underuse, overuse, and misuse) in using logical connectors between the TESOL students and native speakers?

## III. DATA COLLECTION AND RESEARCH METHODS

References (retrieved on June 2, 2017):

- <sup>1</sup> <http://www.pearsonlongman.com/dictionaries/corpus/learners.html>
- <sup>2</sup> <http://www.cambridge.org/gb/cambridgeenglish/better-learning/deeper-insights/linguistics-pedagogy/cambridge-english-corpus>
- <sup>3</sup> <https://uclouvain.be/en/research-institutes/ilc/cecl/icle.html>
- <sup>4</sup> [http://home.ust.hk/~autolang/download\\_WP.htm](http://home.ust.hk/~autolang/download_WP.htm)
- <sup>5</sup> <http://www.clal.org.cn/corpus/EngSearchEngine.aspx>
- <sup>6</sup> <http://www.alc.co.jp/edusys/refecorpus.htm>
- <sup>7</sup> <https://pul.uclouvain.be/book/?gcoi=29303100992060>
- <sup>8</sup> <https://quod.lib.umich.edu/cgi/c/corpus/corpus?page=home;c=micase;cc=micase>
- <sup>9</sup> <http://language.sakura.ne.jp/icnale/>

This section first explains how the participants were selected and the uniqueness of the triple identity of the participants. Then, the data collection procedure is introduced. Moreover, this section elaborates why this study decided to build a new spoken corpus instead of using the existing well-built corpora. Finally, it elaborates how the spoken data were transcribed into texts and analyzed by computer programs.

#### A. Participants

This study employs convenience sampling (Dörnyei, 2007), choosing the EFL TESOL students at a university in Hong Kong as the participants. The data collection event was conducted in research offices, study rooms, or any other convenient places in this university. The selected members of the target participants shared geographical proximity and easy accessibility in a certain period. All the participants were TESOL students in a university, and the time slots when they chose to participate in the spoken data collection event were between April 2017 to June 2017.

In addition to the ease and accessibility of sampling, according to Edge (1988), those participants share the same triple identity: language user, language teacher, and language analyst. First, as language users, those TESOL students have a high level of high English proficiency, which can be reflected in their language test results (see Chapter 4). Their adequate models in the classroom may inspire students to speak better-formed English and more accurate utterances because students also long for this language competence. Thus, students are more likely to use logical connectors more accurately if their teachers use them correctly. Second, according to the questionnaire survey result, 26% of them have full-time teaching experience, and 89% have part-time teaching experience. Significantly, 78% of them tend to pursue a teaching career after graduation, so the study on their use of logical connectors may contribute to their teaching performance as well as their capability of sensing their students' needs in the classroom. Thirdly, an individual report of their contrastive results with the native speakers were also sent to each participant. By analyzing their own performance in the spoken discourse, they are likely to rectify their inappropriate use and make better decisions on dealing with students' problems and difficulties on using logical connectors. As language analysts, the study provides a new perspective for those TESOL students that a comparison between students and native speakers can improve their teacher language awareness.

#### B. Spoken Data Collection

The data collection event took at most 25 minutes, including a retelling activity and filling out a questionnaire survey. The participants were first asked to watch a 5.5-minute video clip up to three times and simultaneously retell the plots in the last time when the video clip was playing. The video clip could be watched online on <https://youtu.be/vNJ5w-uQEEc>. The participants were not allowed to pause, reverse, or forward the entire or part of the video when the video clip was naturally playing. They were not allowed to write down or mark anything on paper or other devices. Those steps were to guarantee that the spoken discourse collected were all spontaneously and naturally occurring data. The spoken discourse of the participants was audio-recorded by the researcher's mobile phone, which was safely encrypted. After retelling, the participants were asked to complete a questionnaire investigating their demographical information (see Appendix 1).

The video clip was excerpted from one of the Chaplin series *The Circus*. There was no dubbing or subtitle in the video clip; therefore, the participants could not find any hint or tip on the English language use. The video clip acted only as a reminder of how the storyline was so that the participants could continuously deliver the naturally occurring spoken discourse without long intervals or intermittent speechlessness.

#### C. The Corpora

There are two corpora used for the research, namely MICASE and the newly built EFL TESOL student spoken corpus. The English native speaker corpus is the existing corpus—MICASE, which contains 1,848,364 words transcribed from 152 pieces of about 200 hours of spoken discourse from 1,571 speakers aged from 17 to 30. MICASE focuses on the contemporary university-level English speech at the University of Michigan. The places of the speech recording were all on the campus such as classrooms, discussion rooms, meeting rooms, and labs.

The EFL TESOL student spoken corpus is constituted by the spoken samples from 27 samples of 12,241 words in total from 27 Chinese students, including students from Mainland China and HKSAR. After obtaining the spoken samples from the participants, the samples were verbatim transcribed into separated files named by their order of participation. As the counterpart of MICASE, the current corpus uses the same way of transcribing the spoken data, each file containing time, location, participant, duration, language background, and the texts. Those data are used to retrieve tokens and frequencies of logical connectors and to compare with the filtered NS corpus of MICASE.

There are several reasons why a new spoken corpus is required. Firstly, even though CLC, SST, and ICNALE are all great spoken corpora with verbatim transcriptions of a substantial number of spoken samples from EFL learners from all over the world, some of them are not free of charge, and others are not easily accessible. Furthermore, among the accessible corpora, the percentage of the participants who speak advanced English in the corpora mentioned above is relatively low. For example, among 950 EFL/ESL participants who gave their spoken samples to ICNALE, only 160 (16.84%) of them are above B2 according to Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001), whose spoken discourse is not much of meaning for this study. The data needed for this study should be advanced English learners whose English proficiency ranges among C1 or above. According to the demographical

information from the questionnaire, 100% of those TESOL students have obtained C1 or higher level. Thirdly, the EFL TESOL students have the triple identity, making them distinctive and unique for this study, as is discussed in the last sections.

#### D. Analysis

The present study focuses on the analysis of logical connector use in the learners' and native speakers' spoken discourse. Specifically, the ratio of the frequency and the overuse and underuse are measured by quantitative methodology. In addition, the misuse is presented by raising typical examples of how the TESOL students misused some certain logical connectors.

For the TESOL student corpus, the list of logical connectors did not simply duplicate the existing classifications. Instead, during the process of verbatim transcription, all the logical connectors were manually marked up, and all the appearance of the logical connectors in the transcriptions was checked twice to ensure the reliability and accuracy of the research. This method is advantageous in that it provides a consistent and non-arbitrary list of logical connectors. The application of this "accurate and contextualized" list of logical connectors has greatly improved the efficacy of the following examination, for it makes practicable to employ the same list as the standard in the calculation of "overuse" and "underuse".

For MICASE, the list of logical connectors classified by Sorensen (1997) and Halliday (1976, pp. 242-243) was adopted. Then, the two lists were combined into the full list in Table 3. Unavoidably, some words have more than one speech. For example, *for* can be a preposition (e.g. *She brewed some coffee for me.*) and a coordinating conjunction (e.g. *You'd better take this medicine, for you are ill.*). This study adopted the results retrieved from the online program CLAWS part-of-speech post-tagger for English to distinguish the part of speech.

As the inventory of the logical connectors in English is very large, the free-of-charge computer program AntConc (3.4.4m) helped in locating concordance, collocations, terms, and key characters in the transcribed texts. This quantitative methodology first counted how many logical connectors were employed in both corpora and then divided these numbers by the total words of each corpus.

For example, *however* in the TESOL student corpus appeared 23 times; then, the Frequency of *however* was 23, the Ratio of Frequency  $23/12,241=0.0018791$  (1.88‰), RF per 1000 words 1.88. Adopting the same calculation method, we know that the RP per 1000 words of *however* in MICASE was 0.12. Then, we can get the difference between 1.88 and 0.12 was 1.76, which was a positive value denoting the overuse of *however* in the TESOL student corpus. The overuse and the underuse were fundamentally based on the comparison of two corpora by this calculation method.

### IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

#### A. Overall Frequencies of Logical Connectors

Table 3 demonstrates a full list of the 98 logical connectors found in both corpora. There were 52 logical connectors found in the TESOL student corpus and 72 in MICASE. From the table, we can see that the native speakers used a much wider range of logical connectors than the TESOL students. Specifically, the native speakers tended to use more types of logical connectors such as *so*, *therefore*, *so that*, and *since* to express causal relationship in the sentence-level spoken discourse while the TESOL students mainly used *so* and *because* to express the causal relationship.

For the TESOL students, the low frequencies in the types of the logical connectors and the high frequencies of the same tokens indicate the same types of the logical connectors were highly repetitive. As Milton (1998) suggested, the EFL learners tend to use an exclusion of expressions which they consider that they know and can manage. This may be also true of the TESOL students' use of logical connectors. They used a smaller repertoire of logical connectors than the native speakers did, but in order to keep the coherence of the spoken discourse, they thus increased the frequency of the same logical connector.

TABLE III.  
ALL LOGICAL CONNECTORS IN THE TESOL STUDENTS SPOKEN CORPUS AND MICASE (FREQ. = FREQUENCY, RF = RATIO OF FREQUENCY, A POSITIVE VALUE DENOTES OVERUSE, A NEGATIVE VALUE DENOTES UNDERUSE)

Logical Connectors	TESOL Corpus		(+/-)	MICASE	
	Freq.	RF per 1000 words		Freq.	RF per 1000 words
<b>Coordinating Conjunctions</b>					
<i>and</i> (excluding "and then")	595	48.61	23.19	46976	25.41
<i>but</i>	196	16.01	9.55	11952	6.47
<i>so</i> (excluding "so that")	156	12.74	2.68	18598	10.06
<i>or</i>	8	0.65	-4.06	8707	4.71
<i>yet</i>	4	0.33	0.09	438	0.24
<i>for</i>	0	0.00	-0.05	92	0.05
<i>nor</i>	0	0.00	-0.02	37	0.02
<b>Conjunctive Adverbs and Transitions</b>					
<i>and then</i>	60	4.90	3.15	3242	1.75
<i>then</i> (excluding "and then")	36	2.94	-0.47	6301	3.41
<i>suddenly</i>	27	2.21	2.17	66	0.04
<i>however</i>	23	1.88	1.76	214	0.12

Logical Connectors	TESOL Corpus		(+/-)	MICASE	
	Freq.	RF per 1000 words		Freq.	RF per 1000 words
<i>unfortunately</i>	17	1.39	1.36	61	0.03
<i>accidentally</i>	16	1.31	1.30	6	0.00
<i>finally</i>	13	1.06	0.97	175	0.09
<i>at this time</i>	12	0.98	0.96	36	0.02
<i>at that time</i>	7	0.57	0.55	49	0.03
<i>immediately</i>	7	0.57	0.53	75	0.04
<i>luckily</i>	5	0.41	0.41	5	0.00
<i>fortunately</i>	4	0.33	0.32	14	0.01
<i>at the moment</i>	4	0.33	0.31	28	0.02
<i>unluckily</i>	3	0.25	0.24	1	0.00
<i>thankfully</i>	3	0.25	0.24	1	0.00
<i>at the same time</i>	2	0.16	0.07	165	0.09
<i>at first</i>	2	0.16	0.14	52	0.03
<i>by the way</i>	1	0.08	0.02	118	0.06
<i>incidentally</i>	1	0.08	0.08	8	0.00
<i>absolutely</i>	1	0.08	0.00	149	0.08
<i>afterwards</i>	1	0.08	0.06	49	0.03
<i>basically</i>	1	0.08	-0.43	948	0.51
<i>meanwhile</i>	1	0.08	0.08	6	0.00
<i>surprisingly</i>	1	0.08	0.07	14	0.01
<i>unexpectedly</i>	1	0.08	0.08	0	0.00
<i>at this moment</i>	1	0.08	0.08	5	0.00
<i>therefore</i>	1	0.08	-0.03	201	0.11
<i>instead (excluding "instead of")</i>	1	0.08	0.04	82	0.04
<i>instantly</i>	1	0.08	0.08	6	0.00
<i>furthermore</i>	0	0.00	-0.01	15	0.01
<i>in addition (excluding "in addition to")</i>	0	0.00	-0.01	16	0.01
<i>moreover</i>	0	0.00	-0.01	18	0.01
<i>what's more</i>	0	0.00	0.00	4	0.00
<i>for instance</i>	0	0.00	-0.08	142	0.08
<i>"I mean,"</i>	0	0.00	-0.25	455	0.25
<i>in other words</i>	0	0.00	-0.12	229	0.12
<i>alternatively</i>	0	0.00	-0.01	11	0.01
<i>indeed</i>	0	0.00	-0.07	122	0.07
<i>similarly</i>	0	0.00	-0.01	15	0.01
<i>likewise</i>	0	0.00	0.00	7	0.00
<i>"that is,"</i>	0	0.00	-0.06	120	0.06
<i>besides</i>	0	0.00	-0.03	59	0.03
<i>for example</i>	0	0.00	-0.21	381	0.21
<b>Prepositions</b>					
<i>with</i>	20	1.63	-2.60	7829	4.24
<i>instead of</i>	3	0.25	0.11	251	0.14
<i>actually</i>	3	0.25	-1.09	2469	1.34
<i>despite</i>	1	0.08	0.07	26	0.01
<i>because of</i>	1	0.08	-0.11	352	0.19
<i>without</i>	1	0.08	-0.12	366	0.20
<i>due to</i>	0	0.00	-0.06	107	0.06
<i>in fact</i>	0	0.00	-0.26	488	0.26
<i>in addition to</i>	0	0.00	-0.02	38	0.02
<i>during</i>	0	0.00	-0.16	297	0.16
<i>in spite of</i>	0	0.00	0.00	8	0.00
<i>upon</i>	0	0.00	-0.05	91	0.05
<i>concerning</i>	0	0.00	-0.01	15	0.01
<i>regarding</i>	0	0.00	-0.02	29	0.02
<i>within</i>	0	0.00	-0.21	391	0.21
<b>Subordinating Conjunctions</b>					
<i>because (excluding "because of")</i>	20	1.63	-0.65	4227	2.29
<i>after (prep.+conj.)</i>	14	1.14	0.64	940	0.51
<i>when</i>	10	0.82	-1.39	4083	2.21
<i>in order (not) to</i>	8	0.65	0.50	289	0.16
<i>if</i>	8	0.65	-4.56	9644	5.22
<i>as</i>	5	0.41	-0.84	2302	1.25
<i>while (temporal+adversative)</i>	5	0.41	0.16	457	0.25
<i>before (prep.+conj.)</i>	4	0.33	-0.29	1135	0.61
<i>in case (that)</i>	2	0.16	0.14	35	0.02
<i>until</i>	1	0.08	-0.11	350	0.19
<i>so that</i>	1	0.08	-0.78	1584	0.86
<i>since (prep.+conj.)</i>	0	0.00	-0.27	505	0.27
<i>until (prep.+conj.)</i>	0	0.00	-0.19	350	0.19
<i>as soon as</i>	0	0.00	-0.03	53	0.03
<i>as long as</i>	0	0.00	-0.05	91	0.05
<i>as far as</i>	0	0.00	-0.08	143	0.08

Logical Connectors	TESOL Corpus		(+/-)	MICASE	
	Freq.	RF per 1000 words		Freq.	RF per 1000 words
<i>though</i>	0	0.00	-0.44	814	0.44
<i>although</i>	0	0.00	-0.13	240	0.13
<i>whereas</i>	0	0.00	-0.09	158	0.09
<i>now that</i>	0	0.00	-0.08	139	0.08
<i>by the time</i>	0	0.00	-0.02	36	0.02
<i>unless</i>	0	0.00	-0.11	199	0.11
<i>anyway</i>	0	0.00	-0.17	320	0.17
<i>whether</i>	0	0.00	-0.38	694	0.38
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>1327</b>			<b>139622</b>	

### B. Overuse and Underuse of Logical Connectors

The examination of the individual logical connectors indicates the underuse and overuse of logical connectors. Table 4 and Table 5 demonstrate the ten most overused and the ten underused logical connectors in both corpora.

TABLE IV.  
THE TOP 10 MOST OVERUSED LOGICAL CONNECTORS

Logical Connectors	TESOL Corpus		(+/-)	MICASE	
	Freq.	RF per 1000 words		Freq.	RF per 1000 words
<i>and (excluding "and then")</i>	595	48.61	23.19	46976	25.41
<i>but</i>	196	16.01	9.55	11952	6.47
<i>and then</i>	60	4.90	3.15	3242	1.75
<i>so (excluding "so that")</i>	156	12.74	2.68	18598	10.06
<i>suddenly</i>	27	2.21	2.17	66	0.04
<i>however</i>	23	1.88	1.76	214	0.12
<i>unfortunately</i>	17	1.39	1.36	61	0.03
<i>accidentally</i>	16	1.31	1.30	6	0.00
<i>finally</i>	13	1.06	0.97	175	0.09
<i>at this time</i>	12	0.98	0.96	36	0.02
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>1150</b>			<b>99466</b>	

TABLE V.  
THE TOP 10 MOST UNDERUSED LOGICAL CONNECTORS

Logical Connectors	TESOL Corpus		(+/-)	MICASE	
	Freq.	RF per 1000 words		Freq.	RF per 1000 words
<i>if</i>	8	0.65	-4.56	9644	5.22
<i>or</i>	8	0.65	-4.06	8707	4.71
<i>with</i>	20	1.63	-2.60	7829	4.24
<i>when</i>	10	0.82	-1.39	4083	2.21
<i>actually</i>	3	0.25	-1.09	2469	1.34
<i>as</i>	5	0.41	-0.84	2302	1.25
<i>so that</i>	1	0.08	-0.78	1584	0.86
<i>because (excluding "because of")</i>	20	1.63	-0.65	4227	2.29
<i>then (excluding "and then")</i>	36	2.94	-0.47	6301	3.41
<i>though</i>	0	0.00	-0.44	814	0.44

From Table 4, the TESOL students' ten most frequently used logical connectors comprise 87% (1150/1327) of the total number of the logical connectors; by contrast, these ten logical connectors only account for 71% (99466/139622) of the total number of the native speakers' use of logical connectors. The repeated tokens of the same kind of logical connectors have inflated the frequencies of the logical connectors with an overwhelming percentage of 87%, which one more time indicates that the TESOL students tended to more frequently use the same types of logical connectors than the native speakers did. Then, we can notice that some logical connectors such as *suddenly*, *at this time*, and *accidentally* which were very frequently used by the TESOL students were rarely observed in MICASE. Furthermore, from Table 4, we can see that in the TESOL student corpus the logical connectors *and*, *but*, *and then*, and *so* were particularly overused. Those four logical connectors, comprising 76% (1007/1327) of all, are all coordinating conjunctions, while those four logical connectors only account for 58% (80768/139622) of the native speakers' logical connector use. It seems that the TESOL students gave coordinating conjunctions higher priority while doing the retelling. Examples of overuse of an additive coordinating conjunction *and* is illustrated in the following excerpt from the TESOL student corpus. Grammatical and lexical errors are in the originals.



**Excerpt 1:**

(TESOL-Corpus-016: The transcribed text from 3'52" to 4'22" by a student at a university in Hong Kong, recorded in a study room, Mandarin as the first language, English as the foreign language)

**And** the woman did that, **and** the woman say, "hurry you can go out now, hurry up." **And** the man just pretend that she uh he was not afraid of that lion **because** that lion he thought the lion was quite timid and not very fierce, **so** he just want to tease the lion, **and** the lion just roars at him, **and** she just suddenly ran out of the cage, **and** the woman locked the door, **and** the woman also ran away, **and** she saw the man was climbing the man climb onto a maybe a stick or something, **and** on the top of it, **and** the woman said: "you you you're not afraid now?"

From the excerpt, we notice that this TESOL student initiated almost every independent clause with an additive coordinating conjunction *and*. Leech (2000, p. 676) concluded this phenomenon as the characteristics of spoken grammar that the learners in spoken discourse may have a constrained lexico-grammatical repertoire and may repetitively use the items in it. Even though it is not grammatically incorrect that independent clauses can be added by additive coordinating conjunctions endlessly, the hearer may find it difficult to disentangle the inner logic of the speech when the topic is switching. However, for the case of overuse of *and* in spoken discourse, Willis (2003, p. 186) held that learners use *and* quite a lot to give a stream of information in a more linear way, making the listener easier to follow within a focused topic.

Table 5 demonstrates the TESOL students' underuse of ten logical connectors, most of which were subordinating conjunctions used in adverbial clauses. First, the native speakers more frequently used *if* in spoken language. *If* can be used in conditional sentences or starts an object clause. In MACASE, both of two uses appeared, but in the TESOL student corpus, all *if* started object clauses (See Fig. 1). Surprisingly, after the word-for-word examination, there was also no other logical connectors used for conditional meaning in the TESOL student corpus. This is probably because the participants had little time to produce more complicated conditional sentences in the dynamic and transient spoken discourse after receiving the abundant streaming information from the video clip. Second, the underuse of the causal subordinating conjunction *so that* confirmed the previous deduction that the TESOL students gave the logical connectors except the coordinating conjunctions such as *so* a very low priority to convey causal relationship. Third, *actually* and *basically* were also greatly underused by the TESOL students. *Actually* is "used to stress that a statement is true especially when it differs in some way from what might have been thought or expected" (Merriam-Webster, N.D.-a), and *basically* is "used to show that a statement is expressing the most important reason for something" (Merriam-Webster, N.D.-b), both of which are used to stress the previous statement to achieve a certain aim. Subjectively speaking, the TESOL students probably did not have enough time to proceed a repetition or a rephrasing after delivering part of speech when receiving the abundant streaming information in the video clip, or they did not have the capability to reproduce information in the shortest possible time. Objectively speaking, the genre of the retelling task might have discouraged their needs to speak such clauses.

... he takes out his handkerchief and wants to see **if** there is someone come comes to his ...  
 ... so he wakes his neck looking to see **if** there is anyone to help, but nobody ...  
 ... it was it won't make the lions wake **if** he just cover his own ears, but the dog ...  
 ... And then he whips the his scarf to find **if** there is someone that could offer him help ...  
 ... He took out his napkin to check out **if** there was somebody to help him ...  
 ... the man immediately closed the door and check **if** the lion was uh wake up.  
 ... a handkerchief from his pocket and waved to see **if** anyone is there, but there is no one ...  
 ... and the man took out a scarf to see **if** there is anyone who can help him ...

Figure 1. All concordance lines with the logical connector *if* in the TESOL student corpus. (Concordance lines are process by AntConc 3.4.4m)

### C. Misuse of Logical Connectors

The logical connector *in case*, which appeared only twice in the TESOL student corpus, was misused according to its definition in Webster Online Dictionary. *In case* should be used "as a precaution against an event" (Merriam-Webster, N.D.-c); the collocations of *in case* are normally "in case of + noun" and "in case (that) + a clause", but one of the participants used it in "... and get out of the room quietly **in case to\*** wake the lion up..." The appropriate use should be "in case that the lion would wake up". The reason why the participant misused *in case* may be that the use of *in case* and *in order not to* were mixed up due to L1 transfer. *In order not to* means "為了不" in Chinese while *in case* means "以防" (to prevent something from happening). The latter contains a subjunctive mood, but Chinese does not distinguish them a lot in spoken discourse, making the participant believe that *in case to\** was equal to *in order not to*.

There are three findings from the results above. First, the EFL TESOL students tended to use a smaller set of logical connectors but use them more frequently than the English native speakers. Second, additive coordinating conjunctions such as *and*, *so*, and *but* were the most overused logical connectors by the TESOL students. Their preference of employing a smaller repertoire of logical connectors seemed to lead to the highly repetitive use of the same logical connectors in their spoken discourse, which might make their speech redundant, dull, and less interesting. Third, the most underused logical connectors such as *if*, *when*, *so that*, and *though* show that the TESOL students did not tend to or were not encouraged by the retelling task to speak adverbial clauses and further process the inner connections in the discourse-level.

The first finding echoes that in Fung and Carter's (2007) study, which investigated the range and frequencies in EFL learners' discourse marker use in spoken English and found that learners used a restricted range of DMs with a high frequency of particular markers. They deemed this unnatural use of markers resulted from the unnatural linguistic input and the traditional grammar-translation teaching method. Many locally-produced textbooks were noticed to attach emphasis only on the details of logical connector use and prepositional content rather than on the pragmatic use. For the second finding, English learners of Hong Kong Cantonese speakers (Fung & Carter, 2007) and Chinese speakers (Wang, 2008) were all found to overuse coordinating conjunctions (e.g. *and*, *but*, and *so*) and conjunctive adverbs and transitions (e.g. *however*, and *finally*) in spoken discourse. For the third finding, Schleppegrell (1996) did find that the frequencies of the adverbial clauses in ESL learners' spoken English were fewer than those in written discourse, but there was no explicit finding illustrating that EFL/ESL learners use fewer temporal adverbials and adverbial clauses than native speakers, which needs further investigation.

## V. CONCLUSION

Corpus linguistics, especially the corpus-based research methodology, would greatly contribute to the understanding of second language acquisition and the improvement of English-speaking teaching. It provides us with insights into EFL learners' spoken discourse, thus deepening our understanding of learner's language and how each item is actually used for communication. The present study demonstrates how the comparison between the learner corpus and the native speaker corpus can be employed to investigate learners' difficulties and develop corresponding teaching strategies. However, much more research needs doing until more appropriate teaching strategies and materials are established. In addition, corpus-based interlanguage contrastive studies into logical connectors would, in turn, contribute to the compilation of better learner dictionaries with more accurate and contextualized use (Granger & Tyson, 1996).

Some pedagogical implications can also be drawn from this study now that there were noticeable discrepancies between the EFL TESOL students and the native speakers. First, for teachers, it is crucial to attach more emphasis on contextualization of logical connectors in authentic texts. As Zamel (1984) mentioned, learners have to learn the detailed differences among individual semantic linking devices even though getting across each logical connector in sentence-level, passage-level, and discourse-level is challenging and time-consuming. Second, I agree with Crewe (1990) that the inter-switchable lists of logical connectors in many textbooks are quite misleading and thus are necessary to be rectified with all our might. I also agree with Zamel (1984, p. 116) that "learning when not to use them (connectors) is as important as learning when to do so". The group of the TESOL students need to in particular be cautious of the inappropriateness of overusing additive logical connectors. This requires them to search and synthesize more relevant references on the meaning, forms, and uses of logical connectors. Third, as Wierzbicka (2003) stated, logical connectors, which are important elements demonstrating one's cultural, social, and linguistic capability, are not just aimed at providing discourse cohesiveness and communication efficiency, but also at enhancing interactive and multi-cultural collaboration. This paper advocates incorporating logical connectors into the language curriculum not only as them per se but as a tool to improve learners' pragmatic competence in English speaking. We need to help learners acquire fluent and naturalistic conversational skills and a sense of security when speaking L2.

One limitation of the study emerged from the relatively small size of the TESOL student corpus, compared with that of MICASE. For the underexplored area of the logical connector use in the spoken discourse, the larger the TESOL student spoken corpus is, the stronger the conclusions we may draw from the contrastive analysis. Furthermore, the tokens of the logical connectors drawn from MICASE should not be regarded as an exhaustive list. Now that the study of logical connectors in spoken discourse is still in its infancy, an exhaustive and more consentaneous taxonomy with an actual number to be calculated in a legitimate category still needs to be developed. Another limitation may result from the genre of the retelling task. The nature of the task might not have allowed or encouraged the participants to use some certain logical connectors (e.g. *if* in conditional sentences and *so that* to express causal relationship); by simply retelling a story, they did not need to make any hypothetical or rephrased statements in adverbial clauses. My hypothesis is that the genre of the retelling task to some extent influences the logical connectors to be used; for example, additive adverbials may be more frequently used when expounding argument and supporting ideas in argumentation while temporal adverbials may be more employed in storytelling like the assigned task in this research.

Ghasemi (2013) confirmed the relevance between writing genres and logical connector use. Accordingly, further exploration can be focused on the relationship between the types of the logical connectors used and the genre of the speaking samples. From Table 1 and Table 3, it can be noticed that the temporal logical connectors such as *when*, *while*, and *suddenly* were much more frequently used by the TESOL students than the other types, but this preliminary finding cannot be the sufficient condition to prove that the genre of the task influences the use of logical connectors in spoken discourse. Further researchers can assign retelling tasks of different genres such as storytelling, argumentation, and exposition to the participants and check whether there is a correlation between genre and logical connector use.

## APPENDIX

THE UNIVERSITY OF HONG KONG  
Faculty of Education and Center for Applied English Studies

No. \_\_\_\_\_

THE CONTENTS OF THIS FORM ARE CONFIDENTIAL. INFORMATION IDENTIFYING THE RESPONDENT WILL NOT BE DISCLOSED UNDER ANY CIRCUMSTANCES.

**Introduction**

This survey is conducted by Wu Hao at MA(TESOL) program at the University of Hong Kong to better understand the features in your English spoken discourse. It should take you about three minutes to complete this questionnaire. Please give your answers sincerely as only this will guarantee the success of the investigation. This questionnaire is aimed at investigating your demographic information.

If you have any question, please feel free to contact Mr. WU Hao, Chuck by email ([wuhaodlc@connect.hku.hk](mailto:wuhaodlc@connect.hku.hk)). Thank you very much for your help. For further information of confidentiality, data retention, and participation and withdrawal, please refer to the Informed Consent Form.

**Part 1: Demographic Information**

This section is concerned with your backgrounds information.

- (a) **Name:** \_\_\_\_\_
- (b) **Gender:**  Male  Female
- (c) **Age:** \_\_\_\_\_
- (d) **Nationality:** \_\_\_\_\_
- (e) **First Language:**  Cantonese  Mandarin  other Chinese dialects (please specify \_\_\_\_\_)  
 English  Others (please specify \_\_\_\_\_)
- (f) **English proficiency:**  
IELTS: Overall: \_\_\_\_\_; Speaking: \_\_\_\_\_  
TOEFL: Overall: \_\_\_\_\_; Speaking: \_\_\_\_\_  
Others (please specify \_\_\_\_\_)
- (g) English Teaching Experience: Full-time: \_\_\_\_\_; Part-time: \_\_\_\_\_
- (h) Would you like to be an English teacher after graduation?  Yes  No  Not decided

\*\*\*\*\* This is the end of the questionnaire. Thank you very much. \*\*\*\*\*

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# Pragmatic Competence for L2 Learners: The Case of *Maybe*, *Perhaps*, and *Possibly* as Hedging Terms

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**Abstract**—The construct of hedging is a significant part of the native speaker's intuition used to indicate different degrees of un/certainty and mark various levels of likelihood. This paper explores the use of three sentence adverbs, *maybe*, *perhaps*, and *possibly*, in terms of their pragmatic differences in spite of the great deal of overlap in their semantic structure when used to hedge propositions. The use of the three hedging devices is highly affected by three parameters the: formality, positiveness, and possibility. In addition, the three hedging devices behave similarly in the sense that they occur in direct questions but not in imperatives or comparative structures and have no corresponding negative forms. They are different in being derived from an adjective or rephrased with a cognate word and occurring initially in requests or after intensifiers. Appropriate use of hedging is among the difficult aspects of learning a second/foreign language even for those who achieved an advanced level of proficiency in L2.

**Index Terms**—hedging, pragmatic competence, effective communication, social & cultural context

## I. INTRODUCTION

Hedging terms, or hedges, are linguistic items used to communication, spoken and written, more effective and meaningful in all spheres of life. In his seminal work, *Hedges: A Study in Meaning Criteria and the Logic of Fuzzy Concepts*, published in the early 1970s, G. Lakoff discussed the logical properties of hedging terms and phrases "to make things fuzzier or less fuzzy" (Lakoff, 1972, p. 195). This definition of hedges includes a wide range of expressions cutting across parts of speech that both weaken the commitment to a proposition and also intensify that commitment. The truth and falsity of speech or discourse, according to Lakoff, are a matter of degree, and hedging terms make natural language sentences more/less true or more/less false (Itani, 1995). Many researchers questioned the ways that writers and speakers give opinions, express a viewpoint, or make a judgment and attempted to account for such meanings in a number of ways and described these varied linguistic resources as *metadiscourse* (Vande Kopple, 1985; Crismore, 1989), *stance* (Biber and Finegan, 1989), *attitude* (Halliday, 1994), *epistemic modality* (Hyland, 1998), *evaluation* (Thompson, 2000), and *appraisal* (Martin, 2000; White, 2003).

Employing hedging terms is part of language use that reflects a high degree of efficiency in social communication because hedging terms add crucial aspects to how we understand each other and provide additional value that makes speech and discourse more interactive. Several schools of thought consider language use directly related to specific social, cultural and institutional contexts. Approaches like systemic functional and social constructionist have sought to elaborate how effective communication strategies can help exchanging information more successfully and to explain the roles different linguistic features play in assisting us understand an input and make feedback (Hyland, 2005). An essential aspect that makes communication effective and successful is pragmatic competence that has been defined as "the ability to communicate your intended message with all its nuances in any socio-cultural context and to interpret the message of your interlocutor as it was intended" (Fraser, 2010, p. 15). Pragmatic competence has been viewed as a distinct construct that is significant to determine and understand implied meaning through the use of contextual, sociolinguistic, sociocultural, psychological, and rhetorical factors (Purpura, 2004).

The importance of pragmatic competence as a key to effective communication has gained increasing attention in the field of teaching foreign languages in the sense that having a good command of linguistic knowledge in target language would not be enough to serve the L2 learner's communicative needs. In other words, having a broad vocabulary, errorless pronunciation and a profound knowledge of grammatical structures of the target language is not enough to communicate in that language successfully and effectively because linguistic knowledge only doesn't help L2 learners to make judgments in terms of what is socially appropriate when communicating with particular interlocutors in particular situations (Brubæk, 2013). In many settings of teaching English as a foreign language pragmatic competence is often overlooked while grammatical competence is explicitly taught and developed which produces L2 learners who may produce grammatically flawless speech, but because of the lack pragmatic competence, they nonetheless fail to achieve their communicative aims efficiently. Consequently, pragmatic competence should be given more emphasis in language education because of its value and effect in communication success.

One area where EFL learners face serious problems because of the lack of pragmatic competence is that of hedging. This paper discusses the semantic structure of three hedging terms; *maybe*, *perhaps*, and *possibly*, introduces how the three terms are used in concrete situations, compares and contrasts these terms to figure out the circumstances under which each one of them can be used, and illustrates the similarities and differences of their pragmatic value and effect in constructing the meaning. Examples in this paper were taken from *Newspaper Source Database Information*, a database that provides full text for hundreds of international newspapers.

## II. PRAGMATIC STRUCTURE

Hedging terms, including *maybe*, *perhaps*, and *possibly*, are used to indicate the degree of truth of a given statement and function to raise or drop the values in the range of the truth scale. They have been studied from different perspectives and classified into two categories according to their functions in the sentence: approximators and shields. According to Prince et al. (1982, p. 86) "Approximators contribute to the semantics by indicating some markedness, i.e., non-prototypicalness with respect to class membership, while shields affect the pragmatics by inducing implicatures conveying markedness with respect to the speaker commitment." More specifically, those hedges that modify the truth-conditions of an expression and provide fuzziness within the propositional content are called *approximators* and are used to indicate the speaker's commitment to the truth of the proposition s/he is conveying. The other class of hedges places fuzziness in the relationship between the propositional content and the speaker and does not affect the truth-conditions of an utterance. Hedges of this class are called *shields* and are incorporated in sentences to point out that the speaker is not fully committed to the truth of the proposition conveyed (Fraser, 2010).

Hedging terms can occur in different places in sentences. They can precede the figure in cases like: 'almost perfect' or 'close to the saturation point.' They can follow the figure such as '50% or so' or 'ten students or more'. In some cases we find more than one hedging term in the same phrase like 'about five minutes or so' and 'around twelve boxes or more.' The terms *maybe*, *perhaps*, and *possibly* are hedging terms that occur fairly frequently in everyday speech. Investigating the subtle differences among the three terms is significant in the sense that the relationship among *maybe*, *perhaps*, and *possibly* hasn't been defined very well in grammar books. Their pragmatic functions and discourse meanings in different situations haven't been explained in EFL and ESL textbooks. This topic is important for English learners in the sense that mastering the differences among the three words will enhance their language proficiency and improve their communication skills.

One of the problems that EFL and ESL students have in distinguishing the meanings of the three terms *maybe*, *perhaps*, and *possibly* is that dictionary definitions are circular at best in the sense that they define them in terms of each other. For example, the word *maybe* is defined in the Oxford English Dictionary as an adverb that means 'possibly' or 'perhaps.' *Perhaps* is an adverb that is defined as "a word qualifying a statement so as to express possibility with uncertainty: it may be, possibly; = perchance." The word *possibly* is defined as an adverb that is "derived from the adjective *possible*. When something is possible that means it "may be (i.e. is capable of being); that may or can exist, be done, or happen." The word *possibly* is defined as "in a possible manner; according to what may or can be (in the nature of things) by any existing power or means; within the range of possibility." Merriam Webster Dictionary defines *maybe* as an adverb that means 'perhaps'. *Perhaps* is also defined as 'maybe or possibly but not certainly.' The meanings we find for *possibly* are "in a possible manner, by any possibility, by merest chance, and perhaps." Needless to say, defining the three words in terms of each other doesn't help much. The meanings given for the three words are circular and of no help to figure out how they are different. This kind of defining words does not provide us with highly revealing clues about their meaning. It provides us with only a general sense of the meaning that helps to understand the main idea.

The three hedging terms, *maybe*, *perhaps*, and *possibly* make things 'fuzzier' in different ways. The following examples illustrate this point:

1) Here's a new theory: *Maybe* Ryan Leaf is a unifying force for the San Diego Chargers.

In this sentence there is a sense of sarcasm derived from the phrase 'Here's a new theory.' It implies that the idea that Ryan Leaf is a good player and that the team needs him has been around for a while but let's look again; we might have been wrong. Although the speaker thinks strongly that this player, Ryan Leaf, is really a unifying force for the team, he couldn't directly impose this opinion. Instead, he is promoting this opinion by making a kind of suggestion. It is a novel idea that might not be 100 percent correct but it could be. *Maybe* here is included in a declarative sentence and more of giving an opinion that contains possibility. Using *perhaps* here would have a suggesting tone in the sense that maybe nobody thought about this idea before. Using *possibly* sounds more serious and encouraging for the idea that it is possible this player is good.

2) John Stockton pushed the replay button Sunday afternoon, taking over in the fourth quarter of a tight game, just like he has many times in the past. The master of the pick-and-roll, Stockton ran it to perfection against the Sacramento Kings. He scored 12 of his 20 points in the fourth quarter and also handed out four assists, rallying the Utah Jazz in the fourth quarter for a 94-90 victory. "John has been doing that for years, you kind of take it for granted and *maybe* other teams do as well," said Karl Malone, who had 24 points, nine rebounds and six assists. "He made big shot after big shot."

This example is inside a quotation. Therefore, it is informal and colloquial. The situation seems very close to the speaker and shows doubt on his part. *Maybe* here indicates that he is not sure of which team that might take it for

granted or whether other teams would take it for granted or not. *Perhaps* and *possibly* in this context don't show as much doubt as possibility that other teams took for granted that this player, John Stockton, did it many times. *Perhaps* is the most certain among the three words in this context while *possibly* indicates a situation that has a chance of existing without having any tie to the speaker.

3) Former NHLer Brett Lindros, brother of star forward Eric Lindros, was in fair condition Sunday after an early morning snowmobile accident in cottage country near Parry Sound, *ant*. His father, Carl Lindros, said "the former New York Islander had internal injuries and *maybe* a broken rib or two."

*Maybe* is an informal, colloquial, and tentative word that shows that the reporter is not certain about how much injury that player has. The reporter is sure that the player had internal injuries but he is not sure if the player had broken ribs or not. The reporter knows for sure that they are looking for something but they haven't found it yet. Using *maybe* here indicates that he is not sure about the exact amount of the injury. *Maybe* separates the internal injuries and the broken ribs because internal injuries makes it sound much more serious and much more exact. *Maybe* here takes broken ribs away from the internal injuries. The statement "maybe a broken rib or two" makes it less sure and gives the impression that the internal injuries are worse than the broken ribs. *Perhaps* is a stronger and more formal term than *maybe* but not definite in this context. If it was used here it would give the impression that the player is more likely to have had broken ribs. Using *possibly* indicates that the reporter doesn't know if they are looking for broken ribs or not. *Possibly* here connects the situation more to the internal injuries and makes the statement "a broken rib or two" a kind of explanation to what the internal injuries might be.

4) "Next year, thank goodness, we're going to have a different president," said Senate Majority Leader Trent Lott, R-Miss. "Hopefully we'll have a better atmosphere around here. *Maybe* we can work together."

Using *maybe* adds a hint of sarcasm to the context. In fact they should be able to work together anyway because they are professional politicians. Senate Majority Leader Trent Lott doesn't want to move ahead of himself and make a promise to work with the next president. Instead, he made a statement to convey some possibility for better cooperation. It is evident that the speaker is fed up with the current atmosphere from which we understand that they did not work together well. The focus is not on the ability to work together but a subtle insult with an ironic *maybe*. Replacing *maybe* with *perhaps* would sound more positive in tone which makes it less appropriate for expressing sarcasm. Using *possibly* changes the emotional value by expecting some hope for something better in response to the conflict in the Senate House.

5) The Crisis That *Maybe* Cried Wolf.

This is a newspaper headline that is derived from the children's story 'the boy who cried wolf.' *Maybe* places uncertainty on the statement. The noun phrase 'the crisis' is a serious phrase but the use of *maybe* here is more of slang because it reveals the proposition through the sense of humor by referring to the famous children story. *Perhaps* doesn't fit here because it sounds too formal. *Possibly* doesn't fit either because it indicates remote possibility.

6) Ford Motor Co. has been sued again over an allegedly defective ignition part that can cause vehicles to stall while driving. The latest suit was filed Monday in St. Louis Circuit Court by Michael Memos, director of human resources at St. Louis University. Memos' attorneys hope to win class-action status for their suit so that they can represent others with such complaints from throughout Missouri and *perhaps* beyond. Similar suits have already been filed in at least six other states.

Using *perhaps* indicates possibility because there isn't enough information available and more research is needed. *Perhaps* here is presenting an option or goal to go beyond Missouri and functioning to keep open possibilities of these complaints. It leaves the door open to have more complaints from other states. *Maybe* and *possibly* fit here but they are not as good as *perhaps* in this context. *Maybe* does not sound as encouraging and enthusiastic as *perhaps* because of its negative connotation. *Possibly* would indicate that the situation is shaky and there is much less possibility that there are complaints from other states.

7) Lake Vostok, the largest of the polar lakes, lies beneath more than two miles (three kilometers) office and is thought to have a liquid pool with a depth of about 3,000 feet (900 meters), said John C. Priscu of Montana State University. In a report Saturday to the national meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, Priscu said the thick blanket of ice has sealed the lake's waters from the open air for *perhaps* 20 million years.

This is a scientific context in which *perhaps* is dealing with a number that is not close to exactness. This figure, 20 million years, is a large number for which he has no precise way to determine its correctness. The use of *perhaps* shows a degree of certainty based on some scientific data that this phenomenon has been for 20 million years. However, there is no solid evidence to prove it but this is what he thinks. Even though *perhaps* is the strongest among the three words in terms of making a statement, it indicates that there is a great range for error in this analysis. Using *maybe* sounds less positive about the number and makes the statement less certain. *Maybe* serves in this context to give a sense of estimating and sounds a little too personal. *Possibly* indicates that there is a possibility or chance of occurrence but we don't know and we can't prove it.

8) In two years, Victoria Keenan went from victim to victor over the Aryan Nations. Her lawsuit bankrupted the neo-Nazis, and last week she took possession of the hate group's 20-acre compound, which housed and trained some of the nation's most violent racists and anti-Semites. "We hope to get the evilness out of there and

turn it around to something positive," said Keenan' son, Jason. They said they plan to sell the compound, *perhaps* to a human rights organization.

They are definitely going to sell it but they do not know to whom. Using *perhaps* indicates that they might want to sell it to a human rights organization because they think it might be a fair trade but the context does not sound that there is such an organization interested in buying it right now. It shows a desire and gives a sense of confidence that this thing can really happen. *Maybe* adds more uncertainty to the situation in the sense that they look at the possibilities around them. If they find a human rights organization that is interested in buying the compound, they might sell it to that organization. *Possibly* gives a stronger sense about the possibility of selling the compound to a human rights organization and indicates that this chance is out there but they have not contacted anybody yet.

9) A man named Leo Anderson asked *perhaps* the hardest question of Tuesday night's third and final presidential debate, scolding Texas Gov. Bush for appearing "overly proud" when he spoke in the previous debate of enforcing the death penalty.

The reporter thinks that this particular question was the hardest but there is still no way to determine or judge precisely. By using *perhaps* he is making a kind of speculation and showing his opinion that he favors that particular question, but he doesn't make it clear in order not to leave anybody else out of it. In other words *perhaps* adds some formal flavor by considering other people's opinions that are different from the speaker's opinion about the hardest question. *Possibly* is close to *perhaps* in this context but it indicates less possibility. Using *maybe* would indicate almost the same idea with even less possibility because it neutral in such a context and doesn't carry a sense of positiveness.

10) With the success of the Sydney Games *perhaps* still fresh in their minds, a survey released Tuesday showed that 68 per cent of Canadians polled were in favor of Toronto's bid to host the 2008 Summer Olympics.

*Perhaps* in this sentence is a part of a cause and effect relationship. People supported Toronto's bid to host the 2008 Summer Olympics because they were happy for the success of the Sydney Games. The introductory phrase that contains *perhaps* in it offers a rationale for the context of the rest of the sentence. Using *maybe* here is a little bit funny and doesn't sound right because the reporter is guessing too much without having enough information with which he can make the right prediction. *Possibly* is more usable in this context but it indicates less possibility.

11) As Wertime writes, his father, Theodore Wertime, was multitalented: an accomplished violist and violinist, a member of the Office of Strategic Services in India and China, and later a cultural attaché in Iran and Greece who *possibly* doubled as a CIA agent.

There is a big claim and serious rumor here. It sounds that the writer and possibly other people have a personal belief that Theodore Wertime is really a CIA agent but he cannot prove it because he doesn't have enough evidence. So he prefers to be on the safe side and not to introduce the idea because it is dangerous. The available alternative is to hedge it through the use of *possibly*. *Possibly* in this context indicates less possibility than *maybe* or *perhaps*. *Perhaps* comes next in the sense that it is more appropriate to sound more sure but still there is not enough evidence derived from this assumption. *Maybe* conveys more possibility here as if the writer could confirm what he is talking about.

12) An expert team from Canada, the United States and Mexico is expected to tell soon if there is mad cow disease in Brazil, whose beef products are banned in the three countries. The animal quarantine authorities of the three countries issued a joint statement here Sunday that their joint technical group will issue a technical appraisal on the disease having *possibly* occurred in Brazil as soon as possible.

This is a sentence in which *possibly* is used to not show doubt at all, but to show possibility or chance. *Possibly* here shows that they don't know for sure because the situation is still open. They don't want to make it look like they know. *Possibly* has a neutral flavor here. It indicates that some people think the mad cow disease occurred but the joint team hasn't decided. *Possibly* means other people think it did occur or may have occurred. The group isn't sure and they are not committing themselves one way or the other. The reason why the team is there is because some people think there is a good possibility that there is a mad cow disease there. The job of the team is checking to confirm or refute such allegations. The team is not sure and the reporter is not sure either. There is a strong enough chance that it occurred, so they are investigating it. If there were a low possibility maybe they wouldn't bother. *Maybe* and *perhaps* make them not real sure and they do not have evidence. They are going in there basically to find out. *Maybe* makes the process of investigation start from knowing nothing and functions to show doubt and lack of certainty about the occurrence of the disease. *Perhaps* sounds they have initial information, but they need more to be able tell exactly this disease occurred or not. It seems that the speaker is leaning towards there is a disease

13) Mining entrepreneur Robert Friedland is clearly hoping that, by taking on one of BHP's cast-offs, he is about to repeat his Voisey's Bay nickel coup. His Ivanhoe Mines, based in Canada but also listed here, announced it might be on the track of a huge copper-gold deposit in Mongolia, *possibly* as big as 750 million tons.

*Possibly* here doesn't indicate a gap at all on the part of the speaker. Rather, it indicates a situation that has a good lighting on it being true. It offers a possibility in the sense that it is a situation that might exist. *Possibly* in this context provides a kind of hopeful speculation and optimistic anticipation about the amount of the discovered deposit. It is not a fact that the copper-gold deposit in Mongolia is 750 million tons but it is possible. *Possibly* is used here in a formal context dealing specifically with businesses. It gives a feeling about how big the copper-gold deposit is. Using *maybe* in



this sentence changes the meaning significantly in the sense that the writer is very much uncertain about how big the copper-gold deposit is. Because there is not enough evidence, the writer here cannot tell exactly how much that amount is but he is speculating. The term *perhaps* gives some kind of confidence that this is the exact number and gives some impression that there is information that made them convinced about the amount and that it is almost 750 million tons.

14) Exactly who will be playing for the Big East basketball title this upcoming season is impossible to project. From defending champion St. John's to preseason favorites Connecticut and Seton Hall, the league is full of freshmen, players who are *possibly* more talented than their predecessors but definitely less experienced.

The speaker is giving an educated guess here in the sense that he thinks this is the case because of the little bit of knowledge he has. There is a kind of uncertainty about the proposition that those freshmen have more talent in playing basketball than their predecessors. The use of *possibly* reflects this kind of uncertainty because he hasn't seen them in action. Using *perhaps* would give a weaker assumption that those players are more talented because it is a formal term that is not usually used in such a context very often. Using *maybe* would change the meaning by expressing less chance that those players are talented and would make experience more important than talent.

15) Who could *possibly* still be in favor of the Electoral College after this election?

This is an example in which the word *possibly* occurs in a question. By using *possibly* in this context the speaker sounds confident that almost everybody is against the Electoral College. This is an excellent example that shows how *possibly* indicates only little possibility. The speaker chose *possibly* to indicate that there are only a few people who might still support the Electoral College. Neither *maybe* nor *perhaps* fit here because they would add more opportunity to the sentence which goes against the wish of the speaker.

From the above examples we conclude that *maybe*, *perhaps*, and *possibly* are sentence adverbs that function as hedging terms to express possibility and indicate likelihood of propositions in sentences. Sentence adverbs, in general, occupy an important position in English vocabulary and grammar. The three terms have high frequency of occurrence in everyday language and have great variation of usage in different situations.

Structurally and functionally, *maybe*, *perhaps*, and *possibly* share some characteristics and differ with respect to some other characteristics. Three parameters affected the use of the three adverbs in the examples above: formality, positiveness, and possibility. *Maybe* is an informal term that is used to hold back certainty in a negative way and indicates negative connotation. *Perhaps* is a formal term that indicates a positive connotation. The two terms seem to behave similarly when it comes to reveal possibility. The possibility level of propositions that include *maybe* or *perhaps* may go up, roughly speaking, to 30-50%. *Possibly* is a term that is less formal and positive than *perhaps* but more formal and positive than *maybe*. *Possibly* indicates more remote possibility whose chance of occurrence may not exceed 10% which indicates it is not so established.

The adverbs *maybe* and *perhaps* are neutral terms that provide degrees of possibility to confirm or refute a proposition. They come in the middle of the scale of un/certainty in the sense that they occupy the central point between full certainty and full uncertainty. Propositions expressed with *perhaps* are more positive than those expressed with *maybe*. *Perhaps* conveys little more possibility than *maybe* because it is more formal and is used more in writing. A quick look at the frequency of usage of the three terms in a search database that gives abstracts like *Eric* shows the following results: *perhaps* occurs 2478 times, *possibly* occurs 1556 times, and *maybe* occurs only 148 times.

*Maybe* is less certain than *perhaps*. A sentence with *maybe* doesn't provide the addressee with an adequate amount of information to let him know. This is the reason why *maybe* is incorporated when exams of math and logic are designed. *Possibly* is a neutral term according to the formality and positiveness scales. Therefore, propositions expressed with *possibly* less formal and positive than those expressed with *perhaps* but more formal and positive than those expressed with *maybe*. However, *possibly* indicates less possibility than both *maybe* and *perhaps*. Propositions expressed with *possibly* have less chance and less likelihood to come true than those expressed with *maybe*.

The following grid illustrates these variations:

Adverb	Formality	Positiveness	Possibility
Maybe	-	-	30-50 %
Perhaps	+	+	
Possibly	Neutral	Neutral	10 %

Along with the semantic differences the terms *maybe*, *perhaps*, and *possibly* have other types of differences. Morphologically speaking, *possibly* is an adverb that is derived from the adjective *possible*. *Maybe* and *perhaps* are not derived from adjectives. This morphological difference makes the sentence that has *possibly* in it 'rephrasable' by changing the adverb *possibly* to the adjective *possible*, along with some other changes, and give the same meaning. Sentences with *maybe* and *perhaps* cannot be rephrased the same way. The following two sentences make a good example of the rephrasing process that produces synonymous sentences:

16) Students feel that possibly the teacher wanted to trick them in the quiz.

17) Students feel that it is possible that the teacher wanted to trick them in the quiz.

There is another interesting point about the morphology of *maybe*, *perhaps*, and *possibly* that marks some similarity. The three terms do not have negative corresponding forms with negation prefixes. This may not be surprising for *maybe* and *perhaps* but it is surprising for *possibly*. The adverb *possibly* is derived from the adjective *possible* which has a

negative corresponding form. The negative prefix *im* can precede *possible* to make the adjective *impossible* that gives the opposite meaning. This is not the case with the adverb *possibly*. It does not take any negative prefix to form an opposite meaning.

Occurring after intensifying terms such as ‘very’ and ‘quite’ is another difference among *maybe*, *perhaps*, and *possibly*. *Maybe* and *perhaps* cannot occur after intensifiers for reasons related to their basic meanings. Consider the following examples:

18) \* This is *very maybe* the last time this group is together.

19) \* Colin Powell *quite perhaps* will be the next secretary of state if Bush is elected.

Both words are used to convey uncertainty. Speakers use *maybe* and *perhaps* in order not to commit themselves to certain predictions. *Maybe* and *perhaps* come in the middle of the scale between full possibility and zero possibility. They give equal weight to each side. The sentence, ‘maybe we can convince her’ means there are equal chances to convince or not to convince her. *Perhaps* is slightly in the positive side. The sentence, ‘perhaps we can convince her’ implies that there is a little more chance to convince her than not to convince her. Consequently, *maybe* and *perhaps* are not preceded by intensifiers because there is nothing to intensify.

*Possibly* can occur after intensifiers. The basic meaning of *possibly* indicates a relatively high degree of possibility. Predictions conveyed by *possibly* imply a good level of positiveness. Therefore, they can be intensified. *Possibly* can be preceded by a variety of intensifiers. The phrases ‘very possibly’ and ‘quite possibly’ are common used phrases in American English. Here are two examples on both of them:

20) In 1517 David Cecil took a 21-year lease of land in Essendine at a rent of £18. 3s. 3d.; not being the freeholder he was not mentioned in the muster, and there is no means of telling whether his global assessment of £46 at Tinwell embodied the profit of this farm which he *very possibly* sublet.

21) If Emerson had had the finance to develop a team properly, if his brother had been a better manager and if Emerson himself had not become frustrated as a driver by his car's constant failures and retirements, if, in short, he had got his act together, he would *quite possibly* have made a first-class constructor and been hailed as a Brazilian Ferrari or Chapman.

Regular adverbs can occur in comparative structures. Sentences such as ‘he ran more quickly than I did’ or ‘she answered less accurately than her classmates’ are well-formed sentences. It turns out that the adverbs *maybe*, *perhaps*, and *possibly* cannot occur in such structures. The basic meanings of these words indicate uncertainty, so we cannot compare levels of uncertainty to each other. The following set of examples illustrate this point:

22) \* Matsushita Communication Industrial Co. will re-enter the U.S. mobile phone market more *possibly* next year after a break of nearly five years, President Takashi said Thursday.

23) \* I slept an hour, and then *less maybe* I slept another 30 or 40 minutes in different snippets.

24) \* The savvy San Francisco fans are well aware that their chances to see No. 80, a certain Hall of Famer and *more perhaps* the greatest receiver in NFL history, are dwindling. The 49ers' final two home games are Sunday against the New Orleans Saints and Dec. 17 against the Chicago Bears.

Another characteristic that *maybe*, *perhaps*, and *possibly* have in common is that they can occur in interrogative sentences to indicate various types of speakers’ attitudes concerning anticipating positive or negative answers. The original meaning of the three terms influence the meaning of questions that they occur in. The following examples will illustrate this point:

25) Could you *possibly* hand that book to me?

26) Could you *maybe* hand that book to me?

27) Could you *perhaps* hand that book to me?

In (25) there is an assumption that the addressee is physically able to hand the book and expectation of high level that his response would be positive while (26) and (27) sound weird but they can occur in special cases. The speaker in (25) has 50/50 expectation. It is as if he is saying, ‘would you be willing to hand that book to me?’ or ‘do you have time to hand that book to me?’ In (27) there is very little chance for a positive response. The wording of this question indicates that it is asked in an inconvenient situation. It is as if the speaker is interrupting somebody and saying, ‘could you by any means hand that book to me?’

*Possibly* occurs in direct questions with no problems while the occurrence of *maybe* and *perhaps* is not as common. However, this is not the case with some types of request that sound like indirect questions where *maybe* and *perhaps* can occur perfectly. Here are two examples:

28) *Maybe* you can help me out?

29) *Perhaps* you can help me out?

The occurrence of *possibly* in such request forms seems peculiar and sounds odd. It is highly unusual that a native speaker would utter a sentence like the one in (30):

30) \* *Possibly* you can help me out?

A request of this kind is an appeal that is softened in the form of a question that is marked and characterized by raising intonation at the end of the utterance. Usually people choose a neutral form of request for the purpose of not burdening others. *Maybe* and *perhaps* serve this purpose. They are good terms to use in such cases because they don’t imply high expectations for positive response from the part of the addressee. Sentences like the one in (28) are more

informal and occur more frequently than sentences like those in (29) and (30). Sentence (29) is slightly more formal than (28). Sentences like the one in (30) are not common because it is a request that implies a 'yes' answer. Using *possibly* in indirect questions is weird because *possibly* is too positive to be used as a terms to hedge a request.

Another interesting characteristic that *maybe*, *perhaps*, and *possibly* have in common is that they don't occur in imperative sentences. The reason for this observable fact is that the basic meanings of these three terms conflict with the concept of expressing commands. Their basic meanings as hedging terms convey possibility and indicate uncertainty so they cannot be used in commands that should sound too strong and definite. Moreover, studying the use of hedging terms from a sociolinguistic aspect is interesting. Hedging terms in multi-gender conversations are considered polite statements and analyzed as rational strategies designed to save face. Previous research has established that saving face is composed of two needs: the need to be unimpeded in conversation (negative politeness) and the need to be approved of (positive politeness). Face-threatening acts that include interruptions and ignoring selection of other speakers can be diminished by politeness strategies such as hedges, minimal responses, indirect constructions, and tag-questions. Women more often employed politeness strategies to minimize a face-threatening act and to show interest and approval than men (Buikema & Roeters, 1982).

The following grids summarize the similarities and differences among *maybe*, *perhaps*, and *possibly*.

	Attribute	Maybe	Perhaps	Possibly
Similarities	Convey possibility	+	+	+
	Occur in imperatives	-	-	-
	Occur in direct questions	+	+	+
	Have a corresponding negative form	-	-	-
	Occur in comparative structures	-	-	-
Differences	Derived from an adjective	-	-	+
	Can be rephrased with a cognate word	-	-	+
	Occur initially in request	+	+	-
	Occur after intensifiers	-	-	+

### III. CONCLUSION

This paper looked at the terms *maybe*, *perhaps*, and *possibly* in light of their use as hedges and explored the points in which the three terms behave similarly and differently. Even though the three terms *maybe*, *perhaps*, and *possibly* are treated as synonyms in dictionaries and defined in terms of each other, they are different in the sense that they convey different levels of formality, positiveness, and possibility that indicate various categories of un/certainty and likelihood. In a lot of cases these three terms seem interchangeable and can replace one another with no or little change in meaning. In some other cases it is not appropriate to use them interchangeably because of various contextual factors.

The proper use of *maybe*, *perhaps*, and *possibly*, along with other hedging terms, is among the hard points for EFL and ESL students. Part of the difficulty comes from the fact that other languages have different ways to qualify commitment to a claim, express possibility, and convey uncertainty that do not resemble those found in English. Beginners in learning English tend to transfer points from their native languages into English especially because their vocabulary is still in the process of development and their knowledge about the grammatical features, register, or subtle connotations of a word is still limited. Another possible reason why EFL and ESL students make mistakes in using hedges is because hedging terms are not introduced in EFL and ESL textbooks and not taught in classrooms. The result is that L2 students struggle to hedge effectively and make mistakes when expressing un/certainty because they did not understand the specific features behind using particular hedging terms in particular cases.

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# Chinese to English Lexical Transfer Errors in the Writing of Rural Senior High School Students

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**Abstract**—The influence of first language (L1) has been widely recognized as a crucial factor in Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Language transfer is a typical phenomenon originating from this impact of L1. Many studies have tried to explore the influence of learners' L1 on their SLA. This paper reports a study conducted at a rural senior high school in eastern China. Based on the lexical transfer taxonomy proposed by Dodigovic et al (2015), this research attempted to at first identify examples of lexical transfer from Chinese to English caused by (1) Chinese polysemes, (2) Chinese collocations, and (3) multiword units (MWUs) yielded from learners writing. Subsequently, the patterns of and underlying reasons for lexical transfer were traced. 115 pieces of students writing were examined for error collection, and some typical examples from which were further analyzed to show how negative lexical transfer occurs. The results suggest that a great proportion of errors were caused by Chinese polysemes. The significant difference between the lexical specificity of Chinese and English as well as the word-for-word semantic equivalent assumption of L2 learners were found to be important reasons for negative lexical transfer. Pedagogical implications such adopting a wider range of semantization strategies and preventing learners from taking word-for-word relation between L1 and L2 for granted were drawn from the discussion.

**Index Terms**— lexical transfer, error, English writing, Chinese EFL learners, rural high school

## I. INTRODUCTION

Second language acquisition (SLA) is a complex process influenced by a series of factors, among which learners' mother tongue, namely their first language (L1), can be a crucial one (Yule, 2014). Research has shown that learners' L1 can either facilitate or impede their SLA when they attempt to acquire the language with the help of the L1 (Gass & Selinker, 1983). Specifically, when a linguistic feature between one's L1 and L2 happens to be the same, it will lead to correct understanding and use of the L2, while in the other case it will cause errors (Gass, 2013). This process is so-called "language transfer" as defined by Odlin (1989).

The occurrence of language transfer has been discovered at different linguistic levels, among which the transfer at lexical level is usually of great concern due to its role as the most basic unit in SLA (Schmitt, 2000). Many studies (Ellis, 2008; Jiang, 2000) have delved into transfer at lexical level and support the important role it plays in SLA. For example, Llach (2011) points out that the learning of L2 vocabulary is a process in which these words are linked to already established L1 schemas. That is to say, L2 learners depend heavily on their L1 while trying to understand words from L2. However, as is claimed by Elston-Guttler and Williams (2008), not only does the mapping between lexicons and concepts vary dramatically across languages, a large proportion of words in a language are polysemous (i.e. having more than one related meaning). Therefore, the dependence of L2 learners on their L1 in acquiring new words is rather unpromising and can lead to lexical errors.

The importance of using vocabulary accurately in language practice is always being highlighted. For example, Carter (1998) says that accurate use of vocabulary helps learners express their intended meaning appropriately while awkward lexical use can easily lead to confusion, which is less tolerable than any other types of mistake. However, as for second language learning in academic setting, a number of studies (e.g. Llach, 2011) have shown the difficulty of L2 learners in dealing with vocabulary due to lexical transfer is far more significant in terms of their productive skills than receptive skills. An important reason for this phenomenon is the direction of transfer: When using an L2 receptively, learners are transferring the L2 to their L1, for which they have the language intuition and can thereby make an optimal choice; while this is not the case in the productive use of an L2, in which the direction of transfer is reversed. To improve the quality of L2 teaching and cope with lexical errors in learners L2 use, it is suggested that language teacher should pay attention to the origin and probable reasons for these errors.

Nevertheless, despite the importance of addressing lexical problems in SLA field, there are still few studies that examine lexical errors, especially for those which take the influence of L1 into account (Hemchua & Schmitt, 2006). This status quo is even true in SLA field in China, where it is pointed out that SLA research focuses overwhelmingly on grammar and structure (Dai, 2005).

This situation, namely the lack of studies relevant to lexical errors in Chinese context, is the main reason that motivates the researcher of this current project to fill the gap and contribute to the understanding of L2 lexical errors caused by Chinese English learners. Following the taxonomy of lexical transfer proposed by Dodigovic et al (2015), the

aim of this present research is to collect and analyze examples of lexical transfer errors from Chinese to English caused by (1) Chinese polysemes, (2) Chinese collocations, and (3) Chinese multiword units (MWU). In similar previous studies (Nesselhauf, 2005; Ma, 2015), learner corpus, which is defined as a set of authentic data comprised of learners' productive use of a language, is employed as the origin for example collection. In this current research, a learner corpus constituting 120 compositions by students in Rui'an No.4 High School, a rural senior high school in Zhejiang province of China, was examined. This present study is expected to address following research questions: (1) How do Chinese polysemes, Chinese collocation, and Chinese MWUs account for the impact of lexical transfer on Chinese English learners' use of English vocabulary? (2) What is the underlying reason that leads to the occurrence of negative lexical transfer from Chinese to English?

The paper is separated into six parts. In the second part, the theoretical foundations of this present research and some previous studies are reviewed. This is followed by the third part in which the learner corpus, data collection, and procedure of data analysis are described. The fourth part provides the results from data analysis and answers to research questions. Afterwards, the patterns of examples of lexical transfer collected in this study are discussed in detail in the fifth part. Finally, the sixth part concludes the research and talks about some possible pedagogical implications. Limitations and suggested future research direction are also included in this final part.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This part firstly conceptualizes key terms used in this study by presenting literature relevant to vocabulary and lexical transfer. Then, three categories of lexical transfer to be used as the framework for data collection in this present study are defined based on the taxonomy proposed by Dodigovic et al (2015).

### A. *Lexicons and Transfer at Lexical Level*

#### 1. Studies on vocabulary in SLA

The crucial role played by vocabulary in SLA has been increasingly recognized by researchers and linguists. For example, Nation (2001) claims that vocabulary is the most basic building block through which the language can be constructed and understood in other levels like sentences and texts. However, while the importance of vocabulary is being highlighted, more and more studies find the difficulty of L2 learners in learning L2 lexicons, which make them struggle with lexical errors (Schmitt, 2000).

The reason for this problem can be largely attributed to the nature of SLA. Different from first language acquisition in which the process is largely based on natural context of use (Clark, 2009), the process of SLA is usually more conscious and definition-dependent (Jiang, 2000). In this way, L2 words are weakly linked to concepts in L2 learners' mind, which drives them to seek L1 words to help with the understanding and use of L2 words. This is often referred to as the embodiment of subordinate bilingualism (Cook & Singleton, 2014). This way of processing language in the production of L2 is said to be a major cause of lexical errors, which is also recognized as "transfer" (Gass & Selinker, 1983).

#### 2. Lexical transfer

Despite the existence of lexical transfer was recognized in various studies, there is still the divergence regarding the accurate definition of this term. Under this background, the working definition of "language transfer" proposed by Odlin (1989, p.27), which is highly acknowledged in the field of SLA, is cited here to serve as the foundation of transfer discussion in this present research:

*Transfer is the influence resulting from the similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired.*

Based on this notion of transfer, there are two possible results if transfer occurs at lexical level: when the features of two lexicons from L1 and L2 are in line with each other, a positive transfer will be produced and leads to idiomatic use in L2; however, in opposite cases, negative transfer will happen and non-native like expression will be produced.

As was pointed out by Elston-Guttler and Williams (2008), the difference of lexical mapping among languages can be dramatic. Therefore, if L2 learners presuppose the consistency between an L1 and L2 lexical unit and transfer that L1 word to an L2 equivalent randomly, the probability of causing negative transfer will be high.

The process of producing negative lexical transfer can be essentially ascribed to the insufficient mastery of L2 lexicons. As was indicated by Jiang (2000), L2 learners depend heavily on definition of bilingual dictionary to understand a word. In this learning process, a new L2 word "a" is simply treated as identical to a learnt L1 word "b" in terms of their literal meaning. However, learning a word is far more than treating it as a container of its literal meaning. Rather, knowing a word means having the knowledge of the idiomatic way of using it, the context in which it usually appears, its possible function in an expression, and other words with which it is often related (Dodigovic, 2005). Influenced by these factors, the equivalent for a given L1 word in L2 can vary sharply, which renders the word-for-word transfer unpromising.

### B. *The Taxonomy of Lexical Transfer*

In a recent study done by Dodigovic et al (2015), more than 300 pieces of dissertation written by Chinese students of tertiary level were collected. Through analyzing over 500 examples of negative lexical transfer yielded, it was found

they can be best classified in terms of polyseme, collocation, and MWU. This taxonomy is adopted in this present study for data arrangement.

### 1. Transfer caused by L1 polysemes

According to Yule (2014), polysemy means one form (word) having two or more related meanings by extension. For example, “hand” can mean either “helper” or “performer” in different contexts, while they are related in terms of “people who do a specific work”. This notion has to be distinguished from homonymy of which a word has two or more unrelated meaning (Yule, 2014), such as the “bank” as place for money and the “bank” as land along the side of a river.

Schmitt (2000) points out that the more basic and frequent a word is, the more likely it will be polysemous and has multiple semantically related meanings. Morimoto and Loewen (2007) even claim that most lexicons in a language tend to be polysemous. However, while polysemy is a common feature of word in most languages, it can be one of the most pronounced difficulties in learning an L2. In the framework of L1 polyseme transfer proposed by Elston-Guttler and Williams (2008), this difficulty is described as follows: given an L1 polyseme as “X” which has two related senses as “a” and “b”, yet “a” and “b” are expressed in L2 by two different lexicons “Y” and “Z” respectively, then how can L2 learners decide between “Y” and “Z” when they want to transfer “X”?

To avoid this dilemma, it is necessary to understand the knowledge of a word other than its literal meaning as was stated above (Dodigovic, 2005). In this way, learners will be able to make correct decision among possible equivalents with the help of linguistic clues in context. However, this is usually rarely reached due to the insufficient mastery of L2 vocabulary in bilingual dictionary-based leaning (Jiang, 2000). When L2 learners do not have enough ability and knowledge to transfer an L1 word reliably, they tend to interpret new lexical units on the basis of their already acquired L2 through seeking word equivalent, which is usually referred to as “semantic equivalent hypothesis” (Ijaz, 1986). This process usually leads L2 learners to cause negative lexical transfer and treat their transfer as if take-for-granted.

### 2. Transfer caused by L1 collocations

The concept of “collocation” was first formally proposed and discussed by Firth (1957, cited in Nesselhauf, 2005), after which more and more importance has been attached to it in language learning. Lewis (1997, p.25) defines collocation as “the combination of words which occur naturally with greater than random frequency”. It is generally agreed that collocation can be categorized into two basic types: semantic collocation and grammatical collocation (Nesselhauf, 2005). Whereas the former refers to phrases that consist of a dominant word (e.g. noun, adjective, verb) and a grammatical structure (e.g. preposition, infinitive) (Conzett, 2000), the latter is defined as those which are formed by two “equal words” that both contribute to the sense of the combination (Schmitt, 2000). This type of collocation can be subdivided into three types as adjective + noun, verb + noun, and noun + verb (Schmitt, 2000). Some typical examples of each category can be shown as follows:

TABLE I.  
EXAMPLES OF COLLOCATIONS

<b>Grammatical collocation</b>	<b>Semantic collocation</b>
Adhere to	Strong evidence (adj. + n.)
Familiar with	Pass exams (v. + n.)
Work on	Rain falls (n. + v.)

Although the status of collocation is often emphasized in L2 teaching and learning (Conzett, 2000), its knowledge is quite difficult for learners (even those of high proficiency) to acquire (Schmitt, 2000).

A number of studies have revealed the impact of L1 on L2 collocation learning and use. In Biskup’s (1990, cited in Nesselhauf, 2005) study, a group of Polish English learners were asked to translate collocations either from Polish to English or from English to Polish. As a result, they caused few errors in L2-L1 translation yet produced many in the other way.

In Chinese context, some research also shows similar results. For example, Lombard (1997) found that at least 1/4 of non-native like use of English collocation of Chinese English learners can be attributed to the transfer of their L1. In the research of Wang (2011), Chinese English learners’ production of English v. + n. type collocation was analyzed through collocation test and it was found that nearly 62% of their production can be traced back to the transfer from expression in Chinese. In the study of Duan and Qin (2012), contextualized use of collocation (writing) rather than test was analyzed, through which some authentic examples of negative transfer of collocation like “eat (take) medicine” and “realize (achieve) increase”.

A great number of previous studies on collocation utilize elicitation tests as the method, which has recently been criticized for being biased due to lack of data (Ma, 2015). Even for those which collected authentic data (e.g. Duan & Qin, 2012), it can be found that most of them merely present the data without delving into the underlying reasons (Ma, 2015).

### 3. Transfer caused by L1 MWUs

Words tend to link and form clusters systematically (Sinclair, 1991). Except for collocational connection of words as discussed above, sometimes words may combine together as clusters that comprise more than only collocational ties. As the language develops, some word clusters were settled down and usually used by people as set phrases. This string of lexical units is defined by scholars as multiword units (Schmitt, 2000). Based on previous research, this category can also be subdivided into four types as: idioms, proverbs, fixed phrases, and phrasal verbs (Moon, 1998; Schmitt, 2000).

The importance of MWUs in SLA has been highlighted by many researchers. For example, Biber (2009) argues for its crucial role by claiming that MWUs are stored in long-term memory and can be easily activated and thereby contribute to the efficiency of language production. This significant role enjoyed by MWUs drives many scholars (e.g. Chen & Baker, 2010; Adel & Erman, 2012) to research how MWUs are used by L2 learners and results suggest that L2 learners use MWUs less frequently than native speakers in general yet they tend to overuse some specific MWUs.

There is lack of studies that focus on the influence of L1 on L2 MWUs acquisition (Ma, 2015). Paquot (2013) collected English writing done by French learners and examined their use of English MWUs with 3-word sequences. It is found that most of their use can be traced back to French as L1 transfer and many errors were caused when the equivalent of L1 MWUs does not exist in English. This research merely analyzed MWUs of 3-word sequences without exploring the reasons for transfer.

Chen and Baker (2010) compared English academic writing done by native speakers and L2 learners. They counted some frequently used MWUs in these writing and found that native speakers use a far wider range of MWUs than L2 learners. Moreover, it was also discovered that there is dramatic difference between certain MWUs that are frequently used by native speakers and L2 learners. However, this research did not discuss the reason for these results.

### III. METHODOLOGY

#### A. *The Learner Corpus*

This present research is a corpus-based one which pre-defines Dodigovic et al's (2015) taxonomy of Chinese to English lexical transfer as the framework. While there were 120 pieces of student writing collected, five pieces among them were discarded due to illegibility. The learner corpus utilized in this current study is comprised of 115 pieces of writing (16,758 English words in total, by 60 year three students at Rui'an No.4 Senior High School). Rui'an No.4 Senior High School is a rural senior high school of provincial key status of second class.

There are mainly two reasons for choosing the writing by this group of students. Firstly, the English proficiency of rural senior high school students is more representative of the average level of Chinese senior high school students. Data has shown that the proportion of rural senior high school in mainland China can be over 60% (Shi, 2012). Due to the uneven distribution of education resources in China, there is a conspicuous gap between the English teaching quality and students' English level of rural senior high school and urban senior high school, while their English performance was rarely concerned in previous studies. Therefore, choosing this rural senior high school as the site for data collection may provide an insight into the English use of this important student group in China. Moreover, year 3 is the final year in Chinese senior high school, which means at this stage these students have already been taught all required knowledge of grammar and vocabulary needed to be mastered at senior high school level. In other words, they are able to fully represent supposed English proficiency of a senior high school student in terms of taught knowledge.

All students whose writing was collected for the learner corpus in this present research are native speakers of Chinese. They were aged 17-18 and have been learning English for at least 5 years. In the research done by Shi (2012), 800 students from 10 rural senior high schools in eastern China were assessed in terms of their English proficiency based on Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. The results show that while 483 students ranked A2, 317 students were judged to be B1. Given the class of this school (rural high school of second class provincial key), it is fair to assume their proficiency as around lower-intermediate.

The writing collected for this current study is varied in terms of genre and topic. The major types of the writing include letter, narrative prose, fairy tale, and argumentative essay. The main reason for collecting writing based on a variety of topics is to elicit students' use of vocabulary as diversely as possible, which will provide a more comprehensive insight into their actual L2 knowledge and lexical transfer pattern. It is also worth mentioning that the writing collected is done in regular simulation tests conducted to prepare students for upcoming university entrance examination so that the data is authentic and involves minimal risk.

#### B. *Procedure*

After the learner corpus was built, the data is ready for processing. Based on the taxonomy of Chinese lexical transfer as proposed by Dodigovic et al (2015), the researcher read through students' writing carefully, attempting to identify lexical errors that are possibly caused by L1 lexical transfer and record them tentatively in an Excel file.

Since the researcher of this present study is also an L2 learner of English who may not be able to judge the appropriateness of English production originating from transfer, two assistive tools, namely Youdao machine translation engine and Corpus Concordance English, were employed in the procedure. Developed by Netease, Youdao Translation is an application based on search engine and Internet corpus. This application is able to provide a considerable number of authentic examples of English translation from Chinese in context. This function is useful in helping the researcher decide which possible equivalents in English is the best one for a given Chinese polysemous word. Corpus Concordance English, available from <http://www.lex Tutor.ca>, is a webpage-based program built on the corpus of Brown, BNC Written, and Spoken. This program can be used to check how frequently proper collocation patterns appear in authentic English, through which the researcher is able to judge if a certain transfer of collocation is appropriate.

In this current research, every lexical error produced as an English word, collocation, and an MWU was regarded as a single example of negative transfer. All examples recorded tentatively at the first stage were checked with the assistance



of Youdao Translation and Corpus Concordance English and some examples were deleted if they pertain to positive transfer or non-transfer error. Subsequently, instances of typical Chinese negative lexical transfer were arranged in an Excel file according to three categories (polyseme, collocation, and MWU) as defined by Dodigovic et al (2015). Apart from the category, the Chinese pinyin, Chinese equivalent, correct English, and the context of each example were indicated in the file (see appendix for the list of all examples of negative lexical transfer from Chinese).

Error frequency of examples from each category is also calculated to see if negative lexical transfer is a significant error type in the writing of target students. In order to render the data comparable to previous studies, the raw frequency was normed to a basis of 1,000 words according to the formula suggested by Biber, Conrad and Reppen (1998):

$$\text{Error frequency} = (\text{total error number} / \text{total word count}) * 1,000$$

#### IV. RESULTS

Graphs illustrating major statistical results and finding drawn from data analysis in this current research are presented in this part. There are totally 101 typical examples of negative lexical transfer identified in the learner corpus incorporating 115 pieces of student writing. With regard to the first research question: How do Chinese polysemes, Chinese collocation, and Chinese MWUs account for the impact of lexical transfer on Chinese English learners' use of English vocabulary? The number of lexical errors stemming from the three pre-defined types of Chinese transfer was calculated.

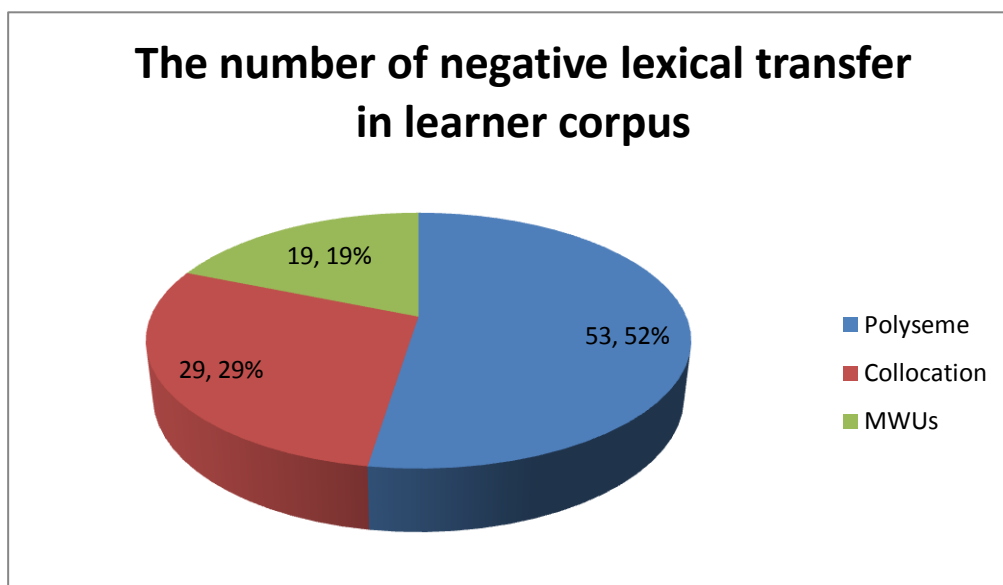


Figure 4.1 Negative lexical transfer in three categories

Figure 4.1 indicates the number and proportion of lexical errors caused by transfer from Chinese polysemes, Chinese collocations, and Chinese MWUs respectively. It can be seen that Chinese polysemes are responsible for the greatest number of lexical errors caused in learner corpus, which constitute over half of the total number. This is followed by Chinese collocations and Chinese MWUs, which account for 29% and 19% of the total number respectively.

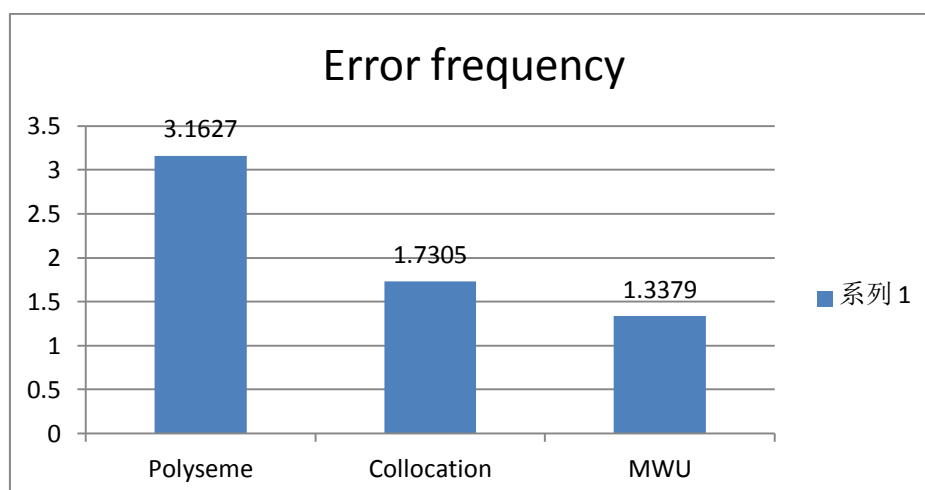


Figure 4.2 Error frequency of each category on a 1,000 words basis

Figure 4.2 shows the error frequency of each category on a 1,000 words basis. Be more specific, in writing done by target students, 3.1627, 1.7305, and 1.3378 error can be attributed to Chinese polysemes, Chinese collocations, and Chinese MWUs respectively in every 1,000 words language unit.

## V. DISCUSSION

Through considering previous studies that reach similar or different conclusions, this section firstly tries to critically interpret statistics and findings obtained from this current research. Afterwards, some typical examples from each category of Chinese transfer are analyzed in terms of their pattern, based on which possible underlying reasons of L2 learners' transfer are discussed.

### A. Interpretation of the Results

The statistical results emerging from this present study suggest that the most transfer errors are caused by Chinese polysemes, which are followed by Chinese collocations and Chinese MWUs. This significant impact of polysemous words on Chinese English learners' transfer is consistent with the findings in some recent studies (Cheng, 2013; Ma, 2015). In the research of Cheng (2013), a group of Chinese English learners of higher-intermediate proficiency were asked to translate several Chinese words and lexical bundles into English in context. As a result, the highest error rate was found in participants' transfer of single Chinese polysemous words. In the study of Ma (2015), 50 pieces of dissertation written by advanced Chinese English learners (C1 level) were analyzed in terms of negative transfer. Among 395 identified lexical transfer errors, those caused by Chinese polysemes are found to account for 50% of the total number. This consistency of results may indicate that polysemous words are the lexical category which poses greatest difficulty on Chinese English learners, regardless of their current L2 proficiency level. This conclusion can be further validated and polished by comparing the error frequency of three categories in these two studies.

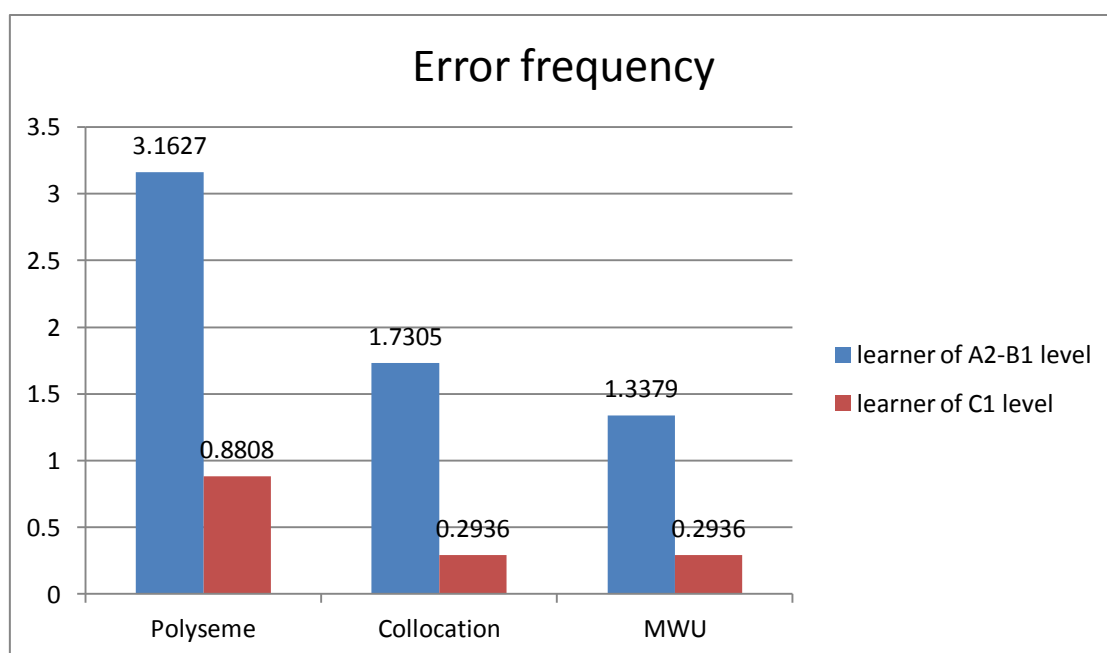


Figure 5.1 Error frequency of each category on a 1,000 words basis

Figure 5.1 indicates that lexical errors caused by Chinese polysemes are most significant in both two groups of learners, though the increase of proficiency leads to the decline of error frequency in each category respectively.

This conspicuous influence of Chinese polysemes can be partly explained by the uniqueness of Chinese lexical system. Many studies (e.g. McBride-Chang et al, 2006; Huang, et al, 2010) have pointed out that Chinese can be one of the most economical languages in terms of vocabulary. Specifically, while English distributes different meanings to several separate words, Chinese uses the same word (character) to do so (Duan and Qin, 2012). However, this makes the word specificity between Chinese and English rather asymmetric; in other words, learners are likely to face several possible equivalents when transferring a Chinese polyseme into English. This feature of Chinese vocabulary makes polysemes a quite difficult category for Chinese English learners to cope with in language transfer.

### B. Negative Lexical Transfer Caused by Chinese Polysemes

In order to gain a deeper insight into Chinese to English negative lexical transfer, typical examples identified in the research are discussed here in detail. As was shown in the Results part, the lexical errors stemming from Chinese polysemes are of greatest proportion (52%) among three categories. It was also revealed that this result can be partly ascribed to the dramatic difference between the lexical specificity between English and Chinese. Two typical examples

are presented as follows (the words being negative transferred are underlined; possible correction is marked by “\*”; grammatical error is not corrected):

1. 那个周末你可以住我家

You can live in my home at that weekend.

\*You can stay at my home at that weekend.

The Chinese word “住” (zhu) is polysemous and can be transferred to English by at least two lexical forms: “live” and “stay”. Through checking Youdao Translation, it can be found that these two words have different usage, albeit both of them can refer to “someone being in somewhere”. For “live”, it is usually used to talk about a place where a person’s home or residence is located. This notion implies a place for relatively long period of living. However, the use of “stay” often suggests a place for temporary living, such as a hotel for stay during a journey. In the example sentence shown above, it is clear that a place for short-term (a weekend) living is being mentioned, and therefore “stay” should be the correct equivalent for “住” here.

2. 我找到了一个银行并把硬币兑换成了现金。

I found a bank and changed some coins into cash.

\*I found a bank and exchanged some coins for cash.

While the pattern of most examples caused by Chinese polysemes as found in the study is similar to Example 1 above (i.e. the inability of choosing correctly among possible equivalents), there are a few special cases like example 2 that worth analyzing. This type of example is special because students produce a word that does not pertain to any possible equivalent of the source language. Specifically, in this case, “change” cannot be found as the literal translation of “兑换” (dui huan) in Chinese-English bilingual dictionary. This type of transfer can be explained by the case pointed out by Jiang (2000), where L2 learners have to transfer a new word which has not even been learnt through definition on bilingual dictionary. In this way, they will still attempt to achieve the transfer by searching a learnt word of similar meaning based on either Chinese character (“换” in this case) of the word.

### C. Negative Lexical Transfer Caused by Chinese Collocations

Lexical errors caused by Chinese collocations were found to account for 29% of the total number. At first, a typical example of grammatical collocation is discussed as follows:

1. 然而在另一方面，这可能造成危险

In the other hand, this may cause danger.

\*On the other hand, this may cause danger.

In this example, the Chinese words “在” and “另一方面” are being collocated. It is clear that this student randomly selects a preposition “in” for the word “在”, without noticing that there is a set phrase (i.e. on the other hand) in English for this meaning

Subsequently, examples that belong to each subcategory of lexical collocation are discussed.

2. 为了解决焦虑，老师应当做到以下几点。(v.+n.)

To solve anxiety, teachers should do these.

\*To cope with anxiety, teachers should do these.

3. 看！天已经黑了。(adj. + n.)

Look! The sky is already black.

\*Look! The sky is already dark.

4. 这里有很多有趣的标志建筑。(n. + n.)

This place is full of interesting sign constructions.

\*This place is full of interesting landmarks.

It is clear that students were influenced by Chinese collocation in producing these English phrases. In example 2, while “solve” is a possible equivalent for the Chinese word “解决”, it is usually collocated with words like “problem” and “puzzle” but not “anxiety” in English. Another English equivalent “cope with” is more appropriate in this context. From this example, it can be seen that the problem essentially pertains to polyseme transfer, as the student failed to choose a correct equivalent for the Chinese polyseme “解决”. In example 3, while “black” is a possible choice for Chinese word “黑”, it is not used to collocate with “sky”. The reason for this negative transfer is because in Chinese people usually say “天黑了” (sky is black), which is assumed to be the same in English by the student in this case. In example 4, the whole phrase is unlinked by the student into “标志性” and “建筑” and then transferred literally into “sign” and “construction” respectively. Nevertheless, this sense is able to be expressed in English with only a single word “landmark”.

These examples support the findings of Yamashita and Jiang (2010), in which it was discovered that L2 learners produce more negative transfer when L1 and L2 collocations are not congruent. That is to say, since L2 learners tend to assume the word-for-word equivalent between L1 and L2, they are likely to cause transfer errors when this mechanism is not applicable in collocation transfer.

### D. Negative Lexical Transfer Caused by Chinese MWUs

Negative lexical transfer caused by Chinese MWUs was found to account for 19% of total errors in this current research. Two typical examples of this category are discussed as follows:

1. 妈妈, 我没事。

Mom, I have no matter.

\*Mom, I'm OK.

This sentence is written in a scene of a narrative where a boy replies to his mother when asked if he is traumatized by the loss of money. In this context, if the boy is OK, answers like "I'm OK" and "I'm fine" are appropriate. However, similar to the cases of collocations, the student transfer the Chinese expression "我没事" character-for-character, which leads to an unidiomatic phrase "I have no matter".

2. 这可能对他们的学习生活有帮助。

This might be beneficial for their study life.

\*This might be beneficial for their life and study.

While "学习生活" in this example seems to be a Chinese collocation, it should be classified as a MWU because the two words "学习" (study) and "生活" (life) are simply juxtaposed to express two separate senses rather than a sense as a whole. According to Tse (2010), an important feature of Chinese is the extensive use of parataxis at different linguistic levels. When this happens at lexical level, phrases without conjunctions will appear. However, this is not usually the case in English. When two words are to be simply juxtaposed in English, conjunctions like "and" or "or" are usually indispensable. Through retrieving the corpus, a possible appropriate expression for this Chinese MWU in English is "life and study" but not "study life".

#### *E. Patterns of and Possible Underlying Reasons for Negative Lexical Transfer*

Based on the examples discussed above, it can be summarized that the most essential pattern of negative lexical transfer is word-for-word translation. Be more specific, if the nature of polyseme transfer is to select from several possible equivalents for the source word, the mechanism of collocation and MWU transfer can be seen as the extension of this process – to choose equivalents for each word in the lexical strings.

Some possible underlying reasons for negative lexical transfer can be thereby speculated. Firstly, the complex connection between L1 and L2 may be the very reason for transfer. A number of previous studies (e.g. Cook, 2014; Jiang, 2000; Schmitt, 2000) have already pointed out that while L2 learners may become less dependent on their L1 with the increase of L2 proficiency, the process of seeking L1 words for help in using L2 lexicons will never disappear. This nature of SLA means that L2 learners are not likely to completely avoid transfer in their production of L2. Granted, transfer can be positive according to its basic framework proposed by Odlin (1989), yet this is rather unpromising since linguistic specificity varies significantly across languages (Elston-Guttler & Williams, 2008). Moreover, for most L2 learners whose language learning is not emerged naturally from context of use (Jiang, 2000), the mastery of L2 knowledge is usually insufficient and incomplete, which might lead them to cause negative lexical transfer more easily. This feature of L2 learners is best represented by the examples of "标志建筑" (sign construction) and "学习生活" (study life), in which transfer errors were produced due to lack of English lexical resources (landmark) and unawareness of way to juxtapose words idiomatically in English (life and study).

## VI. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

### *A. Conclusion*

In spite of being a controversial issue, the existence of language transfer has already been wide acknowledged in the field of SLA. Due to the similarity and difference between learners' L1 and L2, transfer can occur either positively or negatively at various linguistic levels. At lexical level, L2 learners' production of negative transfer is an intractable problem identified in a number of previous studies (Schmitt, 2000; Jiang, 2000; Ma 2015). In Chinese context, there are few studies that collect and analyze authentic examples of L1 transfer errors caused by Chinese English learners. To fix the gap, this current research tried to identify and analyze instances of negative lexical transfer caused by Chinese polysemes, Chinese collocations, and Chinese MWUs based on the taxonomy proposed by Dodigovic et al (2015). To render the results representative of English learners of lower-intermediate proficiency, 120 pieces of writing done by students from a rural senior high school were collected, through which the learner corpus was built for further analysis. Results suggest that more than half (52%) of the transfer errors are caused by Chinese polysemes, which are followed by Chinese collocations (29%) and Chinese MWUs (19%). Detailed analysis of typical examples from each category indicates misselection of possible L2 equivalents and word-for-word translation as the most pronounced patterns of lexical transfer errors. It was then inferred that the dramatic difference of lexical specificity among languages, the nature of L2 lexical processing model in SLA, and the lack of L2 knowledge could be significant underlying reasons for causing negative lexical transfer.

### *B. Pedagogical Implications*

Some pedagogical implication for L2 lexical teaching and learning can be drawn from the results and analysis in this present study. At first, it is necessary to enrich the ways in which L2 words are taught to or learnt by students. Although

memorizing literal definition is said to be helpful at the beginning stage of learning an L2 word (Jiang, 2004), overuse of this approach may render the influence of L1 ingrained in learners mind. To solve this problem, it will be beneficial to utilize a wider range of semantization strategies such as inferring from reading context and visual aids. The essence of these approaches is to help students learn more traits (e.g. contextual use and associated register) embedded in L2 words rather than merely literal meaning.

Subsequently, it is important for teachers to prevent students from being trapped into taking word-for-word transfer pattern for granted. As was revealed in this present study, this assumption of transfer pattern is largely responsible for negative lexical transfer. Therefore, teachers may need to make students fully aware of the infeasibility of this transfer pattern and discourage them to transfer their L1 arbitrarily into L2 without knowing the appropriate expression beforehand.

### C. Limitations and Future Research

Although some findings have been obtained from this present study which may be pedagogically implicational, some limitations of the study cannot be ignored in terms of its methodology. Firstly, as for the learner corpus, all 120 pieces of writing were collected from merely one rural senior high school. Given the dramatic variation of educational context in different regions in mainland China, this single origin of data is far from being representative. Therefore, it is suggested that future studies should involve students from more schools in different regions to increase comprehensiveness and representativeness of results.

In addition, the analysis of transfer pattern can be another limitation. Although the taxonomy proposed by Dodigovic et al (2015) provides a rough framework for the classification of lexical transfer errors, more subtypes of negative lexical transfer can be noticed through the pattern analysis in this present study. However, due to limitation on research scale, these subtypes were only partly discussed without being systematically categorized in this study. In order to deepen the understanding of negative lexical transfer from Chinese to English, it will be necessary to focus authentic examples of lexical transfer errors yielded from each category and process further analysis.

#### APPENDIX. THE EXAMPLES OF NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER FROM CHINESE TO ENGLISH IN THE WRITING OF STUDENTS

Category	Expression as found	Chinese equivalent	Chinese equivalent in pinyin	Correct English	Context	File NO
C	In the other hand	在另一方面	zai ling yi fang mian	on the other hand	But in the other hand, it causes dangers	1
P	live	住	zhu	stay	You can live in my home	3
C	sign construction	标志建筑	biao zhi xing jian zhu	landmark	This place is full of interesting sign constructions	6
MWU	study life	学习生活	xue xi sheng huo	life and study	This might be beneficial for their study life	13
C	solve anxiety	解决	jie jue	cope with	To solve anxiety, teachers need to...	56
P	change	兑换	dui huan	exchange	I found a bank and changed some coins into cash	86
MWU	I have no matter	我没事	mei shi	I'm OK	"Mom, I have no matter"	112
C	black sky	天黑	tian hei	dark sky	Look! The sky is already black	115

**Note:** Only examples analyzed in this paper are shown in the appendix due to space constraints. If necessary, please visit [http://joshua94.lofter.com/post/20588e5b\\_12e87098c](http://joshua94.lofter.com/post/20588e5b_12e87098c) for all 101 examples collected in the research.

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# A Corpus-based Study of Valency Sentence Patterns of English Verbs\*

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**Abstract**—Based on the COCA, this paper investigates valency sentence patterns of the English verb APPOINT from the perspective of syntactic valency. And it analyzes the dominated components of verbs with the corpus linguistic method of collocation. It has been found: (1) The verb APPOINT has seven valency sentence patterns identified in the active sentences and fifteen patterns in the passive sentences. (2) The complement types associated with the verb APPOINT include subject complement, object complement, nominal complement with or without *as*, verbal complement with an infinitive or with *to-be* followed by a noun or a noun phrase, prepositional complement with the preposition *to*, *by* or *for*. (3) There is regularity existing in the complements. This present study describes valency sentence patterns of verbs, taking the sentence as the smallest research unit and verbs as the core of the sentence. The research results provide a new sight for second language teaching, especially for English vocabulary teaching.

**Index Terms**—valency theory, valency sentence pattern, corpus

## I. INTRODUCTION

Local grammar has become a new and hot research field for corpus linguistics. It is a descriptive grammatically path for specific language use, where it uses corpus and computational linguistics methods to describe typically communicative functions or special expressions in various genres. Its purpose is to meet the need for automatic information processing of a large number of authentic texts. The emergence of local grammars on the one hand could compensate for the disadvantages of general grammar in describing the actual language. On the other hand, it provides a new research perspective of the phraseology, natural language processing and even discourse analysis (Zhang & Wei, 2017). And valency represents a local grammar which is concerned with the lexicalization of syntax, often called lexico-grammar (Richard, 2014). The concept of valency originates from the valency theory; it reflects the dominated ability of verbs, adjectives, and nouns with valency requirements on other lexical items. By describing the valency of these words, their syntactic and semantic competencies could be made a succinct description. Therefore, valency theory has become an effective research approach to the language structure (Yuan, 2010).

The previous research on valency theory is largely conducted on the basis of introspective data from the perspective of top-down and the result solely presents the number of valency of words. This causes that it is not clear about how to use the words. Reichardt (2014) adopted the methodology of fusing corpus linguistics and valency theory and he explored valency sentence patterns of verbs and interrelationship of local grammar, meaning, and translation equivalence, taking the English verb CONSIDER as an example. The reason why corpus linguistics is fused is that corpus provides authentic texts and is found to be a tool in verifying sentence pattern. The features of valency pattern and valency relationship can be determined by observing the context of different language units in large corpora (Chen, 2009), because valency sentence pattern has something in common with pattern grammar (Sinclair, 1991; Hunston & Francis, 2000) of corpus linguistics.

However, there is little research including the grammatical category of voice when studying verb valency structure. And language should be described truly and comprehensively. Therefore, this paper will investigate valency sentence patterns of verbs from the perspective of syntactic valency including the category of voice, taking the verb English APPOINT as an example. And it will analyze dominated components of verbs employed a corpus linguistic method of collocation. The results can facilitate the teaching of college English vocabulary and promote the authenticity and fluency of learners' second language.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. The Principle of Valency Theory

Valency theory is a grammatical system which studies the valency of words. It is connected with the property of

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words to combine with other elements in forming phrases and sentences. It is based on dependency relations, where the concern of linguistic investigation is the sentence. And valency properties of verbs are closely related to the overall structures of a clause or sentence (Herbst, 2009), in other words, the sentence complements are dependents of the main verb of a sentence or clause. Therefore, clause forms the smallest communicative entity. And the sentence is the smallest research unit in the studies of valency theory. What's more, the verb is taken as the core in a sentence and associates with other components to constitute one sentence. This association obeys the principle of hierarchy of verb being the dominant position and the other components subordinate in the sentence (Zhi & Liu, 2000). Verbs have the power to dominate other word classes, which form the action elements. The number of valency of a verb depends on the number of its actions (Lu, 1996). Depending on how many actions a verb can occur with, generally its valency can be classified as zero-valent, monovalent, divalent, trivalent and, though very rare, tetravalent. The zero-valent verb means that it is not mandatory to associate with the action, and can express the complete meaning itself. The monovalent verbs can only dominate an action, which means that the verb cannot be followed by an object. The bivalent verb can only dominate two actions, that is, it can only associate an object. The trivalent verb can only dominate three actions, which means two objects follow the verb. Thus, the basic point of valency theory is the core of verbs. In addition, valency is not currently restricted to study verbs, but has been applied to subclasses of all word-classes, e.g. nouns or adjectives.

### B. Categorization by Syntactic Function

A categorization of valency complements by syntactic function for sentence analysis concerns the distinction between subjects and objects in traditional grammar (Richard, 2004). In valency theory the term "complement" is used. It refers to any elements that are required by the regent to form a grammatically correct phrase or clause. Example a shows the expression of components.

a.	<u>The president</u>	appoints	<u>the Council of Minster.</u>
<b>Traditional G.</b>	<b>subject</b>		<b>object</b>
<b>Valency G.</b>	<b>subject complement</b>		<b>object complement</b>

However, in order to describe valency sentence patterns of the verb succinctly, the term "complement" after the subject and the object is usually omitted. Example b shows the expression employed in this paper. More detailed description will be elaborated in the next section.

b.	<u>She</u>	appoints	<u>Gabriel</u>	<u>the farm manager.</u>
	<b>subject</b>		<b>object</b>	<b>nominal complement</b>

### C. Valency Sentence Pattern

Depending on how many complement types a verb can occur with, its valency can be described as zero-valent, monovalent, divalent, trivalent and, though very rare, tetravalent, as shown below.

Monovalent:	c. The teacher smiled.	<sub>
Divalent:	d. The workers are building the house.	<sub obj>
Trivalent:	e. My father bought me a book.	<sub ind obj>
	f. The manager appointed Mary to handle the crisis.	<sub obj verbal complement>
	g. She appointed Gabriel her farm manager.	<sub obj nominal complement>
Tetravalent:	h. We bought many apples from an old man with 2 dollars.	<<sub obj prp1 prp2>

From the examples presented above, it is found that there are several sentence realization patterns. The terms divalent, trivalent and tetravalent solely indicate that the verb requires two, three or four complements respectively, but they do not state the required type of complements. Therefore, a trivalent sentence pattern may have different realization, which can be with a subject, an object and indirect complement (e), or with a subject, an object and verbal complement (f), or with a subject, an object and a nominal complement (g).

Nevertheless, the valency complement types presented above are not detailed and succinct enough. Therefore sub-classification based on realization forms, such as finite or non-finite clauses, is introduced in the case study. Table I shows examples description of English sentences.

TABLE I.  
DESCRIPTION OF VALENCY COMPLEMENT TYPES

i.	We	like	making cakes.
Complement type	Sub	V	Obj <sub>ing</sub>
j.	Trustees	have been appointed	to administer the pension fund.
Complement type	Sub	be V-ed	vb-to-inf

As can be seen the sentence (i) structure is <Sub V Obj<sub>ing</sub>>. This indicates the verb like is a divalent, which governs a subject complement and an object complement. Obj<sub>ing</sub> means that the object complement is realized with a ing-clause. The valency sentence (j) patterns is <Sub be V-ed vb-to-inf>. It means that the verb appoint has two valencies. One is subject complement. The other is verbal complement, whose realisation is a to-inf-clause. What can



also be known from the description of be V-ed is that the verb is used in a passive sentence. This paper will present valency sentence pattern of the verb APPOINT according to the descriptive system..

#### *D. Previous Studies on Valency Sentence Pattern*

Allerton (1982) presented 33 English valency sentence patterns and Fisher (1997) noted 59 German and 39 English valency sentence patterns. Richard (2014) explored the interrelationship of local grammar, meaning, and translation equivalence, using a case study of the English verb CONSIDER, and compared in a monolingual study with its near-synonyms BELIEVE, FEEL and THINK, and in a contrastive analysis with their German translation equivalents.

In recent years, some China scholars (Zhen & Yang, 2015, 2016; Liu & Du, 2017; Zhang, 2018) have applied valency theory to describe sentence valency patterns of English verbs, which makes the language description more concise and more conducive to learners' learning. Zhen and Yang (2015) attempted to develop a set of corpus-driven descriptive system of valency pattern of verbs, in which it not only retained the specific words and part of speech of pattern grammar, but also included the syntactic function of valency grammar. And analytical methods of corpus linguistics research were employed, for instance, collocation, semantic preference and semantic sequence. Taking the verb CONSIDER as an example, they used this descriptive system to analyze characteristics of verb valency in Chinese Learners' English Corpus (CLEC). Zhen and Yang (2016) explored the main linguistic ideas of valency pattern and collocation and their application value in English vocabulary teaching, highlighting the co-selection of lexis, structure and meaning. Then they introduced the methods to apply valency pattern and collocation to teaching. Taking CONSIDER as an example, Zhen (2016) analyzed its valency patterns and translation equivalents in the English-Chinese parallel corpus to attempt to find the ideal translation unit. In addition, the valency pattern actually was restricted by its syntactic structure, which could distinguish its sense and influenced its translation equivalents. Based on this, he drew a conclusion that the words and their valency pattern constituted the ideal translation unit. And he (2017) also took the verb CONSIDER as an example and investigated how lexical meaning and its grammatical structures were from the perspective of valency pattern. Liu & Du (2017) added the category of voice to the descriptive system and described valency patterns of the verb APPOINT appearing in the active sentences, passive sentences and others in BNC. Finally they analyzed the features of collocates and explored the relation among collocates, meaning and structure. Taking the verbs PROVIDE, HAPPEN, and LACK as examples, Zhang (2018) compared the features of these words' valency patterns and explored semantic and syntactic characteristics of node words, which were on the basis of Corpus of Contemporary American English and Ten-thousand English Compositions of Chinese Learners (TECCCL).

### III. RESEARCH DESIGN

#### *A. Research Questions*

Based on the purpose of the research, the paper aims to answer the following three questions:

- (1) What valency sentence patterns does the English verb APPOINT have in active and passive sentences?
- (2) What are the characteristics of these sentence valency patterns?
- (3) What features do dependent constitutes of the English verb APPOINT indicate?

#### *B. Research Instruments*

In this study, AntConc 3.2.1 is employed as an auxiliary tool for analysis of collocation. AntConc is developed by Laurence Anthony of Waseda University in Japan. AntConc 3.2.1 was released on January 23, 2007, which is a revised version of the previous one. What's more, it is useful software in the research of corpus linguistics. It includes a powerful set of tools that are Concordance, Concordance Plot, File View, Clusters/N-Grams, Collocates, Word List and Keyword List. In the study, the function Concordance is primarily adopted.

#### *C. Research Procedures*

The first step is data collection. [appoint] is typed in the blank of interface of search of COCA and 300 samples can be extracted manually and randomly. Secondly, it is data analysis of samples. The author analyzes each concordance line and describe each valency sentence pattern of the verb APPOINT. However, some sentences, which are declarative sentences with interrogative, ellipsis, and attributive clauses, will be processed. For example, the clause "what John was appointed as" is rewritten into "John was appointed as what"; the attributive clause "Taskopruzade's father, who was appointed kadi of Aleppo by Selim I" is rewritten into "Taskopruzade's father was appointed kadi of Aleppo by Selim I". This helps to classify valency sentence patterns of the verb APPOINT. And the next step is to analyze the collocates of the verb APPOINT with the AntConc, by setting the span as 5L to 5R. And then characteristics of collocates will be summarized. Finally, the verbs ASSIGN and NOMINATE, near-synonyms of the verb APPOINT, are searched and 200 concordance lines of each verb are drawn. Valency sentence patterns of the two words are proposed and a comparison of identical sentence valency patterns of the three words is undertaken.

### IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The study retrieved the key word—APPOINT in the online corpus COCA, and selected 300 samples randomly, where the verb APPOINT is the predicate. And valency sentence patterns of the verb APPOINT in the active and

passive sentences are described in the following part. And the feature of each complement of the verb APPOINT is analyzed. Finally, the overall feature of complements associated with the verb APPOINT is summarized.

#### A. Valency Sentence Patterns of APPOINT in the Active Sentences

Table II demonstrates seven valency sentence patterns identified for the verb APPOINT in the active sentences on the basis of the valency complement types mentioned in chapter three. In addition, the table contains respective frequency, percentage and example

TABLE II.  
VALENCY SENTENCE PATTERNS OF APPOINT IN THE ACTIVE SENTENCES

Valency sentence pattern	Frequency	Proportion	Example
Divalent			
Sub V Obj	67	22.33%	In 2001 President George W. Bush / appointed / James Rogan.
Trivalent			
Sub V Obj vb-to-inf	36	12%	The state of Texas / appointed / an attorney / to represent Ricky Eugene Kerr.
Sub V Obj to N	17	5.67%	Republican President Dwight D. Eisenhower / appointed / both Brennan and Warren / to the court.
Sub V Obj nom-as	16	5.33%	Deputy Attorney General Rod Rosenstein / appointed / Robert Mueller / as special counsel.
Sub V Obj nom	12	4%	Rocky Mountain Internet Inc. / appointed / Melinda Schild / vice president of human resources.
Sub V Obj vb-to-be-nom	5	1.67%	Aristide / had appointed / Guy Malarly / to be his minister of justice.
Tetravalent			
Sub V Obj nom-as vb-to-inf	2	0.67%	Absent owners / could appoint / willing kinsmen / as trustees / to oversee their lands and trees.

From the table II, we can directly see each valency sentence pattern of the verb APPOINT and respective frequency of occurrence and proportion in the three hundred concordance lines. As can be seen from the data in table II, the verb APPOINT in the active sentences has seven valency sentence patterns, including a divalent sentence pattern, five trivalent sentence patterns and one tetravalent sentence pattern. And the divalent pattern accounts for 22.33%; the trivalent pattern is 28.67%; the tetravalent pattern is 0.67%. The data shows that the verb APPOINT in the active sentence is usually used in the trivalent and divalent pattern and rarely in the tetravalent pattern, which means that the verb APPOINT generally associates three or two complements in the actual use. Therefore, the tetravalent pattern of APPOINT will be excluded in the detailed analysis because of too low frequency of use. The data also suggests that in the active sentences, the highest frequency of occurrence is <Sub V Obj>, followed by <Sub V Obj vb-to-inf>; three trivalent valency sentence patterns, <Sub V Obj to N>, <Sub V Obj nom-as> and <Sub V Obj nom>, virtually have the same frequency of use. What's more, the low frequency of <Sub V Obj vb-to-be-nom> and <Sub V Obj as nom vb-to-inf> implies uncommon usage. The following section will describe high-frequency valency sentence patterns.

##### (1) The Divalent Sentence Pattern in the Active Sentences

In the divalent structure the verb APPOINT associates a subject and an object complement, whose valency sentence pattern is described as Sub V Obj. Sub stands for subject complement and Obj is short for object complement. From the table above, it is found that the verb APPOINT solely has a divalent sentence pattern, which occurs most frequently and accounts for 43.22% in the active sentences. Therefore, English teachers should remind the students of paying more attention to the bivalent sentence pattern of the verb APPOINT in the second language vocabulary teaching. Except this, it is also found that there are significant features of dominant complements of the verb APPOINT in the bivalent sentence pattern.

Firstly, the feature of the subject complement is analyzed. After retrieving the note word APPOINT among the sixty seven concordance lines with AntConc, the result indicates that the subject complement primarily can be divided into five types, which are a personal pronoun, a position, a person's name, a position plus a person's name and others by frequency. By further calculations and analysis, the following data and rules are obtained. The personal pronoun occurs twenty one times, of which the highest-frequency pronoun *he* appears fourteen times. The second type is a noun meaning position, which is fifteen times. The position mainly constitutes state or government cadres, such as president, governor and mayor. And the word president occurs six times and governor and mayor are both three times in the divalent sentence pattern. And then the person's name appears eleven times. And the author finds that the person is almost prominent and possesses status and power, for instance, Donald Trump (the present president of the United States) and Guillaume Soro (the prime minister and president of the National Assembly of Cote d'Ivoire). The fourth type is the noun including a position plus a person's name, whose frequency of occurrence is low. It appears five times in total and shares the feature mentioned above. The last type is the noun that seems to have certain power. The word *court* and *board* occur five and three times respectively; the government sector also appears five times like State Legislate and Immigration Department.

From the detailed analysis, the personal pronoun *he* is usually as the subject complement of the verb APPOINT in the divalent sentence pattern. And it can be seen that each type of the subject complement seems to have power except the first type the personal pronoun. Therefore, there is a hypothesis that the highest-frequency personal pronoun *he* should replace someone with status and power. To sum up, the subject complement in the divalent sentence pattern of the verb APPOINT is either a personal pronoun or a noun which possesses power.

Then it is found that the object complement has a significant characteristic. It is primarily a noun of profession or position. The profession occurs twenty times nearly accounting for one third. And it is made up of two kinds of occupation. One is judge appearing eleven times, the other is lawyer occurring four times. And the noun of position appears ten times. It is generally a government cadre, official or a company leader such as prime minister, auditor general, officer, manager. What's more, the person's name as the object complement occurs eight times. The person is usually prominent, like Dr. Shannon Hader who was the director of the HIV/AIDS administration at Washington's Department of Health, Zoe Baird who was an American lawyer and the president of the Markle Foundation. Another type of the object complement refers to a person or a group of members, like the member, committee, board, which has six occurrences. Finally, the personal pronoun can be the object complement in the valency sentence pattern <Sub V Obj>. However, there is an exception that the time "the twenty second day" is also the object complement of the verb APPOINT, which is different from all kinds noted above. Then the meaning of the verb APPOINT in this sentence are likely not to be same as others. Generally the verb APPOINT refers to choosing someone for a position or a job, while its meaning is to arrange or decide a time for something to happen in the sentence "Johnson appointed the 22nd day". There is a hypothesis that it seems to determine the meaning of a polysemy through certain dominant complement. In summary, the profession and position are mainly as the object complement of the verb APPOINT in the valency sentence pattern <Sub V Obj>.

## (2) The Trivalent Sentence Patterns in the Active Sentences

From the data of table II, it can be calculated that the trivalent sentence pattern occurs totally eighty six times and accounts for 55.48% in the active sentences. This reflects that the verb APPOINT often associates three complements when used in the active sentences. In addition, it can be clearly seen that the verb APPOINT has five trivalent sentence patterns, which are <Sub V Obj vb-to-inf>, <Sub V Obj to N>, <Sub V Obj nom-as>, <Sub V Obj nom> and <Sub V Obj vb-to-be-nom> by frequency. The reference of Sub and Obj has been explained. Then the rest need to be expounded. *vb-to-inf* means a verbal complement with an infinitive; *vb-to-be-nom* stands for a verbal complement with to-be followed by a noun or a nominal phrase; *to N* refers to a noun or noun phrase with the preposition to; *nom-as* refers to a nominal complement with the word *as*; *nom* is short for nominal complement. The complements in the trivalent sentence pattern of the verb APPOINT has a significant regularity as well. Each valency sentence pattern is analyzed in detail in the following section, but the last trivalent sentence pattern <Sub V Obj vb-to-be-nom> is excluded because of low frequency of occurrence.

<Sub V Obj vb-to-inf> is the highest-frequency trivalent sentence pattern of the verb APPOINT in the active sentences. As can be seen, its realization includes a subject complement, an object complement and a verbal complement with an infinitive. The subject complement in the valency sentence pattern shares the features with that of the divalent sentence pattern. Similarly, it is primarily a personal pronoun, a position or profession, a person's name, a position plus a person's name, or a state apparatus. The top three are the personal pronoun, the person's name and the position plus a person's name. The person possesses power, which may be a state, government cadre or a company leader, like Sonny Perdue who served as the 81st governor of Georgia from 2003 to 2011.

The object complement is primarily a committee or an occupation. The committee occurs nine times and accounts for 45%. And it is noted that the committee sometimes has a premodifier, for instance, mediating committee and faculty committee. Thus, the word *committee* or the phrase including the head *committee* is the object complement. The second kind of the object complement is a noun of profession appearing eight times. The profession is mainly the attorney. There are five occurrences of the person's name and four times of the post plus a person's name. The person is also important and well-known, like Paul Wolfowitz who was the president of the World Bank, United States Ambassador to Indonesia, US Deputy Secretary of Defence, and a dean of the Paul H. Nitze School of Advanced International Studies at Johns Hopkins University.

At last, the feature of the verb in the verbal complement is analyzed. It is found that the verb meaning that one is in charge of something accounts for one quarter in the valency sentence pattern. It can be the following words: *head*, *serve as*, *chair*, *run*. And the verb *represent* occurs three times. Except this, the verb can be the synonyms of the words *investigate* and *monitor*.

Seventeen occurrences of the trivalent sentence pattern <Sub V Obj to N> are found. It is realized by a subject complement, an object complement and a prepositional complement with the preposition *to*. The subject complement is primarily divided into three kinds by frequency: a personal pronoun, a post plus a person's name and a person's name. Its feature is very similar with the subject complement of last trivalent sentence pattern <Sub V Obj vb-to-inf>. The object complement is mostly a person's name and a position. And both features are the same as what has been discussed above. The preposition *to* is followed by a noun or a noun phrase, which is *court*, *board*, or a government agency like the deliberative body and cabinet.

The trivalent sentence pattern <Sub V Obj nom-as> is realized by a subject complement, an object complement and a

nominal complement with *as*. It is similar to the next trivalent sentence pattern <Sub V Obj nom>. Quirk et al. (1985) and Fischer (1997) states that nominal complement can occur either with *as* or without *as*, which suggests they are variations of the same valency sentence pattern. Therefore, the feature of complements in <Sub V Obj nom> is not analyzed in detail.

The question that arises is how to classify the word *as*. Does it belong to the part of speech preposition? Prepositions can be anaphorised with a paraphrase which is made up of the preposition plus a proper pronoun, as shown in example k.

k. The general manager is thinking [of various influencing factors].

Anaphorisation He is thinking [of it].

While, the nominal complement can be anaphorised with *as such* (Reichardt, 2014: 180). If the word *as* functions as a preposition, it is questionable for completion with a noun phrase, which is exemplified as follows.

m. Trump appointed a man as one of his advisers.

Anaphorisation : as him(?) as it (?) - (?) Prepositional complement  
as such - Nominal complement

In the example m, if underlined part is identified through anaphorisation with *as him* or *as it*, it doesn't make sense. It suggests that *as* does not belong to preposition, but is a part of the nominal complement. Altman and Hahnemann (2010) make a claim that only particles which govern a case are classified as preposition in the analysis of German. The particle *as* represents a transposition to explain changes in the syntactic category of words in a sentence. Actually the nominal complement with *as* is also as predicative complement. Nevertheless, Reichardt (2014) proposes that it should categorise the structure under the sub-pattern <Sub V Obj nom-*as*>, since the structure solely occurs with verbs which govern a nominal complement.

The subject complement has a little difference with those in other valency sentence patterns mentioned above. Besides a person's name and a position plus a person's name, the subject complement contains a name of company as well. The object complement primarily includes a person's name and a personal pronoun. Seven occurrences of person's name accounts for 43.75%. The personal pronoun occurs five times accounting for 33.33%. The feature of the nominal complement is similar to that of the object complement in the divalent sentence pattern. It is made up of a noun of post or profession.

After analyzing the frequency and feature of each complement, this paper explores the characteristic of same type of dominant components of the verb APPOINT in the active sentences from the whole, which are the subject, object and nominal complement. To summarize, in the active sentences the subject complement of the verb APPOINT can be a personal pronoun, a person's name, a position, a position plus a person's name, a state or government organization, a name of company, the word *court* or a committee by possibility. Statistical results are presented below. The most frequent is the personal pronoun, which occurs thirty three times. And the personal pronoun *he* has nineteen occurrences and accounts for 57.58%. The second highest-frequency is the person's name, whose occurrence is twenty nine. It has been discussed that the person is well-known and possesses power and status. The next is the noun of position as a subject complement, of which the word *president* occurs ten times and accounts for 47.62%; the word *mayor* appears five times. Sixteen occurrences of a position plus a person's name are found. And the position is primarily made up of president (seven times) and governor (five times). In addition, a state or government organization can be a subject complement, which occurs sixteen times. Except those mentioned above, nine occurrences of a company's name, seven occurrences of the word *court* and six occurrences of a committee are found in the position of the subject complement of the verb APPOINT in the active sentences.

The object complement can be a position, a profession, a person's name, a personal pronoun, a member or a committee from the analysis of the whole. The highest-frequency of use is the position, which is used thirty one times. And then the occupation occurs twenty eight times, of which the judge accounts for 46.43% and the lawyer is 25%. And twenty eight occurrences include person's names. The personal pronoun occurs eighteen times and the member and committee appear seventeen times. However, different valency sentence patterns have difference preference for the types. The first two valency sentence patterns, the divalent sentence pattern <Sub V Obj> and the trivalent sentence pattern <Sub V Obj vb-to-inf>, have similar preference, whose object complement is generally a profession, a person's name or a committee. And it is easy to see that the last two trivalent sentence patterns have same types of the object complement. It is a person's name or a personal pronoun. Likewise, the feature of the nominal complement between two valency sentence patterns is common, which is a position or a profession. What's more, it is similar to that of the object complement in the divalent sentence pattern.

#### B. Valency Sentence Patterns of APPOINT in the Passive Sentences

There are a large number of valency sentence patterns of the verb APPOINT in the passive sentences. Table III shows specific valency sentence patterns identified for the verb APPOINT in the passive sentences. And the structure, frequency, proportion and example of each valency sentence pattern are presented as well.

TABLE III.  
VALENCY SENTENCE PATTERNS OF APPOINT IN THE PASSIVE SENTENCES

Valency sentence pattern	Frequency	Proportion	Example
Monovalent			
Sub be V-ed	24	8%	David Olsen / was appointed.
Divalent			
Sub be V-ed nom	36	12%	Williams / is appointed / chief of the Los Angeles Police Department.
Sub be V-ed by N	24	8%	Police chiefs / are appointed / by mayors.
Sub be V-ed to N	24	8%	Dennis Monbarren / was appointed / to the new position of Sunday editor.
Sub be V-ed vb-to-inf	12	4%	Lee Brown / is appointed / to serve as the director of the Office of National Drug Control Policy.
Sub be V-ed nom-as	4	1.33%	The 13 Republican members of the House Judiciary Committee / have been appointed / as managers of the Senate's impeachment trial.
Sub be V-ed vb-to-be-nom	2	0.67%	I / was appointed / to be Mr. McVeigh's lawyer.
Trivalent			
Sub be V-ed to N by N	5	1.67%	Brandeis / was appointed / to the U.S. Supreme Court / by President Woodrow Wilson in 1916.
Sub be V-ed by N to N	2	0.67%	Spahn / was appointed / by Mr. Obama / to a presidential committee on the arts.
Sub be V-ed by N vb-to-inf	3	1%	I / was appointed / by the court / to represent a lady.
Sub be V-ed nom to N	3	1%	Mike Masaoka of the JAAC / was appointed / consultant / to the President's Committee.
Sub be V-ed nom by N	2	0.67%	She / had been appointed / an ambassador of culture by / the Dominican Republic.
Sub be V-ed nom-as vb-to-inf	2	0.67%	He / was appointed / as the first biologist / to head the agency.
Sub be V-ed nom-as to N	1	0.33%	He / has been appointed / as the ambassador / to London.
Sub be V-ed to N nom-as	1	0.33%	He / was appointed / to his third five-year term / as dean of the Yale School of Architecture.

From the table III, it can be seen that there are plenty of valency sentence patterns of the verb APPOINT in the passive sentences. Even the number of the valency sentence pattern in the passive sentences is roughly as twice as that in the active sentences. However, five valency sentence patterns in the passive sentences are frequently employed, which are <Sub be V-ed>, <Sub be V-ed nom>, <Sub be V-ed by N>, <Sub be V-ed to N>, <Sub be V-ed vb-to-inf>. Especially all of the trivalent sentence patterns are rarely used. Eight trivalent sentence patterns were solely found in nineteen concordance lines in total, of which the most frequent one, <Sub be V-ed to N by N>, occurs five times. Therefore, these trivalent sentence patterns are presented in the table III but not analyzed in detailed further. The following section will analyze the five most frequent valency sentence patterns. And it is noted that four out of five most valency sentence patterns are divalent, which indicates that the verb APPOINT usually associates two complements in the passive sentences.

In addition, this following part also discusses the complements of the patterns of the verb APPOINT in the passive sentences. The complements of the verb APPOINT includes the subject complement, *to N*, *by N*, *vb-to-inf*, *nom*, *nom-as*. Each complement has been interpreted but *by N*, which means a noun or noun phrase after the preposition *by* often happening in the passive sentences. It is actually a part of grammatical structure. This paper aims to describe the valency patterns of the verb APPOINT in the sentences based on the corpus, so the frequency of occurrences should be an indicator. *By N* associating the key word occurs thirty six times. In addition, the noun after the preposition *by* is equivalent of the subject complement in the active sentences, and they are the same semantically. Thus, it is described in the valency sentence patterns.

And from the specific trivalent sentence patterns presented in table III, it can be found that except the subject complement, the complement type of the verb APPOINT has a flexible position and can combine with other. The first trivalent sentence pattern <Sub be V-ed to N by N> includes *to N* and *by N*. After their position being exchanged, a new trivalent sentence pattern <Sub be V-ed by N to N> is generated. The combination of *nom-as* and *to N* forms <Sub be V-ed nom-as to N> and <Sub be V-ed to N nom-as>. And <Sub be V-ed nom-as vb-to-inf> is made up of a nominal complement with the word *as* and a verbal complement with an infinitive. The combinations of *vb-to-inf* and *by N*, *by N* and *nom*, *nom* and *to N* forms the trivalent sentence patterns <Sub be V-ed by N vb-to-inf>, <Sub be V-ed nom by N> and <Sub be V-ed nom to N> respectively. This rule can be paid more attention in the actual use.

#### (1) The Monovalent Sentence Pattern in the Passive Sentences

The verb APPOINT solely has the monovalent sentence pattern <Sub be V-ed>. It occurs twenty four times and accounts for 16.55% of all valency sentence patterns in the passive sentences. It is used relatively frequently. The

subject complement almost includes all kinds mentioned above. It can be a person's name, a profession, a member or committee, a position, a personal pronoun or a position plus a person's name. However, none of them is significantly high frequency. Their frequency is in the range of two to five. And there is an exception that "the dwellings" is also as the subject complement of the verb APPOINT, which is different from others. It has been mentioned two meanings of the verb APPOINT. It refers to choosing someone for a position or a job or arranging or deciding a time for something to happen. Obviously, the two meanings of the verb APPOINT are unreasonable in the sentence "The dwellings were well appointed.". The verb APPOINT has the similar meaning with the verb FURNISH there. It means that furniture and equipment are provided when you rent a room or house. This example further confirms the hypothesis that it seems to determine the meaning of a polysemy through certain dominant complement.

#### (2) The Divalent Sentence Patterns in the Passive Sentences

From the data of table III, there are six divalent sentence patterns of the verb APPOINT in the passive sentences, which occurs one hundred and two times and accounts for 70.34%. This suggests that the verb APPOINT usually associates two complements when used in the passive sentences. It can be directly seen that the most frequent valency sentence pattern is the divalent sentence pattern <Sub be V-ed nom>. And the two divalent sentence patterns <Sub be V-ed by N> and <Sub be V-ed to N> are as frequent as the monovalent sentence pattern, which are the second place. The third place is <Sub be V-ed vb-to-inf>, whose frequency is half of the second. The rest two valency sentence patterns are excluded in the following analysis because of low frequency.

The highest-frequency valency sentence pattern <Sub be V-ed nom> is realized by a subject and a nominal complement. The subject complement primarily can be a person's name or a personal pronoun, of which both occur thirty three times and account for 91.67%. Specifically, there are twenty one occurrence of the person's name and twelve occurrences of the personal pronoun. The nominal complement is largely a position, which occurs twenty eight times in thirty concordance lines. And the position is generally the leader of the government department, institute or company, like the chief of Police Department, the director of the Institute of Jewish Studies, the advertising development director. And the rank of certain occupation is as the nominal complement as well, such as bishop that is a clergyman of high rank in the Roman Catholic, Anglican, and Orthodox churches. Compared with the feature of the complements of the trivalent sentence pattern <Sub V Obj nom> in the active sentence, it is found that the feature of the two nominal complements is similar. In addition, there is similar characteristic between the subject complement of <Sub be V-ed nom> and the object complement of <Sub V Obj nom>. This rule should be predictable, because they belong to the same semantic role.

The realization of the divalent sentence pattern <Sub be V-ed by N> is a subject complement and a prepositional complement with the preposition *by*. Twenty four occurrences of the structure are found. The subject complement can be the following types: a member or committee, a position, a personal pronoun, a person's name or a profession. Their frequency ranges three to six. The noun after the preposition *by* is mainly a position, which occurs fourteen times and accounts for 58.33%. And half of the positions are the president. In addition, there are four occurrences of a person's name.

The divalent sentence pattern of the verb APPOINT in the passive sentences corresponds to its structure <Sub V Obj> in the active sentences. Thus, the subject complement of <Sub be V-ed by N> and the object complement of <Sub V Obj> share same semantic roles, so they have similar feature. The result shows that both of them include a profession, a position, a person's name or a member or committee. However, the frequency of occurrence of each type varies. And the noun of <Sub be V-ed by N> and the subject complement of <Sub V Obj> share same semantic role, but have a difference. The noun after the preposition is solely a position or a person's name, whereas the subject complement of <Sub V Obj> can be a personal pronoun, a position, a person's name, the word *court* or a government sector. The most frequent occurrence is the personal pronoun, followed by the position and the person's name. However, it has been discussed that each type of the subject complement of <Sub V Obj> seems to have power except the personal pronoun. It can be inferred that the personal pronoun he should replace someone with status and power or certain position mentioned before the sentence. Therefore, the noun of <Sub be V-ed by N> and the subject complement of <Sub V Obj> share the feature.

The divalent sentence pattern <Sub be V-ed to N> occurs also twenty four times. Its realization is a subject complement and a prepositional complement with the preposition *to*. The subject complement is mostly a person's name, which occurs eleven times and approximately accounts for half. The profession and the personal pronoun can be as the subject complement. With regard to the noun after the preposition *to*, one thirds is the word *position* and *post*; a quarter is a committee.

<Sub be V-ed vb-to-inf> is realized by a subject complement and a verbal complement with an infinitive. Its frequency of use is a little low. The structure is only found in twelve concordance lines. The subject complement is a person's name or a profession, which occurs five and four times respectively. And the profession is the lawyer. As for the verb in the verbal complement, it is generally the following verbs or their synonyms: *represent*, *lead*, *serve as* and *investigate*.

After discussing the frequency and feature of the relatively high-frequency valency sentence patterns of the verb APPOINT in the passive sentences, this section continues to explore the overall feature of the subject complement, the noun after the preposition *by* and nominal complement existing in the passive sentences. The rest complements, which

are the noun after the preposition *to* and the verbal complement, will be analyzed combining with those occurring in the active sentences in the next section.

The subject complement is a person's name frequently. It occurs fifty three times and accounts for more than one third. The second type is a personal pronoun, which is observed as the subject complement of the verb APPOINT in thirty one concordance lines. The subject complement can be also the following three types occasionally: a profession, a position or a member or committee, whose frequency is fourteen, twelve and ten respectively. The prepositional complement *by N* occurs thirty times in various valency sentence patterns of the verb APPOINT. And half of it is a position. Except this, it can be a person's name, a position plus a person's name or the word *court*. Finally, fifty one occurrences of the nominal complement appearing in the passive sentences are found. And there are thirty five concordance lines in which a position is as the nominal complement of the verb APPOINT.

### C. The Overall Feature of Complements of the Verb APPOINT

From the data in table II and table III, it can be seen that the relatively most frequent valency sentence patterns of the verb APPOINT are Sub V Obj (22.33%), Sub V Obj vb-to-inf (12%), Sub be V-ed nom (12%), Sub be V-ed (8%), Sub be V-ed by N (8%) and Sub be V-ed to N (8%). And the verb APPOINT is almost evenly used in the active and passive sentences by calculating. There is no preference for active or passive voice according to the present data.

This section discusses the overall feature of common complements of the APPOINT occurring in the active and passive sentences, which are the subject, nominal, verbal complement and the prepositional complement with the preposition *to*. However, the subject complements cannot merge in active and passive sentences because of different semantic roles. The subject complement occurring in the active sentences includes a great number of types: a personal pronoun, a person's name, a position, a position plus a person's name, a state or government organization, a name of company, the word *court* or a committee. The subject complement existing in the passive sentences is primarily a person's name, which occurs fifty three times and accounts for over one third. The second type is a personal noun, which is found as the subject complement in thirty one concordance lines in the passive sentences. The subject complement can be a profession, a position, a member or committee as well. Actually, the subject complement in the passive sentences equals the object complement in the active sentences semantically. The feature of the object complement appearing in the active sentences has been analyzed above.

The nominal complement of the verb APPOINT is found in eighty four concordance lines. By analyzing and calculating, the result shows that it is largely a position, which occurs fifty one times and accounts for 60.71%. And the position is generally the leader of the government department, institute or company. What's more, ten occurrences of profession are found as the nominal complement of the verb APPOINT, which is primarily the lawyer. This rule is not affected by the voice, which means that the feature of nominal complement is consistent in the active and passive voice.

In the prepositional complement the noun after the preposition *to* is the word *post* or *position*, or a board or committee relatively frequently. And it can be the word *court*, which occurs six times. Sometimes it can be a government department or a profession. Except those, the word *bench* occurs three times after the preposition *to*; the word *term* is found in two concordance lines. Occasionally, it can be someplace.

The overall feature of the verb in the verbal complement is the same as what it has been discussed above. The verbs, such as *head*, *run* and *serve as*, occur most frequently. They share the meaning that one is in charge of something. The verb *represent* appears frequently as well. In addition, the verb can be the synonyms of the words *investigate* and *monitor*.

## V. CONCLUSION

### A. Research Findings

This paper investigated valency sentence patterns of verbs from the perspective of syntactic valency including the category of voice, taking the verb English APPOINT as an example. And it analyzed dominated components of verbs with a corpus linguistic method of collocation. And it also explored if the valency sentence pattern is an indicator of substitution for near-synonym.

The results show that the verb APPOINT has twenty two identified valency sentence patterns totally in the active and passive sentences. The relatively most frequent valency sentence patterns of the verb APPOINT are <Sub V Obj> (22.33%), <Sub V Obj vb-to-inf> (12%), <Sub be V-ed nom> (12%), <Sub be V-ed> (8%), <Sub be V-ed by N> (8%) and <Sub be V-ed to N> (8%). Overall, the data do not suggest that the verb APPOINT has a preference for active or passive voice.

And there is regularity existing in each complement. The subject complement occurring in the active sentences can be a personal pronoun, a person's name, a position, a position plus a person's name, a state or government organization, a name of company, the word *court* or a committee. The object complement in the active sentences can be a position, a profession, a person's name, a personal pronoun, a member or a committee by frequency. The subject complement existing in the passive sentences is primarily a person's name, followed by a personal noun. Sometimes, the subject complement can be a profession, a position, a member or committee. The nominal complement of the verb APPOINT is largely a position, which is generally the leader of the government department, institute or company. It can be a profession as well, which is primarily the lawyer. The noun after the preposition *by* is generally a position, which

accounts for a half. It can be a person's name, a position plus a person's name or the word court as well. The noun after the preposition *to* is the word post or position, or a board or committee relatively frequently. Except those, it can be a government department, a profession or the words court or bench. In the verbal complement, the verbs, such as *head*, *run* and *serve as*, occur most frequently. They share the meaning that one is in charge of something. The verb represent appears frequently as well. In addition, the verb can be the synonyms of the words *investigate* and *monitor*. It finds there is a relation among collocates, meaning and structure through the detailed analysis.

### B. Pedagogical Implications

English belongs to the Indo-European language family, while Chinese belongs to the Sino-Tibetan language family. English learners, whose native language is Chinese, often misuse some words and grammatical structures due to differences of two languages. And English teachers explain words and structures by quoting some examples from dictionary and learners just memorize them by rote. Thus, it causes that there appears to be many mistakes in the actual use and learners lost interested in the English learning. This paper describes the valency sentence pattern of verbs and analyzes the features of the associated complements, which help students grasp the correct usage of the verb, reduce the use of inappropriate collocation and express clearly with complete sentences. Therefore, English teachers can focus on the sentences when teaching new words. Teachers can summarize the valency sentence patterns of certain word by collecting the authentic texts in the corpus and explains the features of associated complements. Learners will have a good command of complete expression of a word in a sentence and they gradually become interested in the language learning.

If English teacher summarizes the valency sentence patterns of every word, it will take a great amount of time and effort. Therefore, it is convenient to compile a dictionary about valency sentence patterns. And the valency sentence pattern constructs logical expressions, which can be as a framework and applied in the computational linguistics. If it is applied successfully, the valency sentence pattern of certain word will be retrieved and extracted from the corpus. And nowadays, there are a number of online corpora, which are updated every few years. This will be more convenient and provide latest texts.

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# On Children's Literature Translation from the Perspective of Manipulation Theory—A Case Study of the Ren Rongrong's Chinese Translation of *Charlotte's Web*

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**Abstract**—With the cultural turn in translation studies in 1970s, the focus of translation studies was gradually changed from traditional linguistics to culture. André Lefevere put forward to Manipulation Theory that has further broadened the field of translation studies. It holds that translation is not to realize the meaning equivalence between source text and target text, but to realize the compromise between the source cultural system and the target cultural system, in which the translation will be manipulated by some factors. Because Children's Literature is classified specially, it may be influenced by different cultural system. Therefore, this paper chooses Chinese translation of *Charlotte's Web* as a case study from the perspective of Manipulation Theory, which draws a conclusion that ideology, poetics and patronage have impacts on translation strategies of children's literature, in order to facilitate new theoretical researches and improve Chinese translations of Children's Literature.

**Index Terms**—Manipulation Theory, *Charlotte's Web*, Children's Literature

## I. INTRODUCTION

Children's Literature, which is regarded as a special angle that provides children with necessary knowledge about growth, society, and life, enjoys a short history of more than one hundred years in China and has its prosperity after China's reform and opening in 1978. During dozens of years, numerous foreign Children's Literature works that have been translated into China, for example Snow White, The Little Mermaid and The Ugly Duckling, still have attracted young readers' attentions, which could prove translated children's Literature works play an essential role in Chinese children's growth with their interesting and meaningful stories. However because of audience's education, people may simply assume that translators only use some simple expressions to reproduce the main meaning of original texts without taking into account the conflicts between different cultural systems and the manipulation of dominant ideology. In fact, "Translators never translate words in isolation, but whole situation. They bring to the translation their cultural heritage, their reading experience, and, in the case of children's books and their own child image." (Oittinen, 2000, p. 3) Since these works are not complicated to understand, translators can completely know the whole meaning of work to faithfully reproduce real style and meaning of the text. However, when translators are manipulated by dominant ideology, poetics and patronage of the original work, they may recreate a totally different translation from the source text to cater to target readers with diversified translation methods. It is necessary to analyze these manipulations how to influence translators choose different translation methods to deal with cultural conflicts between the source text and the target one. Nevertheless, it is a prosperous atmosphere that studies have been researched by various theories on translating for adults, while the study on translation of Children's Literature remains a slow step. The paper studies the representative Ren Rongrong's Chinese translation of *Charlotte's Web* from the perspective of Manipulation Theory, which might not only brings enlightenments to translators and scholars who have not paid attention to Children's Literature before, but also provides practical experience for translators who want to translate better and high-quality foreign versions of Chinese Children's Literature in order to let Chinese culture "go global".

## II. MANIPULATION THEORY

Since the 1970s, translation studies have shown a trend of diversification and become cultural reflection, which indicated a fact that many scholars have realized that natural science cannot be completely equaled with translation, whose fundamental attributes are humanity and sociality. Even-Zohar put forward the polysystem that is a multiple system which interests with each other and function as one structured whole with concurrently different options under

the circumstance. Based on polysystem, the term “manipulation” was first mentioned by Theo Hermans, one of the representatives of Manipulation School. “From the point of view of the target literature, all translation implies a degree of manipulation of the source text for a certain purpose.” (Hermans, 1985, p. 11). The Belgian-American scholar André Lefevere moves further the research of manipulative factors that influence translation into “Manipulation Theory”. “Translation is, of course, a rewriting to the original text. All rewritings, reflect a certain ideology and a poetics and as such manipulate literature to function in a given way” (Lefevere, 2004, p. vx). Lefevere also holds the view that he believes that the positive aspect of rewriting can promote the evolution and development of a genre of literature and a society by introducing new concepts and new manipulative factors. And later Jeremy Munday summarizes the manipulations of translation into three factors: professional within the literary system, patronage outside the literary system and the dominant poetics (Munday, 2010).

Wang Dongfeng is the first Chinese scholar who gave a comprehensive introduction of the Manipulation Theory from his article *An Invisible Hand: Ideology Manipulation in the Practice of Translation*, which brought much attention to manipulation of ideology in translation. It pointed that faithfulness is the highest criterion of traditional translation, most of which focuses on contrastive analysis between the source text and the target one. However, the author points out in an indisputable tone that there is an invisible hand, ideology, which influences translation (Wang, 2003). In 2008, Xie Tianzhen introduced manipulation school and its representative André Lefevere in detail and especially pointed out that Lefevere’s Rewriting Theory and his three manipulative constraints become the main theoretic pillar of western translation studies after the cultural turn, which indicates that Manipulation Theory’s status and advancement in contemporary translation theories (Xie, 2008)

Lefevere treats translation as the rewriting of the original text, which emphasizes translation is a sort of activity of the original reflecting the literary form that the target culture can accept and also a kind of mediation between a literary system and a cultural system. And because most translators of Children’s Literature are adults while its readers are children, translation of Children’s Literature is a special form of literary translation that differs from the adult literature, which is influenced indispensably by these manipulations. It is necessary to pay attention to these manipulative constraints in translation of Children’s Literature. The paper chooses Ren Rongrong’s Chinese translation of *Charlotte’s Web* to do a research from the perspective of Manipulation Theory.

### III. THREE MANIPULATIONS IN THE CHINESE TRANSLATION OF *CHARLOTTE’S WEB*

A translated version of one literature may pass on an understanding of the original text to target language readers in their own language, even more to meet the current needs of cross-culture communication between countries, which indicates that the translation could be embedded in the prevailing ideology in society. And because of different language characteristics between English and Chinese, long and complex sentences in English are hard to understand for Chinese, which implies that poetics must be a challenge for translators. Especially, it is patronage that also plays an essential role in translating when the purchasers of literature are different, which lets translators apply appropriate translation methods to do translations for fulfill the readers’ needs. In light of Lefevere’s Manipulation Theory, the paper analyzes manipulated demonstrations from Ren Rongrong’s translation of *Charlotte’s Web*, in terms of the three manipulations: ideology, poetics and patronage.

#### A. Manipulation of Ideology

Lefevere classifies two types of ideology: the social ideology and the individual ideology. The former one is a prevailing belief, the most important of which is politics that can even guide the process of translation, while the later one is translator’s ideology that is his personal experience and aesthetic. When the social ideology is superior to the individual one, especially when politics is prevailing in social ideology, translator has to abandon his preference and to translate a suitable target text for the authority. Likewise, when the individual ideology is superior to the social ideology, the condition will reverse. Since the reform and opening up in 1978, the center of Chinese life has gradually shifted from the class struggle to economic and cultural construction, which has a remarkable impact on the current domestic ideology that emphasizes children’s psychological development and turns to the value of child-orientation. Therefore, aiming to bring entertainment to child, respecting children’s rights, Ren Rongrong prefers domestication which may not cause difficulties for children when he is translating foreign Children’s Literature works.

#### Example 1:

##### The original:

“What do you think I am, a message boy?” grumbled the rat. (White, 2010, p. 85)

##### The translation:

“你把我当什么了，一个差来遣去的听差？”老鼠抱怨说。(Ren, 2011, p. 177)

**Analysis:** When translating “message boy”, Ren applies domestication to make the word more expressive. In English, message boy is to do some trivial matters, just like deliver message. So Ren could have directly translated “邮差”, which can be understood by Chinese. Nevertheless, because the rat Templeton has a disgusting mood to be bossed from the original text and the word “grumble” implies Templeton’s emotion, Ren not only uses the domesticating method to translate “听差” that means servant who has a rather low status in ancient China but also adds “差来遣去” to the front of the word in order to highlight his feeling. What’s more, the real meaning and feeling of “听差” may cause some

cognitive difficulties for children to understand, and the added word“差来遣去”can indirectly express the meaning of the ancient Chinese word for children to understand.

**Example 2:**

**The original:**

That's a fine spider and I'm going to capture it. (White, 2010, p. 64)

**The translation:**

这是一只呱呱叫的蜘蛛，我要捉到它。(Ren, 2011, p. 115)

**Analysis:** We will use the word “fine” to describe something we admire, which almost can be used in any situations. In Chinese,“好”that has the same meaning seems to replace its function. But Ren's version may be quite plain if“好”is translated in the sentence. Therefore, Ren translates into a special Chinese word“呱呱叫”to describe a vivid image to children, which means excellent and superb. And as a colloquial expression, the word can amuse child when it is read by them, which makes text full of wit and humor.

**Example 3:**

**The original:**

“He's yours,” said Mr. Arable. “Saved from an untimely death. And may the god Lord forgive me for this foolishness.” (White, 2010, p. 30)

**The translation:**

“它是你的了”，阿拉布尔先生说，“是你让它免于生而即死。愿老天爷原谅我做了这傻事。”(Ren, 2011, p. 45)

**Analysis:** As we all know, because of different cultural backgrounds, western people worship the god in western cultures while Heaven is Chinese “god” from ancient to modern times, which indicates that there are different religious beliefs between them. Considering children's immature linguistic competence and limited cultural awareness, Ren use the word“老天爷”，a native Chinese expression, to fill up the religious gap, which can shorten the distance between the target text and little readers so that children can accept the translation.

**Example 4:**

**The original:**

“I was just thinking,” said the spider, “that people are very gullible.”

“What does ‘gullible’ mean?”

“Easy to fool,” said Charlotte. (White, 2010, p. 63)

**The translation:**

“我正在想，”蜘蛛说，“人是阿木林。”

“‘阿木林’是什么意思？”

“就是傻瓜，容易上当受骗。”夏洛说。(Ren, 2011, p. 69)

**Analysis:** Ren chooses“阿木林”to translate the word “gullible”, the expression of Shanghai dialect, which means awkward and foolish, because Ren was born and studied in Shanghai. When the translation is read by children who are from Shanghai, they would quickly get the meaning of the word and the vivid image of a fool. However the domestication only could be understood by readers who are from Shanghai, which is not shared with other children who live in the other areas. So Ren follows the original text to give its deeper explanation that is“傻瓜，容易上当受骗”for the others, which provides the best of both parties.

*B. Manipulation of Poetics*

The second manipulation constraint is poetics in Manipulation Theory. Lefevere holds his view that “A poetics can be said to consist of two components: one is an inventory of literary devices, genres, motifs, prototypical characters and situations, and symbols; the other is concept of what the role of literature is, or should, in the social system as a whole.”(Lefevere, 2004, p. 26). In one word, poetics is a language characteristic of specific literary system and form. It could even determine which proper translating strategy should be applied while making sure that the translation can still express the same function. English is a hypotactic language while Chinese belongs to paratactic language, therefore, long and complex sentences are preferred in English, which are rare in Chinese. They are beyond children's understanding ability, which may hinder child's interest in reading. So adjustments of the sentences must be done in the translation in order to make it understood by little readers.

**Example 5:**

**The original:**

She knew from experience that if she waited long enough, a fly would come to her web; and she felt sure that if she thought long enough about Wilbur's problem, an idea would come to her mind. (White, 2010, p. 59)

**The translation:**

它从经验当中知道，只要等得够久，苍蝇自然就会飞到它的网上来；它断定，威尔伯的问题也一样，只要等得够久，好主意就一定会来到它的脑子里。(Ren, 2011, p. 211)

**Analysis:** There are two object clauses behind the main clause in the original text and the author also uses “and” to link two parts, which both prove that the sentence is a subordinate compound. But the translator will obey Chinese characteristics, if he wants to let his translation understood by the target language readers. Translator must deal with the

challenge so that little readers can continue to read. Based on the punctuations of the original sentence, Ren still divided the sentence into several parts to translate, because the short sentence is easier for child to understand and belongs to Chinese expression. He cuts the sentence in the position of object clause, then puts“威尔伯的问题也一样”in front of the object clause, which made the translated sentence more logical and accurate. So the adjustment of sentence is successful and meet child’s requirement.

**Example 6:**

**The original:**

She said: “I am sure that every one of us here in the barn cellar will be gratified to learn that after four weeks of unremitting effort and patience on the part of the goose, she now has something to show for it.”(White, 2010, p. 40)

**The translation:**

它说：“我想我们仓底这儿的每一位都会很高兴知道，我们的母鹅老朋友经过四个礼拜不懈的努力和耐心照料，它现在有些宝贝要给我们看看了。”(Ren, 2011, p. 193)

**Analysis:** There are also two object clauses in the sentence, which is the same as the above example. But Ren does not do the same action but translated directly following the original structure, because subject and object of the sentence is simpler than the former sample. And if it is translated completely with the original structure, little readers will out of breath when they read the rather long sentence. Then under the guidance of children’s cognitive features, Ren also punctuates at the second object clause for setting a pause in the long sentence, which can attract child’s attention to focus on what happen in the next text. There are quite adjustments in the translation for not making children confused, for example, the adverbial “in the barn cellar” that is translated“仓底”is put in the front of every one in Chinese, and the subject “goose” in the object clause runs to the beginning.

*C. Manipulation of Patronage*

As another important manipulation, patronage is defined by Lefevere as “any kind of force that can be influential in encouraging and propagating, but also in discouraging, censoring and destroying works of literature”(Lefevere, 2004, p. 15). Patronage could be groups of people such as the publishers or the media, some powerful institutions which are in charge of the distribution of literary, and the readers who are actually the purchasers of these translations, which all can provide the economic support for translators. In fact, acceptance of patronage implies the choice of book and translation style. In order to meet acquirements of patronage, translators have to choose appropriate translation strategies. Because children possess their finite understanding and limited range of knowledge, translation of Children’s Literature is had to apply extratextual annotation when there are cultural differences between two countries in the book. Moreover, the translator also uses repetition to emphasize the emotion of protagonist for attracting child’s attention to explore the story.

**Example 7:**

**The original:**

And now, Fern, it’s time to get ready for Sunday School.(White, 2010, p. 47)

**The translation:**

不过现在，弗恩，该上主日学校了。

注释：主日学校是星期日到儿童进行宗教教育的学校，大多附设在教堂里。(Ren, 2011, p. 200)

**Example 8:**

**The original:**

Did you ever hear of the Queensborough Bridge?(White, 2010, p. 60)

**The translation:**

你听说过昆斯伯罗大桥吗？

注释：昆斯伯罗大桥，在纽约皇后区，是曼哈顿中城跨东河连接皇后区的干桥。(Ren, 2011, p. 61)

**Example 9:**

**The original:**

“She was still thinking about the pig when the teacher said: ‘Fern, what is the capital of Pennsylvania?’ ‘Wilbur’, replied Fern, dreamily.”(White, 2010, p. 7)

**The translation:**

“她当时正想着她的小猪，这时老师问道：‘费恩，宾夕法尼亚州的首府是哪里？’‘威尔伯’，费恩像做梦似的说。”

注释：美国宾夕法尼亚州的首府应该是哈里斯堡。(Ren, 2011, p. 8)

**Analysis:** There are totally four extratextual annotations in the translation, three of which are presented in the above examples. In the process of translation, owing to the difference of cultural backgrounds, sometimes it is difficult to understand some nouns for little readers. As is known to all, Christianity, which is familiar with western people, are far from Chinese, which must cause some problems for little readers to understand the religious expression. What the source language reader takes for granted may be something that the target language one has never heard of or is difficult to understand. At this time, translator needs to add some necessary explanations for those readers. What’s more, compared with adults, children have limited ranges of knowledge, which, to a large extent, causes difficult for children

to understand about something foreign and exotic. The words “Sunday School”, “Queensborough Bridge” and “the capital of Pennsylvania” will be strange for children if they are directly translated with foreignization. But they will lose the exotic flavor if translated with domestication. So for helping the expansion of children’s knowledge, Ren adds extratextual explanation to the end of the page, with foreignization using. It is the last explanation that is the most interesting translation among those, because it tells children that the Wilbur is homophonic to Harrisburg, the capital of Pennsylvania, which can make little readers giggle when it is read by them. Therefore, when children read the translated sentence, they may feel strange at the first sight and then find its explanation, which can transfer the same function as the original text that also embodies the image of characters.

**Example 10:**

**The original:**

Wilbur grunted. He gulped and sucked, making swishing and swooshing noises, anxious to get everything at once. (White, 2010, p. 66)

**The translation:**

威尔伯呕呕地叫。它大口大口地吃，大口大口地喝，大口大口地吃，大口大口地喝，发出稀里哗啦、呼噜哗啦的声音，急着要一口气吃个精光。(Ren, 2011, p. 217)

**Analysis:** In order to describe a vivid image of the pig, Ren not only uses reduplicative adjectives such as “大口” but also repeats the first two phrases “大口大口地吃” “大口大口地喝” one by one, which highlights the eagerness and joy of the pig when eating. The repetition of these verbs enhances the sense of rhythm and gives people the enjoyment of beauty so that children get the feeling of hearing and being in the situation. When children read the translation, they could find that Wilbur is eager to eat and imagine the vivid scene to break into a smile, which makes the target language little readers enjoy the same feeling as the source language ones.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

The paper has provided a new insight into the researches on Ren’s Chinese translation of *Charlotte’s Web* from the perspective of Manipulation Theory and demonstrated that the translation is subjected to the manipulation of ideology, poetics and patronage, which lets the translator applies different translation strategies to deal with these situations. A conclusion can also be reached that translation is inevitably restricted with the three manipulations so that translators must ensure the translation conforms with Chinese children’s aesthetic standard and language habit. For translators of Children’s Literature works, it is necessary to clarify the purpose of translation, focus on the target language and face the target readers before translating. It also should be grasped that are children’s psychological characteristics, understanding ability and aesthetic ability. Translators should convey the style and aesthetic feeling of the original work, according to the characteristics of children’s language and their ranges of knowledge. Therefore, studying the influences of manipulation constraints can help translators of Children’s Literature understand these manipulations and how to do with these situations as well as motivate translators to provide more excellent translations for little readers.

There are some flaws in the paper, of course. The first one is that samples are not diversified of the paper, which may not comprehensively demonstrate these manipulation constraints’ influences. It is one reason that makes the research insufficient. There are more translation strategies that should be particularized in the paper because of the limited selections of the samples collected by the author. The second one is that because Manipulation Theory only gives a general direction in a macroscopic view, the attention should be paid to microscopic level of the text is not enough. The theory focuses on the influence of cultural factors hidden behind the text, such as ideology, poetics and patronage, on translation behavior and translators, which explores the peripheral factors rather than ontological ones of translation studies. However, translation is an act of language conversion so that discussion of the internal factors and rules, especially the subjective roles of different translators, should not be ignored. The detailed translation strategies still need the consideration of translators. Finally, the author of the paper is adult who looks at translation of Children’s Literature from the point of views of adults, so the analysis of these examples is influenced by adult’s subjective judgment and the comment of the paper may be not convincible.

Despite there are some limitations in the paper, the author attempted to do objective and inclusive research with careful selection samples and provided a new angle to analyze translation of Children’s Literature. And it is also found that the translation of Children’s Literature is not second to that of adult literature. Therefore, if following the guidance of the Manipulation Theory could translators rewrite more foreign excellent translation for children, which may help high-quality Chinese Children’s Literature “go global”.

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# Effect of Oral Corrective Feedback on Language Skills

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**Abstract**—Corrective feedback is an important element in the language learning process. The issue of corrective feedback in language classrooms has been investigated by numerous scholars who believe that the strategy can effectively be used to improve the language skills of students. Though many forms of feedback approaches are used in learning, oral corrective feedback is the commonly used strategy in teaching languages. This is mainly because it captures the diverse elements of language lessons such as pronunciations and spelling. Oral corrective feedback presents a broad field which assists both teachers and students in error identification and eradication. It mainly focuses on highlighting the common errors and mistakes and addressing them enabling the students to avoid them in the future. This paper mainly explores the impact of oral corrective feedback on the language skills of learners. It generally analyses articles that address the issue of oral corrective feedback and derives information regarding the impact of the strategy in language learning outcomes.

**Index Terms**—corrective feedback, oral, language skills

## I. INTRODUCTION

Sounds are quite essential in communication and language tutors are expected to take a central role in ensuring that their classes effectively learn the pronunciations of different words. Language is highly influenced, and a person who lacks pronunciation skills in a certain language cannot communicate effectively. Moreover, lack of sufficient pronunciation knowledge makes a person unable to encode or decode the intended message appropriately. Different languages have varied phonological systems which cannot be overlooked as that may lead to misunderstanding and unintelligibility. Corrective feedback is an approach that is widely used by language teachers to evaluate and reflect on the progress of the learners with regards to utterances and pronunciations (Zhao, 2015). This strategy is also used to decimate language errors as well as give insight into how students can eradicate such mistakes. Corrective feedback is commonly described as the verbal response which is used by a tutor or addressee to correct erroneous pronunciation or utterances of a speaker. It fundamentally seeks to correct phonological, syntactic, semantic or functional incorrectness that may present in the speech of a speaker. This study primarily aims at expounding on the effects of corrective feedback in the language skills of a learner.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Corrective feedbacks are normally subdivided into various types whereby each has its appropriate functions. Corrective feedback plays a central role in learning as it highlights the mistakes made by a learner enabling them to eradicate such errors in the future. The use of corrective feedback to facilitate learning begins in early childhood whereby mothers and caregivers correct the young child when they commit mistakes in their speech. At this age, children normally have pronunciation problems and the primary approach used is repetition. Children learn how to speak through repeating after their mothers (Solikhah, 2016). Similarly, teaching a foreign language to adults requires extensive use of oral corrective feedback. Though the essential language skills are attained through practice, provision of appropriate feedback fastens the learning process and enhances proper understanding of various concepts of a language such as pronunciations. Notably, similar corrective feedbacks are used in language learners regardless of age and level of knowledge. Essentially, an adult learning a new language has great similarities with an infant learning their mother tongue. Though toddlers may be slow in learning languages due their partially developed mental and reasoning abilities, the process follows similar steps as adult language classes.

However, kindergarten level corrective feedback is usually informal in that it does not adhere to any particular order. This is entirely different from feedback required in senior grades which are characterized by complex disciplines that require the use of both oral and written feedback to facilitate learning. Oral feedback is often provided in the form of sentences that describe the various weaknesses of a learner as well as highlighting the strengths. Such corrective approaches are normally considered responses to the work of the learner and they generally facilitate improvement (Sobhani & Tayebipour, 2015). Feedback can also be provided in the form of a score or percentage defining the level of achievement of the learner on a given subject. Such evaluative feedbacks make the learners aware of their progress and general performance in a given subject. However, oral corrective feedbacks are normally not evaluative as they usually aimed at highlighting mistakes made by a learner, thus triggering self-correction. Additionally, oral corrective



feedbacks are in most cases informal and unrecorded. This is mainly because they involve sounds and phonetics used in a specific language and help in improving the learners' spoken language.

Research conducted on corrective feedback strategies and their impacts on the learning outcomes has obtained different findings. Some of the findings are despairingly controversial, and this has made scholars question the effectiveness of corrective feedback in facilitating second language acquisition. According to Sanavi and Nemati (2014), corrective feedback is not meant to teach the learners' pronunciations and phonetics in a given language, but it is instead aimed at triggering self-correction. This approach suggests that application of corrective feedback should be delayed so that the learners can naturally realize their mistakes leading to self-repair. Sanavi and Nemati (2014) indicate that though error correction might be quite crucial in learning languages, it can bring detrimental effects on the learning progress of second language learners. I analyze the effectiveness of oral corrective feedback on student learning outcomes and expound on the different strategies that are extensively applied. In his article, he outlines the frameworks and efficacy of different approaches including recast, repetition, clarification request, explicit correction, elicitation, and Para lingual signal.

Recast is defined as an approach that corrects speaker's incorrect utterances by changing one or two components without changing the meaning of the phrase. Repetition is yet another effective strategy whereby the teacher repeats the pronouncements of the learner correcting the mistakes. The mistake is highlighted through emphatically stressing on the word (Han, 2002). Another commonly used approach that is discussed in this study is clarification requests whereby the teacher after noticing a mistake in a phrase or pronunciation made by learner states that they did not understand its meaning, therefore, seeking more clarification. This prompts the learner to reconsider their pronunciation and rephrase their statements thus self-correcting their mistakes. Explicit correction is also another oral corrective feedback approach that entails indication of error committed and provision of a corrected version of the phrase or word. This is believed to be one of the most corrective approaches as it highlights the mistakes and gives correction that facilitating better learning among the learners (Mendez, Arguelles & Castro, 2010). These are some of the oral corrective feedback approaches that have demonstrated its effectiveness in enhancing understanding and the general learning process of languages.

Other researchers believe that the feedback information a language learner receives from their teacher may positively affect the learning process and improve performance. Research carried out on French learners whereby four corrective feedback strategies were used revealed that recasts are the most commonly used corrective approaches. Divergent feedback approaches such as elicitations, repetitions, and clarification requests found to be more effective in triggering the learner-generated repair of pronunciation mistakes (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013). Ideally, the study established that indeed some feedback approaches enhance the learning of the basics in languages and pronunciation. Moreover, many researchers believe that corrective feedback leads to the development of healthy teacher-student interaction which is quite essential in language classes. Corrections in the learning process have also been believed to play a facilitative and constructive role.

Feedback in oral studies can be done in several ways which mainly depends on the level of understanding of the learners as well as the preferences of the teacher. One of the approaches entails recording all mistakes that students have made and analyzing these mistakes with the entire class. For instance, the teacher can write correct and incorrect phrases and ask whether the students notice any error in the two sentences. This does not only enable the teacher to correct the students, but it also serves as an assessment which allows the teacher to know the progress of the students language comprehension. According to Sermsook, Liamnimitr and Pochakorn, (2017), it is essential that teachers anonymously correct students who make mistakes. Revealing the students who made these mistakes can be quite discouraging to students and can inhibit learning. Another study discusses the importance of discretion in handling student's mistakes. According to this research, oral corrective feedback can have a negative impact on the learning process especially when the teacher uses the approach as a way of evaluating students. This article states that the best way of giving oral corrective feedback is by providing it as a response to the students' work. For instance, if a teacher notices a problem with a student's pronunciation, then he/she should provide oral corrective feedback while at the same time acknowledging the efforts of the student (Penning de Vries et al., 2010). Outright rebuking of students defeats the purpose of the oral feedback provided and adversely affects the learning progress of a student. Instructors should always give insight on how a student can improve their speech and written language from a neutral point. The process of providing oral corrective feedback should be carried out systematically in stages whereby the learners should be given time to self-correct their mistakes. Oral corrective feedback should only be provided if the students are unable to self-correct and after its provision, the teacher should assess the level of understanding and give all clarifications that might be needed.

Sheen (2010) claims that researchers have long argued about the effects of feedback on learning outcomes. The development of intelligible language skills should be a primary concern for teachers. The article acknowledges that language learning is usually characterized by mistakes which include pronunciation and even spelling. As much as learning the correct pronunciation of words in a given language, it is also quite important that the students learn how to correctly spell the words as well as how to effectively communicate using the language. Sheen (2010) explores different feedbacks which are necessary for the process of learning language; written and oral. Ideally, students have different perceptions of different feedback approaches. Moreover, each of the feedbacks aims at correcting distinct types of

mistakes in languages. For instance, written feedback can only correct spelling and grammar mistakes, while oral feedback mainly focuses on the correction of pronunciation/phonetics mistakes. According to Loewen and Erlam (2006), the effectiveness of any of the corrective feedbacks primarily depends on the perception of the learner, and it is, therefore, necessary that teachers consider the views of the students regarding feedback and error correction and integrate them into their teaching strategies to achieve optimum learning.

Timing is another factor that scholars suggest effectiveness of oral corrective feedback. According to Phillips (1992), the corrective feedback should be provided within a specific time for it to have a positive impact on the learning process of a student. This raises a question of whether corrective feedback should be provided immediately after a mistake is noted, after provision of instruction or immediately learners are exposed to a varied lingual structure. Ideally, some of the errors made by language learners are developmental which simply means that they are committed due to the poorly developed language system in an individual. Such errors are automatically eradicated as the learner gains more understanding of the language. This is quite similar to the process of toddlers learning their mother tongue whereby they self-correct their mistakes as they get a better understanding of the language (Ellis, 2010). Notably, internalization of linguistic knowledge takes time, and it is therefore highly advisable that to only provide corrective feedback to language learners when they make mistakes that are irreparable. For effective learning, it is advisable that errors are corrected during the task. This is generally known as online corrective feedback while feedbacks provided after completion of tasks are termed as offline feedbacks. Both online and offline correctional feedback can focus on a particular linguistic target or a variety of linguistic features.

Online oral corrective feedback creates opportunities for interaction between the learner and teacher thus facilitating better learning. This approach allows for immediate analysis of wrong and right forms of the phrases in question. It is an ideal approach which enables objective language teaching positively impacting on the learning outcomes of the students. Pfanner (2015) as opposed to the online provision of corrective feedback as it is at this time when learners can contextualize form-focused instruction without having to focus on a particular linguistic structure. The author argues that feedbacks provided during the task prompt learners to only focus on the highlighted mistakes thus failing to understand other elements that the task might entail. For instance, if a learner is reading a passage, and the teacher gives correction whenever he/she mispronounces a word, it is likely that the learner will focus on avoiding that mistake and forget other essential elements that they are supposed to derive from the passage.

The impact of oral corrective feedback on learner's language skills is a phenomenon that can be assessed through various diverse ways. Applied linguistic researchers have carried out numerous studies aimed at establishing the impact of each of the oral corrective feedback strategies on the learning outcomes of the students. According to Pfanner (2015), application of corrective feedback in language lessons is one of the effective ways of ensuring that the learners develop a good foundation in learning the foreign language. Every language has the underlying structures that guide how it is spoken. For most languages, the alphabets act as the guiding elements which mainly influence the pronunciations of words. If a learner cannot correctly pronounce the alphabets in a given language, then it is less likely for them to master the language. Application of corrective feedback ensures that the learners grasp the fundamental concepts and build blocks of a given language. The approach used in correcting linguistic errors should only focus on certain types of errors. Some of the errors do not distort communication as they hardly change the meaning of the phrases or statements. Such mistakes should not be corrected as the learner self-corrects as they get a better knowledge of the language. The author classifies errors made in communication into global and local. Global errors are those that affect communication while local ones can easily be overlooked as they have little effect on communication. However, some teachers are unable to distinguish between local and global errors, and this makes them unable to figure out when they should apply oral corrective feedback strategies. This suggestion, however, focuses on the conversational element of oral corrective feedback and assumes its pedagogical significance in facilitating proper learning in languages.

In the classroom set up, the reactions of learners to feedback is used to assess the effectiveness of oral corrective feedback provided. The leading indicators that show the impact of such feedback are uptake, intake, and repair. In this context, it is expected that effective feedback should trigger the repair or correction of language mistakes. The ability of the learner to intake, process and implement corrective feedback shows their consciousness in noticing significant corrections (Bitchener, Young & Cameron, 2005). In some cases, the learners fail to respond to corrections which make it impossible for the teacher to assess the effectiveness of the corrective feedback provided. As a result, most of the experimental studies conducted on the impact of oral corrective feedback on language skills of learners resort to comparing pre- and post-test scores.

Ineffective use of oral corrective feedback in language classes results in problems such as inconsistency, ambiguity, and ineffectiveness of teachers. Research has established that some of the teachers use unsystematic oral corrective feedback approaches that have a negative impact on the language skills of the students. Such feedbacks can be misleading as they do not focus on equipping the learner with appropriate language skills, but instead focus on supporting uninterrupted communication between the teacher and the learners (Zhao, 2015). Another problem that arises is that teachers at times ignore errors so as not to interrupt the communicative flow. Corrections' targeting a wide range of language learner error types overwhelms the students thus inhibiting the effectiveness of the oral corrective feedback given.

Conventionally, teachers play a critical role in triggering the development of self-correction skills in language

learners. The oral corrective approach is considered the best approach that can be applied in language classes to facilitate effective learning. Notably, research conducted to establish the impact of oral corrective feedback on language skills reveals that indeed the effective application of the approach has a significant positive impact on the skills of the learner. The most fundamental impact of oral corrective feedback on language skills is that it enables the learner to realize their mistakes and facilitates self-correction. Overall, the oral corrective feedback has been tested and proven as one of the best approaches that should be extensively applied in language classes.

### III. METHODOLOGY

The research methodologies used in the articles are mainly quantitative and qualitative design. A combination of these two approaches is believed to give more accurate results especially when the study is centered on an element that allows the application of the two research methods. The methodology primarily entails the use of experiments conducted in an actual classroom set up. The teachers in these experiments use various oral corrective feedbacks on the students and observe how the students react to such feedback. In other cases, especially where the research is keen on identifying the accurate impact of the feedback on language skills of the learners, a quantitative approach is used whereby the students are recorded as well as their performance in a specific language before and after oral corrective feedback. This approach gives authentic results and allows for a systematic evaluation of the effect of oral collective feedback on language learners.

The classroom-based research process is used to establish the effects of feedback in the formal class context. This strategy aims to find the effectiveness of the teachers in applying corrective feedback as well as the impact of such feedbacks on the learning process. The approach entails close observation and collection of data regarding the progress of the students. One of the key elements that this strategy focuses on is the response of the students to various feedbacks provided by the teachers. The researchers in the analyzed studies focus on the occurrence of corrections during language classes whereby most of the subjects are students undertaking courses in various languages. The studies mainly derive data regarding the occurrence of feedbacks and how the students implement such feedbacks to better their performance in a given language. Data collected from the experiments such as interview and observation records are analyzed to support the quantitative information obtained from these studies.

### IV. CLASSIFICATION OF STUDIES

The studies analyzed in this paper can be classified into several broad categories based on the research strategies applied to each. There are two broad categories of research approaches which are quantitative and qualitative. This paper utilizes studies that contain both qualitative and quantitative information regarding the impact of oral corrective feedback on language skills of a learner. The qualitative research studies used in this paper mainly expounds on the various types of feedbacks and how they impact on the performance of a student in languages (Solikhah, 2016). These type of studies do not analyze or compare any variables but simply narrate how the variable in the study is affected by the factors considered. Quantitative research is common in most of the articles used in this study. This entails the use of many samples as well as experimentation whereby the results are recorded and compared. Ideally, quantitative research approaches can further be divided into subgroups which include descriptive, correlational, quasi-experimental and experimental.

The articles used in this study apply all the quantitative research designs whereby the commonly used approach is the descriptive design which is focused on assessing the current status of the study phenomenon. The articles mainly assess the current state with regards to the use of oral corrective feedback in language classes. The researchers in these articles do not provide a hypothesis but generally explore the application of oral corrective feedback and its impact on the students' learning outcomes. Data collection is mostly observational. A number of studies use the correctional design which generally explores relationships between oral corrective feedback and learner language skills (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013). These studies do not integrate details regarding cause and effects but only details how the pedagogical approach affects language classes. Quasi-Experimental Design is also used in some of the articles analyzed, and it explores the cause-effect relationships that exist between learner language skills and the application of oral corrective feedback. This approach entails the establishment of control groups which are compared with independent groups. A comparison of the results shows the impact of oral corrective feedback on the students.

Experimental designs are believed to be the best research designs for studying the variable phenomenon. This is mainly because they attempt to establish a relationship between the various variables involved in the study. It entails the use of independent and controlled variable whereby the researcher manipulates the controlled variables using the variables of the study. The independent groups are not manipulated and therefore provide results in a natural setting. The effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable are collected and analyzed for a relationship (Sobhani & Tayebipour, 2015). In this study, the primary variables of study are the use of oral corrective feedback and its impact on language skills of the students. In this regard, the articles use a group of students who are exposed to the extensive use of oral corrective feedback while the other group undertakes language studies in the conventional classroom setting. The scores and language skills of the students from both groups are compared to reveal the effect of oral corrective feedback on the learning outcomes.

The articles analyzed in this study make it clear that oral corrective feedback has a significant positive impact on the language skills of learners. Notably, provision of such feedback does not only enhance the spoken language, but it also plays a critical role in the development of written language and grammar skills in the learner. Language classes in higher grades are far much complicated compared to the classes of young children (Vilček, 2014). This is mainly because senior class language class involves going into details of the language structure, unlike children classes which mainly focus on pronunciations and spelling. This is the fundamental reason why senior language classes require the extensive use of the various types of feedbacks including oral corrective feedback. The complexity of the language influences the type and number of corrections made. It is, however, advisable that language teachers use minimal corrective feedback as many corrections may discourage the students and make them ignore vital corrections made in the future.

## V. CONCLUSION

Feedback is extensively used as an evaluative approach that indicates the effectiveness of teaching strategies as well as the level of understanding of the students. Corrective feedback is used as a support strategy that improves the learning process especially in languages. Written and oral corrective feedbacks are the commonly used strategies whereby the oral approach corrects phonetic and pronunciation mistakes. Corrective feedback is essential as it helps teachers and learners to identify and focus on the common errors made in languages. Written corrective feedback is mainly used to correct grammar and spelling mistakes in language classes. Oral corrective feedback is an essential element in language classrooms. It provides a platform through which teachers can interact with students in a way that improves their language skills. Oral corrective feedback has several sub-divisions which are recast, repetition, clarification request, explicit correction, elicitation, and Para lingual signal. Each of these plays a critical role in the correction of learner mistakes in the classroom set up. Overall, oral corrective feedback has an extensive positive impact on the language skills of the learners.

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# The Research on Cooperative Learning in English Reading Teaching in College

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**Abstract**—There are four basic skills in English learning, namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing, while reading is the most fundamental and important skill. It is also the main and effective way to learn English, so improving the quality of reading teaching is the key to improve the quality of foreign language teaching. However, in traditional teacher-centered teaching method, students gain knowledge passively and cannot effectively show their personality and abilities.

Cooperative learning is a new strategy in English teaching, which can make improvement by the application of interactive teaching dynamic factors, so cooperative learning is an effective way to solve the problems in education. Data analysis points out that cooperative learning strongly promotes the efficiency and has good prospects for development. The study also finds out the problems in the application of cooperative learning in English reading practice.

**Index Terms**—Cooperative learning; College English, English reading, Reading teaching

## I. INTRODUCTION

With the development of economy and technology, the pace of globalization is very fast and the communication with foreign countries grows frequently. The college educational system faces a huge challenge.

As an international language, English plays a more and more important role, so English teaching received more and more attention in China. Thus, an effective English teaching approach for English learning is in urgent need. However, the traditional teacher-centered method neglects it. In a traditional English reading class, the students have few chances to participate in real communication. When the teachers teach the reading parts, they just explain or translate the sentences word by word. And the teacher is the center of class, students only need to sit and take notes and memorize what the teacher has taught. In the traditional method, the students need to meet the requirements of language education, so they just work independently and compete for good scores without cooperation. In the class, the teachers focus on the scores rather than the process of learning. So this system has bad effects and cannot improve students' learning ability.

Cooperative learning is one of the most creative and successful instructional approaches. It is an instructional strategy in the United States in the early 1970s. The researchers pay more attention to cooperative learning because of the proven effectiveness. The cooperative learning based on the group work emphasizes that the students accomplish one goal together. Making joint effort to accomplish the aim in groups is the core notion of the cooperative learning.

In order to overcome the shortcomings of traditional English teaching, cooperative learning has been brought into China. Many researches have proved the importance of cooperative learning in reading classes in college. The purpose of this research is to prove that cooperative learning can improve student's reading ability, and has a positive effect on the students' motivation, confidence, lowering anxiety, and learning atmosphere. What is more, there are still some problems in cooperative learning.

This paper is made up of six parts. Part one is about the background, significance and organization of the research. Part two is to introduce the definitions of cooperative learning, and the related research of cooperative learning at home and abroad. The research design is presented in the third part, and it includes research questions, research subjects, research instruments and procedure. Part four is about data analysis. Part five shows some findings in the study. Finally the author draws the conclusion of the paper.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. The Definition of Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning is one of the most creative and successful instructional approaches in the history of education and arose in the early 1970s in America. As a new attempt, it emphasized the student—student interaction. When it appeared, there were many scholars who promoted the idea into practice. They defined cooperative learning according to their own thought and understanding but they were similar.

Slavin (1987) defined cooperative learning in this way: “instructional methods in which students of all performance levels work together in small groups toward a group goal”. The feature of this definition is that let one student help other students when they are in difficult situations. The cooperative learning is based on the group work and it aims to accomplish one common goal rather than individual's tasks. The core notion of the cooperative learning is to make great

effort to accomplish the aim in groups.

In China, the main representative of cooperative learning is Wang Tan (2001), and he defined cooperative learning as a systematic teaching strategy that make students learn to cooperate in heterogeneous teams towards a common goal and is rewarded based on the success of the team. The research and practice of cooperative learning marked that the cooperative learning has matured gradually in China.

In the view of above, cooperative learning is one of the teaching methods which proceeds in group activities, thus all members of the group can make progress together. Within a cooperative group, each group member can learn from each other. They participate in activities positively in order to achieve a common goal.

### *B. The Elements of Cooperative Learning*

Each researcher has their own understanding of the elements of CL. So there are many elements of cooperative learning. At present, we all know five essential elements: positive interdependence, individual accountability, face-to-face group interaction, development of small group social skills and group processing.

#### 1. Positive Interdependence

As the first and foremost element, “one for all, all for one” is a direct description for positive interdependence, which means the members on the same boat need to share resources and there is no prejudice, and everyone can get the same things. The members are reliant on each other and they should realize they have the common goal, and they should help others and work together to achieve the common goal.

#### 2. Individual Accountability

Individual accountability refers to that the members must take their efforts to accomplish individual tasks which are assigned by groups. They should have a responsibility to participate in the activity for the success of the group. When every member deals with their own task, they should be responsible for the goal.

#### 3. Face-to-Face Group Interaction

There is positive interdependence, and there is face-to-face group interaction. The face-to-face group interaction can directly help the groups succeed. The members have the opportunity to listen to and express and figure out what their weaknesses are by discussing face-to-face. And they can share resources and knowledge, interpret solutions to the question and discuss the nature of concepts they have learned, and finally make progress together.

#### 4. Development of Small Group Social Skills

Social skills are also an important element in CL. There are many social skills that the members should learn such as leadership, decision-making, trust-building communication and conflict-management skills. When the cooperative groups want to get success or to have a high quality production, individual not only needs to learn linguistic knowledge but also social skills.

#### 5. Group Processing

Group processing results from the reflection and discussion of the group’s experience. We can regard it as a plan that each member must obey. Group processing makes clear steps to achieve their goals. They can change the steps when they think they are not suitable. By this way, group processing helps to ensure the effectiveness of the team work.

### *C. The Major Approaches of Cooperative Learning*

In history, there are kinds of cooperative activities which have been provided, and many researchers put forward a lot of approaches of cooperative learning. The cooperative learning requires the existence of a group, so four typical classroom groups have developed and have been used in practice.

#### 1. Student Team-Achievement Divisions (STAD)

STAD has been put into practice widely in many fields, such as mathematics, languages arts and social sciences and etc. It is suitable for the teaching which has a correct answer and a clear teaching goal. In STAD (Slavin, 1987), according to performance level, sex, and ethnicity, students are assigned to four-member learning teams to grasp the knowledge and skills. Firstly the teacher presents a lesson, and then students learn the knowledge within their teams to make sure that all team members have mastered the lesson. Finally, all students take individual quizzes, and they may not help one another.

STAD implies a main idea that is to stimulate students to encourage and help each other to master the lesson. When they work together, they can communicate and discuss with each other.

#### 2. Team-Games-Tournament (TGT)

In this activity, it uses the same teaching method and group activities as STAD, except that they compete once a week between groups instead of taking individual quizzes. Each member makes their efforts to compete in order to win the competition for their team. Finally the winning team gets the reward.

Comparing with STAD, this kind of team-work is funnier because of the interesting competition. The team members solve the problems together and help each other to prepare for the competition. In this process, they can ensure the implementation of individual responsibility.

#### 3. Jigsaw II

The jigsaw method is one of the most effective cooperative methods that can improve students’ self-esteem and emphasize students’ interdependence. Each student has to rely on other group mates’ information to complete the required task.

Jigsaw II method is an adaptation of Aronson's jigsaw approach. Jigsaw II assigns different tasks based on the same material. The members are required to hand in essay or give oral report. In jigsaw II method, students work in heterogeneous teams. They are divided into parts to read materials, and students are given expert sheets which contain different topics and each team member should focus on the topics while reading. When everyone has finished reading, students from different teams with the same topic discuss their topics for about 30 minutes. The teaching process of jigsaw II method consists of five steps: material reading, expert group discussion, jigsaw group discussion, testing, and group recognition.

#### 4. Group Investigation (GI)

GI was developed by Sharan (1992), and it is the student group method. In this method, a general topic is first brought forward by the teacher. Students are divided into different groups. Different groups are assigned different tasks or different aspects of the same topic. Each group is responsible for their own learning, and they gather information, analyze the data, synthesize their findings and present their final report to the whole class. In this process, students must accomplish the task by themselves while depending on each other to solve the emerging problems.

To sum up, GI involves six steps as follows: (a) identifying the topic and organizing students into research groups; (b) planning the learning tasks; (c) carrying out the investigation; (d) preparing for the final report; (e) presenting the final report; (f) evaluation.

#### D. *Related Research at Home and Abroad*

Cooperative learning has covered a long period of development since the 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> century. In ancient Rome, some educationalists believed that students could reap benefits by learning from each other, which emphasized the interaction among students. In 1806, the cooperative learning was introduced into the USA and drew attention from the famous educationalists such as Francis Parker and John Dewey. And then they widely used it in practice. Then cooperative learning has become a part of the teaching method.

From the late 1960s to the mid of 1970s, cooperative learning made substantial progress and developed into an innovative and influential system of instructional theory and strategy. In 1970s, cooperative learning started in America as an effective teaching theory and strategy. Lots of effective and successful strategies on it come out by many experiments. Furthermore, many subjects have applied cooperative learning strategies for the sake of its various specific methods. Many educationists have made lots of experimental researches to devote themselves to the development of it. So Cooperative Learning Method is widely used in almost every elementary and secondary school and many colleges and universities of many countries, such as America, Israel, Canada, Britain, Germany, Australia and Japan.

In recent decades, many educators abroad have been researching on cooperative learning. They all proclaimed that students could make great progress in their study with communication and cooperation.

Since the late 1980s, Cooperative Learning has been introduced in China, and the perspective of theory and practice were discussed. But it is still quite a new concept to Chinese education field. Many scholars focus on this new teaching strategy and research the conception of cooperative learning in history, and it influenced the education and attracted the attention of the world. Many scholars make the research on Cooperative Learning, for example, Wang Tan, who elaborates on its historical development, theoretical underpinning, principles, strategies, comment, empirical studies and so on. The earlier attempt of applying cooperative learning carried out by the Hang Zhou University, Tianchang Middle School and No.1 Middle School of Hang Zhou. The teachers of the experimental classes said that cooperative learning in small groups could add vitality and dynamic to the class. Another important and typical experiment which used cooperative learning and practice was conducted in Shan Dong province in 1993. It covered more than 100 schools, ranging from preschool to college and was supported by many Chinese and foreigners. Later, a series of studies of cooperative learning in English classroom followed. And cooperative learning has made many changes in students' achievement, learning environment and learning attitudes.

And there are many researchers, such as Pei Dina (2000) declares that cooperative learning makes contribution to students' academic ability, makes them adapt to the society better in the future, and cultivates the autonomy learning ability. Wang Liang (2006) stated that cooperative learning had the advantages of improving the students' learning qualities and awareness.

### III. RESEARCH DESIGN

Researchers have done a number of studies on cooperative learning in the foreign countries and they have proved the effectiveness of cooperative learning in language learning, and a lot of Chinese researchers also have proved its effectiveness in English teaching. Based on the above discussion of Cooperative Learning, the paper here is to explore students' attitudes to the English reading and examine the effectiveness of Cooperative Learning in reading teaching in college.

#### A. *Research Questions*

This paper displays an experimental study of cooperative learning in English reading class in college, which aims to explore the following aspects:

- (1) Can cooperative learning improve students' reading ability?



(2) Can cooperative learning have a positive effect on the students' motivation, confidence, learning interest, and learning atmosphere?

(3) What problems still exist in cooperative learning?

### B. Research Subjects

The experiment is conducted from September 2014 to December 2014. And the participants of research are from two classes of Grade Three (Class 1 and Class 2) in North University of China in Taiyuan district, Shanxi province. The two classes are parallel classes of similar level. All of them come from different families and schooling backgrounds. One class (Class 1) is randomly chosen as the experimental class, and the other class (Class 2) is the controlled class. These two classes are almost at the same level in terms of their reading competence according to their achievements in the pretest. They share the same teacher.

TABLE I.  
INFORMATION ABOUT THE SUBJECTS

Class	Number	Male	Female	Average Age
Class 1(EC)	42	22	20	21
Class 2(CC)	42	21	21	22

### C. Research Instruments and Procedures

#### 1. Instruments

The author takes effort to make the experiment as practical and persuasive as possible, so the instruments used in the research are: two reading comprehension tests, one questionnaire and one open interview.

#### 2. Procedures

This section describes six steps of implementing cooperative learning in English reading teaching. They are preparation, talk-design, pre-reading, while reading, post-reading and evaluation.

##### (1) Preparation

The preparation consists of clarifying cooperative learning to the students, group formation, clarifying student roles and team training before the implementation of cooperative learning. And before the research, all students should attend the first reading comprehension test and answer the questions in questionnaire in September, 2014. The data of the questionnaire were collected and analyzed for the preparation.

42 students in each class were divided into seven groups, and each group had six members. And each group consisted of high-achieving, medium-achieving and low-achieving students. After the groups were assigned, each member would take different specific roles in different tasks.

Previous researches suggest that cooperative groups should be as small as possible to make it easier to interact. One group formation should have six roles: an organizer, a recorder, a summarizer, a challenger, an evaluator and a storyteller. An organizer should ensure the smooth process of cooperative learning; a recorder should take down what the group members explain and discuss; a summarizer should deliver a speech about team considerations, conclusions and recommendations; a challenger should reflect an opposing view to increase the creative ideas in a dialogue; an evaluator should give assessment for peer group work performance; a storyteller should convey examples that help to deepen the understanding. After dividing each class into seven groups, the author clarified student roles to everyone.

Finally, the author thought it was of great importance that the students should be trained at the beginning of the experiment. Students should understand the detail of cooperative learning and how to cooperate with members. During this period, first, the researcher gave detailed explanations about cooperative learning. Students should make clear that they are responsible for their team. They should work towards a common goal and they were not allowed to help each other in the test. All the members could finish the task when they all had grasped the assigned material. In addition, they could develop some social skills. During the training period, they could learn some model researches so that they could apply these skills easily.

##### (2) Task-design

In order to achieve the success of cooperative learning, teachers should take students' capability of accepting new knowledge into account. When teachers design the task, they should go from simple objectives to difficult ones. Besides, according to Shavelson and Stem (1981:478), task-design should take the following steps:

- a. content: the subject matter to be taught
- b. materials: the things that learners can observe, manipulate
- c. activities: the things the learners and teacher will be doing during the lesson
- d. goals: the teacher's general aims for the task
- e. students---their abilities, needs and interests
- f. community---the class as a whole and its sense of "groupness"

In conclusion, when teachers design the task, they should take students' needs, interest, language ability and cognitive level into account. They should conform to the principle-learning-by-doing. It can arouse students' interest and enthusiasm in language learning. Above all, the author thinks that the teacher is supposed to play a good role in

supporting and instructing students in the whole process of English learning.

### (3) Pre-reading

In this stage, cooperative learning strategies were adopted flexibly according to different learning materials and activities. Students should understand the procedures that they should follow. After the teacher introduced the topic with background knowledge and made sure that the students understand the task, students should collect information about the title, preview the new words, phrases, and read the passage. After that, the researcher assigned the task to each member of groups and got them ready for group activities.

Firstly, when the teacher lead-in the topic, they can give them some questions, for example, what is the text mainly about? What is the main idea of this passage? What do you know about the author? In this task, pictures, videos, or some other materials were shown to the students. In order to improve students' interests in learning English as well, the teacher can ask the students to act out role-plays. Students can have a good knowledge of the topic-related information by doing that. The members can express their points of view respectively about the background of the title. Besides, other activities can be taken in the lesson, such as jigsaw, group investigation, asking and answering, reporting, storytelling, guessing, playing games and filling in the blanks.

Secondly, vocabulary learning is a very important task in the pre-reading. In this task, students should learn together in groups. Each of them had a sense of responsibility for their group learning, and they can be assigned by different words and everyone could refer to the dictionary for one part then they gather to share what they have learned about their own words. It includes the pronunciation, usage of words and some sentence examples. Finally, all groups could exchange their ideas and correct the errors which other groups had made. Then the teacher could give an explanation to students to work out difficult points.

### (4) While—reading

In this stage, reading comprehension is the key point. In the reading test, there are many questions such as predicting, word guessing, asking the style of the text, finding the main idea and writer's purpose, analyzing the structure and summarizing. In order to practice their reading skills, students could finish the exercises by skimming, scanning, summarizing, inferring or guessing the meaning of the words from the context on their own. After that, teacher could ask some questions to each student to present their ideas. For example:

- a. What's the main idea of this passage?
- b. What is the structure of the passage?
- c. Can you guess the word in the three paragraphs by scribbling?
- d. According to the passage which of the following statements is true?
- e. What is the writer's purpose?

In this stage, Jigsaw was a proper method to accomplish the questions. Students were divided into several parts and each member was responsible for one part. The students in different groups who had the same question could gather to form an expert team to share their ideas and they could write down what the other said, and then put forward the difficulties to the teacher to solve the difficulties. Then they went back to their group to share other group members' idea. At last, a test was given to the students.

### (5) Post—reading

In cooperative learning in English reading, every member's performance has a great effect on the achievement of the group, so the students are asked to be active, serious and confident. After reading, the students might have a discussion to exchange their ideas to get the main idea of the passage and some detailed information, or they can have a debate speech to achieve their goals. Then they choose the best answer to the researcher. Finally, the excellent group has the chance to show their achievements and atmosphere. The star of the group of the highest score can be rewarded.

### (6) Evaluation

After reading, the teacher should evaluate each group timely and gave feedback to their performance. There were seven groups in each class and each group had six members. The students should attend the second reading comprehension test and answer the questions to check how much the students had mastered. According to the examinations for the evaluation of cooperative learning, the research might give a score to each group. Each member in the group was evaluated by their own performance and they might give a score to themselves. Finally, each student would answer the questions again.

After the experiment, eight students were chosen randomly from EC to ask them about their thoughts before and after a term of cooperative learning. When the researcher builds a face-to-face interview, we can know more objectively about their problems in cooperative learning in a large class.

## D. Data Collection

In order to investigate whether cooperative learning can improve students' reading ability, the author uses pre-test, post-test and questionnaire to collect data. In the reading test, the author gives out 84 copies, 79 of them are valid in the pre-test and 78 of them are valid in the post-test. In addition, the questionnaires are given out 84 copies before the experiment and 80 of them are valid, and the author gives out 42 after the experiment in the experiment class and 40 of them are valid.

## IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### A. Analysis of Tests

In the pre-test, the researcher collected the data of students' English reading scores to analyze the differences data between two classes. The result is shown in the following table.

TABLE II  
ANALYSIS OF THE FIRST READING COMPREHENSION TEST (PRE-TEST)

Class	Number	Mean
Class1(EC)	39	68.5
Class2(CC)	40	69.1

From Table 4.1, we can see that there was no significant difference between two classes, and the two classes have similar English reading level before they take part in the experiment. So the author just chose class one randomly as experimental class, the other as controlled class.

TABLE III  
ANALYSIS OF THE SECOND READING COMPREHENSION TEST (POST-TEST)

Class	Number	Mean
Class1(EC)	39	82.5
Class2(CC)	39	68.1

From Table 4.2, we can see that there exists an obvious difference between their scores after the experiment. During the experiment, the author used the traditional teaching method in controlled class and the cooperative learning in experimental class. This result proves cooperative learning can help students improve their reading competence in class and develop their reading abilities.

### B. Analysis of Questionnaires

#### Discussion of Questionnaire before Experiment

At the beginning of the experiment, 84 students are asked to fill out questionnaire, and they must be honest and careful to finish it. They can choose the suitable choice for themselves from the 10 items in the questionnaire. The following table displays the outcome of the questionnaire.

TABLE IV.  
THE RESULT OF QUESTIONNAIRE BEFORE EXPERIMENT  
(EC=experimental class;CC=control class;A,B,C choice items;P=percentage)

Item	Class	A(%)	B(%)	C(%)
1	EC	20.5	50.37	29.13
	CC	20.55	53.45	26
2	EC	24.2	31.6	44.2
	CC	23.3	30.5	46.2
3	EC	24.4	26.2	49.4
	CC	25.3	25.2	49.5
4	EC	16.5	45	43.5
	CC	15	43.5	45
5	EC	13.5	32.5	54
	CC	16.5	31.5	52
6	EC	10.5	50.4	39.1
	CC	9.3	49.4	41.3
7	EC	11.5	29.3	59.2
	CC	10.3	30.5	60.2
8	EC	17.5	25.5	57
	CC	16.5	25.5	58
9	EC	24.8	20.7	64.5
	CC	24.7	21.5	63.8
10	EC	32.5	10.6	56.9
	CC	33.6	12.7	53.7

From the Table 4.3, the result of the two class were almost the same. The questions 1 to 5 are intended to know students' reading ability and their attitude towards CL. Obviously in item 1, nearly 50.37% of the students both in the two class think it is not important to build the cooperative learning in English reading class; as far as the result in item 2 is concerned, approximately 45% of students think they don't support cooperative learning; from question 3, nearly half of the students considered cooperative learning useless in English reading; only a small of the students think their reading speed is very fast, and nearly 80% of them think their reading speed is slow in item 4. It revealed that 85% of students think they do not have a deep understanding of English from item 5. So we can conclude from the above analyses that students' reading ability is not good.

The questions 6 to10 are intended to find out the present situation of students' reading learning. Obviously in item 6, the above analyses show that nearly half of the students considered the atmosphere monotonous and nearly 40% of them think it is tense and oppressive; Data in item 7 exposed that in reading class many students suffered a lot of

anxiety, who had no or little confidence in English reading, and the number can be up to 90%; Item 8 is designed to know how most students perform in class. Half of the students are afraid to answer questions, and a quarter of the students just listened but were not willing to answer questions. Only a small number of them enjoyed answering questions actively; from the item 9, when other students spoke, about 65% of the students did not listen and then gave up; item 10 revealed that only 10% of students are willing to participate in the activities. The above analyses show that many students don't have much interest and enough confidence in reading. When they do the reading exercise, they suffer a lot of anxiety. They are not willing to participate in the activities or answer questions.

The same questionnaire was conducted in the experimental class at the end of the experiment, and the following data were collected from the students' answers to the 10 items in the questionnaire.

TABLE V  
THE RESULTS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE IN EC AFTER EXPERIMENT

Item	Class	A(%)	B(%)	C(%)
1	EC	89	11	0
2	EC	11	88	1
3	EC	90	9	1
4	EC	69	22	9
5	EC	65	25	10
6	EC	75	13	12
7	EC	57	39	4
8	EC	16	84	0
9	EC	77	19	4
10	EC	80	15	5

Table 4.4 shows that the cooperative learning can improve students' reading ability. Item 1 reveals that 89% of them think it is very important to build the cooperative learning in reading class; 88% of them like this method when they learn reading in item 2; in item 3, 90% of students considered cooperative learning can help them in English reading; and 66% of them think it has increased their reading speed in item 4; Item 5 revealed that 65% of students think they have a better understanding of English. In conclusion, the above analyses show that students' reading ability has improved by the cooperative learning.

Quite different from the results of questionnaire before the experiment, nearly all the students thought the classroom atmosphere was harmonious and relaxing in which they could learn actively, which revealed that cooperative learning helps create such a beneficial classroom atmosphere in the item 6; and from item 7, compared with the results of questionnaire before the experiment, a majority of the students claimed that their self confidence in English reading was strengthened; compared with their behavior before the experiment, 84% of the students performed much better in cooperative learning, and they were more willing to answer questions actively and voluntarily in item 8; from the item 9, when other students spoke, about 77% of the students are willing to listen to others; item 10 revealed that 80% of the students are willing to participate in the activities. So with the help of cooperative learning, they can understand questions more accurately and express ideas in group activities. Compared Table4.3 with Table4.4, it is obvious that cooperative learning has a positive effect on students' English reading. They indicate students can perform their parts as well as when learning in the cooperative way in reading class.

### C. Analysis of Interview

From the interview, the students in the experimental class all proved the effectiveness of cooperative learning. But there are also some problems that students have put forward from the interview in the experimental class at the end of the experiment.

In the interview, five of eight students think when they are in cooperative activities, the class is much too noisy and four students think it is so disordered that students cannot hear each other clearly; four of them say some students make no effort but share the same outcomes. So working hard may have a negative feeling in learning. What's more, some of students say that they cannot communication in English.

## V. FINDINGS

### A. The Benefits of Cooperative Learning

After the two reading comprehension tests--two questionnaires and one open interview, the research proved that Cooperative learning has positive effect on the students' motivation, confidence, learning interest and learning atmosphere.

Firstly, it can provide much more opportunities for interaction and help to improve and develop their learning ability. In the cooperative learning, the teacher has more chance to contact with more students. By this way, the teachers can find more difficulties while students can learn in an interesting and dynamic situation. In the interaction, students can learn new concepts, knowledge and skills more easily. By organizing, planning and interacting, students can complete the learning tasks with their group members actively.

Secondly, it is a good method to improve students' integrated skills of language. The cooperative learning provides a

good social environment where students can communicate with each other, discuss questions, ask and answer questions. By doing these, students' listening and speaking ability can be improved. When students read the general idea and detailed information, their reading skills can be improved. In addition, students must write down the result of discussions and write their answers on the blackboard. By this way, their writing ability can also be improved.

Thirdly, cooperative learning builds a relatively relaxing and harmonious learning environment. In the traditional English class, the students feel boring and they aren't willing to study. However, cooperative learning establishes a good learning atmosphere in which students can learn without anxiety but feel interested.

### *B. The Problems in Cooperative Learning*

The author finds some problems in cooperative learning in the experiment.

Firstly, sometimes, it is too noisy and the class is disordered and students can not listen to each other clearly. It takes some time for them to get rid of the noise and excitement. This problem can deeply influence other groups' effectiveness.

Secondly, some students make no effort but share the same outcomes. Sometimes, some students may talk about something else. Some students have a desire for English learning, so they make efforts to complete the task, while others just play in the class.

Thirdly, some students can't communicate in English. The students have many difficulties in expressing their ideas in English throughout the whole group activity. Chinese is frequently used in group discussion. Because of the limitation in vocabulary and difficulties in expression, they sometimes use Chinese to express themselves, especially when they meet some complicated problems which are hard to explain clearly to their partners. They use Chinese instead. So in the cooperative learning, it is very important to form a habit of communicating in English.

## VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper, the researcher has proved that cooperative learning is an effective method in English reading class. It has positive effect on the students' motivation, confidence, learning interest, and learning atmosphere. And this method creates a harmonious and comfortable learning environment. By doing various activities, the students have much more chances to communicate. However, there are some problems in the cooperative learning. As for the problems, here are some possible solutions.

Firstly, the researcher should build effective and systematic management to control the class, and the research can select a leader to manage the whole group.

Secondly, the researcher should make a clear concept of cooperative learning, which will help students develop their awareness of cooperative learning and make the members understand that the task is a team work. Everyone should try their best. Besides, the best performance should be rewarded and can accept the respect from the members.

Thirdly, in order to ensure that each member speak English, before the cooperative learning, the teacher should make the task suitable for the members. And when discussing, the members should help each other to speak English when someone has difficulties.

All in all, although the research about cooperative learning is not too long, it has great impact on English reading. It has given surprise to people both home and abroad. Researchers believe that the cooperative learning will bring a bright future with a long-field application and it will play an increasingly significant role in teaching system.

## APPENDIX A. THE FIRST READING COMPREHENSION TEST

### Passage A

Women are also underrepresented in the administration and this is because there are so few women full professors. In 1985, Regent Beryl Wilburn produced a report blasting the University of Texas System administration for not encouraging women. The University was rated among the lowest for the system. In a 1987 update, Wilburn commended the progress that was made and called for even more improvement.

One of the positive results from her study was a system-wide program to inform women of available administrative jobs. College of Communication Associate Dean Patrica Weatherperson, said it is important that woman be flexible when it comes to relocating if they want to rise in the ranks.

Although a woman may face a chilly climate on campus, many times in order for her to succeed, she must rise above the problems around her and concentrate on her work.

Until women make up a greater percentage of the senior positions in the University and all academician equities will exist.

"Women need to spend their energies and time doing scholarly activities that are important here at the University." Spirituous said. "If they do that will be successful in this system. If they spend their time in little groups mourning the sexual discrimination that they think exists here, they are wasting valuable study time."

1. According to Spirituous, women need to \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a. produce a report on sexual discrimination
  - b. call for further improvement in their working conditions

- c. spend their energies and time fighting against sexual discrimination
- d. spend more time and energy doing scholarly activities
- 2. From this passage ,we know that \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a. there are many women full professors in the University of Texas
  - b. women play an important part in administrating the University
  - c. the wepather on the campus is chilly
  - d. women make up a small percentage of the senior positions in the University
- 3. Which of the following statements is true?
  - a. the number of women professors in the University in 1987 was greater than that of 1985
  - b. the number of women professors in the University in 1987 was smaller than that of 1985
  - c. the number of women professors was the same as that of 1985
  - d. more and more women professors thought that sexual discrimination did exit in the University
- 4. One of the positive results from Wilburn's study was that \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a. women were told to con cent rate on their work
  - b. women were given information about available administrative jobs
  - c. women were encouraged to take on all the administrative jobs in the University
  - d. women were encouraged to do more scholarly activities
- 5. The title for this passage should be \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a. The University of Texas
  - b. Wilburn's Report
  - c. Women Professors
  - d. Sexual Discrimination in Academia

#### APPENDIX B. THE SECOND COMPREHENSION TEST

##### Passage A

There are three kinds of goals: short-term, medium-range and long-term goals.

Short-range goals are those that usually deal with current activities, which we can apply on a daily basis. Such goals can be achieved in a week or less, or two weeks, or possible months. It should be remembered that just as a building is no stronger than its foundation, out long-term goals cannot amount to very munch without the achievement of solid short-term goals. Upon completing our short-term goals, we should date the occasion and then add new short-term goals that will build on those that have been completed.

The intermediate goals build on the foundation of the short-range goals. They might deal with just one term of school or the entire school year, or they could even extend for several years. Any time you move a step at a time, you should never allow yourself to become discouraged or overwhelmed. As you complete each step, you will enforce the belief in your ability to grow ads succeed. And as your list of completion dates grow, your motivation and desire will increase.

Long-range goals may be related to our dreams of the future. They might cover five years or more. Life is not a static thing. We should never allow a long-term goal to limit us or our course of action.

- 1. Our long-term goals mean a lot\_\_\_.
  - a. if we complete our short-range goals
  - b. if we cannot reach solid short-term goals
  - c. if we write down the dates
  - d. if we put forward some plans
- 2. New short-term goals are built upon\_\_\_.
  - a. two years
  - b. long-term goals
  - c. current activities
  - d. the goals that have been completed
- 3. When we complete each step of our goals ,\_\_\_.
  - a. we will win final success
  - b. we are overwhelmed
  - c. we should build up confidence of success
  - d. we should strong desire for setting new goals
- 4. Once our goals are drawn up,\_\_\_.
  - a. we should stick to them until we complete them
  - b. we may change our goals as we have new ideas and opportunities
  - c. we had better wait for the exciting news of success
  - d. we have made great decision
- 5. It is implied but not stated in the passage that \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a. those who have long-term goals will succeed
  - b. writing down the dates may discourage you

- c. the goal is only a guide for us to reach our destination
- d. every should have a goal

## APPENDIX C. THE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Is it important of cooperative learning in English reading teaching?  
A yes            B no            C not care
2. Do you like cooperative learning in English reading?  
A yes                            B no                            C not care
3. Is cooperative learning useful for English Learning?  
A a lot                            B little                            C no
4. What do you think of your reading speed?  
A fast                            B just so so                            C slow
5. What do think of your English comprehensive ability?  
A great                            B just so so                            C bad
6. What do you think of your classroom atmosphere during English teaching?  
A harmonious                            B disorder                            C nervous
7. What is your degree of confidence in English reading?  
A confident                            B just so so                            C no
8. What is your feeling while reading?  
A express and listen                            B just listen                            C no expressing
9. What do you do when listening other's ideas?  
A listen seriously                            B listen sometimes                            C no listening
10. How do you behave in English class?  
A positive                            B passive                            C have to

## APPENDIX D. THE OPEN INTERVIEW

## Interview Questions

During cooperative learning, are there any problems in groups and does it behave in which ways?

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# Analysis of the Translations of *Gone with the Wind* Based on Gideon Toury's Theory of Norm

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**Abstract**—Since there are many translated editions of *Gone with the Wind*, there emerged many disputes and comments towards different translators' different products. In this article, the author intends to analyze Gideon Toury's theory of translation studies and focuses on norm to show that controlled by a specific translation norm, translators tend to take a specific translation strategy, which would be helpful for readers to better understand different translated editions.

**Index Terms**—descriptive translation studies, translation strategy, translation norm

## I. CHINESE EDITIONS OF *GONE WITH THE WIND*

*Gone with the Wind*, written by American writer Margaret Mitchell, was published in 1936. As soon as it was distributed, it became the best seller, and was sold over 2,000,000 copies that year. In 1937, it won Pulitzer Prize and the Prize of American Publishers' Association. Till 1949, the year Margaret Mitchell died of car accident, the novel had been translated into 18 languages, published in over forty countries, and sold about 8,000,000 copies (Preface of *Gone with the Wind* 2002 English edition). According to *Washington Post*, till 1980, the novel had been translated into 31 languages; the sales had reached over 21,000,000 copies (Zhu, 1991).

In China, the movie adapted from the novel was released in Shanghai in 1940, and was cheered by Shanghai people during its show of over forty days. After several months, the first Chinese edition of the novel, translated by Fu Donghua, came out, and reprinted in 1979 (*Gone with the Wind* 1979 Chinese edition). Several decades since *Gone with the Wind* was introduced into China, Fu's edition dominated the translation. From 1990s, many translators started to retranslate the novel. And till now, it is estimated that there are at least eight editions.

With the issue of the translation, the articles about *Gone with the Wind* welled up. Till now, I got sixty-two articles about the novel, sixteen of which are written between 1980 and 1982, and the rest are mainly between 1991 and 2005. As for the content of these articles, about 90% of them are about the theme, the value, the thoughts of the novel as well as the analysis of the characters, and the last 10% is about translation, most of which are about the comparison of the two editions of the novel, and the central point of the comparison is the dispute of domestication and foreignization. Of the two editions that are compared, one definitely is Fu's edition, because many readers and translators treat it as the representative of domestication, but the other edition is diversified, such as, the edition translated by Daikan, or Chen Liangting, or Zhang Peiyu, or Huang Huai'ren. Although the editions are different, the theme of the articles is the same, that is, which edition is better, the edition of domestication or foreignization.

For example, Wang Danyang (1998) in the article *The Comparison of Two Chinese Editions of Gone with the Wind* thought Huang Huai'ren's edition is better than Fu's, because the author believed that Fu did not achieve faithfulness, which was very important to literary translation, and Huang's translation is rather close to the style of the language and thoughts of the original novel.

Also there are three articles using skopostheorie of German functionalism, among them, Wen Jun (2003) in his article *A Functionalist Critique of Two Chinese Translations of Gone with the Wind* illustrated Fu and Huang's editions, saying that the nature of translation is primarily determined by its skopos or commission, so Fu adopted domestication and Huang used foreignization, therefore their translations have different advantages and disadvantages. But here Wen Jun ignored that functional approach mainly applies to practical writings, and the translation of *Gone with the Wind* would rather belong to literary translation.

Still, Feng Qinghua (1987) in his *Studying Translation from the Macroscopical Viewpoint of Cultural Communication* said that translation is not only a linguistic transference, but also an intercultural communication, we should pay adequate attention to macro-cultural factors involved in the translating, so he employed a historic and descriptive approach to analyze Fu's translation and Daikan's edition, saying that specific sociocultural circumstances and vernacular Chinese of that time influenced and limited him in translating, but his edition was recognized by the readers of that time, so his edition belongs to the past, and we should respect his translation. While new objective conditions nowadays call for the new edition of the novel to adapt to the changed sociocultural surroundings. As for the edition of translation, there is no absolute domestication and foreignization'. Actually Mr Feng's "specific sociocultural circumstances and vernacular Chinese of that time", "new objective conditions" and "the changed sociocultural surroundings" could be regarded as translation norms of a given period of time according to Descriptive Translation Studies (Feng, 1987). Of course, his viewpoint teaches us to evaluate translation in a historic view instead of an



absolute static one, but he still says that with the understanding and attention about the foreign world and with the maturity of the sociocultural conditions, more outstanding translations that are more close to the original work would come out more. That just means foreignization would dominate the translation field nowadays, but there is a question, why could Mr. Feng conclude that foreignization would become the main stream in translation field? And why different translators of different time translated the same work in different ways, and why different editions of different time were treated differently? With Gideon Toury's *descriptive translation studies*, the questions would be explained in a better way.

## II. DOMESTICATION AND FOREIGNIZATION IN CHINA

About domestication and foreignization, I got seventy-six articles, which could be divided into three categories. In the first category, the authors usually use a certain translation edition to analyze the process and current situation of domestication and foreignization in China, for example, Jiang Ping (2004) analyzes the dispute between domestication and foreignization by investigating the translation of the poems in *The Red Mansion*. In the second category, the author would analyze domestication and foreignization by analyzing the practical types of writing, i.e. law English, the English used in tourism, the translation of the film title, etc. But actually the articles about the origin, the evolvement, and present situation of domestication and foreignization written in a pure theory remain the majority, i.e. Qiu Wensheng (2002) wrote *On Context Establishment in Translation from the Viewpoint of Ideology and Logic*; Fang Can (2004) wrote *Translation Criticism: From Impression to Scientific Approaches—on the Scientific nature of Translation Criticism*; Qui Jixin (2004) wrote *Translator's Cultural Orientation and Translation Strategy*. No matter what kind of category the articles belong to, they generally mentioned the origin, the development and the present situation of domestication and foreignization in China.

Towards the origin of domestication foreignization, or rather free translation and direct translation called at the beginning, started after the unconscious translation developed into conscious large-scaled translation, the time when the translation of Buddhist Scripture became sweeping in China (Wang, 2002). In modern times, the second movement in the literary field about direct translation and free translation happened from 1920s to 1930s, and Lu Xun was the representative of direct translation, while Liang Shiqiu supported the opposite. Actually at that time political elements were involved in the dispute. And in the translation field of this contemporary age, the dispute of domestication and foreignization, took many elements into consideration i.e. politics, culture, power, religion, etc., was the extension of the dispute took place from 1920s to 1930s.

The first one who started the dispute of the translation mainstream in the contemporary age was Liu Yingkai (1987) with his *Domestication—Wrong Road of Translation*. Ten years after that, Xu Jun published an article, which was about the investigation of readers' response towards the translation of *Le Rouge et le Noir*, directly resulted in the dispute between the group of domestication and foreignization which led to the climax of the battle. Consequently, so many articles were published to discuss this problem, and these articles mainly concerned about which one, domestication or foreignization, dominated which time of period, and which one will take the dominance in the near future.

Among these articles, some were written by Sun Zhili, who brought forward his ideas about domestication and foreignization. In 2001, he said in his *Domestication and Foreignization* that if a translator wanted to make a successful translation, then he must deal with the relationship between domestication and foreignization well, the basic rule would be making foreignized translation as much as possible. (Sun, 2001) Then In his *China's Literary Translation: from Domestication to Foreignization* concluded that the translation of Chinese literature will turn to foreignization from domestication (Sun, 2002). By using many examples, he confirmed that from 1870s to 1970s the translation of Chinese literature translation, except for about ten years after the May 4th Movement of 1919, was mainly guided by domestication. And from 1980s to 2000s, Chinese translation field was encouraged and influenced by western translation theory; foreignization was paid more and more attention. Finally he made the conclusion that in the 21 century, domestication would become the main translation strategy of Chinese literature. In 2003, Mr. Sun wrote another article *Some More Words on the Strategy of Literary Translation*, he provided a further analysis of the advisability and feasibility of the "foreignization first, domestication second" strategy, in terms of the general tendency of the international situation, the domestic situation and the basic policy of China, and the main tasks of literary translation, etc. (Sun, 2003). Later in his *False Foreignization in Translation*, he still insisted that foreignization should be preferred for foreign literature translation, plus avoiding the "morbid form of translation" (Sun, 2004). Therefore, from his development of his ideas, we could easily see that he his arguments turned to the reasons of the tendency of this issue from explanation of the relationship between the two.

Similarly, Wang Dongfeng wrote another article *An Invisible Hand—Ideological Manipulation in the Practice of Translation* and tried to tell the reasons why translator chose a specific translation strategy (Wang, 2003). By using the translation of Buddhist Scripture, he pointed out that ideology, this invisible hand, not only could manipulate the choice of the original novel and the use of translation strategy, but could determine whether the translation is popular or not.

Actually, no matter in which period of time, translation would no doubt be influenced by society and culture, at the beginning translators all put the focus on the literal correspondence; after that with the development of many aspects, economy, politics, culture, communications among countries, translators did realize that there are certain elements influence the choice of the way of translation, or translation strategy. Some scholars spent much more attention on

which one would be better and which one would be the dominant tendency, and they also concentrated on the judgment of which translation was better than which one. So what are the theories that translators based on to make such a conclusion? Are there rules to evaluate a translation appropriate or not? And when comment translations, should translators use set standards? Must the translation editions be picked out which one is better? As a matter of fact, with Israeli scholar Even-Zohar's polysystem theory, Toury's descriptive translation studies and his theory of translation norm in particular, we would find in their theories that domestication and foreignization would be decided by the certain situation and certain status of a certain culture, not the author's subjective choice. Therefore, this is a different way to judge a translation, we could not just comment on a past translation from the viewpoint of modern people's criteria, without considering the influences of many elements at that time.

### III. GIDEON TOURY AND DESCRIPTIVE TRANSLATION STUDIES

#### A. *The Relevant Background Information*

It would be impossible to discuss Toury and his descriptive translation studies without mentioning Israeli scholar Even-Zohar, who developed polysystem theory in the 1970s on the foundations of Russian Formalism of the 1920s, and Most of his work was to discuss the role of translation literature in a particular literary system and the broader theoretical significance of polysystem theory to general translation studies. According to *Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies*, polysystem theory "offers a general model for understanding, analyzing and describing the functioning and evolution of literary systems, its specific application to the study of translated literature." "According to Even-Zohar's model, the polysystem is conceived as a heterogeneous, hierarchized conglomerate (or system) of systems which interact to bring about an ongoing, dynamic process of evolution within the polysystem as a whole" (Baker, 2001, p.176). "Essential to the concept of the polysystem is the notion that the various strata and subdivisions which make up a given polysystem are constantly competing with each other for the dominant position. Thus in the case of the literary polysystem there is a continuous state of tension between the center and the periphery, in which different literary genres all vie for domination of the center. There are not only the 'high' or 'canonized' forms; it also includes 'low' or 'non-canonized' genres. Thus the literary polysystem is made up not only of 'masterpieces' and revered literary forms (such as the established verse forms) but also of such genres as children's literature, popular fiction and translated works, none of which have traditionally fallen within the domain of literary studies. The new, non-elitist, non-prescriptive approach which this rejection of value judgments has made possible has had far-reaching consequences for the field of translation studies" (Baker, 2001, p.176). This notion speaks for itself, that is, polysystem theory is the theory about literature, which pays much more attention on literature translation.

Gideon Toury, Even-Zohar's colleague, probably made the most significant extension of the model, and the *target-oriented* approach is consolidated, as well as the notion of *translation norms* being introduced and developed. Toury, as Even-Zohar, developed his theory on the basis of his investigation of the translation of Hebrew literature, and the purpose of his study is also the same with Even-Zohar, that is, translation theory and the complicated structure of Hebrew literature. So Toury focuses on what kind of translation would achieve in certain culture, and what are the functions of these translations, and what kind of prescription culture would make on translation studies. He concentrates on translation, especially literature translation, would bring about what kind of influence towards specific culture and cultural development, and he centers on what kind of position translation has in a specific culture as well as the influence that position exerts on the translation strategies and the whole translation process. So all the above elements decide that what he studies mainly is literature translation.

#### B. *Methodology for Systematic Descriptive Translation Studies*

In *his Descriptive Translation Studies and Beyond*, Toury (2001) calls for the development of a properly systematic descriptive branch of the discipline to replace isolated free-standing studies that are commonplace. For Toury (2001), translation first and foremost occupies a position in the social and literary systems of the target culture, and this position determines the translation strategies that are employed. Toury (2001) proposes a three-phase methodology for systematic descriptive translation studies (DTS), incorporating a description of the product and the wider role of the sociocultural system:

- 1) Situate the text within the target culture system, looking at its significance or acceptability.
- 2) Compare the ST and the TT for shifts, identifying relationships between 'coupled pairs' of ST and TT segments, and attempting generalization about the underlying concept of translation.
- 3) Draw implications for decision-making in future translating. (Munday, 2002)

In the first step, without considering the source text, Toury provides a possibility for some kinds of comparing work, which may furnish an addition of the way of explaining the texts' acceptability, namely, the comparing of various parallel translations in one language, which came into being at one point of time; the comparing of a number of parallel translations into one language, which came into being in different periods of time; the comparing of different phases of the emergence of a single translation, trying to trace at least the way individual translators waver between different concepts of acceptability as they move along; the comparing of several (assumedly parallel) translations into different languages, which could be treated as a means of assessing the impact of various factors on the modeling of a translation,

with an eye to drawing the distinction between what is universal and what is culture, or language-specific in this type of behavior (Toury, 2001, p73-74). Therefore, the first step aims to expand corpus and establish a descriptive profile of translations in the light of genre, period, author, etc. In this way, the norms related to each type of translation can be defined as the ultimate purpose (with more descriptive studies carried out) to illustrate the behavior of general translation.

In the second step of Toury's methodology, he mentions there are several cases where a multitude of candidates for a source text may exist. First, under some circumstances, there could be the existence of more than one version for an assumed text, even in one source text and language. Second, there are cases where candidates for a source text appear in more than one language. Third, a specific group that is of particular interest for later periods involves so-called self-translations. Finally, a set of assumed original texts in different languages involves the possibility of using mediating translation, which is performed by some other people instead of the original author. In his book, Toury maintains that a 'mapping' of the TT onto the ST would 'yield a series of (ad hoc) couple pairs' (Toury, 2001, p77). This is a type of comparison which Toury (2001) admits that every comparison is partial; that a comparison is also indirect in its very essence; and which will undergo 'continuous revision' during the very analytical process itself. Therefore, in this stage, establishing norms is crucial, because it is norms that control translator's choice, the acceptability of TT and finally determine the relationship between ST and TT.

Obviously, in the last step, the corpus of texts would be analyzed and try to figure out the implications for decision-making, so as to develop the laws of translation.

### C. *The Concept of Norms of Translation Behavior---Translation as a Norm-governed Activity*

One of the most important points in Toury's descriptive translation studies are the norms that he added between translation competency and translation behavior, then differences of different translation behavior could be noted. He tries to explain different translation strategies and different choices of the assumed source texts by the requirements that target culture calls towards translation function. So in this way, norms would naturally be conceived as the central point of descriptive translation studies. The definition of norms used by Toury is:

"The translation of general values or ideas shared by a community—as to what is right and wrong, adequate and inadequate—into performance instructions appropriated for and applicable to particular situations, specifying what is prescribed and forbidden as well as what is tolerated and permitted in a certain behavioral dimension." (Toury, 2001, p55)

According to Toury, "norms are acquired by the individual during his/her socialization and always imply sanctions—actual or potential, negative as well as positive. Within the community, norms also serve as criteria according to which actual instances of behavior are evaluated" (Toury, 2001, p55). And norms represent an intermediate level between general absolute rules and pure idiosyncrasies. So it could be seen that the norms themselves form a hierarchical continuum along the scale: Some are stronger, so it's more like a rule, and others are weaker, so it's almost unique. The boundaries between the different kinds of constraints are hence diffuse. And it is the same case with each of the concepts, including the grading itself, being relative. Accordingly, within a heterogeneous group, much more binding force may be well obtained for what is just a preferred mode of behavior within a certain (more homogeneous) section thereof, in the light of either human agents (e.g., translators among texters on the whole) or types of activity (e.g., interpreting, or legal translation, within translation in general). (Toury, 2001)

So the core of the norms is not only metaphorical, in the light of their relative position along a postulated continuum of constraints; on the contrary, it is essential that norms be the crucial concept and central point for any attempt to explain the social relevance of activities, because their existence along with the wide range of circumstances in which they apply to (with the conformity this indicates), are the main factors in making sure the establishment and maintenance of social order. This also applies to culture as well as to any of the systems that constitute culture which is in fact a social system (Toury, 2001).

Therefore, from Toury's explanation of the relationships among rules, norms and idiosyncrasies, the conclusion could be drawn that translation norms are not the rules people made, but the objective requirements people have towards the choices of source texts, translation strategy and the acceptability of the target texts in a specific time period or a particular society. While translators must be influenced by these objective requirements and would consciously or unconsciously perform some kind of translation behavior. Obviously, translation norms are closely connected with society and time, which are much broader concepts, referring to the past societies and various kinds of people, such as, patrons, authors, translators, readers etc. Hence, different time periods would definitely have different translation norms, which exert a subtle influence on translators (Lin, 2006).

Consequently, as translation is the type of activity that unavoidably includes at least two different languages and two indigenous cultural traditions, i.e., at least two sets of norm-systems on each level, translation is thus conceived as a norm-governed activity based on Toury's theory.

### D. *The Concept of Norms of Translation Behavior-- The Multiplicity and Instability of Translation Norms*

Although translation is thought to be a norm-governed activity, it does not necessarily mean that there is an absolute need for a norm to apply to all sectors of a society, to the same extent or not at all. It is even less necessary or even more likely to be a culturally applied norm. In reality, sameness here is only a coincidence, or else the result of constant

contacts between subsystems in a culture or between the entire cultural systems, and therefore a manifestation of interference. After all, its significance lies only in the norm of the system it embeds, and even if instances of external behavior appear to be the same, the systems are still different.

With the exception of their inherent specificity, norms are also unstable, constantly changing entities; not because of any inherent defects but because of their nature as norms. On some occasions, norms change fairly quickly; and on some other circumstances, they are more persistent and the process may need longer time. (Toury, 2001)

Multiplicity and variation should not be regarded as the proof of a lack of norms in translation. They simply indicate that the situations in real life are often complex; and if any reasonable conclusion is to be drawn, it is best to note this complexity rather than ignore it. As a result, it seems that the only feasible way out is to put every phenomenon, every item, every text, every act into consideration in the process of distributing the different norms themselves their just-right position and valence. (Toury, 2001)

Of course, many of the translators, through their very activity, help in shaping the changing process of translation norms. Adapting to social pressure and constantly adjusting one's behavior to changing norms is by no means simple, and most people, including translators, sponsors of translation activities and the consumers of their products, could fulfill the task only to a certain extent. It is not uncommon, therefore, that in a society there are three competing norms, each having its own followers and its place in the entire culture in general: "the ones that dominate the center of the system, and hence direct translational behavior of the so-called mainstream, alongside the remnants of previous sets of norms and the rudiments of new ones, hovering in the periphery. This is why it is possible to speak—and not derogatorily—of being 'trendy', 'old-fashioned' or 'progressive' in translation (or in any single section thereof) as it is in any other behavioral domain." (Toury, 2001, p62)

On the basis of the theory that translation norms are unstable and multiplied, we could sum up that different times have different translation norms; even in a same society, different translators would take different translation norms towards different styles of writing and different readers. But as for a particular style of a special society, translators would still follow some translation norms for specific readers.

Based on the above introduction of Toury's theory, it is easy to see that with the target-oriented approach, translation is conceived as the communication in a specific cultural-linguistic system, that is, the key point of translation is not only the source text, the source text should also be put into the target culture at the time to study, so with his theory, the actual translation is concerned about. In a word, when evaluating a translated text, we should take the translation norms at that time into consideration, analyze all the conditions controlling the translators, and then we would get an appropriate and reasonable opinion.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

From the above analysis, we understand that translation norms are not the rules people made, but the objective requirements people have towards the choices of source texts, translation strategy and the acceptability of the target texts in a specific time period or a particular society. Translators must be influenced by these objective requirements and would consciously or unconsciously perform some kind of translation behavior. Different time periods would definitely have different translation norms, which exert a subtle influence on translators. Therefore, different translator would take different translation strategies adherent to the mainstream of his period of time. Informed of this, the readers of different translated editions of every literary classic would better understand and enjoy the translator's products.

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# Study on the Foreign Publicity Translation of Marine Culture—Take Zhoushan for Example

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**Abstract**—The development of foreign publicity translation of marine culture is of great significance to the internationalization of Zhoushan Archipelago New Area. Based on Lasswell 5W mode (Harold Lasswell, 1948), this paper will combine some successful cases of foreign publicity translation of marine culture at home and abroad and analyze the present situation of foreign publicity translation of marine culture in Zhoushan Archipelago New Area by means of questionnaire surveys and the literature study on existing newspapers, periodicals and websites in Zhoushan. Accordingly, some suggestions are put forward to improve the deficiencies of the translation of marine culture in Zhoushan and innovate the ways in translating the marine culture, thus boosting the development of marine tourism economy and promoting the establishment of International Ecological Leisure Tourism Island (2016) in Zhoushan.

**Index Terms**—Zhoushan, marine culture, foreign publicity translation, Lasswell 5W mode, communication

## I. INTRODUCTION

As an international tourism island, Maldives made use of its unique natural environment and created the slogan “always natural” and “one island with one characteristic”, which make Maldives enjoy worldwide reputation and become a valuable example of ecotourism development by step by step’s exploration. In recent years, with the support of the government policy, Hainan Island pays attention to the foreign publicity of local culture and the protection of natural environment, so that it can gradually meet the international standards. Judging from the measures that has been adopted by these two islands and the present situation of these two islands, the foreign publicity of the local culture contributes to their successful development in the international community, and the communication of the culture in the world is closely related to the translation of language. Therefore, the development of Maldives and Hainan Island has an essential reference to the international development of Zhoushan Island.

The new concept of making Zhoushan into an international ecological leisure tourism island was proposed according to the Outline of the 13<sup>th</sup> Five-Year Plan (2016). Zhoushan is a city which is formed and development by the sea. It matters greatly how to highlight the unique charm of Zhoushan and build a tourist city with attractive marine characteristics for foreign tourists in the process of modernization and internationalization. The International Ecological Leisure Tourism Island, that is, under the premise of realizing the island tourism benefits, conforming to the code of ethics and local characteristics to develop the tourism. Its establishment and the breadth and depth of the foreign publicity of the local marine culture in Zhoushan are inter-related. First, human culture originates from the sea, and marine culture is formed by people’s daily practice. Different from daily understanding of most people, marine culture is not a simple addition of ocean and culture, but an organic unity of two, which relates to integrity and distinct self-characteristics. It’s also a kind of culture heritage which is different from the culture of river and the culture of land. At present, the communication and development of marine culture is mainly based on people’s practical activities. And it takes mass media as carrier. Secondly, pushed by maritime power strategy, developing marine economy and culture is self-evident. Therefore, the high quality and high-efficiency translation of marine culture is particularly important. But in the process of translating marine culture, the available translation is relatively scarce. Moreover, there is hardly any relevant text in local newspapers and periodicals, and only a few local portals briefly introduce Zhoushan marine culture. In addition, the differences between Chinese and English and the sociality, regionality, and shareability of marine culture greatly hinder the international exchange in Zhoushan and not conducive to Zhoushan to show its international image. (Chen Tao, 2013) Combined with Lasswell 5W mode, this paper will focus on analyzing the existing translation of marine culture so as to make some reasonable suggestions for the foreign publicity translation of marine culture.

## II. LASSWELL 5W MODE

Compared with general translation, foreign publicity is a special form of translation which also has the function of publicity. What’s more, the interdisciplinary attribute of foreign publicity translation further highlights its

communication attribute. (Liu Yafen, 2010) At the same time, communication is a process in which communicator uses the public communication symbol of media to influence the attitude of general public and change their thought, thereby achieving a certain propose. (Wang Jiping, Wang Penjin, Pan Zhongjin, 2006) Huang Youyi believes that the translator's task is to translate Chinese into foreign language in an excellent way, and then express and deliver the viewpoints of China in the process of publicizing China. (2004)

#### A. Background

In 1948, Harold Lasswell, one of the communication study pioneers, published a paper called *The Structure and Function of Communication in Society* (Harold Lasswell, 1948). This paper puts forward a theory of communication process: (Who) → (Says what) → (In Which Channel) → (To Whom) → (With What Effects), 5W briefly. Lasswell stated that "Who" refers to control analysis, "Says what" refers to content analysis, "In Which Channel" refers to media analysis, "To Whom" refers to audience analysis and "With What Effects" refers to effect analysis. (Harold Lasswell, 1948)

#### B. Content

5W mode is focusing on communicator, message, medium, audience and effect. Communicator can be an individual or collective, it has the tasks of collection, processing, and delivery of information. Message, which consists of linguistic symbols and non-linguistic symbols, is the content of communication. Medium is material carrier, such as letter, telephone, newspaper, radio, etc. Audience is the object the destination of communication, such as readers, listeners, viewers, etc. Effect is the response of the audiences at all levels of its cognition, behavior and emotion. Its primary measure is whether the communication activity is successful or not. These five elements clearly indicate that the communication is a process with the purpose of trying to influence the audience. (Steinbury Sheila, 2006) In terms of some analysis, we can know that the communicator acts on the audience in the first four elements. However, the fifth element is the reaction of the audience to the communicator. Different from the concept of communication in one culture or language contained in Lasswell 5W mode, the foreign publicity translation is a kind of communication activity which is carried out across different languages and cultures, but they two have common essences, that is, the process and the communication of information. (Yang, X, L, 2010) The above concepts fully prove the applicability and the reference value of Lasswell 5W mode for foreign publicity translation.

#### C. Application

Lasswell 5W mode is the earliest mode which divides the communication process into five elements and defines five research fields accordingly. It effectively describes and plans the communication research. For example, the advertising achieved the advertisement of products or service by analyzing the contents of the five elements. The emergence and development of Lasswell 5W mode is of great significance to the field of communication and journalism. Therefore, according to the five elements of Lasswell 5W mode, the author will analyze the current situation of the foreign publicity translation of marine culture in Zhoushan Archipelago New Area from two aspects: communicator and audience.

### III. ANALYSIS ON THE CURRENT SITUATION OF FOREIGN PUBLICITY TRANSLATION IN ZHOUSHAN

At present, there are two main ways to publicize marine culture in Zhoushan. One is two local portals, the others is various activities on the theme of marine culture, such as Ocean Cultural Festival, International Islands Tourism Conference, World Oceans Day and so on. What's more, the publicity activities of Zhoushan marine culture will be held regularly in local cultural center. The function of the two local portals and those activities which are related to marine culture and the publicity of Zhoushan will be analyzed specifically as follows:

#### A. Starting from the Angle of the Communicator

Communicator plays a leading role in the first four elements of Lasswell 5W mode, whose importance is equal to the translator in foreign publicity activity, that is to say, every correct choice made by communicators play an important role in foreign publicity translation. And to settle the problems from the primary causes is more quick and reasonable than to have a solution.

##### 1. Communicator

At present, the communicator of marine culture in Zhoushan can be mainly divided into two parts: governmental and non-governmental communicator. The governmental communication can also be divided into full-time and part-time communicator. Full-time communicators are those people who enter the government through national examination in order to engage in publicity or translation work. But these people are mainly work on government affairs. This causes the prospective effect of marine culture publicity is decreasing from the source. Part-time communicators are social organizations, enterprises, in-service teachers, college students and the people who are interested in publicity or translation. For example, people who came to Fuji Island and interested in sharing it with others can write his or her feelings in local portal. Thus, the professionalism and comprehensiveness of the article will be lower at the same time. The local people who introduce Zhoushan to other areas' people are the main force of non-governmental translators. And because of the small number and the big mobility of non-governmental translators, there is a lack of social

coverage in internal communication. The low social coverage is displayed by limited publicity and insufficient influence. The shortcomings of both lead to the big discount of communication effect.

## 2. The contents of the communication

The main contents of the foreign communication of Zhoushan marine culture are marine culture tourism, seafood and local folk customs. The home page of Zhoushan network consists of brief introduction of Zhoushan, seafood, marine economy, travel, and current affairs in Zhoushan. But the translations in each block just simply mention Zhoushan marine culture so as to lack substantive. Take the travel block as an example. In an article entitled famous sand beach scenic spots in Zhoushan, the translator devotes a large chunk of the text to describe soft sand, blue sea water, sunshine and other common things of beach. And refers to *The Marine Culture Reader* published by the publicity departments of Zhoushan municipal government, Zhoushan marine culture also included marine science, marine literature and art, coast defence and so on. The comparison between the two directly reflects the communication contents of Zhoushan marine culture is lacking of information, so that the translation cannot meet the various needs of the audiences. Further, the translation weakens the effect of the foreign publicity of Zhoushan marine culture.

## 3. The communication media

As a tool and a kind of means in the process of publicizing information, the correct choice and rational use of the media play an important role in promoting the foreign communication of different things. And with the development of modern society, the foreign development of various things becomes more and more dependent on the mass media. However, after browsing Zhoushan local newspapers, periodicals and websites, the author found that the scope of the media that the foreign communication of Zhoushan marine culture relies on is very narrow. There are only two websites that involve the translation of marine culture, namely, Zhoushan municipal government website and Zhoushan network. As for local newspapers and periodicals, there is hardly any related translations about marine culture. To sum up, the deficiencies of local media greatly hinder the communication of Zhoushan marine culture and lower the popular rate of the translations.

## 4. The effects of existing texts

The effects of publicity should base on whether the texts are proper and professional or not. And the text is related to the translator. On the one hand, one point should be affirmed is that the set of marine culture column in the two local websites is beneficial to the development and external change of Zhoushan marine culture, especially in Zhoushan tourism. It should be encouraged and enlarged. But in the other hand, according to the analysis of the existing translations of marine culture, there are still many problems in the websites as follows.

### a. Language problems

Many language problems can be found in two local portals, such as misspelling, improper use of the punctuation marks, grammatical errors and so on. For example, the sentence Zhoushan has explored the cruise lines between Korea, Japan, Southeast Asia, Taiwan and Hong Kong such countries and regions, there are some grammatical errors in this sentence. The word "explore" should be used in the form of present participle. And the two words "between" and "among" should be distinguished clearly so as to increase the readability. Moreover, the error appeared in the second sentence if you want to fully experience Zhoushan seafood delicacies, not-to-be-missed Zhoushan Seafood Delicacies Festival holds in the July every year directly lowers the fluency of reading and weakens the explicitness of the passage. It's much better to use "not miss" instead of "not-to-be-missed".

### b. Unclear expression of the translation and the delayed information

The delayed information of the contents occurred in the two websites made the audiences lose their interests in reading. What's worse, most of them are all at sea with the unclear expression of the translation. Here are also some examples to illustrate the above problems. Peach blossom meeting, a kind of traditional folk activity in Zhoushan Peach Island, is established for praying for sufficient rainwater and rich harvest in dry seasons. But one of the translations translates it as Taohua Hui. Taohua Hui is a kind of expression in pinyin (Chinese phonetic alphabet), which causes the lose of articulation in the text. The reader will fell confused about the meaning of this word. The improper use of the second sentence is communicating the delayed and wrong information. The next mentioned Shenggu Temple maybe is the lowest temple in elevation around the world. As a kind of publicity material, every word that appeared in the text should be accurate and professional. Through literature and online searches, the lowest elevation temple in China is Fujian Dongming Temple. And the word "maybe" is an expression of uncertainty. Undoubtedly, the credibility of this text is reduced too.

### c. Brief translation and scarce resonance

It's easily to find that most of translators get used to translating according to their inherent thought, so it's difficult to arouse the spiritual resonance between translator and reader. A web page briefly introduced the statue of Cai Bogong which is built in Miaozihu Island. There is only little description about this statue's location and appearance. But according to local people's narration and historical document, we can know that the statue of Cai Bogong is also known as the statue of liberty. As we all know, the statue of liberty is one of the symbols of America. So the introduction of Cai Bogong can be written with the statue of liberty in the East. If the translator connects the two statues together, the reader will have a better understanding of the translation. And at the same time, the close relationship between the reader and the translation will be built.

## *B. Starting from the Angle of the Audience*



The main purposes of foreign publicity translation are to influence the audience, make the audience interested in the contents of the translation and further understand the relevant contents of the subject information. Through analyzing some successful cases of cultural communication, it's not difficult to find that the subject of the publicity is more on discovering audience's needs and following their thought so as to form the unique features.

#### 1. Questionnaire method

In order to know the audiences' ideas, a questionnaire was conducted among 100 foreigners by random sampling from the people who live in or have lived in Zhoushan. The questionnaire consists of four parts with nine questions: the understanding of Zhoushan marine culture in the form of open-ended questions, their ideas and suggestions on Zhoushan marine culture in the form of closed-ended questions. In this way, the popular rate and the achievements of Zhoushan marine culture can be known more specifically. The content analysis and the results of the questionnaire are as follows.

Firstly, only 17% of the subject said that they had heard Zhoushan marine culture, and all of them came into contact with it only once a month or a week. Secondly, 85% of the respondents said that the translations of the text without real understanding must be avoided, and most of them showed that they get tired of the existence of the problem easily, while the remaining respondents thought that the translator should pay attention to avoid non-uniform version of proper noun, rigid translation and the expression and the expression English in Chinese phraseology. Finally, in terms of the suggestions given by the respondents, 42% people thought that the translation should be as clear as possible, and the proper nouns involved in the article ought to be explained in the form of annotation. 35% people thought the most important thing is showing the features of a translation and 23% people put the decrease of language problems in the first place.

#### 2. Results analysis

Based on the Lasswell 5W mode and combined with the perspective of communicator, first, the results show that the popularization of the marine culture in Zhoushan is low. It means most of communicators have a relatively low understanding of Zhoushan marine culture and not fully comprehend the characteristics of Zhoushan marine culture. Second, the scope of the communication is narrow and the way of communication is too single, this has resulted in an obstruction of the audiences' information acceptance. The feedback of the questionnaire shows that readers suggest that the translation should identify their characteristics which including language and custom background, assess their objects and needs, and plan for subgroup with the audience. (Philip Rubens, 2000) And when people are spreading Zhoushan marine culture, the lack of integrity, accuracy and characteristic culture in translations will lead to poor publicity.

### IV. SUGGESTIONS AND COUNTERMEASURES

George Gerbner (1967), the founder of the cultivation theory, expanded Lasswell 5W mode in 1956 to focus attention on perception and reaction by the perceiver and the consequences of the communication. (Berger, 2007) Only communications think critically and use the mass media reasonably can translations reach one plus one is greater than two results. Based on the analysis of the five elements of Lasswell 5W mode and present situation, the translations should satisfy readers' reading requirement, focus on the improvement source, so as to show attractive information for the audiences.

#### A. Basic Translation Ability

The language problems in the translation directly reflect the basic competence of the translator. At the same time, the first impression that the translation gives to reader comes from the basic aspects, so the correctness of the language is quite important. It is as if someone has messed up the wires of the phone so that only incoming phone calls can be received, and the outgoing calls be made, or just the opposite. Thus, translators should strengthen their own language skills, examine carefully and proofread the content of the translation seriously. For governmental translators, the government should arrange theoretical courses regularly to improve their professional quality. Staff themselves ought to pay more attention to their works. For non-government translators, first of all, the government should encourage them to engage in more social activities which are related to marine culture. Equally, local people's enthusiastic participation is the best reaction.

#### B. Cultural Consciousness

The internal communication is the basis of the external communication, and the external communication is the extension of the internal communication. (Liu, Y. F. 2010) Zhoushan marine culture is different from that in other coastal area. Zhoushan marine culture contains rich connotations, such as marine tourism culture, marine fishery culture, marine communication culture and so on. (Wang, W. H. 2009) Because the cultural confidence of communicators is based on their cultural consciousness, so in the process of publicizing Zhoushan marine culture, the communicator should not only include the translators, but also include the local people. Therefore, on the one hand, the communicator needs to develop their cultural awareness, humanity knowledge and aesthetic creativity. On the other hand, Zhoushan government should broaden the channel of communication of marine culture actively, organize the communicators to participate in various activities which is related to marine culture, and study related knowledge regularly, so that they

can fully understand the characteristics of Zhoushan marine culture, deeply understand and correctly grasp the law of development of marine culture, root the marine culture in the heart, and better display the image of Zhoushan in the translation of external communication.

### C. Common Ground and Difference

Seeking common grounds refers to the content of the translation should be based on the common understanding of the two sides. Building a framework included emotion and the way of thinking that works on both sides. Reserving differences refers to the translation ought to highlight the bright spot and show the characteristics of Zhoushan marine culture, thus stimulating the interest of the foreigners to come to Zhoushan. The addition and subtraction should be used reasonably in order that the content of the translation is optimized. (Sun, F. 2014) The content of translation should be close to the audiences' thought, language and reading habits by considering the audiences' feeling and solving their doubts. (Jia, Y. L. 2013)

## V. CONCLUSION

Zhoushan Archipelago New Area, as the first national new area with the theme of marine economy, undertakes two strategies of regional and marine development. Marine economy and marine culture support each other and promote each other. On the basis of developing Zhoushan marine economy, the importance of publicizing Zhoushan marine culture is beyond doubt. The foreign publicity translation that looks at Zhoushan marine culture from the perspective of the audience and the communicator is helpful to display the image of Zhoushan as a characteristic tourist city and promote the construction of international marine ecological island in China. What's more, embodying humanistic care is also important.

## APPENDIX

The questions of questionnaire:

1. Have you ever heard or known about Zhoushan marine culture?
2. Could you write some words about Zhoushan marine culture?
3. How do you understand Zhoushan marine culture?
4. Have you ever joined some activities about Zhoushan marine culture? If your answer is Yes, please cite some examples.
5. Have you ever read some English versions about Zhoushan marine culture? And how do you find these versions? Is there any version that makes you feel confused?
6. Frequency: how often do you learn about Zhoushan marine culture?
7. In your opinion, which aspects of Zhoushan ocean culture's translation should pay attention to?
8. Choice: combining your reading, what's the biggest problem of English version as follows?
  - A. interpreting without clear understanding
  - B. there is no uniform translation among different versions
  - C. the translation is rigid
  - D. writing English in Chinese style
9. Will the wrong versions affect your opinion about Zhoushan and Zhoushan tourism?
  - A. not at all
  - B. a little
  - C. most

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# Felicity Conditions of the Speech Acts in Banyumasan Daily Conversation

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**Abstract**—A truth conditional sentence requires a sentence to fit into the world; however, it cannot be applied pragmatically in a daily conversation, consequently, non-truth conditional sentence is applied. In pragmatics filed, an utterance needs to be felicitous, thus it has to meet the felicity condition. Felicity condition underlies that in order to be felicitous an utterance must meet the felicity condition that includes preparatory condition, propositional content, sincerity condition, and essential condition. By using felicity condition, speakers can mean what they say and say what they mean. Searle has only postulated the felicity condition for directive and commissives, thus this article attempts to complete the felicity conditions of another three speech acts. The utterances are taken from Banyumas dialect or Banyumasan; it is a dialect of standard Javanese spoken along Serayu River. It has unique characteristic due to its phonological and lexical items compared to Standard Javanese spoken in Yogyakarta and Surakarta. This article describes the felicity condition of the speech acts found in Banyumasan daily conversation which is conducted by using descriptive analysis. The finding of this research shows that felicity conditions of Banyumasan are realized into representative, directives, commissives, expressive, and declarations.

**Index Terms**—utterance, felicity conditions, speech acts, Banyumas dialect, conversation

## I. INTRODUCTION

Speech acts have been the heart of pragmatic studies for decades, however, only few researches have been produced in term of felicity condition. Researches on pragmatics usually concern about the classification of speech acts and little did researchers discussed on felicity condition of an utterance. Felicity condition is essential in pragmatics studies since it tries to provide sufficient explanation of utterance that cannot be explained by using truth conditional semantics. An utterance cannot be said as true or false only by considering whether or not it fits the world. An utterance will be felicitous only if it fulfills the conditions. A promise will be felicitous if the one who makes it fulfills it in the future time, as a consequence, a promise cannot be made in the past time. “I would come to your house” is not a promise since it is produced in the past time; therefore, the right utterance for a promise is “I will come to your house”. The use of verb ‘would’ instead of ‘will’ does not meet the condition of a promise because the propositional content in which a speaker predicates a future act is not fulfilled. Considering some conditions of an utterance will lead speaker and hearer to produce felicitous utterances.

This article tries to reveal the felicity condition of utterances in Banyumas dialect. Koentjaraningrat (1990) states that Banyumas dialect is a dialect of Javanese language which is spoken along Serayu River (p.23). Banyumasan is somehow different from standard Javanese due to its phonological and lexical features (Wedhawati, 2006, p. 17). Relate to its unique phonological and lexical features, Banyumasan is also widely known as *Ngapak-Ngapak* (Herusatoto, 2008, p. 122). A lot of researches on Banyumas dialect have been conducted on certain kinds of topics such as language maintenance (Wijana, 2005), implicature (Hadiati, 2014), and intensifiers (Hadiati, 2017), however, little has discussed the felicity condition of utterance. Felicity condition becomes essential in conversation because whether or not speakers mean what they say and say what they mean can be pragmatically inferred through it.

This study belongs to descriptive qualitative research since it tries to reveal language phenomena which are qualitatively described in words instead of number. The research is bounded by time and the processes of data collection are also conducted during a continuous period of time (Creswell, 1994). Data are gathered from daily conversation in Banyumas dialect in which I as a researcher is actively and passively involved. To generate an utterance, I initiate the conversation or simply contribute to the conversation that is happening. The produced utterances are then noted and analyzed in order to formulate the felicity condition that covers preparatory condition, propositional content, sincerity condition, and essential condition. Data are collected from natural communication in Banyumas dialect. Natural data is preferable in qualitative research since it shows real social praxis of language use in society. This research also tries to complete the formula of felicity condition proposed by Searle (1970). Thus, it will add novelty to the study of pragmatics, precisely the felicity condition of utterances.

Felicity condition was initially postulated by Austin, in which he stated that an utterance was not merely an utterance; a speaker does something through the utterance. By uttering it, a speaker acts something as well; and it is widely known today as a speech act. *How to Do Things with Words* (1962) written by Austin has several excellences as follows. Firstly, it overcomes those that cannot be handled by using truth conditional sentence; secondly, Austin’s work is more

understandable and more accessible compared to other philosophical work at that time; thirdly, it has high consistency since Austin develops his theory in quite a long period; fourthly, it gives umbrella to the study of today's pragmatic analysis.

Thomas (1995) explains that in line with truth conditional semantics, an utterance will be meaningful if it fits with the world, the truth that can be proven in real world (p. 30). If the utterance does not fit the real world, it can be said as truth. She further adds that an utterance like 'An invisible car came out of nowhere, hit my car and vanished' cannot fit the world because 'a car cannot be invisible', it must be visible; 'came out of nowhere' is nonsense because the word 'came or come' is used to express where a thing comes from. Thus, based on truth conditional sentence, an utterance like 'An invisible car came out of nowhere, hit my car and vanished' does not meet the truth.

To overcome the deadlock of truth conditional semantics, Austin proposes felicity condition. He elaborates that an utterance cannot be said as true or false, it can only be measured by using some conditions, if an utterance meets those conditions, it must be felicitous. Austin in Levinson (1995, p. 229) states that an utterance at least has to fulfill the three conditions as follows.

- A. (i) *There must be a conventional procedure having a conventional effect.*  
(ii) *The circumstances and persons must be appropriate, as specified in the procedure.*
- B. *The procedure must be executed (i) correctly and (ii) completely.*
- C. *Often (i) the person must have the requisite thoughts, feelings and intention, as specified in the procedure, and (ii) if consequent conduct is specified, then the relevant parties must so do.*

Those three conditions are then further developed by his student, Searle, who introduces four conditions in order for an utterance to be felicitous; those are preparatory condition, propositional content, sincerity condition, and essential condition (1970). Preparatory condition is a conventional procedure of the utterance, i.e. a speaker is able to perform an utterance and that he or she is not under control of other's power. He or she is willing to perform an utterance. A speaker who utters a promise will fulfill the preparatory condition if he or she is able to utter that promise and that he or she is not under control of other's power. Propositional content is a circumstance in which an utterance is produced. The condition when an utterance is uttered will give a clue whether or not an utterance is felicitous. To mention a few, a promise cannot be made for the sake of past time due to the fact that a promise can only be made for the future time. Sincerity condition is a condition in which the speaker is sincere in committing what he or she has been uttered. A speaker who makes a promise must be sincere to keep the promise in order to fulfill the sincerity condition. Last but not least is essential condition which clearly states that a speaker intends to act as it can be seen from the utterance and that he or she is also able to perform it. A promise will be a promise if the speaker really intends to keep it and perform it.

There are five types of speech acts, namely, representatives, expressives, directives, commissives, and declaration; however, in some literatures, Searle has only mentioned felicity conditions of directive and commissives (Searle, 1970; Renkema, 2004). He has not listed the felicity conditions of representatives, declarations, and expressives. There is a slight difference between felicity condition proposed by Austin and those proposed by Searle. In Austin's felicity condition, the role of participants and the context must be acknowledged by all parties; the action must be conducted completely, and the doer must have the right intentions of doing that thing. The general condition in Searle's for all speech acts, the speaker must not be pretending and the hearer must hear and understand the language. It will be infelicitous if the hearer cannot understand speakers' utterances. This study tries to seek the felicity conditions of those five speech acts as they are used in Banyumasan daily conversation. This dialect which is spoken in Banyumas regency, Purbalingga regency, Banjarnegara regency, Cilacap regency and Kebumen is grouped into Proto Austronesian language (Wedhawati et al, 2006, p. 9).

Context is a compulsory part in analyzing utterance in pragmatic scope since it helps speakers to achieve the aims of conversation. It is broadly defined as any circumstances that encompass a text both spoken and written text. It can be, for example, who the speakers are, where the conversation happens, what the topics of the conversations are, and how it is delivered. Relate to the context of language use, language function is basically divided into two categories, as referential function and affective function. When language carries referential information, it belongs to referential function and when it is used to express personal feeling, it is classified as affective function (Holmes, 2001, p. 10). Context is essential in calculating the felicity conditions of speech acts since it will provide information for the propositional content of the felicity condition.

## II. THE FELICITY CONDITION OF REPRESENTATIVES IN BANYUMAS DIALECT

Millions of utterances are produced on daily basis. An utterance that shows speakers' understanding about the world can be categorized as representatives. Utterances to state, to announce, to claim, to describe, to insist, and to predict are examples of representatives which are commonly found in daily conversation. Utterance (1) in the conversation below shows what a speaker believes to be true.

- Context: A mother and a daughter are in the kitchen, preparing the meal. She explains to her daughter about the peanuts they are going to use in their recipe.
- Daughter: *Niki kacang sae temen ma.* (The peanuts are superb Mom)
- Mother: *Kiye jenenge kacang Jawa, lewih maen timbang kacang India.* (It is Javanese peanut (Arachis hypogaea), it is better than Indian peanut.)

Utterance (1) *Kiye jenenge kacang Jawa, lewih maen timbang kacang India* is an example of representatives since it describes speaker's understanding on certain matter. The speaker believes what she says is true due to her knowledge. This utterance fulfills the felicity condition of representatives. The preparatory condition of utterance (1) is the fact that the speaker is able to produce the utterance. The speaker can pronounce the utterance clearly so that it can be clearly heard by the hearer and she is not under other people's control in producing her utterance. By uttering (1), the speaker informs the hearer the thing that is mentioned in her utterance. Thus this utterance fits the preparatory condition.

The propositional content of utterance (1) can be seen from the context. Utterance (1) is produced as a reply to the previous utterance that compliments the product quality. The speaker answers the compliment by stating utterance (1). If she says, for example, 'it is none of your business' the utterance will not fulfill the propositional content since it does not answer the previous statement. By producing utterance (1), speaker accomplishes the propositional content of representatives.

Sincerity condition of representatives shows that the speaker is really sincere in committing her utterance. When the speaker produces utterance (1) she is sincere that the good (Javanese peanut) is better than (Indian peanut) due to her knowledge. As far as the speaker's knowledge is concerned, Javanese peanuts are smaller in size compared to Indian peanuts; however, the former are tastier than the later. Speaker knows exactly that the quality of Javanese peanuts is better than Indian peanuts. Thus, utterance (1) completes the sincerity condition. From the context of the conversation, this conversation happens between a mother and her daughter in which the mother really wants to educate her daughter and giving genuine information will be more appreciated than the fake one.

Essential condition of utterance (1) is shown by the intention of the speaker in uttering (1). By performing (1), the speaker really wants to give information about the quality of the goods to the hearer. The intention of giving information as it is mentioned in the utterance clearly shown by the speaker in which she tries to give the genuine information. By telling the genuine information, the speaker really intends to perform 'giving information' to the hearer. Consequently, utterance (1) fits the essential condition of representatives.

Relating the felicity condition of utterance (1) with the context, it can be seen that utterance (1) is felicitous since it happens between a mother and a daughter where the mother tries to educate her daughter by giving genuine information as informative as she can obtain the knowledge about the goods. Utterance (1) belongs to referential function because it has referential content that is giving information on certain thing.

### III. THE FELICITY CONDITION OF EXPRESSIVES IN BANYUMAS DIALECT

Expressive is meant to give evaluation on certain matter as it is mentioned in the utterance. It can also be used by a speaker to express what she has inside his mind, in a simple way, it can be said that expressive speech acts show strong interpersonal function in communication. A compliment, a condoling expression, and a regretting expression are the examples of expressive speech acts. Utterance (2) in the conversation below depicts a compliment.

Context: A mother and a daughter are in the kitchen, preparing the meal. She explains to her daughter about the peanuts they are going to use in their recipe.  
 Daughter: *Niki kacange sae temen ma.* (The peanuts are superb Mom)  
 Mother: *Kiye jenenge kacang Jawa, lewih maen timbang kacang India.* (It is Javanese peanut (Arachishypogaea), it is better than Indian peanut.

Utterance (2) *Niki kacange sae temen ma* is an example of expressive speech act since it shows speaker evaluation on certain thing as it can be found in the utterance. She admires the quality of the goods. The preparatory condition of utterance (2) is that the speaker wants to express her feeling/evaluation on certain thing as it is stated in the utterance. She is able to utter the utterance in which she has the capability to produce the linguistic units so that the hearer can clearly catch the utterance. In addition, speaker is free and not under other's pressure to utter it. In accordance to that condition, utterance (2) fits the preparatory condition of expressive speech act.

Propositional content is a circumstance in which an utterance is produced. Utterance (2) comply the propositional content since the circumstance support the production of the utterance. After seeing the goods, the speaker feels that the goods have superb quality so she produces utterance (2). In case she produces contrary expression, 'the peanuts are so poor', she may have other intention and it can be concluded that utterance 'the peanuts are so poor' does not meet the propositional content. Since the circumstance support the production of utterance (2), it is clear that utterance (2) fits the propositional content.

Sincerity condition of utterance (2) is proven when the speaker sees the goods and she is sure that the goods have superb quality. From her perception, the speaker can see that Javanese peanuts are superb so that she has the evidence to produce utterance (2). What she sees trigger the emergence of utterance (2) so that utterance (2) can be categorized as a sincere statement and it has physical evidence. If, the speaker for example says 'the peanuts are so poor', her utterance is not supported by the evidence; consequently, utterance 'the peanuts are so poor' is infelicitous and utterance (2) is felicitous.

Utterance (2) also meets the requirement of essential condition since it is meant to show compliment on a certain thing or to show speaker's evaluation. In the context that the goods have superb quality, it will be infelicitous if the speaker states the contrary. Knowing the quality of the goods, the speaker then produces utterance (2) which is a

compliment that is supported by the physical evidence. By combining the physical evidence and the linguistic realization, it can be inferred that utterance (1) meets the essential condition.

Utterance (2) fulfills the preparatory condition, propositional content, sincerity condition, and essential condition so that utterance (2) is felicitous. Giving compliment is a kind of expressive speech act and it will be felicitous if the compliment is also supported by the evidence provided by the context of communication. Since expressive is used by the speaker to give evaluation, this speech act is closely related to interpersonal function of language. Interpersonal functions are commonly used to give lubrication in human interaction.

#### IV. THE FELICITY CONDITION OF DIRECTIVES IN BANYUMAS DIALECT

Directives can be said as essentially command, it is a speech act that describes how a speaker gives command to the hearer. Commands can be in the form of requesting, inviting, forbidding, suggesting, and so on. Utterance (3) *Undangna bapake nganah, kiye ana laying penting* in the conversation below shows the realization of directives in Banyumas dialect.

Context: A man comes to his neighbor house to deliver a message. He unfortunately cannot meet the house owner and he just meets his neighbor's daughter so that he asks her to call his father.

A man: *Undangna bapake nganah, kiye ana laying penting.* (Call your father here it is an important letter)

A girl: *Nggih pak gedhe.* (Yes sir).

Utterance (3) *Undangna bapake nganah, kiye ana laying penting* is an example of directives since it is aimed at making the hearer do something, in the context above, the speaker wants hearer to call her father. The preparatory condition of utterance (3) is that the speaker is able to utter the utterance the hearer is able to catch the utterance clearly. The speaker is also free to produce his utterance and he is not under control of other. In a simple way, it can be said that the speaker is able to pronounce *Undangna bapake nganah, kiye ana laying penting*. The speaker is older than the hearer so it makes sense when he utters his utterance in *Ngoko*. *Ngoko* is a language variation in Javanese Language which is commonly spoken from older speakers to younger speakers.

Propositional content is a circumstance in which an utterance is produced. Utterance (3) fits the propositional content since the circumstance support the production of the utterance. After knowing that the speaker cannot meet the neighbor he wants to meet and he only meets his neighbor's daughter, he then produces utterance (3). Utterance (3) shows that the speaker commands his hearer to do something as it is stated in the utterance. He commands her to call her father. Utterance (3) fits the propositional content since the circumstance allows this utterance to occur. In addition, speaker also predicts that the hearer can perform a future action, for example, calling her father. By calculating that the hearer can perform a future action as it is mentioned in the utterance, utterance (3) completes the propositional content.

Sincerity condition of utterance (3) is proven when the speaker does not see the person he wants to meet and he knows exactly that that person's daughter (the one he meets) can do his request as it is stated in utterance (3). The speaker knows that that girl is the daughter of the man he wants to meet consequently it is very possible for that daughter to call her father and inform him that there is a guest waiting for him. The speaker also very sure that that girl is willing to do what he wants. Based on the speaker schemata, he knows that the hearer can do what he wants and the speaker wants the hearer to do what he request. In other word, utterance (3) fulfills the sincerity condition of a directive speech act.

Uttering utterance (3) is counted as speaker's effort to make the hearer does something as it is mentioned in the utterance. By producing utterance (3) the speaker wants the hearer to call her father and inform him that there is a guest for him. An attempt committed by the speaker to make the hearer to do something belongs to the essential condition of a directive speech act.

Since utterance (3) completes the preparatory condition, propositional content, sincerity condition, and essential condition, it can be classified as a felicitous speech act. Giving command is a directive speech act since in that speech act speaker ask the hearer to do something as it is informed in the utterance. Relate to the function of language, directive speech acts belong to referential function since it is used to express referential content rather than interpersonal feelings. In that context, speaker gives command to the hearer to do call her father.

#### V. THE FELICITY CONDITION OF COMMISSIVES IN BANYUMAS DIALECT

Commissives are speech acts which commit the speaker to some future course of action. They include promises and their converse, threats; the difference depends on how the hearer will be affected by the proposed act. An example of commissives speech act in Banyumas dialect can be seen in the conversation below.

Context: Speaker discussing something with the hearer and before leaving the hearer, the speaker promises to the hearer that he will deliver something to the hearer at four o'clock tomorrow's afternoon.

Speaker: *Ngesuk aku njujgnane jam papat sore ya, nek ora udan.* (I will deliver the goods at four o'clock tomorrow's afternoon)

Hearer: *Ya sesempate bae* (OK, anytime will be convenience)

Utterance (4) *Ngesuk aku njujgnane jam papat sore ya, nek ora udan* is an example of commissives since it describes speaker's future course of action. Speaker ties himself to hearer of certain kind of act in the future as it is

mentioned in the utterances. In utterance (4), the speaker promises to deliver the goods to the hearer in the future time. This utterance fulfills the felicity condition of commissives because the speaker is able to perform the utterance which means that he can produce the utterance clearly and so does the hearer. In addition to that action, the speaker is also willing to perform the action as it is mentioned in the utterance. Thus, since the speaker can produce the utterance clearly and he is also willing to do it, this utterance fulfills the preparatory condition of a promise.

The propositional content of utterance (4) can be seen from the context because the circumstance of the utterance will enable speaker to complete his utterance. A speaker is healthy and he feels that he can go to hearer's place the next afternoon. If the speaker is not healthy, he may not be able to come to hearer's house the next morning and therefore he cannot perform his promise. If he cannot perform his promise than the utterance (4) will be infelicitous. Since the speaker is healthy and he is able to fulfill his promise, utterance (4) fits the propositional content of a promise.

The sincerity condition of commissives is shown by the intention of speaker to perform his utterance. The speaker is sincere in terms of he is capable of doing the act as stated in his utterance. He is sincere to come to hearer's house the next afternoon to deliver the goods. He is sincere because he knows that he will be free at that time so that he has a chance to come by to the hearer's house. Since the speaker is sincere that he can perform the act by uttering (4), utterance (4) is considered as felicitous speech act of a promise.

The essential condition of utterance (4) is counted as an attempt to the undertaking by speaker of an obligation to do the action as it is stated in the utterance. By uttering (4), the speaker has the obligation to deliver the things to hearer's house in the next afternoon. Utterance (4) will be felicitous if the speaker does come to the hearer's house the next afternoon to deliver the goods. If the speaker does not come to the hearer's house the next afternoon to deliver the goods, utterance (4) will be infelicitous.

Relate to the felicity condition of utterance (4) with the context, it can be inferred that utterance (4) is felicitous due to the fact that it fulfills the preparatory condition, propositional content, sincerity condition, and essential condition. Promise is classified as commissives and it carries referential content, therefore it belongs to referential function.

#### VI. THE FELICITY CONDITION OF DECLARATION IN BANYUMAS DIALECT

Declarations are unique forms of speech act, in that their successful performance depends upon the status of the speaker, and the precise circumstances surrounding the event. They are institutionalized in a society. Declarations include sacking a worker, performing a marriage, and sentencing a criminal. In daily conversation, declaration can still be found as it is described in the following conversation. In this conversation, a speaker creates a new condition/status that the debt is paid.

Context: A man who has debt to his friend intends to pay his debt so that when he meets his friend he states that he wants to pay it.

Man: *Kiye aku mbayar utangku wingi sing seket ewu ya.* (Here I pay my yesterday's debt. I is fifty thousand rupiah, isn't it?)

Woman: *Oh iya, dadi lunas ya kang.* (Oh Ok, it is paid then).

In the conversation above, the speaker wants to pay his debt to his friend; hence, he utters '*Kiye aku mbayar utangku wingi sing seket ewu ya*'. His friends then replies it by producing utterance (5) *Oh iya, dadi lunas ya kang*. Utterance (5) is produced by the speaker to change the condition, precisely, to state that the debt is paid. To know whether or not utterance (5) is felicitous, it must fulfill the felicity condition. The preparatory condition of utterance (5) is that the speaker is able to perform the utterance clearly and she has the right to produce the utterance. If the speaker cannot produce the utterance clearly, the hearer will not be able to get the information that the debt is paid. If the hearer cannot hear the utterance clearly, the hearer may not understand the intention. Secondly, the speaker also has the right to produce the utterance. Since she has received the payment she has the right to produce utterance (5) and to inform that the debt is paid. Based on the explanation, utterance (5) fulfills the preparatory condition of creating a new condition.

The propositional content of utterance (5) can be traced from its context. The propositional content of utterance (5) is that the speaker knows how much the debt is and she also knows that the hearer has paid as much as the debt. The speaker knows that the debt is fifty thousand rupiahs and she also knows that the hearer has paid as much as fifty thousand rupiah. Knowing the context of the utterance can help the speaker to figure out that the utterance supports the propositional content. Consequently, utterance (5) completes the propositional content as a declaration.

The sincerity condition of utterance (5) can be explained as the fact that the speaker sincerely wants to change the condition. If the speaker just wants to make joke; therefore utterance (5) will be infelicitous. However, since the speaker sincerely wants to create a new status, utterance (5) is felicitous.

The essential condition of utterance (5) is that it is meant to change or create a new condition in which the debt is paid. The speaker creates the hearer's new status from indebted into not indebted. If she does not really want to change the condition, the production of utterance (5) will be infelicitous. By stating utterance (5), the speaker does not only want to inform (representative speech act) but also to create a new status/condition (declaration speech act). If the speaker merely wants to inform without changing or creating a new status, utterance (5) will not be a declaration, it is a representative. Since the speaker creates a new status, then utterance (5) is felicitous.

Relating declaration speech acts to language functions, it can be seen that declarations belong to referential function since this speech act carries referential meaning by changing the condition or status. If it is only used to lubricate the



social interaction without carrying referential content, it will function affectively.

## VII. CONCLUSION

Speech acts carry either referential or affective meaning and to be able to measure whether the speech act is felicitous or infelicitous, felicity condition is worth considering. Felicity condition includes preparatory condition, propositional content, sincerity condition, and essential condition in which each of them must be completed by an utterance to be felicitous. In case, a requirement is violated, the speech act will be infelicitous. Consequently if the participants in the conversation consider the felicity condition of each speech act, they can genuinely grasp the meaning of the speech act since not all of them can be analyzed merely by referring to the real world. Felicity condition can give evidence whether the speakers say what they mean and mean what they say. Considering the importance of felicity condition in pragmatic studies, felicity condition becomes indispensable in pragmatic studies; therefore, the analysis of felicity condition gives many chances for pragmatic researcher to make a deeper research to get deeper insight of felicity condition by applying various language data.

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# On Re-instantiation of Literary Dialects: A Systemic Functional Approach\*

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**Abstract**—With the developments in Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), the functional approach to translation studies (TS) has offered new perspective into understanding how translation can be viewed as the re-instantiation of Source Text (ST) in another language system as Target Text (TT). In literary texts, language variations such as literary dialects have long been considered challenges in translation, but literary dialects are also believed to be “valued” linguistic elements since non-standard language such as dialects are socially related and may trigger linguistic stereotypes among readers. In tune with the new development in SFL, the current research focuses on the English translations of dialects in Li Jieren’s *Si Shui Wei Lan* (死水微澜) which is rich in Sichuan dialects and are with linguistically varied voices. The purpose of this article is threefold: firstly, to briefly present the linguistic features of ST, revealing author’s intentional arrangement in his choices of dialects; secondly, with case studies to compare and discuss the translators’ choices in re-instantiating dialects from the perspective of coupling and commitment; finally, to offer suggestions for translating literary dialects. This paper argues that SFL helps translators pinpoint the linguistic features that are valued in ST and inform translators of alternative renderings. This paper adopts a descriptive approach to the triplet on how translators re-coupled and re-committed the language variations in the ST into TT, and it serves as a manifestation of how SFL applies to TS from a new angle.

**Index Terms**—systemic functional linguistics, coupling and commitment, dialect translation, literary dialect, Language variation

## I. INTRODUCTION

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) has long been applied to Translation Studies (TS) (Catford, 1965; House 1981; Baker 1992; Hatim & Mason 1990, 1997; Munday 1998). SFL sees language in use as a result of choice-making in systems where higher level systems are realized by lower level subsystems. A lot of efforts were put into locating and ensuring the metafunctional equivalent form of Source Text (ST), and Matthiessen (2001) noted that translation has been “modeled against the parameters of equivalence and shift” (p.87). Though long been a focus in TS, the term “equivalence” is problematic in the sense that there is hardly absolute and ideal equivalence between languages and as “we translate texts in one language into texts in another; but we do not translate one language into another language” (Matthiessen, 2001, p.87).

With the development of SFL, Martin (2006, 2008, 2010) proposed another two hierarchies besides realisation: instantiation and individuation and argues that three hierarchies are complementary perspectives on language in context. He then goes on to utilize all three hierarchies in text analysis and concludes that three hierarchies have their own advantages. “Realisation is effective in showing where texts are similar and different”, and “instantiation is better designed to explore how texts arise”, while “individuation allows us to bring the interests of individuals and interest groups into the picture” (Martin, 2006, p.295). Matthiessen (2001) and Steiner (2001, 2005) also incorporate instantiation into TS by viewing translation as the studies on relationship between texts.

Halliday (2001) believes that “for a linguist, translation theory is the study of how things are: what is the nature of the translation process and the relation between texts in translation.” (p.14). He suggests that “good translation” is the translation that preserve “those linguistic features which are most valued in the given translation context.” (ibid. p.16) and SFL is helpful in locating these “valued” features and in informing translators’ alternative choices. In literary texts, language variations seem to be a good example of “valued” linguistic elements. Authors’ decision of prioritizing certain linguistic components contributes to the shaping of characters and achieving certain effects. As dialects are mostly social-related, the heavy social and ideological investments in a dialect are valuable when author intends to trigger readers’ “feelings” or “stereotypes”. However, in inter-lingual communication as translation, TT readers may not share the same knowledge regarding these perceived stereotypes, thus one big challenge for translator is to re-build similar link between linguistic variants and social-ideological information. Due to these difficulties, some consider the translation of accents and dialects impossible (House, 1973), but to translate dialects into standard language inevitably results in removal of linguistic variety and compromise ST’s value. As noted by Halliday (2002), translators cannot translate dialects; all we can do is to mimic the variation in dialects. This, therefore, requires translators to first

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recognize and analyze the relation and hierarchy between language variants in the text, and then re-present the hierarchy of variations in TT. However, little attention is given to the English translation of Chinese literary dialects, and even fewer studies are done concerning Sichuan dialects.

Thus this paper is an attempt of analyzing how dialects, and specifically Sichuan dialects, are represented in English from new functional perspectives. It adopts a descriptive approach to the novel, *Si Shui Wei Lan* (《死水微澜》), and its two English translations, aiming at revealing how translators re-instantiate the language variations in ST into TT through coupling and commitment, and it serves as a manifestation of how SFL applies to TS from a new angle.

## II. ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

SFL provides theoretical basis for the following analysis. Translation, first of all, may be viewed as a re-instantiation of the ST, and coupling and commitment are useful analytical tools to understand relationship between texts. Thus they serve as the basis of analysis in this paper.

### A. Translation as Re-instantiation

According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), instantiation is a cline from potential (language system) to instance (text), and at intermediate level is register and text type.

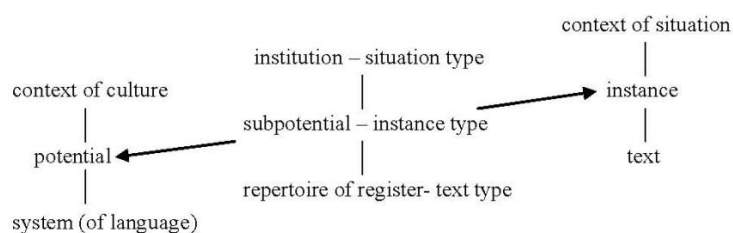


Figure 2 1: The cline of instantiation proposed by Halliday & Matthiessen (2004, p.28)

Martin (2006) adds “reading” at the bottom level and distinguishes genre/ register and text type.

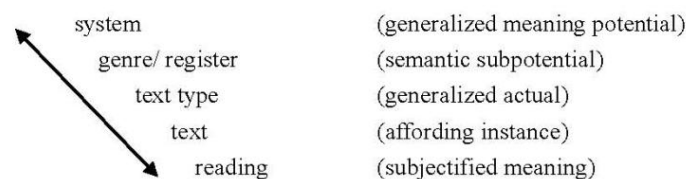


Figure 2 2: The cline of instantiation proposed by Martin (2006, p.285)

Martin’s concept of “reading” is the “subjectified meaning” interpreted by individual readers of the instance. According to him, re-instantiation is the process by which one instance re-construes the meaning potential of a given source instance (Martin 2006). Translation firstly involves “distantiation”, a “metaphorical process of reaching up the cline to recover meaning potential” (Martin, 2008, p.50) in Source Language (SL) system and then an “instantiation”, moving back down the cline to the instance end to create TT. Translators’ choices are influenced by their afford reading, the coupling and commitment available in Target Language (TL) system, and their individual repertoires.

In this paper the translation process is seen as an inter-lingual communication through translators’ re-writing which in essence entails deliberate choices through the three hierarchies of realisation, instantiation and individuation. Translation is about how to re-instantiate the meaning potential in ST. In other words, in translation practice, a translator is both the reader of ST and writer of TT. When reading ST, s/he is moving upward along the cline, from the language instant to semantic and even genre level to obtain the meaning, which includes the literal as well as the semantic or metaphoric meaning. With this understanding, s/he then deploys the TL resources, his/her TL repertoire, to re-construe the meaning potential with another language. For this reason, translation is about how ST source out and re-instantiate in another language.

### B. Coupling and Commitment

Coupling and commitment are introduced by Martin as tools to explore the relationship between system and texts. Coupling describes the dynamic process of combining choices across strata/rank or systems; it is “the ways in which meanings combine, as pairs, triplets, quadruplets or any number of coordinate choices from system networks” (Martin, 2008, p.39). Coupling may indicate combined choices in higher level or lower as lexico-grammatical level. For example, complaints would be coupled with unfavorable choice of diction that implies attitude or judgment. Coupling happens at higher level as well. As a translator moves back to the instance end, trying to rewrite TT, s/he has to consider the genre, text type, existing TL texts with similar text type and what that certain text type requires as its default setting. To render texts to suit such social expectations is to make choices in the system with coupling. In this sense, translators are

constantly re-coupling in TL when translating.

Commitment is “the degree of specificity of the meaning instantiated in a text” (Martin, 2010, p.20). It can be shown from two aspects: number of events and level of specificity. The more events, more delicate or specific the meaning the more committed the text is. In translation, TT generally shares the meaning potential of ST but ST may very often be more or less committed than TT, thus analysis and comparison of the re-commitment of TT is actually the investigation in semantic relations between texts. Especially when there is more than one translation of one source instance, the choices translators made might demonstrate different level of re-commitment. Martin (2008) analyzed a triplet of a same story of a girl and revealed different degree of commitment in three texts. “The driver” is more committed than “a man”; “ran through the bush” is more committed than “going away”. Translators’ standpoints and decisions are reflected by different degrees of commitment in TTs.

### III. LINGUISTIC VARIETIES IN *SI SHUI WEI LAN*

*Si Shui Wei Lan* is written by modern Sichuan writer Li Jieren (1891-1962). It was written in 1935 and first published in 1955. It is the first novel in the “River Trilogy” of Li Jieren based on social life in Sichuan in the turn of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Two chapters of this novel were translated into English and published on the 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> issue of *Chinese Literature* in 1981. The translator is Hu Zhihui (some argues that the translator is Gladys Yang). Then in 1990, as one of Panda Books, *Ripples across Stagnant Water* was introduced to English world by *Chinese Literature Press*. In 2014 MerwinAsia published a new English version of this novel with the title *Ripple on Stagnant Water: A Novel of Sichuan in the Age of Treaty Ports* and translators are Bret Sparling and Yin Chi.

This novel is set against the backdrop of Chinese society after Sino-Japanese War of 1894-1895. With characters from different social backgrounds and their stories in a small rural village called Tianhui Zhen (天回镇) and in Chengdu, *Ripples across Stagnant Water* vividly depicts people’s life in Chengdu towards the end of the Qing Dynasty and how small characters’ personal lives are influenced by the historic events and forces. The protagonist is Litter Sister Deng, who later married a restaurant owner Cai and is referred to as Cai’s wife. In the cultural background of women deference which is highly emphasized in China at that time, the female protagonist’s story is one of courageous pursuit of happiness, and self-awakening. Hence, one Chinese writer Guo Ruomo commented Li Jieren as Emile Zola of China. One prominent feature of *Si Shui Wei Lan* is heavy use of Sichuan dialects. The language in the novel is linguistically varied.

The use of dialect in this novel is carefully arranged by the author. The narration part of the novel is “quasi standard language” which employs some dialectic expressions, while the grammar and overall structure is still literary. There is also use of Classical Chinese in the novel when the protagonist is reading an article. Dialects are absent in such cases, which the grammatical forms and sentence patterns comply with the rules in written Classical Chinese. Characters from various social levels are also associated with different level of dialect use. for instance, Deng Dasao (邓大嫂) is an uneducated woman from Tianhui. Her language is vulgar and dialectic. Luo Waizui (罗歪嘴) is literate but joins Gelaohui (袍哥), a fraternity of the underworld, thus his language is featured by dialects and idioms. Deng Yaogu (邓幺姑) is a beautiful and sophisticated country woman yearning for everything in the city. There are dialects in her utterances but the grammar and structure are close to that of the city ladies, and the language of Second Mistress Han (韩二奶奶), a lady from the city is with only light touch of local color as her language is quite close to standard language. The use of vernacular languages in Li’ novel is hardly random; there is a hierarchy of linguistic variety which differentiates characters thus reminding of the speaker’s different social background.

### IV. CASE STUDY: RE-INSTITUTION OF DIALECTS

In order to reveal how different translators instantiated dialects, analysis is conducted from functional perspective, with emphasis on coupling and commitment.

For the following analysis, examples from the original text are marked as ST and the 1990 translation version is labeled as TT1, 2014 version as TT2 in the table below. The highlighted parts are dialects and their translations, and underlined part in bold are examples of translators’ different choices in commitment.

TABLE II.  
EXAMPLES OF DIALECT TRANSLATION FROM ST, TT1 AND TT2

	ST	TT1	TT2
Example 1	她(邓大嫂)说:“怕在沟边上罢? 那娃儿光爱跑那些地方的。” (cf: 第一部分 序幕)	She said: “Isn't he by the brook? That's where he likes to play.”	“Out by the canal, I suppose,” she told us. “That bairn does nothing but run off to those places.”
Example 2	(陆茂林说)“放你的屁! 你谅实老子蚀不起吗?” (cf: 第三部分 交流 1)	“You're farting! I think I can't pay?”	“Go on with your farts!” <b>cursed</b> Shaggy Lu. “You think your liege can't pay?”
Example 3	他(顾天成)的回答才是:“你还问呢? 我就是吃死了这两个人的亏了! 没有他们, 我的几十亩地方, 就凭我脾气出脱, 也不会像这几天这样快呀! 闹煞果, 还遭一个婊子欺负, 挨了这一顿!” (cf: 第三部分 交流 7)	So he <b>said</b> : “Why ask? It is their fault that I'm in trouble. If not for them I wouldn't have lost all my land in the last few days, could have sold it to suit myself. I got tricked by a dirty prostitute and beaten up ...”	So his <b>retort</b> to his wife was: “Funny you should ask about my uncles. It's exactly those two that forced this grief down my throat. If it weren't for them, those dozens of mu of mine, however bad I lost my head, they never could have gone as fast as that. And then in the end to get played by a filthy whore and beaten up like this ---!”
Example 4	(罗歪嘴)心头仍旧在想:“这婆娘! ..... 这婆娘! .....”  他心里仍旧寻思着:“这婆娘! ..... 这是个不安本分的怪婆娘! .....” (cf: 第二部分 在天回镇 9)	He was thinking: “What a woman! ...”  Again he <b>thought</b> : “What a strange woman ... not contented with her lot in life ...”	What was going on through his mind was: “The wench! ... Oh the wench! ...”  “Oh, the wench!” he inwardly <b>groaned</b> . “The bewitching wench that don't keep to her station!”

From examples in the above table, it is not difficult to find that though most are preserved in TT, dialects are handled differently.

#### A. Coupling in Dialect Translation

Coupling is a dynamic process constantly happening in translating. Example 1, 2 and 3 are good demonstrations. Example 1 is uttered by Deng Dasao, an uneducated old lady from the countryside; therefore her utterance is characterized by a dense use of Sichuan dialect. “怕” in ST is a case in point. It usually comes before clause and means “perhaps”, “I'm afraid” or “I think”. “罢” is an imitation of the accent of Sichuan dialect. It frequently appears at the end of the clause. Together with “怕” the structure indicates personal speculation. “娃儿” which means kid or lad, suggests higher status of the speaker and “光爱” in Sichuan dialect literally means “just love to” or “only like to”. ST is ended with a question mark but actually is a statement, which indicates it is an interpersonal grammatical metaphor. TT1 keeps the interpersonal grammatical metaphor thus is the congruent form to ST but does not represent the dialectic elements. In TT2 Sparling renders it into a statement and uses “I suppose” to represent the meaning of the dialect “怕” and “罢”. For the second clause, TT1 changes Theme-Rheme structure into a marked thematic equative of “That is where” and simplifies the dialect into “he”. TT2 represents the same thematic structure, and it re-instantiate the dialect by translating it into “that bairn” instead of “that boy”, which is also further down the delicacy line thus more committed. For cases like this, it is wise to be mindful of the linguistic features in ST since Deng Dasao's discourse is loaded with dialects which vividly depicts her characteristics and her social status, and this is also why her utterances are also short clauses. For this reason, TT2 is better in the sense that it reproduces the omission in the first clause, mimicking the feature of oral language, and respects the thematic structure and dialect in the second clause, on the other hand, TT1 blurs the linguistic features and reconstructs the thematic structure with a more complicated structure, though this creates smoother information progression between two clauses, it is contradictory to the speaker's status. TT2 may be viewed as a good example of representing Deng Dasao's speech features and social status by coupling words with clause and grammatical metaphor.

The same is true for example 2 and 3, which are cases with obvious results of coupling. ST in Example 2 shows the gross language of Lu Maolin, who loves gambling and visiting brothel. “老子” is a vulgar term which literally means father or aunt from the father's side. It is normally used to indicate contempt or provocation in casual conversations. “谅实” means thinking in a disproving way. “蚀” is an imitation of the accent of the word “eat” in Chengdu dialect. TT2's translators are more aware of such linguistic variety in ST. They consciously choose Shaggy Lu to name Lu Maolin, and add “cursed” to couple Lu's behavior, which is more committed than “said”. Especially with the translation of “老子”, TT2 uses “liege” to indicate higher status and preserve the time identifier with old-fashioned word, but TT1 uses a more general term “I” which removes the vulgarity and compromise the information attached. In TT2, dialects and vulgar language are coupled by these unfavorable choices of words like “shaggy” and “curse” which are actually absent in ST. The purpose of such creative translation is to rebuild this character through coupling. However, TT1's translator is more prudent. He translates 陆茂林 into Lu Maolin or Lu and he dismisses some dialects in his dialogue. Hu's choices

ultimately lead to standardization of character's discourse.

In Example 3, after being tricked by a prostitute and some gamblers Gu goes back home in fury to complain to his wife about his experience. His utterances are coupled with negative structures and judgments like “吃死了……亏”, “出脱”, “闹煞果”, “遭”, “婊子”, “欺负” and “挨”. “煞果” imitates the pronunciation of “the end” in Sichuan dialect and “闹” indicates the ridiculous and outrageous experience the speaker has had. “出脱” suggests something is gone in an extravagant and often pitiful fashion. In TT1, Hu uses “fault”, “lost”, “got tricked”, “dirty prostitute” to demonstrate Gu's anger. Similarly, in TT2, “force down”, “grief”, “bad”, “lost”, “gone”, “in the end”, “get played” and “filthy whore” are employed to reinforce Gu's emotion. TT1 does not preserve the dialect “闹煞果” and mistranslate “出脱” into sell. TT2 keeps the dialects and deploys more lexical features to better couple speaker's feeling, and in TT2 Gu made a “retort” to his wife who is showing concerns. The diction is more committed than “said” in TT1. From these examples, it is noteworthy that when it seems impossible to find equivalent to some dialectic elements, translators may consider rewrite similar linguistic features and hierarchies through coupling and coupling may serve as an efficient way to represent the features and realize the effect of dialects in the ST.

### B. Commitment in Dialect Translation

Commitment concerns the delicacy of meaning. Example 4 in the table 2 is a good example. “婆娘” in Sichuan dialect means wife or woman, usually associated with intimacy or unfavorable feelings. In ST, this clause is what Luo Waizui thought to himself when he for the first time yields to his attraction to his cousin's wife. Semantically, “wench” is more committed than “woman” as it is further down the delicacy line, thus is closer to the dialect in ST. TT2 also preserves the repetition in ST and adds “Oh” and uses a more committed “groan” to highlight character's affection.

TABLE III.  
DEGREE OF COMMITMENT IN ST, TT1 AND TT2

ST	TT1	TT2
(罗歪嘴) 心头仍旧在想: “这婆娘! ……这婆娘! ……”	He was <i>thinking</i> : “What a <u>woman!</u> …”	<i>What was going on through his mind</i> was: “The <u>wench!</u> …Oh the <u>wench!</u> …”
他心里仍旧寻思着: “这婆娘! ……这是个不安本分的怪婆娘! ……” (cf: 第二部分 在天回镇 9)	Again he <i>thought</i> : “What a <u>strange woman</u> … <u>not contented with her lot in life</u> …”	“Oh, the <u>wench!</u> ” he <i>inwardly groaned</i> . “The <u>bewitching wench</u> that <u>don't keep to her station!</u> ”
2 specifications of process 4 specifications of entities	2 specifications of process 3 specifications of entities	2 specifications of process 5 specifications of entities
The italicized and bold: specifications of process      The underscored: specifications of entities		

If we mark the specifications of process and entities in ST and two TTs, we may find that TT2 uses more specifications and is more committed than TT1. TT2 re-instantiates the dialects in ST with more committed choices and offers a better representation of the tide of emotion of the character.

### C. Discussion

There are more examples in the novel but as examples from TT2 demonstrate, the 2014 version is bolder in translating Sichuan dialects in the novel from the perspective of coupling and commitment. The translators utilized more linguistic features to represent the dialects, and for better re-instantiation of characters, especially those whose use of dialect reflect their social status or personalities, coupling is used with committed words, phrases, clauses and structures. Generally speaking, the 2014 translation is the version with better re-instantiation of the original with the help of coupling and commitment. Of course, the 1990 translation should be read against the backdrop the 20<sup>th</sup> century when translation of Chinese literary dialects was still in the bud, and at that time foreigner's interests and acceptance of translated Chinese novels are quite limited. But recent decades have witnessed growing interests in and number of translated Chinese works. It seems advisable for current translators to first be fully aware of the roles of dialects in the works they are translating and be open to the possibilities of translation offered by coupling and commitment. Therefore, SFL may well serve as a tool for text analysis to reveal meaning of dialects and instantiation in SFL could offer a new perspective in representation of literary dialects.

## V. CONCLUSION

SFL has proved to be a useful tool in analyzing texts and bringing hidden meanings to light. To see translation from the new systemic functional angle is believed to be helpful in pinpointing the valued and prominent features in ST and informing translators of alternative renderings. The current research adopts a descriptive approach to compare the translations of dialects in Li Jieren's novel *Si Shui Wei Lan* through the lens of coupling and commitment.

Through case study it is found that ST is featured with linguistic variety in its use of dialects. Different investment in dialects indicates the author's conscious arrangement. When translating literary dialects, it is suggested that the first step is to analyze ST and distinguish prominent linguistic elements from others. In translating language variations, congruent form is not always better than metaphoric expression. The acid test is whether there is any additional meaning intended when author chooses this form other than that. If author's decision is intentional, it is wise to represent congruent

functional structure to ensure similar effects. When language variants are involved, it is not always possible to find equivalent in TL; especially when such socio-cultural-related expression is absent in TL, translators might consider looking for alternatives through coupling and commitment. If translators can rewrite TT in the way that reflects similar linguistic hierarchy as ST, TL readers can better decode and re-construe the meaning as SL readers do.

Due to the limited space, the analysis in paper is far from thorough and more analysis could be done from the individuation hierarchy to reveal translators' intentional or unintentional choices. In addition, since the two English translations are twenty years apart from each other and rendered by translators from different backgrounds, discussion on their different translating strategies may be fruitful for future introduction and promotion of Chinese literary dialect.

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# Investigation into the Android-based Mobile Learning System\*

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**Abstract**—With the rapid development of information technology and the wide usage of portable mobile devices, such as, smart phones, tablet personal computers, and the like, reforms on teaching method and learning system are going on more intensely. Due to more and more e-products available, a new round revolution has sounded the long horn. Mobile learning system has come to be a smart learning system which is getting more and more popular among people. Mobile learning system has set people free from the limitation of learning time and space, which is bound to improve the learning efficiency. This essay has analyzed the learning situation of non-English majors in Medical University, stated the technological support of this learning system, analyzed the feasibility of the system, predicted the potential obstacles, and put forward the advantages and the necessity of the wide usage of the mobile learning system based on Android.

**Index Terms**—portable, smart phones, feasibility, mobile learning system

## I. INTRODUCTION

With the explosion of information, 21<sup>st</sup> century has seen the rapid development of information technology, especially the Network information technology. The Internet has provided people with more and more platforms: shopping, communicating, travelling, studying, and the like. At the same time, the rapid development of science and technology also makes the cost of mobile communication devices much lower, and enables more and more people can use smart phones, laptop computers, and other handy mobile communication devices. As the network technology gets more and more mature, the network signal is becoming stronger with extensive coverage, and people can be on line anywhere anytime through Wi-Fi, which has been the technological support as well as the support devices for people to apply the mobile learning system.

## II. THE CONCEPT OF MOBILE LEARNING

As to the definition of mobile learning, "M-learning" or "M-education" is often used in western countries, while it is often describes as "M-education" in China. In Finland, in the research by Ericsson, Insite, Telenor Mobil and IT Fornebu Knowation, named "Telenor WAP Mobile Learning", people defined it as: it's a new way of learning carried out on mobile terminal devices due to the fact that people experience more geospatial mobility and the demand for the flexibility of study is stronger.

Mobile learning has developed rapidly on the basis of distance learning and e-learning. Distance learning can make teachers and learners apart from each other in terms of space, that's to say, the learners are not confined to designated classrooms any more, but in the process of learning, learners can only accept what are taught negatively due to the lack of communication between teachers and other learners. Strictly speaking, there is no timely communication. E-learning mainly refers to learners are taught with the help of multimedia devices in the classroom and the Internet; Meanwhile, teachers and learners can communicate in time through the Internet. However, computers and network terminals are not available anywhere anytime. But these problems are well handled by the mobile learning system. Because the medium of mobile learning system is the widespread mobile communication devices, which means learners can carry on their learning anytime anywhere. There is no doubt that mobile learning system makes study a socialized and lifelong thing.

## III. THE STATUS QUO OF NON-ENGLISH MAJORS IN MEDICAL SCHOOLS

### A. Single Curriculum and Limited Periods

Compared with universities, medical colleges only provide their students with two years' English lessons with three to five periods per week----one for listening course, two or four for Integrated Course. That's to say, students only learn English in their first and second college year with two courses. There are four terms in these two years. Students have to meet the basic demand of College English Curriculum Requirements by the national Ministry of Education through two years' English learning. In most medical colleges, the criterion to test the results of students' English learning is whether they can pass College English Test Band Four (abbreviated as CET4). However, with the development of society, the

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more frequent international communication becomes, the stronger the demand for mastering foreign languages is. The desperate crying for comprehensive talents asks students not only to master the skills of reading and writing, but also to improve the practical abilities of listening, speaking as well as translating. Students with high marks but low practical abilities are less competitive now.

For medical majors, apart from basic English knowledge, they also need to learn medical English. But the truth is that there are so many medical curriculums to learn that it's almost impossible to set up other medical English curriculums, let alone the curriculums useful to improve students' practical abilities of English. The present arrangements of curriculum and periods make it impossible to improve these abilities, so students are desperate for a platform to study efficiently.

#### *B. The Lack of Diversity of Teaching Contents*

In medical colleges, what students learn is all related to medical knowledge, but there are different majors. The public English subject they learn can merely provide them with basic English knowledge, not the specific learning according to their different majors. As a result, the teaching contents can't meet the demands of all students for the specific knowledge, which makes students lose interests in English learning because they think it's of little help to them. Most medical majors have a strong desire to pursue postgraduate study after they end their college study. And due to the rapid pace of reform and opening as well as more and more better-off families, many students want to study abroad. So there will be a demand for the English learning of the postgraduate study and the IELTS. What they learn from the present College English can't help them to succeed in passing the IELTS or TOEFL. Even though students in the same class have different demands for English study, let alone students in different majors. While almost all teachers are required to teach the same book with the same space, which makes it impossible to meet their specific demands. Consequently, there are low attendance and the increasing negative emotions as well as the fading enthusiasm for English study, which eventually have a great effect on the teaching efficiency of English.

#### *C. The Singular Teaching Model*

Because of the great number of the students and the limited periods, the teaching and learning process always happens in a big class, that's to say, over one hundred students of two classes attend the class at the same time. It's really hard for the teacher and students to communicate and discuss about what they are learning, nor can that happen between students. Generally speaking, teachers can only teach in the traditional teaching method in which the teacher have to dominate the class rather than students. This so-called spoon-fed education leaves teachers deep remorse and also lets students down, which eventually discount the teaching effect. And the traditional teaching method has driven teachers crazy and made students bored. So reforms not only on the learning style but also on the traditional teaching method are desperately needed to set off.

### IV. THE REFORM OF TEACHING METHOD IN MEDICAL SCHOOLS

#### *A. Raise the Passing Rate of CET4/CET6 to Make Students More Competitive*

In recent years, medical colleges have enrolled more and more students, which means more and more medical graduates will compete in the job market. Due to the distinct professional characteristic, there are a few job options for medical majors, which means they will face much fiercer competitions. According to the analysis on medical majors in employment in recent years, employers pay more and more attention to the abilities to command English, and even whether the student has passed CET6 has been treated as the fundamental condition for many employers to decide whether the students will be employed or not. Actually, whether one has passed CET4/CET6 or not has made a great difference to the employment rate and their job options. Let's set Jining Medical College as an example, up to 2015, the sample survey has shown that the employment rate of those graduates passing CET4/CET6 is 27 percent higher than that of those failing CET4/CET6; and that those passing CET6 got 18 percent more opportunities than those only passing CET4 to be accepted by the Grade-A Tertiary hospital, famous pharmaceutical enterprises, or medical institutions. So it's quite clear that the way to get oneself more competitive in job market is to improve your abilities, especially the ability to command English. Since employers pay so much attention to the results of CET4 and CET6, undergraduates should try their best to pass them. As is well known to all of us, four parts---writing (accounting for 15% of the total scores), listening (for 35%), comprehensive reading (for 35%), translating (for 15%)---consist of the CET4/6 examination, so CET4/6 examines the all-round ability of students. When employers look for employees passing CET4/6, they actually are looking for the evidence of all-round ability of a student. Once we know the true intention of employers, we should aim clearly at improving University students' English overall ability to pass CET4/6. University students' English synthesizing capacity are closely connected with the scores of these two examinations, which have a strong link with the competitiveness in the job market, domestic or abroad.

#### *B. Improve the Abilities of Speaking and Translating of Each Student*

With the traditional way of English learning, we often pay much attention to the aptitude in reading and listening for test taking, but little attention to the practical ability of translating and speaking. As a result, the English that most Chinese students have learned is "mute English". "mute" vividly depicts the present situation of students' English

learning in which students can do better in writing but worse in oral English. Asked to speak in English, students always have no faith in themselves, and even those who open their mouth to speak often speak disorderly without fluency. The main reason why they are not confident of their ability of speaking is there is a lack of practice in their daily English learning. When medical majors begin their postgraduate study, there will be an urgent need for the ability of translating. Only when they master the skills of translating, can students dig further into the original medical literature in English. That's why supervisors increasingly pay much attention to one's ability of translating when they interview the prospective postgraduates. With more and more academic exchanges in diverse colleges, the "mute English" has become an obstacle that has greatly affected the performance of Chinese medical majors on the international stage. Therefore, it's really urgent for us to improve their practical abilities of speaking and translating.

### C. Add Medical English to English Studies

Now many medical colleges merely have laid out the curriculum of basic English, while in the medical colleges with medical English, the learning effectiveness is disappointing. In colleges without medical English, students have trouble in reading medical literatures in foreign language for the lack of medical terms. In colleges with medical English, due to the lack of professional teachers in medical English teachers, the curriculum of medical English exists in name only. Consequently, medical graduates always perform disappointingly when they communicate with foreign patients and when they write medical essays or medical records in English.

There is no doubt that reforms on English teaching must be enforced to get rid of the shortcomings of the traditional English teaching method. On the premise that the professional medical learning can go on as usual, students in medical colleges have a strong desire to learn English anywhere anytime for the limited learning periods. The mobile learning system based on Android can largely meet the demand. This new learning system can help students learn more conveniently because it has combined the traditional video teaching system and audio teaching system with the prevalent mobile communication options. The terminal user-interface is explored based on the embedded operating system: users can send their personal information, the related materials of English learning, and the like to a server through the Internet, and after the careful examination, the processed information will be fed back to Android client.

## V. MOBILE ENGLISH LEARNING SYSTEM BASED ON ANDROID

### A. The Design Principles of the Learning System

1. Easy operation: The motivation to implement such a language learning system was to utilize the advantages of personalized learning (Duo and Ying, 2012). Integrating mobile learning technology into language classroom is a technological challenge both to teachers and students. So the mobile learning system based on Android should be designed with a clear terminal user-interface and easily operated by users. It enables every teacher easily to distribute students assignments with it after simple training, which will not worsen the problem that there is a serious lack of teachers. When it comes to students, they can enter the system with their mobile communication devices, such as, laptops, smart phones. They can easily get access to the learning system anywhere anytime (no need to download it) through the campus wireless network, then they can finish their first visit to it after the registration. From then on, they can enter the system anytime anywhere and choose any learning module they are interested in to practice and examine themselves repeatedly. The learning materials can be stored in data, which makes the maintaining of the system easier, too. Chart I and Chart II have shown us how easy it is to operate this system.

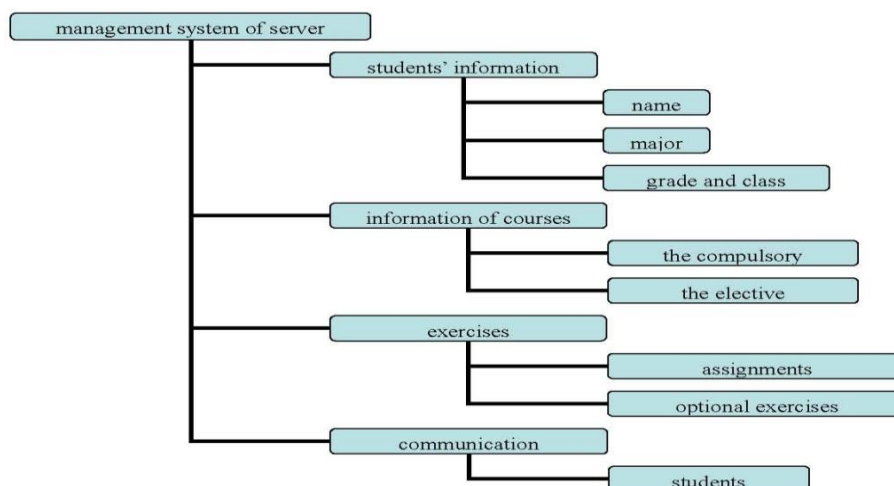


Figure 1. The functional modules of server management system.

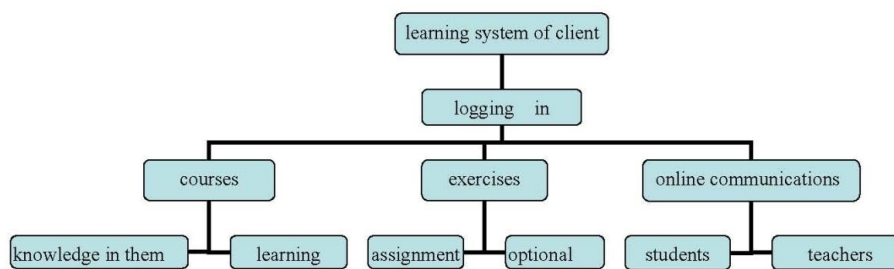


Figure 2. The functional modules of client learning system

2. Adequate learning materials: Among the most common areas for mobile-based language learning are vocabulary learning, listening tasks, grammar tasks, phonetics and reading comprehension (Miangah, 2012). This learning software is open to all students with different levels, so there should be diverse learning modules: writing, reading, translating, speaking, and so on. Following the same operating systems, they are integrated but relatively independent. What's more, Plug-in interface is also reserved for each program, which makes it possible for users to extend their learning by themselves and to improve and perfect the system in the future. Based on their own learning levels, students can choose different learning modules and different exercises due to the differences between modules as well as exercises. As for the contents, it makes study individual and can meet the demand of all students, to some extent which helps solve the problems caused by limited periods in class.

3. Timely updating information: The learning materials can be updated online or offline. Timely updating of the contents in the mobile learning system enables students can keep up with the latest information, which can help them to study more accurately and competitively in CET4/6 or graduate entrance examination. Students describe English learning in the traditional way as "a boring thing", so the new system should also be interesting to attract students' attention and cushion their languid mood. There are not only the materials to read and write but also the videos to listen and to watch.

4. Flexible hours: Students can learn anytime anywhere which actually extends their learning hours and effectively fix the problem caused by limited learning periods. There are no longer the restrictions in time and space. Since this system mainly helps students learn in their spare time, the content should be brief and small-chunk learning resources are needed. Which can enables students study efficiently even during the short breaks between classes. Herein, the informal and context-based learning experience evolve to important factors given by the mobility of the learner (Traxler, 2007). Of course, there are also comprehensive exercises for students to examine the learning effect after a long time practice. And students can adjust their plan for learning according to the results of test.

5. Smart criteria: There are different levels of criteria for different exercises: the level of CET4, the level of CET6, and the level of postgraduate. After students finish the exercise they chose, the system will grade it smartly and reasonably according to their learning level. Students can get the real feedback of what they are learning, which can helps student to know exactly the result of their learning and encourage them to go on. Students have taken a pretty positive attitude over the mobile learning system.

#### B. The Feasibility of the Mobile Learning System

1. The prosperity of information technology: In the era of information and technology, mobile learning and mobile business are playing dominant roles. Facer once claimed that most teachers and students, in the U.K., had then taken mobile technologies a familiar part in their daily lives. In a report entitled *The Era of Mobile Learning, Empowering Technologies*, a company founded in 1998, aiming at improving personal learning abilities, have pointed out that mobile learning, a new form of digital learning, is expected to be the main way of learning. Surveys conducted with university students show that they own mobile phones that have multimedia and connectivity capabilities in increasing numbers (Cooker et al. 2006). The writer of this essay investigated more than 400 students of different majors in Jining Medical College with questionnaires, including many questions about the learning hours outside the classroom, the frequency of using mobile phones, etc. The findings of the investigation have shown that

Almost 71% students spend half of their learning hours outside the classroom;

About 90% students use Android phones;

Nearly 88% students think learning outside classrooms more efficient;

Over 70% students think the present learning model too unitary

Up to 86% students are bored with the present teaching model

100% students own the mobile devices accessible to the Internet

90% students will surf on line with their phones;

The latest survey shows that smart phone will outnumber the laptop, and that people can browse online without difficulty through wireless platforms. Since the era that phones become the main device for people to surf online has arrived, then it's possible in near future that people can use the mobile learning system as the main learning method.

2. The distinct advantages of Android system: The distinct advantage of Android system is openness, which means the learning system based on Android can be applied to diverse devices. The client system can work smoothly in any

phones, PDA, tablets, and any portable devices installed with Android system. That attracts more and more manufacturers and consumers. Manufacturers would like to invest money in developing it for their support and approval for the Android system, so its user interface has become better with more and more options, which will increasingly offer users more adequate software items. With the trend of mobile learning, many learning materials have been developed, in the form of Podcast, widget, and APPs, while others embed the features of interactions and communication to enhance the effectiveness of language learning by using mobile devices. Kukulska-Hulme defined MALL- Mobile Assisted Language Learning-as the use of "...mobile technologies in language learning, especially in situation where device portability offers specific advantages (Kukulska-Hulme .2012). In the middle of 1990s, many educators and commercial institutes started to develop the special platform of online teaching, so that teachers can compose and manage their online teaching materials on the platform even if they are not professional for network programming. In recent years, with more and more software available for students to study online after class, the mobile learning system has been implemented in many universities and endorsed by students. Jining Medical College is a good point in case: in order to guarantee the high efficient English learning of students outside classroom, the Foreign Language Department bought the ITEST system for college English practicing and testing developed by Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press (FLTRP), with which anytime anywhere students can carry on their extra-curriculum English learning of writing, translating, speaking, and so on.

### C. The Critical Technical Support

Http protocol is used in network communication between client and server, while data transmission and exchange adopt JSON protocol. JSON (JavaScript Object Notation), a lightweight data-interchange format, can be easily parsed by browser which supports JavaScript. As a subset of JavaScript, JSON uses a language-independent text format with grammatical format familiar to C language. JSON becomes the standard data-interchange language in the program of smart phones for these characteristics which makes it convenient to read and program, and easy to analyze and generate the information by machines.

At present, as the mobile learning system based on Android is used in many Universities, Most students are satisfied with it. With the updating of information technology, this system will become more and more perfect. It is modern data processing and communication methods that will make this possible on a large scale in the near future. With the rapid development of mobile computing technologies, a new learning style-mobile learning has exploded everywhere in our society, which is considered as an essential learning style in the future.

### D. The Prospect of the Application of Mobile Learning System

Having broken through the limitation of time and space, this system can offer users the latest materials with few data, which will arouse the students' new initiatives. Under the help of this system, student can log in directly without downloading the app to learn and improve one's English. From a long term run, it will result into the remarkable improvement of college students' English synthesizing abilities. As long as information technology can benefit language learning, learner's achievement can depend on the accessibility and convenience of a learner's using a mobile device for learning. The only potential obstacle to the implement may be the network speed in the campus. At present, due to the great number of network users (mostly the college students) and the rush hours spent surfing online, it's inevitable that network speed will slow down. Fortunately, information technology has been developing so fast that we hold a firm belief that this kind of problem will be solved as promptly as possible.

## VI. CONCLUSION

In the new era, since the project of mobile education has been put on agenda by the National Collaborative Committee on Educational Technology in Colleges and Universities, mobile learning, as the core of mobile education, has attracted the full attention of educators. Now there are still many to be explored in China, because there are few mobile learning systems in line with China's national conditions. The learning system based on Android can be widely used on the portable mobile devices, such as, smart phones, PDA, etc. This system has a distinct advantage of the flexibility in learning time as well as space, the fast-update data, low data flow, etc, which can enable students learn with high efficiency. Therefore, it is of the practical reference value in research on mobile education.

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# A Comparative Study of Novel Translation under Feminist Translation Theory: A Case Study of the Two Chinese Versions of *To the Lighthouse*\*

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**Abstracts**—With the increasing relevance of feminism and translation studies, how to embody female discourse in translation has become an important issue in feminist translation and in reflecting the translator's subjectivity. Based on the feminist translation theory, this study will explore how female translators use translation strategies and methods to highlight female discourse through a comparative analysis of the two Chinese versions of *To the Lighthouse*, aiming to reveal the differences between female's translation and male's as a result of their gender consciousness, thus bringing beneficial inspiration to translation studies and translation work.

**Index Terms**—feminist translation theory, female discourse, *To the Lighthouse*

## I. INTRODUCTION

*To the Lighthouse* is a well-known novel by British woman writer Virginia Woolf published in 1927, a masterpiece withstanding the test of time in literary circle. Since its publication, there has been unceasing studies on it, some commenting on the classic from linguistic and literary perspectives, some discussing it in terms of the spirit conveyed by the novel itself or the plot in the book, and a few analyzing it from the perspective of translation. This paper will make a comparative study of the two Chinese versions of *To the Lighthouse* from the perspective of translation on the base of feminist translation theory. The research of feminist translation theory in academic circles has been putting focus on the theory itself, the research on female translators' translation works being scarce. Therefore, this comparative study of a male translation version and a female version will somewhat make up the vacancy in the research field.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Feminist translation theory originated from free feminism in the 18th century and flourished in the 1960s and 1970s, arising from the translation practice of Canadian feminists. The most famous representatives are Lori Chamberlain, Barbara Godard, Spivak Gayatri Chakravorty, Sherry Simon and Louise von Flotow. Lori published her thesis *Gender and the Metaphorics of Translation* in 1988. What she proposes in the thesis is to examine what is at stake for gender in the *representation* of translation: the struggle for authority and the politics of originality informing this struggle. Barbara (1990) believes that as an emancipatory practice, feminist discourse is a political discourse directed towards the construction of new meanings and is focused on subjects becoming in/by language. Spivak (1993), an Indian-American scholar, agrees that it is not bodies of meaning that are transferred in translation. The task of the feminist translator is to consider language as a clue to the workings of gendered agency. The writer is written by her language. But the writing of the writer writes agency in a way that might be different from that of the British woman/citizen within the history of British feminism, focused on the task of feeling herself from Britain's imperial past, its often racist present, as well as its "made in Britain" history of male domination. *Gender in Translation* written by Sherry Simon in 1996 is the first comprehensive study of feminist issues in translations theory and practice. Sherry Simon shows how women translators have long acted as literary activists, creating new lines of transmission and contributing to cultural debates. Contemporary feminist translators have had decisive influence in areas such as French feminism and Bible translation. In investigating the role of gender in translation, Sherry Simon shows how translation studies can be enriched by a cultural studies framework. In Flotow's work *Translation and Gender*, published in 1997, she examines the influences that feminist thought and writing have had on contemporary translation practice, presents theoretical developments and critical work on translation, discusses some of the criticisms addressed to work that combines gender issues with translation studies, and offers some remarks on future perspectives and a concluding statement, respectively.

Feminist translation theory was introduced to China by Professor Zhu Hong in the 1980s, but it was not until 2000 that it gradually attracted the attention of the academic circles. At the beginning, the study of feminist translation theory in academic circles mainly focused on the introduction of the theory and preliminary exploration of feminist translation

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thought: Liao Qiyi (2002) shares that although feminist translation had some defects, it recognizes that specific cultural and political factors will have an impact on people's views and their translation process; Ge Xiaoqin (2003) points out that translation involves the collision and fusion between different cultures, the process of which is very complicated, and feminist translation theory is to intervene in the culture involved in the process through a series of means and rewrite the dialogue at the same time; Liu Junping (2004) has made a thorough analysis of the relationship among translation, women, authors, texts, translators and readers; Xu Lai (2004) has criticized the phenomenon of discrimination against female translators on the basis of the theory from Simon and Flotow, playing a vital role in striving for the dignity and equality of female translators. In a word, feminist translation theory, on the one hand, advocates that translation is a re-creation based on the original work. On the other hand, it emphasizes the influence of translator's gender consciousness on translation. From 2005 to 2007, scholars began to research feminist translation theory combined with feminist translation work. The most representative ones are Chen Yu and Chen Lin's *Feminist Rewriting of the Discourses—With a comparative Study on the Two Translation Versions of Jane Eyre* and Yang Xue's *Translators' Feminist Consciousness and the English Translating of Zang Hua Ci*.

### III. A COMPARATIVE TEXTUAL ANALYSIS OF THE TRANSLATIONS

There are many Chinese translation versions of *To the Lighthouse*. Among them, the most representative are Ma Ainong's and Qu Shijing's. The former being a female translator and the latter a male one, the former published by People's Publishing House in 2013 and the latter by Shanghai Translation Publishing House in 2008, both of their versions are remarkable in the accuracy of the comprehension of the original and smooth in the re-expression. The comparative study is to be conducted in the following aspects:

#### A. The Image of Characters

In the process of translating a novel, the language used by the translator has an invisible effect on the image of the characters depicted. Different diction will leave a different impression of the characters in the readers' mind. Generally speaking, when describing female characters, female translators are more biased than male translators, while when describing male characters, the opposite is true. It's easier for women in female translators' works to leave a more positive impression that they are independent, strong and cute, and men a more negative impression that they are rude, irritable and arrogant.

##### Example 1:

**The Original:** "Aren't you drenched to the skin?" She had said.

**Ma's Version:** "你是不是浑身湿透了?"她问。

**Qu's Version:** "您的衣服都湿透了吧?"她问道。

**Analysis:** It is a sentence said by Mrs. Ramsay when she cheats her guest atheist Charles Stanley. The addressor and the addressee enjoyed equal social status. The only difference between them is that Charles Stanley is a man and Mrs. Ramsay a woman. Mr. Qu chooses the word "您" when he translates "you", a term to show respect to the addressed, as to a senior or a superior. The use of "您" implies that Mrs. Ramsay's status is lower than that of Charles Stanley. It makes people feel that Mrs. Ramsay is very menial and careful when she faces Charles Stanley. Gender inequality is a very common social phenomenon. Language is the "mirror" and "window" of society and the carrier of culture. Therefore, the inequality between men and women in society is inevitably reflected in language (He Xianbin, 2003). The word "您" portrays a submissive female image. However, Ma's translation of "you" puts Mrs. Ramsay and Charles Stanley on an equal social stratification, indicating a woman's consciousness of gender equality. From this example, it can be seen that gender inequality is reflected more obviously in male translators' translation versions.

##### Example 2:

**The Original:** She was wild and fierce.

**Ma's Version:** 她任性又乖戾。

**Qu's Version:** 她任性得可怕。

**Analysis:** This example is a description of Cam's character, who is Ramsay's youngest daughter. It means that Cam is a very self-willed child. Although Ma and Qu express in their translation that Cam is wayward, yet the intensity of feeling is different. Qu Shijing uses the word "可怕", which means "terrible" to describe her willfulness. Vocabulary, like fossils, embodies the ideology and knowledge of people who coined and used them in the society (Liu Jianda, 1998). This word "可怕" implies Qu's disgust with the youngest daughter Cam. In contrast, Ma Ainong, a woman translator, does not demonstrate the same feeling towards the girl portrayed by the original author, leaving the reader the impression that Cam is just a self-willed child as most children are and will not arouse dislike towards her. Thus, when describing the shortcomings of female characters, female translators tend to be more tolerant by using milder or more subjective terms than male translators.

#### B. Linguistic Level

Gender factors affect people's language behavior in a specific way. Women pay more attention to the accuracy, elegance, implicitness and euphemism of language in terms of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. At the same

time, the application of hyperbole modifiers and the change of intonation show that there are more emotional factors in women's language. The influence of this gender factor is also reflected in translation. Compared with male translators, female translators prefer to exclamatory sentences and rhetorical questions, sentence final particles, reduplicated words as well as degree adverbs to express their views and feelings.

**Example 3:**

**The Original:** "ES, OF COURSE, if it's fine tomorrow," said Mrs. Ramsay.

**Ma's Version:** "行啊, 如果明天天气好, 当然没有问题," 拉姆齐夫人说。

**Qu's Version:** "好, 要是明儿天晴, 准让你去," 拉姆齐夫人说。

**Analysis:** For the translation of "ES", Ma's version is "行啊" and Qu's version is "好". The main difference between the two translations is that Ma adds a sentence final particle "啊" at the end of the sentence, which makes the speaker's tone more relaxed and pleasant, while Qu's translation is just one word "好" without any emotion, which makes the speaker's speech a bit rigid. Mrs. Ramsay is a gentle and lively person, so Ma's translation is more in line with Mrs. Ramsay's design than Qu's. In China, women prefer to use sentence final particles than men. Adding sentence final particles makes the speech more agreeable, amicable and pleasant. In English, the atmosphere of speech is often conveyed through the speaker's pronunciation, intonation or context. When translating these words, Chinese female translators are inclined to conveying the atmosphere of their speech to the readers by adding some sentence final particles.

**Example 4:**

**The Original:** Who must be bored to death sitting all day with nothing to do but polish the lamp and trim the wick and rake about on their scrap of garden, something to amuse them.

**Ma's Version:** 他们整天坐在那里擦擦灯盏, 剪剪灯芯, 在那个巴掌大的园子里耙耙泥土, 别的什么事也没有, 肯定闷得要死。

**Qu's Version:** 他们一定烦闷极了, 除了擦拭灯罩, 修剪灯芯, 整理他们那块地聊以娱乐外, 整天就坐在那儿, 没事可做。

**Analysis:** This part describes the state that the poor people have nothing to do. There are three verbs in the original text: "polish", "trim", "rake". When translating these three verbs, the main difference in Qu's and Ma's translation is that Ma uses reduplicated words. By using these reduplicated words, the poor people's action is slowed down and their leisurely tempo of life is duly illustrated. The readers will feel that the poor people are idle and their life boring. These reduplicated words make the article more expressive. Reduplicated words are especially popular with women in China, because they sound relaxing, leisurely and comfortable. Accordingly, in translation, female translators prefer to use reduplicated words more frequently to re-present the feelings in the original text.

**Example 5:**

**The Original:** Yes, he did say disagreeable things, Mrs. Ramsay admitted.

**Ma's Version:** 是的, 他的话听着不太顺耳, 拉姆齐夫人承认。

**Qu's Version:** 是的, 他老是说些不中听的话, 拉姆齐夫人想到。

**Analysis:** Ma Yinglong's translation of "he did say disagreeable things" in the original text is more euphemistic than that of Qu Shijing's. She adds a degree adverb "太" in the middle of "不顺耳", which lends some courtesy to the speech and makes the reader feel more comfortable. By contrast, Mr. Qu translates "disagreeable" directly into "不中听", a negative term, and combined with "老是", an adverb of frequency preceding it, creating a much harsher discourse with a stronger sense of criticism. Gender factors affect people's language behavior in a specific way. Women pay more attention to the accuracy of voice, vocabulary and grammar, as well as the elegance, implicitness and euphemism of language (Qian Jin, 2004).

**Example 6:**

**The Original:** For Pure would have beauty, he thought, how could she help it?

**Ma's Version:** 普鲁会出落得很美, 他想, 她怎么能不美呢?

**Qu's Version:** 普鲁将会有美丽的姿容, 他想, 她没法长得不美。

**Analysis:** "How could she help it?" is a general interrogative sentence. When translating this general interrogative sentence, Ma Ailong uses hyperbole modifier—rhetorical sentence. The application of hyperbole modifiers and the change of intonation also show that there are more emotional factors in women's language (Qian Jin, 2004). Qu Shijing uses a declarative sentence. Although the meaning of this rhetorical sentence is the same as that of the declarative sentence, the intensity of the emotion is quite different. The tone of the rhetorical sentence is obviously stronger than that of the declarative one, which will impress the reader more deeply. Lakoff (1975) believes that women prefer exclamation and interrogative sentences, especially rhetorical sentence, in order to gain the recognition of listeners. In translation, female translators are also more likely to use rhetorical sentence and exclamations than male translators.

*C. The Use of Translation Strategies*

Feminist translators try to highlight the sexism of the original work or the source language with creative translation or even rewriting, thus arousing readers' thinking on gender issues. They have summed up many innovative feminist



translation strategies and methods in a large number of rich translation practices, the most important of which is supplementing, prefacing and footnoting, and hijacking. In Ma Ainong's translation of *To the Lighthouse*, she makes frequent use of two feminist translation strategies: supplementing and hijacking.

**Example 7:**

**The Original:** She asked, addressing herself particularly to her daughters.

**Ma's Version:** 她问。她对她的女儿们这样细致地解释着。

**Qu's Version:** 她特别向她女儿们这样提出问题。

**Analysis:** In this example, Ma Ailong uses the feminist translation strategy of hijacking when she translates the word "particularly" as "细致地" in this example, while Qu directly translates the word "particularly" as "特别" without any re-creation. The term of Hijacking is recuperated by commentators and translators to describe the process by which a feminist translator applies 'corrective measures' to the work in hand, appropriating the text in order to construct feminist meaning. Hijacking graphically expresses and acknowledges the struggle for the control of meaning (Flotow, 1997). By using the translation strategy of hijacking, Ma's translation vividly embodies Mrs. Ramsay's patience and wisdom when she educates her children, which makes the image of Mrs. Ramsay intellectual and attracts more attention and interest from the readers to Mrs. Ramsay and her children. Translation thus becomes a political activity that has the objective of making women visible and resident in language and society (Flotow, 1997).

**Example 8:**

**The Original:** For they might go to the Lighthouse after all, and she must see if the stocking did not need to be an inch or two longer in the leg.

**Ma's Version:** 因为他们终归是要去灯塔的，她得弄清长袜的腿部是否还要加长一两寸。

**Qu's Version:** 因为，也许他们明天会到灯塔去，她必须看一看那袜筒是否还需要加长一两寸。

**Analysis:** For the word "might" in the original text, Ma Ainong's translation and Qu Shijing's translation are totally different. The word "might" appears as a modal verb in this sentence. When it is used as a modal verb, it shows something is or was possible. When Qu Shijing translates the word, he uses literal translation and translates it into "也许". But Ma Ainong adopts the feminist translation strategy of "hijacking", changing the meaning of the word "might" and translates it into "终归", which means that something is bound to happen. Ma Ainong, like Mrs. Ramsay, is a woman with more delicate mind, so she can more accurately capture Mrs. Ramsay's inner activities at this time than the male translator. She applies the word "终归" to vividly express Mrs. Ramsay's inner thought: Mrs. Ramsay always firmly believes that they will go to the Lighthouse. This is bound to happen.

**Example 9:**

**The Original:** For had she not in her veins the blood of that very noble, if slightly mythical, Italian house, whose daughters, scattered about English drawing-rooms in the nineteenth century, had lisped so charmingly, and had stormed so wildly.

**Ma's Version:** 因为她的血管里不是也流淌着那个带有神话色彩的意大利贵族的血液？十九世纪，意大利名门望族的女儿们分散在英国许多家庭的客厅里，妩媚动人，谈吐优雅，嬉笑怒骂，风情万种。

**Qu's Version:** 因为，在她的血管中，不是奔流着那带有神话色彩的意大利名门望族的高贵血液吗？意大利的大家闺秀们，在十九世纪分散到英国各地家庭的客厅里，她们谈吐风雅，热情奔放，令人倾倒。

**Analysis:** When translating this part of content, Ma Ailong uses the feminist translation strategy—supplement. Supplementing is a means of compensation, which is often used by translators. That is, by dealing with the word games in the original text, to supplement their own points of view. Ma Ainong adds "妩媚动人" and "风情万种", two Chinese four-character structures, to describe the Italian ladies. These two phrases are used to describe women's good looks and charm. By adding them to the translation, Ma further enhances the image of the Italian ladies and projects a more attractive image of them to the readers, aiming to make the feminine visible in language so that women are seen and heard in the world (Sherry Simon, 1996).

**Example 10:**

**The Original:** Never did anybody look so sad. Bitter and black, half-way down, in the darkness, in the shaft which ran from the sunlight to the depths, perhaps a tear formed.

**Ma's Version:** 从来没有人显得这么沮丧。苦涩，郁闷，简直心灰意冷，在黑暗中，在从阳光落进深渊的幽深井道里，也许有一颗泪珠正在形成。

**Qu's Version:** 从来没人看上去显得如此沮丧，愁苦而阴郁，在黑暗之中，在从地面的阳光通向地底的深渊的竖井里下坠的途中，也许一滴泪珠涌上了眼角。

**Analysis:** This example is a description of Marie, a Swiss girl who lives in Mrs. Ramsay's house. Marie's father has cancer of the throat. He lives in Switzerland, separated from Marie. His death will leave Marie a helpless orphan. At this thought, Mrs. Ramsay bears a special sympathy for Marie. In Mrs. Ramsay's view, Marie is very depressed and sad at this time. When translating the words "bitter" and "black" in the original text, Qu Shijing uses the words "愁苦" and "阴郁", while Ma Ainong first uses the words "苦涩" and "郁闷". But after that, she adopts the feminist translation strategy of "supplementing", adding a new word "心灰意冷" to the translation. Female translators are more likely to

have emotional resonance with the female characters in the novel. “心灰意冷” means someone is frustrated and depressed. In translating this sentence, Ma Ainong clearly conveys to the readers the sadness and despair of Marie’s heart for her father's impending death from laryngeal cancer by adding the word “心灰意冷”.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

Through a comparative study of Ma’s and Qu’s translation versions of *To the Lighthouse*, conclusion is reached that, in contrast with male translators, female translators pay more attention to the equality of men’s and women’s identities in portraying the images of characters and are more tolerant in describing the shortcomings of female characters; female translators are more sensitive than male translators in perceiving various behaviors and psychology of characters, and prefer to use rhetorical questions, sentence final particles and reduplicated words in translation when presenting the personality of the characters in the novel and conveying the context of the novel to the readers accurately; in order to embody their female translators’ identity through the translated text and project a prominent image of the female, women translators will use various translation strategies when translating, such as supplement, hijacking and so on.

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# Using Computer-assisted Language Learning in Classrooms: What Does Research Say about Teachers' Beliefs and Practices?

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**Abstract**—The last decades have witnessed the introduction of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) into the field of education. This introduction has brought in major changes in the traditional view of language teaching and learning. Accordingly, the implementation of technology through Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and its success has become of particular interest. However, the success of CALL implementation does not merely depend only on economic investments. In fact, teachers play a major role in using technology successfully in classrooms (Galvis, 2012). Thus, it is important to investigate teachers' beliefs about CALL implementation and see whether they practically practice their beliefs in classrooms. Of equal importance is to investigate and question why some teachers do not practice their beliefs. This paper attempts to shed light on teachers' beliefs and practices of CALL implementation in classrooms. First, teachers' beliefs are defined and their importance and formation process are presented. Then, teachers' beliefs about CALL implementation in language classrooms are discussed along with the factors that affect them. A discussion of whether teachers' beliefs about technology entail their actual practice is then provided. Finally, barriers hindering teachers' practices of technology in language classrooms are explained.

**Index Terms**—CALL, teachers' beliefs, practices, pedagogy, technology

## I. TEACHERS' BELIEFS: DEFINITION AND FORMATION

Beliefs have an influential effect in many educational areas (Borg, 2003). Generally, beliefs are often described as both valuable and difficult construct to define because they do not lend themselves to empirical investigations (Pajares, 1992). However, several definitions have been proposed for beliefs. Richardson (1996) defined beliefs as ideas and conceptions that a person either consciously or unconsciously perceives to be true. Pajares (1992) also defined beliefs as an “individual’s judgment of truth or falsity of a proposition, a judgment that can only be inferred from a collective understanding of what human beings say, intend, and do” (p.316). Commonly, different terms are usually used to refer to beliefs such as attitudes, perceptions, implicit theories, perspectives, opinions and judgments (Pajares, 1992). Clark and Peterson (1986) described teachers’ beliefs as the core of knowledge that influences teachers' pedagogical planning and their instructional decisions. Elen and Lowyck (1999) defined teachers’ beliefs as suppositions about educational issues such as teaching, learning, and curricula. Teachers' beliefs are manifested in their personal philosophies of education and include their beliefs of various strategies for creating learning environments and conducting lessons, and more fundamentally beliefs about learners, how they learn, and how that learning can be fostered by teaching (Borko & Putnam, 1995). With regard to language instruction, Richards and Rodgers (2001) asserted that teachers have certain beliefs about language and language learning which provide them with a teaching philosophy for a adopting a specific approach in language instruction. Additionally, Connelly and Clandinin (1988) stated that teachers’ beliefs reflect their perceptions of curriculum implementation including the roles they assume, the roles they assign to their students, and the methods and approaches of teaching the content of the curriculum in the actual learning setting. Thus, teachers’ beliefs don’t influence their goals only, but they affect their procedures, materials, classroom interaction patterns, their roles, their students, and the schools they work in, as well (Harste and Burke, 1977). They have a great impact not only on the depth and breadth of their teaching craft, but also on what students learn, how they learn, and how teachers approach teaching and learning (Palak, 2004).

Mainly, teachers' beliefs are formed by different sources. Richardson (1996) suggested three types of experiences that shape and form beliefs of teaching. These experiences include personal experience, experience with schooling and instruction, and experience with formal knowledge. Similarly, Erkmen (2010) stated that the sources of teachers’ beliefs which have been identified in research include teachers’ personal experiences as students, and teacher education. Also, Orton (1996) considered teacher beliefs to be context bound and situational. He maintained that teachers' beliefs are not rooted in theories of learning or teaching or theories of cognition, but in the past situations, particular instances, and trial and error experiences.

## II. LANGUAGE TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT CALL

Whether or not a teacher will implement new teaching strategies and technological innovations or support educational reforms largely depends on his or her beliefs (Clark & Peterson, 1986). Teachers' beliefs are regarded as a key predictor of using technological innovations in the educational context (Albirini, 2006). In fact, teachers' beliefs about CALL play an important role in their acceptance and integration of technology as well as the way they successfully use technology in their classrooms (Al-Zaidiyeen, Mei, & Fook, 2010). Kim (2002) argued that teacher's beliefs about CALL can be considered as a facilitating or inhibiting factor. They can facilitate the use of technology as they give teachers more confidence in using it. On the other hand, teachers' beliefs may act as a barrier to using CALL. In the same vein, Gilakjani and Leong (2012) stated that if any success is to be expected from integrating technology into the classroom, it is a must that negative teachers' beliefs are identified and refined as well as positive beliefs are fostered. In fact, the literature on teachers' beliefs yielded different results. Most of the studies showed positive teachers' beliefs about integrating technology in language classrooms. Still others showed that teachers have negative beliefs about technology.

Most studies from different parts of the world indicate that teachers have positive beliefs about using CALL in language classroom (Cummings, 2005; Albirini, 2006; Akcaoglu, 2008; Alshumaimeri, 2008; Park & Son, 2009; Al-Zaidiyeen, Mei, & Fook, 2010; Emhamed & Krishnan, 2011; Genc, 2011; Cahyani & Cahyono, 2012; Capan, 2012; Dashtestani, 2012; Başöz, & Çubukçu, 2013; Baz, 2016; İnce, 2017; Soylemez, & Akayoglu, 2019). Emhamed and Krishnan (2011) found that most of the Libyan teachers had positive attitudes toward integrating technology in teaching EFL students. Teachers believed that technology fosters students' learning as it makes learning enjoyable and interesting. It also helps them as teachers to become facilitators, and it assists them in integrating language skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening) rather than teaching these skills separately. Also, the teachers in Dashtestani's study (2012) perceived the use of CALL as a beneficial tool for enhancing students' motivation, autonomy, self-confidence, and learning multi-cultural competence. In addition, they view it as an important, facilitative and interactive tool in EFL teaching. They maintained that CALL facilitates the accessibility to information, professional development, use of different instructional approaches, and EFL assessment and evaluation. Likewise, in Park and Son's (2009) study, all teachers regarded the use of CALL in classrooms as essential and desirable as it creates an attractive environment for the students in the ICT world. They believed that the use of technology adds value to their teaching, improves their pedagogical approaches, and provides them with rich information resources and authentic materials along with different ways of presentation. They also considered CALL as a helpful means for language practice asserting that it can make the process of language learning easier and faster.

In spite of these positive beliefs about technology, teachers are still more inclined to hold teacher-centered rather than student-centered beliefs about teaching and learning. The teachers in Park and Son's (2009) study indicated that using CALL cannot fully guarantee better quality of education. They believed that the quality of education depends mainly on the quality of teachers, not on the use of technologies. They argued that what ensures effective language instruction is their positive stance and constant efforts to introduce new technologies and teaching materials to their classrooms. They also asserted that they should play dominant roles and be fully responsible for controlling students' progress and activities. In the same vein, the teachers in Akcaoglu's study (2008) indicated that technology would help make their classes more student-centered. However, they mainly mentioned using technology as a teacher tool rather than as a student tool which help foster learners' autonomy and higher order thinking skills. Kim (2008) also found that teachers' perceptions of CALL showed a strong preference for teacher-centered approach. They restricted the role of CALL to a supplemental instructional tool. They basically viewed the role of computer as an optional tool for tutoring, communication, presentation and writing, and as a motivator. These common teachers' perceptions indicated that their expectations of computers are limited to considering them as an instructional tool, not as a learning tool for students. Kim commented that although current language instructional approaches changed from teacher-centered to student-centered, teachers' beliefs of computers have not yet changed.

However, not all teachers have positive beliefs about integrating technology into their language classrooms. Some teachers don't support using technology in classrooms, while others actually resist its use. Such reluctance or even resistance to use technology in classrooms might be due to doubts and low confidence. Teachers feel more secured and confident when they practice traditional instruction (Gilakjani & Leong, 2012). Hismanoglu (2012) conducted a study on pre-service teachers' perceptions about using CALL in teaching English as a foreign language of the distance higher education system in Turkey. The results indicated that the teachers had negative attitudes toward CALL. They felt less competent in using technology due to lack of knowledge and experience.

Nevertheless, studies that report negative beliefs are few compared to studies indicating positive teachers' beliefs about technology integration in language classroom. Actually, differences in teachers' beliefs are related to certain factors that affect them.

### III. FACTORS AFFECTING LANGUAGE TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT CALL

Studies report several factors that affect teachers' beliefs about CALL integration in language classrooms, including technological competence and personal experience (Albirini, 2006; Park and son, 2009; Capan, 2012), cultural perceptions (Albirini, 2006; Capan, 2012), age (Albirini, 2004; Akcaoglu, 2008), years of experience in teaching (Tezci, 2009), and the institution and work place (Akcaoglu, 2008; Suwannasom, 2010).

With regard to technological competence and cultural perceptions, Albirini (2006) found that EFL teachers of high school had positive beliefs about using technology in Syrian education. Those beliefs were formed by their vision of technology, their experiences with it and the cultural conditions which surround them. Likewise, Capan's study (2012) suggested that there are important factors affecting EFL teachers' beliefs towards using technology in classrooms. Among these factors are high computer competence, positive cultural perceptions and access to computers at home and in school. With this regard, Park and Son (2009) commented that language teachers can have the confidence to integrate CALL in their teaching if they have different positive teaching and learning experiences besides positive cultural perceptions about using computers. Through these learning and teaching experiences, teachers become certain that technology can affect students' motivation positively with its desirable environment. They also recognize the Internet as a rich source of information and as a means for providing valuable opportunities to experience the foreign culture. At the same time, they feel comfortable and confident in their implementation since they do not violate cultural perceptions. Concerning age, Akcaoglu (2008) found out that the younger teachers had higher competence and more positive attitudes toward computers. On the other hand, older teachers had more negative attitudes toward technology. They also had lower competence in using computers. Accordingly, Akcaoglu pointed out that such different attitudes between younger and older teachers reflect the inclination in the society toward technology. Since the new generation grows up using innovational technology, they are able to use it easily and comfortably. Another factor that is somewhat related to age is years of experience in teaching. Tezci (2009) found that teachers with fewer years of experience in teaching have more positive attitudes toward technology use. Moreover, institutional support of technology resources is a substantial factor affecting teachers' beliefs. The study of Akcaoglu (2008) revealed that teachers at universities which are supported with technological facilities for language teaching purposes had the highest attitude level, and the highest usage, as well. The use of computers by those teachers in their lessons helped them improve their computer skills and foster their positive beliefs and thus, they advance their peers who potentially graduated from the same universities and had the same ICT training.

#### IV. DO TEACHERS' POSITIVE BELIEFS ABOUT CALL ENTAIL PRACTICE?

Teachers' beliefs greatly influence their instructional practice (Farrell & Lim, 2005). In fact, some research shows that it is a teacher's belief system that has the greatest impact on instructional practice (Lam & Kember, 2006). Liaw (2002) maintained that the success of computer use heavily depends on positive beliefs about it. Similarly, Kim (2002) emphasized that teachers' beliefs significantly influence their use of computers in the classroom. Al-Zaidiyeen, Mei, and Fook (2010) went further and asserted that teachers' beliefs do not only affect teachers' integration of technology in language classrooms but they also affect the frequency and the amount of the use of technology.

In fact, studies indicate that a significantly positive correlation holds between teachers' beliefs about computers and their tendency to use them in the classroom. In other words, the more positive attitudes teachers have about computers, the more likely they are to use computers in the classroom (Al-Zaidiyeen, Mei, & Fook, 2010; Capan, 2012). Park and Son (2009) stated that the teachers in their study believed in utilizing computer technologies in language classrooms. They believed that they are helpful for enhancing students' language learning. Practically, teachers used Word Processing, PowerPoint, the Internet and CD-ROMs in the classroom. Among these tools, they regarded the Internet and CD-ROMs as the most helpful teaching tools. Also, Genc (2011) found that teachers have positive attitudes toward the integration of computer technology with instruction. Their positive attitudes are reflected in their use of different computer applications and programs such as word processing, PowerPoint, Internet and educational software.

However, sometimes, teachers' positive beliefs about CALL do not entail actual practice of these beliefs. Egbert, Paulus and Nakamichi (2002) argued that positive attitudes toward CALL do not assure that teachers will actually use it in their classrooms. Dashtestani (2012), in his study, declared that in spite of their positive beliefs, most of EFL teachers do not use technology in their classes. The EFL teachers' common use of technology was confined to playing some mp3 audio tracks. Such audio activities are actually based on the textbook activities used for developing learners' listening skill. The printed textbooks were the main teaching materials used by EFL teachers and students. Additionally, Kim (2002) found that although all participants in her study had positive attitudes and strong intrinsic motivation toward the use of technology in classrooms, teachers' actual use of technology was limited, frequently delayed, avoided or withdrawn. Likewise, Akcaoglu (2008) found that despite reporting positive beliefs about CALL, teachers used computers in their classrooms at limited frequency.

From the studies reviewed above, it is clear that positive beliefs do not necessarily entail practice. Some teachers do practice their beliefs and implement technology in their language classrooms. Others, however, do not practice the positive beliefs they hold about technology. These findings lead to question why some teachers do not practice technology in their language classrooms if they really have positive beliefs about it. In reality, the inconsistency between the reported positive beliefs and low technology implementation in language classrooms can be attributed to different constraints and barriers that prevent teachers from implementing technology in their classes.

#### V. BARRIERS HINDERING CALL IMPLEMENTATION IN CLASSROOMS

The studies reviewed in this paper as well as the literature of teachers' beliefs and practices identified several barriers that hinder the implementation of CALL in language classrooms. These barriers can be classified into: lack of technological facilities (Lee & Son, 2006; Akcaoglu, 2008; Park & Son, 2009; Dashtestani, 2012), lack of knowledge and training (Chen, 2007; Akcaoglu, 2008; Cahyani & Cahyono, 2012; Dashtestani, 2012, Aydin, 2013), curricular limitations (Ertmer, 2005; Albirini, 2006; Akcaoglu, 2008; Park & Son, 2009; Suwannasom, 2010), lack of time (Albirini, 2006; Park & Son, 2009; Suwannasom, 2010; Emhamed & Krishnan, 2011), and financial barriers (Lee, 2000; White, 2006; Emhamed & Krishnan, 2011; Dashtestani, 2012).

#### A. *Lack of Technological Facilities*

Unfortunately, not all language classes are equipped with technological tools, and some are actually old and need maintenance. Moreover, the types of software suitable for EFL courses are not easily available to EFL teachers (Dashtestani, 2012). Internet connection problems also discourage teachers to use computers (Park and Son, 2009). Also, inconvenience encountered in the use of computer labs hinders teachers' willingness to use CALL (Lee and Son, 2006). Generally, the lack of network, computers, and availability of computer hardware and software hinders teachers' potential to use computers during their instruction. Thus, the infrastructure stands in the way of teachers who have positive beliefs about technology and are actually willing to use it (Akcaoglu, 2008).

#### B. *Lack of Knowledge and Training*

Some EFL/ESL teachers don't use technology effectively because they lack training on how to use it in language classes and how to deliver their teaching using new technological innovations appropriately (Cahyani & Cahyono, 2012). In his study, Alshumaimeri (2008) found positive correlation between training and positive attitudes towards the use of technology which indicate that training helps teachers to be more confident in using CALL. Dashtestani (2012) maintained that some teachers do not have sufficient knowledge to use CALL in their EFL classes. The current knowledge of CALL they have is gained from their experience and not from teacher training courses. More specifically, teachers are not sure about the skills they need, which technological tools they should use, and what course syllabus is suitable for teaching with the technology (Chen, 2007). In fact, teachers indicate that apart from access to computers, lack of training opportunities and knowledge about the proper use of computers and the internet in language learning constitute a major barrier to their technology integration (Akcaoglu, 2008).

#### C. *Curricular Limitations*

Among the challenges that teachers encounter in trying to implement technology into their classrooms is the difficulty to adjust or find appropriate and suitable technological tools for their curriculum (Ertmer, 2005). Inflexible curricula hinder teachers from integrating technology as they don't allow for modifications or adjustment. In addition, teachers have specific content and test schedules to follow, thus, they find it difficult to add technology-related activities into the predefined course plan (Suwannasom, 2010). In Akcaoglu's study (2008) teachers mentioned that the curriculum they are following is a barrier to their usage of computers in classroom. Proficiency exams and rigid course books make them helpless in terms of technology integration.

#### D. *Lack of Time*

Limited time is one of the most reported barriers that affect teachers' use of technology in the classroom. Using technology in the classroom constitute an extra burden on teachers because new technology skills require additional time for learning and training. In addition, integrating technological activities in class lessons need a lot of preparation time (Suwannasom, 2010). Looking for suitable on-line materials that meet students' proficiency levels and needs is time-consuming for teachers (Park & Son, 2009). In addition, the class time itself is not enough for the implementation of technology in the classrooms (Emhamed & Krishnan, 2011).

#### E. *Financial Barriers*

Financial barriers include the cost of hardware, software, and maintenance. They also include staff training cost (Lee, 2000). Most CALL-based facilities are too expensive to be bought by teachers themselves (Dashtestani, 2012). In fact, institutions and teachers alike have difficulties affording the cost of equipment or software applications to implement CALL effectively in their language classes (White, 2006).

## VI. CONCLUSION

Taking into account that research on teachers' beliefs and practices is still in its infancy, the results of the studies reviewed in this paper are promising. They indicate that most teachers have positive beliefs' about CALL, and that some teachers are actually implementing it in language classrooms despite having some barriers and constraints. However, practically speaking, implementing technology in language classrooms is not an easy task; it is not only about implementing technology. Teachers need to be trained in how to implement technology effectively following a learner-centered rather than a teacher-centered approach. They need to be guided to use technology as a learner tool in which the students are viewed as active learners who are responsible for their learning. In fact, research is needed on how to

redefine the role of the teacher in CALL classrooms. Also, exploring change in teachers' beliefs toward technology and CALL and how such change affects their practices is an area that needs researchers' attention.

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# On the Relationship between Language Proficiency and Teaching Knowledge Acquisition of English Majors at a Normal School—Based on Three Repetitive Lessons

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**Abstract**—Taking three high school reading repetitive lessons of two English majors with different language proficiency as samples, this paper explores the relationship between language proficiency and teaching knowledge acquisition. Through the qualitative analysis of teaching scores, teaching plans, reflective reports, interview recordings and other data, it is found that: After three repetitions, the teaching skills of the student with high language proficiency have been significantly improved. The quality of teaching design and the effectiveness of teacher's language have made remarkable progress in the second lesson. The teaching management ability and students' learning effect have gradually improved with the increase of teaching times. The abilities of the student with low language proficiency in all aspects are gradually improved with the increase of teaching times. This study has important reference significance for pre-service foreign language teacher education.

**Index Terms**—English majors, language proficiency, teaching knowledge, repetitive lessons

## I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching is an art. Successful teaching requires not only teachers' solid subject knowledge, but also their skilled subject-based teaching knowledge that can process and translate the subject knowledge into the knowledge that students can easily understand (Zou & Chen, 2005). Subject-based teaching knowledge is the integration of subject contents and educational disciplines, which can best distinguish the differences between subject experts and teachers (Shulman, 1987). Foreign language teachers are different from other subject teachers. As far as other disciplines are concerned, teaching tools are the mother tongue which is familiar to both teachers and students. The teaching process is to give and acquire teaching contents in the mother tongue. However, in foreign language teaching, both teaching tools and teaching contents are foreign languages. Foreign language teachers' job is to help students construct a all-new language and culture system with the unfamiliar language, which sets higher requirements for foreign language teachers' language proficiency and teaching ability. But the fact is that, most foreign language teachers in China are foreign language learners. They are still in the process of language development and usually do not have the language level of the native speakers. The dynamic characteristics of interlanguage make their foreign language knowledge particularly easy to change, and this change will definitely affect the development of their foreign language teaching knowledge (Zou, 2013). English majors at the normal schools are learners of foreign language knowledge and teaching knowledge. Will the change of language knowledge affect their acquisition of teaching knowledge? This paper studies this question.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Schulman, the American educator who proposed the concept of subject-based teaching knowledge, emphasized that subject-based knowledge and subject-based teaching knowledge are the core of teachers' knowledge, and there is an important relationship between them (Schulman, 1987). Grossman (1990), the successor of Schulman's pedagogical knowledge theory carefully observed and compared the classes of English teachers with different levels of subject knowledge, and found that teachers with solid subject knowledge are familiar with the vertical arrangement and horizontal connection of the subject in different grades, understand the relationship among the knowledge points presented in the textbook, so they will not only reorganize the structure of textbooks, but also take effective representations according to students' actual level and on-the-spot reaction to help students establish links between knowledge points, so that students can easily enter and master unfamiliar content with familiar content as a starting point. While teachers with poor subject knowledge can not establish the knowledge structure schema of the subject, only stick to the arrangement of the textbook. The knowledge points expressed are isolated and fragmented, which makes it difficult for students to learn. The teaching content is limited to textbooks, and usually teachers-centered method is adopted to avoid student's questions. After making a qualitative study of an experienced ESL teacher's grammar knowledge and grammar teaching knowledge, Borg (1998) found that the teacher's grammar knowledge is

closely related to his grammar teaching behavior. Through experiments, Ball & McDiarmid et al. (1990) have proved that a good professional foundation is a necessary condition for excellent teachers. These research clearly shows that teachers' subject knowledge plays a decisive role in their teaching strategies, teaching contents and teaching quality. However, the above studies mainly focus on the classroom teaching of in-service teachers, research on the learning process of pre-service teachers has not been touched.

Repetitive teaching means "teachers teach the same or similar content in the same or similar teaching environment facing different teaching objects" (Chen & Zou, 2016, p. 65). In recent years, repetitive teaching has been regarded as an effective medium for students at the normal schools to learn teaching knowledge. The main reason is that it has the following advantages: First of all, the multiple variables involved are reduced. Only the teaching objects and teaching methods are variables. The teaching content and teaching environment are invariable factors, which reduces the interference in the process of teachers' learning and is conducive to the rapid progress of the students. Secondly, it provides students with targeted learning chances. The omissions, problems and difficulties in the previous teaching will force the students to actively seek solutions to deal with the subsequent teaching. In the virtuous cycle of constantly discovering and solving problems, normal school students get the opportunity to use theory to guide practice and practice to test ideas, thus exploring and generating their own teaching practice knowledge. Existing research has proved that repetitive teaching can promote the acquisition of teaching skills of normal school students (Chen & Zou, 2016; Xie & Zou, 2015). For this reason, this study takes three repetitive lessons of two English majors with different language levels as samples to explore whether language proficiency will cause some difference in the acquisition of teaching knowledge.

### III. RESEARCH METHOD

#### A. Participants

The participants are two female students in the fourth grade of English teachers' major in a university: Song Wei and Zhao Min (alias). Song Wei passed TEM-4 with 85 points in grade two while Zhao Min passed TEM-4 with 62 points in grade three. This study separately defines their language proficiency as high (H) level and low (L) level. Both of them have studied "pedagogy", "psychology" and other courses, but neither has teaching any experience. They are beginners of teaching skills. This research is designed according to the teaching practice in the first semester of the fourth grade which will be carried out in the second semester. Therefore, the two students are highly motivated and have no feelings of resistance.

#### B. Research Design

This study was conducted in the first grade of L Middle School, which has nine parallel classes. Class 1-6 were randomly selected as the experimental units. Song Wei gave one lesson in Class 1, 3 and 5, Zhao Min gave lessons in Class 2, 4 and 6, each of them had three chances of teaching. Before the teaching, the two students went to L Middle School to observe the English class, got familiar with the students' situation, teaching facilities and so on, and communicated with the middle school teachers to determine the teaching content and time. Then, they began to prepare lessons and make teaching plans. During the teaching, the university curriculum teachers, middle school contact teachers and the other three English teachers in the middle school attended the class. After the class, they filled in reflective reports, and the teachers and some of the subjects were interviewed and recorded.

Data collation and analysis

#### C. Data Analysis

The research data include three lesson plan designs, classroom videos, reflective reports, interview recordings. All the data were organized and analyzed according to Zou's (2013) framework of classroom teaching and learning process analysis. It has four dimensions and 18 scoring items. Among them, teaching design dimension contains 4 items, teaching management dimension contains 4 items, teachers' language dimension contains 7 items and students' learning dimension contains 3 item (see Table 1 for details).

TABLE I.  
FRAMEWORK OF CLASSROOM TEACHING AND LEARNING PROCESS ANALYSIS

Dimensions	Focus	Items
Teaching Design	Teaching Objectives:	Clarity of presentation of teaching objectives
	Teaching Steps	The Logic of Teaching Steps
	Textbook Analysis	Utilization of the Characteristics of Teaching Materials
	Instructional Tools	Effectiveness of Instructional Tools
Teaching Management	Beginning, Ending, Transition, Activity Organization, Use of Teaching Materials and Equipment, Overall Activity Coherence	Targeted Management, Multitask Management
		Opportunity for Promoting Activities and Fluency Degree
		Degree of mobilizing students and student's participation
		How to deal with accidents and how to use teaching equipment
Teacher Language	Instructions, Interpretation, Communication, Response, Demonstration, Evaluation, Volume, Rhythm, Language Accuracy, Confidence, Body Language, Vision, Mother Language Ratio	Lead-in
		Instructions
		Explanation
		Demonstration and Display
		The Use of Mother Language
		Teachers' Response to Students
		Management
Student Learning	Learning Style, Learning Time, State of Concentration & Preparation	Way of dealing with tasks
		Degree of involvement in learning
		Sense of harvest

#### IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The text given by the two students is the Reading & Vocabulary section of My First Ride on a Train, Volume 1, Unit 3 of Compulsory English for Senior One, published by Foreign Language Research Press. The knowledge goal of this unit is to let students master some vocabulary of transportation and related things, and grasp the method of describing tourism experience. The goal of ability is to train students' micro-reading skills. The teaching emphasis is: describing the skills of traveling and using past participle as attributive. The difficulty of teaching is how to use the past tense to describe a trip.

##### A. Teaching Design

Three repetitive teaching sessions were conducted in the following steps (Table 2).

TABLE II.  
TEACHING STEPS

sessions	Song Wei (H)	Zhao Min (L)
1	Introducing the first travel experience by students---Asking questions about the content of the text---Summarizing the general idea of the article---Summarizing the general idea of the paragraph---Explaining and practicing vocabulary and grammar---Assigning homework	Introducing the first travel experience by students---Vocabulary explanation---Paragraph-by-paragraph translation---Paragraph-by-paragraph explanation of grammar---Paragraph-by-paragraph induction of general idea---Review of knowledge points---Assigning homework
2	Picture show--- Introduction of background knowledge---Questions on text content--- Analysis of article structure---Students describe their first trip under the guidance of prompts (who, where, what, etc.) ---Explanations and exercises of vocabulary and grammar---Summary of this lesson - Homework	Picture show---Vocabulary explanation---Questions on text content---Subject summarization---Paragraph generalization---Grammar explanation and exercise---Text summarization---Homework
3	Picture Show---Background knowledge introduction---Questions on text content---Analysis of text structure---Vocabulary and grammar explanations and exercises---Students describe their first trip under the guidance of prompts (who, where, what, etc.)---Summary of the main points of this lesson---Homework	Picture show --- Vocabulary explanation --- Questions on text content--- Subject induction---Paragraph summary--- Grammar explanation and exercises--- Fill in a form with prompts such as when, where, what---Brief description of one trip---Homework

Combining the above steps with the teaching objectives and difficulties of this unit, we can see that the two students have the same problems in the first session: Not accurately grasping the teaching objectives, nor expressing them in teaching activities, ignoring the analysis of text structure characteristics, abrupt lead-in, raising broad questions that students are unable to answer. The differences lie in: Song Wei follows the teaching ideas from macro to micro, and

conforms to the cognitive law of comprehensively understanding things. After-class homework is asking the students to summarize texts in writing, which plays a role in training students' refining and expressing abilities. After explaining knowledge points, there are some exercises, which are helpful to cultivate students' language using competence. Zhao Min's method is just the opposite, focusing on the language point, which is easy to convey some one-sided information to students that learning English is to learn words and phrases. After-school homework is to recite some paragraphs, which is quite rigid. Language points are limited to explanation, the ability to use language is ignored completely.

In the second class, Song Wei made great progress: accurately grasping the teaching objectives and carrying out teaching activities closely around the teaching objectives; quickly grasping the students' attention by introducing pictures into the text and also increasing the interest of classroom activities; giving article structure analysis, which is not only conducive to students' better understanding of the text, but also clearly demonstrates the method of describing travel experience; giving useful tips to provide students with scaffolding help, which reduces the obstacles of discourse organization and helps students to use the knowledge learned at present; adding key points summarizing, which enhances the integrity of teaching steps and deepens students' memory of new knowledge as well; changing after-school homework to write a composition entitled *A Trip with the Deepest Memory*, which closely follows the teaching objectives. Zhao Min has also made some progress: introducing pictures into texts in a lively and concise way; generally following the teaching logic from macro to micro level; summarizing texts involves the structural features of teaching materials, which are not clear enough, but no longer limited to details such as words and phrases; practicing after explaining knowledge points and paying attention to the ability to use them; assignments after class is a propositional composition *My First Trip*, which shows that she has a certain understanding and expression of teaching objectives.

In the third class, Song Wei exchanged the steps of knowledge points and students' descriptions of travel experience, which not only made the whole teaching process more logical, but also provided students with the opportunity to use new knowledge; increased the prompt word *My views*, which was conducive to cultivating students' independent thinking ability; adopting the etymology to explain vocabulary, expanding students' horizons; after-class homework is an either-or writing task: summarizing the text or a journey with the deepest memory, which takes into account students with different language proficiency. After the first two explorations, the teaching activities designed by Zhao Min for the third time clearly expressed the teaching objectives. The overall arrangement of teaching steps also tends to be reasonable. One of the greatest highlights is the use of forms containing prompts to summarize the text, which not only clearly presents the structure and content of the text, but also shows the writing methods of such articles, greatly reducing the difficulty of subsequent oral and writing tasks, paving the way for students to successfully complete the task.

From the above design and analysis, we can see the difference between the two: Song Wei pays attention to the cultivation of language use ability, which provides more opportunities for students to output, supplements the relevant knowledge not appearing in textbooks. Zhao Min pays more attention to memory than to use, gradually appears the opportunity to use language in the later period; the teaching content is limited to textbooks. Additionally, through three teaching sessions, although two students have gradually grasped the teaching objectives and learned how to design teaching activities around them, Song Wei is obviously faster than Zhao Min in terms of growth speed. In terms of the quality of design, Song Wei does also slightly better than Zhao Min: the sequence of textual framework and details makes teaching ideas clear and hierarchical, which is helpful for students to grasp the main idea of the text quickly. Zhao Min's over-emphasis on knowledge points makes the teaching steps less organized and the teaching process less refreshing. The main reasons for these differences are as follows: First, different learning methods. From her own learning experience, Song Wei realized that both input and output are indispensable in English learning. Zhao Min believes that learning English means memorizing and reciting more; a lot of input will naturally bring good output. Second, the consciousness of autonomous learning is different. Song Wei has a strong sense of autonomous learning, thinking that self-study brings a sense of achievement, which makes me want to learn more things. She also holds that arrangement of learning tasks and progress according to her own situation makes her learning more efficient. Zhao Min still stays in the middle school stage where the teacher forces her to go. She is accustomed to cramming education. She learns what the teacher teaches and lacks the consciousness of self-learning. Third, learning habits are different. In the face of new texts, Song Wei usually reads the article first, finds out the general idea, and then looks up new words. This is a structured way of thinking, which can effectively train people's thinking ability and make people think clearly and speak clearly. This is why she can grasp the main points and clarify her ideas in her second class. Zhao Min believes that only by removing the obstacles of new words can she grasp the whole content of the material easily and accurately, so she is used to looking up new words first and then reading the article carefully. This way is easy to let people's attention be occupied by details, but neglect to think about the whole and grasp the core information. This habit delayed her understanding of teaching objectives and logical consideration of teaching steps and accordingly reduced the accuracy and clarity of target expression.

### *B. Teaching Management*

In the first lesson, the two students have the same problems: The blackboard writing is too arbitrary to reflect the teaching purpose and focus. The teaching equipment is not effectively used. The preset teaching plan is blindly

completed and the students' reaction is ignored. When calling on the students to participate in classroom activities, they first let the students stand up before issuing instructions, resulting in the students standing nervously and the others sitting watching the lively teaching activities. It takes so long to introduce the text that the main part of the topic is completed in a hurry. The difference is: Song Wei's courseware page content is appropriate. She has a little dependence on courseware. She can occasionally step down from the platform to mobilize students sitting in the middle and front of the classroom to participate in classroom activities. Zhao Min's courseware pages are crowded. She relies heavily on courseware. She stands on the platform all the way, and only mobilizes the students in the first three rows to participate in classroom activities.

In the second lesson, the two students had the same points: The blackboard writing was neat and organized (Song Wei presented the text structure chart and key knowledge points, Zhao Min listed the new words, phrases and grammar), but they did not record the important information in the students' answers and lost the role of assisting students in learning. They used audio equipment to cooperate with picture display. They began to pay attention to students' reactions and adopt repeating and explaining the instructions to help students understand. They asked students to execute the instructions after issuing them, improving students' responsiveness to the instructions. They shortened the lead-in time, leaving enough time for the follow-up steps. The difference is: Song Wei no longer relies on courseware. The frequency of walking off the platform increases and the range of walking expands. She can pay attention to most of the students, but still ignores the students in the corners. Zhao Min's courseware page content has decreased, and her dependence on it has lessened. She can occasionally step down from the platform and pay attention to the students in the middle and front of the classroom, while the students in the back and corners are neglected.

In the third lesson, Song Wei began to record part of the information answered by the students by blackboard, by doing so she helped students solve language difficulties, so as to promote the fluency of classroom activities. She mobilized the vast majority of students to participate in classroom activities, but still lacked effective management means for individual students who did not cooperate. Zhao Min was able to balance the use of courseware and blackboard. She supplemented the contents that are not presented on the blackboard, but still failed to make effective use of its auxiliary teaching function. For example, after introducing the past participle as attributive in theory, she asked a student to translate the sentence of I like the meals cooked by my mother from Chinese to English. After the student answered, she only orally analyzed the translation I like the meals cooked by my Mum, but the sentence is not written on the blackboard for more intuitive explanation. The content of courseware pages was appropriate. She no longer depended on the courseware. The frequency and scope of walking in the classroom has increased, and most students have been concerned. There was still a lack of ability to provide language assistance to students, for example: a student wanted to express navigation system makes our travel more convenient, but he did not know how to express navigation system in English, thus he threw his eyes to the teacher for help. Without a reply, he had to say: 导航系统 makes our travel more convenient, which aroused the laughter of the whole class. Zhao Min had to spend more than a minute to quiet the students.

Generally speaking, there are three differences between them: the degree of dependence on courseware, the scope of attention and mobilization of students, and the ability to provide language assistance. Because of the limited language ability, Zhao Min had to record all the contents in detail in the courseware, which caused the fact of too much content on the first courseware page. In order to avoid making mistakes or omissions, she mostly read the courseware content, which resulted in her over-dependence on the courseware and unable to move freely in order to see the courseware content clearly. Later, with more and more familiar with the content of courseware and gradually reaching the level of lecturing without looking at the screen, her attention gradually turned to the students, and the scope of walking in the classroom gradually expanded. As a result, more and more students were concerned and mobilized. However, providing language assistance belonged to emergencies, which was beyond the scope of preparation. Therefore, she did not give feedback to the students for help. Song Wei's language ability is strong, and she has the ability to improvise. She only needs to record directive information in the courseware, so the content of the page was appropriate and she was less dependent on it. She did not need to look at the screen at any time, so she had a wider range of walking in the classroom, thus paying attention to and mobilizing more students. She has solid language knowledge and has the ability to help students whenever she observes language barriers.

### C. *Teacher Language*

In the first lesson, the same problems of the two students are as follows: First, the teaching instructions are lengthy. Such as: I believe all of you have previewed the text in your free time, so, in order to check whether your understanding is right or wrong, I must ask you some questions to check. Second, the demonstration language is complex and logically poor. Third, there is no correction for the students. Forth, there is no careful listening to the students' answers, only simply response with "Good, OK". The difference is: Song Wei mainly used English, and the words were rare, such as: Where did the PROTAGONIST go. Explanatory language was a theoretical description, lacking easy-to-understand concrete examples. Zhao Min used Chinese more frequently. She had more grammatical errors, such as: My meaning is.... She used inaccurate words, such as: Travel expands our eyesight. She had no interpretative language.

In the second lesson, they made the same progress: the instructions were simple and direct, such as the short sentence of please answer me some questions instead of I will check ...; the demonstration language was concise and logical,

such as the use of first, second, and then etc. to express order. The difference is that Song Wei's uncommon words were reduced and the common words were increased, such as where did the writer go not where did the protagonist go. She began to listen to the students' answers and had simple comments in response. She began to correct the students' errors, but it was limited to the language form and lacked the correction of linguistic meaning and pragmatic errors. Her interpretative language adopted the way of English followed by Chinese to ensure that every student understood them, but some effective methods such as illustrations were still lacking. Zhao Min's got progress in the following aspects: Use of English has increased. Grammatical errors have decreased. Inaccuracy of words has improved. Explanatory language has been adopted, but mainly in Chinese, and only theoretical elaboration has been made. There is still a lack of awareness of error correction and the ability to give specific feedback, for example, a student said: "I have gone to Beijing when I was 6", without correcting, Zhao Min immediately entered the next stage after responding with "OK".

In the third lesson, Song Wei gave specific comments on the students' answers; paid attention to the errors in the form and meaning of the students' language and corrected them in time. For example, one student said: "That's the most wonderful experience I've travelled", and she corrected it as "That's the most wonderful travel experience I can remember". She also began to give explanatory language with examples, such as using the sentence "Rely on your assistant to do his job, but don't depend on him for everything" to help students distinguish rely on from depend on. Zhao Min mostly used English to teach. She gave explanatory language by theory first and then by example, but she mixed more Chinese into English and lacked the ability of explaining in English completely. Grammatical errors are further reduced; students' obvious errors in language form can be occasionally noticed and corrected, such as: go has been changed to went, yesterday night has been changed to last night. Feedback became more specific, such as: "Your description of your traveling experience has brought me to the scene."

From the above process, we can see that Song Wei's progress is rapid, while Zhao Min's progress is slow. This is mainly because they are faced with different language tasks. The main problems Song Wei has to solve are to grasp the students' actual level and to reduce the complexity of language accordingly so as to facilitate students' understanding. Zhao Min should not only consider the complexity of language, but also the accuracy and fluency. However, the limitation and uncertainty of her own linguistic knowledge make her unable to take these three aspects into account at the same time. Only through after-class reflection can she correct the mistakes or inappropriateness of this lecture and make better preparations for the next lecture. So she is making passive and little progress. But the students' mistakes are unpredictable and beyond the scope of preparation, so she only corrected the errors she was sure of and let go of those she was uncertain of. As she said in the interview: "I know the students' expressions are wrong, but I did not know how to correct them at that time."

#### *D. Student Learning*

In the first class, the students of the two classes have the same points: Part of them are active and part of them are indifferent in the degree of investment in learning. Nearly half of the students can not complete the teaching tasks within the prescribed time. The difference lies in the students' sense of harvest: The students in Song Wei's class think that the teacher has explained the grammar clearly, and they fully understand those points. While most of the students in Zhao Min's class think that they have not learned anything useful.

In the second lesson, two-thirds of the students in Song Wei's class can actively participate in the teaching activities, complete the teaching tasks within the prescribed time, and think that there are gains in the textual layout, vocabulary and grammar. Zhao Min has also improved student participation, but due to the lack of scaffolding information, task completion time is longer and the quality is inferior. The students believe that there are gains in text understanding and grammar learning.

In the third lesson, the students in Song Wei's class can successfully complete the teaching activities and have a strong sense of harvest. Especially explaining words from the perspective of etymology makes them think that the teacher is so great and the etymology makes them open-minded, they can remember many words at once and feel that words are not dead, but live in front of their eyes. In Zhao Min's class, due to the adjustment of teaching steps and the help of scaffolding information, students' participation has been greatly improved, and they can better complete the teaching tasks within the prescribed time. Students have a stronger sense of harvest and think that they have a clear grasp of the structure and content of the text, and also learn how to use the new knowledge points.

From the above feedback, we can see that Song Wei's teaching is more conducive to students' learning. This is first because she has formed a complete and systematic knowledge structure and thus can clearly and thoroughly narrate knowledge points. Secondly, she has a wide range of knowledge and can expand the content of the text freely. For example, when introducing Australia, she first introduced the word commonwealth, and then made an analysis and illustration of its composition and usage. Thirdly, she has effective learning methods. For example, when speaking about the new word commercial, she first outlines the story of Mercury, the God of Commerce in Greek mythology, and guides students to draw the conclusion that Merc represents commerce. Then she uses the homologous words merchant and mercy to prove and expand, which not only arouses students' interest, but also imparts learning methods. Zhao Min's knowledge is scattered and fragmented. She has not established the connection between knowledge points, can't extract it at any time and can't give a point-to-point divergent explanation. Therefore, her teaching content lacks depth and breadth, which is not conducive to students' learning.

## V. CONCLUSION

This study shows that language proficiency is closely related to teaching knowledge learning of the students at a normal school. On the surface, it seems that language proficiency has caused the difference of acquisition of teaching knowledge, but from the root, it is the learning attitude, learning methods and other factors that determine the language proficiency that determine the students' acquisition of teaching knowledge. Therefore, in the basic stage of pre-service teacher's training, i.e. freshmen and sophomores, teacher educators should focus on establishing the correct learning attitude of the students, helping them find appropriate learning methods and effectively improving their learning ability. This can not only effectively improve their English level, but also fundamentally promote their teachers' learning in the future.

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# Between Madness and Self-redemption: A Foucaultian Study of Jessie's Committing Suicide in *'night, Mother*

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**Abstract**—Having been nominated for the Tony Award for Best Play and won the 1983 Pulitzer Prize for Drama, *'night, Mother* is well-received for its realism, honesty and a universal demonstration of man's living dilemma. Jessie's emptiness and loneliness is strengthened not only by her epilepsy but also by her life out of control. Behind her firmness in committing suicide, there are her alienation from the outside forces, desperation and hysteria under her calmness, and the discipline of as well as resistance towards existence. She confesses that her intention of killing herself is for "protection" and she chooses committing suicide as the tragic consequence of madness in both her mind and body, at the same time, she makes the first and last free choice for her self-redemption.

**Index Terms**—*'night, Mother*, living dilemma, committing suicide, madness, self-redemption

## I. INTRODUCTION

As Marsha Norman's fifth well-received play, *'night, Mother* is written in 1981 and receives Pulitzer Prize for Drama when it is first staged in 1983. American theatrical critic Robert Brustein once compared this play with *Long Day's Journey Into Night* with regards to their similarities in family crisis of family members, except there is a clear demonstration of failed mother-daughter relationship in *'night, mother*, which is characteristic of Norman's plays. The popularity of this play not only results from its feminist touch, but also lies in its inclusion of the suicidal theme. Therefore, it will definitely bring on some seminal impacts to its contemporary society.

Marsha Norman's depiction of alienation and helplessness does have bearing on her real life. Born in Louisville, Kentucky, she leads a disturbing childhood without exposure to ideas that may challenge her family as pious fundamentalists, and what's worse, she has two failed marriages and two poor children. To some extent, her writing is the outlet for personal emotions and viewpoints of what the true life is like, especially from the family perspective. Therefore, her achievements in writing—American Theatre Critics Association award, Pulitzer Prize, a Tony Award nomination so on and so forth, all prove that fictional figures in her writings do find their empathy in the real world, especially for the Pulitzer Prize winner—*'night, Mother*, which delineates the human plight of existence typically in light of Jessie's suicidal option.

Revolving around Jessie's announcement of committing suicide, *'night, Mother* evolves with her mother Thelma's continuing dissuasion to her from doing that and Jessie's well-prepared arrangements of petty trifles in daily life for her mother and her steps closer to the "final judgement", for a duration about one hour and a half between them. The more further the content of the dialogue goes, the more fearful and helpless her mother feels, and the stronger Jessie's determination to commit suicide is. Being unemployed and divorced, all Jessie has for life is hatred and desperation. So her mother's pretension of helplessness is actually a trick to help her daughter to find purpose in life. However, with a husband who cheats on her and a son who has an inclination to steal things and addiction to drugs, Jessie, as an epileptic in her thirties, likens her life to the journey of a bus trip because every stop is the same, just as her life where there is no future and hope. Thelma feels jealous for Jessie's close relationship with her father even in his deathbed, and her love is not convincing and reasonable enough for Jessie's continuous life. In the end, she ends up with calling her son with a grief-stricken heart when she hears the sound of a gunshot.

When it is premiered at the American Repertory Theater, this play receives overwhelmingly favorable reviews regardless of some dissensions as to its trivial daily items such as food, "kitchen", chores and so on. However, feminists are controversial about it because some claim that the play is a demonstration of internal free choice when man loses control of life while others pose the behavior of committing suicide is in nature a symptom of capitulation. Although criticisms are divided, they do provide certain possibilities and proofs for the interpretation of this play. With the third wave of feminist movement in the 1980s and 1990s when women claim not the sexual politics but the textual politics, studies at home and abroad both have something to do the role of women. However, they are not completely the same with each other. Apart from the feminist criticisms, studies at abroad also focus on geopolitics, mirror images of violence and gender, general overview of theatrical realism and domestic issues, especially the mother-daughter relationships in terms of their specific and unique circumstances of society. In the meantime, studies at home seems a



little retarded, limited and abstract, with their attention on the psychological, stylistic, linguistic, existential side and so on. In contrast, reviews at home has less concern with the action itself—committing suicide and the significance behind it. Therefore, based on this central action of the play, this paper attempts to exert a Foucaultian study to further explore what is behind Jessie's choice of committing suicide between her madness and self-redemption—the control of life in her own hands.

## II. BEHIND JESSIE'S MADNESS

Being a woman in her late thirties or early forties, Jessie, as an epileptic, feels nothing but incapability to deal with her life, no matter with her failure in a broken marriage, or her delinquent son. Her epilepsy to some extent deprives her of the possibility to live a normal life and she regards her life as purposeless, empty and even hopeless. When she suffers from seizures, she loses control of her own normal behaviors and life, but even if she goes back to normality and reality, she is faced up with everything existential beyond alteration—the loss of her beloved dog, a failed marriage, her astray son and even the death of her father who has intimacy with her when he is alive. She is actually a woman who psychologically and physically lives on the edge of madness when she resorts to commit suicide for the final autonomy. As what Foucault poses in his book *Madness and Civilization*, “what is in question is still the nothingness of existence, but this nothingness is no longer considered an external, final term, both threat and conclusion; it is experienced from within as the continuous and constant form” (Foucault, 1988, p. 16). Jessie's final choice indicates that “madness is not linked to the world and its subterranean forms, but rather to man, to his weaknesses, dreams, and illusions” (Foucault, 1988, p. 26), and her choice is in some way an demonstration of her illusions for the afterlife when she is on the brink of death.

### A. Alienation from Outside Forces

The ninety-minute play presents a panoramic picture of a mother-daughter relationship. At the beginning, Jessie's mother has troubled her daughter with many trifles which she thinks can endow meanings and purposes with her daughter's life— “Jessie, it's the last snowball, sugar. Put it on the list, O.K.? And we're out of Hershey bars, and where's that peanut brittle...What have you been doing in there” (Norman, 2004, p. 743)? It seems that she is incapable of dealing with everything even her own life, and all she does is try to keep her daughter at her service and keep track of the whereabouts about her daughter wherever she goes. Later, when the dialogue between mother and daughter develops, we learn that she is a widow with two children, but one son lives with his wife. Besides, she lives a rather lonely and pathetic life because there is little communication and love in her marriage. “Did you love Daddy? No...It was a big fat lie, the whole thing...He felt sorry for me...He never said a word he didn't have to, Jessie...How could I love him, Jess. I didn't have a thing he want-ed” (Norman, 2004, p. 764). Therefore, Jessie, who is taken in by her when she separates with her husband Cecil, is the only one that she can have control over in her life. Her manipulation or deformed love turns out to be an impediment and prison for her daughter's seeking for identity. She not only conceals the fact that Jessie suffers from epilepsy and also arranges her marriage—“he's the best carpenter I ever saw. That little house of yours will still be standing at the end of the world, Jessie...All right! I wanted you to have a husband” (Norman, 2004, p. 771). Jessie, not like her brother who can choose to live with his wife Loretta, does not have any dominance over daily trifles or even her marriage. Her son, though behaves delinquently, can have control over his own life.

Jessie's alienation and loneliness is a clear demonstration of her reaction to the outside forces. As a result of her epilepsy, she feels complete isolation and even fails the attempt to have a whole family. For her protection, her mother Thelma hides the fact that she is an epileptic but this on the other hand, also separates her from the outside world. Her loneliness leads to her mother's decision to hire a construction worker on the porch building. What's worse, she loses her ability to have a normal work because of her epilepsy, but when her disease is under control, she loses her courage to take a step further to the outside world. Because “there wasn't anything you could say to change my mind. I didn't want you to save me. I just wanted you to know” (Norman, 2004, p. 780), her determination and passion to commit suicide—“I won't be here. If I'd ever had a year like this, to think straight and all, before now, I'd be gone already” (Norman, 2004, p. 777), in Foucault's words, is a “more constant, more persistent, and somehow more deserved cause of madness” (Foucault, *Madness*, 1988, p. 85) and this kind of strong emotion can be treated as an “interior phenomenon that arises from one's material nature spontaneously or as a consequence of the material connection to externality; all these potentially disturb stability of mind” (Strozier, 2002, p. 180). There is no doubt the fact that Jessie's determination to kill herself originates from the alienation and loneliness of her own life.

### B. Desperation and Hysteria Under Jessie's Calm

After the announcement of her tendency to commit suicide, Jessie presents herself as being very calm to be confronted with her mother's plea, fear, anger, desperation and disbelief—“Don't leave me, Jessie! No...How can I live here without you? I need you!” (Norman, 2004, p. 779). Apart from that, she copes with everything she may leave behind in detail and with patience—“I have a box of things I want people to have” (Norman, 2004, p. 779). Not like what her mother has assumed that “if you've got the guts to kill yourself, Jessie, you've got the guts to stay alive” (Norman, 2004, p. 780), Jessie suffers a lot more than anyone around her can imagine.

Under her pretentious tranquility, there is truly her desperation and hysteria—“I'm tired. I'm sad. I feel used”

(Norman, 2004, p. 755). This is actually her cry and inner voice against everything that has collapsed in her life. She is a lost woman who cannot find the direction in her world and all she can do is to resort to a dead end where there is no bother to face up with the reality. So even when Christmas which symbolizes rebirth is around the corner, she comes up with the idea of killing herself because she sees life as the way out and deliverance from suffering and pain. Life to her, is no longer the epitome of hope and future, because “I can’t do anything either, about my life, to change it, make it better, make me feel better about it. Like it better, make it work. But I can stop it. Shut it down, turn it off like the radio when there is nothing I want to listen to” (Norman, 2004, p. 759). All her words are uttered in a very short form in that she is really going through desperation and hysteria in her own mind. The more Jessie feels desperation of life, the more she desires to have the final say to her life, leaving her hysteria in mind to the verge of committing suicide. Just as what Foucault holds for hysteria, “incoercible agitation of desires” (Foucault, *Madness*, 1988, p. 150) which “they had neither the possibility of satisfying them nor the strength to master them” (Foucault, *Madness*, 1988, p. 150).

In her book *Madness in Literature*, Lillian Feder claims that: “In attempting to cover persistent and variable characteristics of actual as well as literary madness, I define madness as a state in which unconscious processes predominate over conscious ones to the extent that they control them and determine perceptions of and responses to experiences that, judged by prevailing standards of logical thought and relevant, emotion, are confused and inappropriate” (Feder, 1980, p. 5).

As a matter of fact, behind Jessie’s ostensible tranquility, there lies her intense and uncontrollable madness both physically and psychologically which results from her alienation from outside forces, desperation and hysteria for life and her final choice to end her life irrationally.

### III. DISCIPLINE AND RESISTANCE OF JESSIE

Just at the beginning of the play, the announcement of Jessie’s intention of committing suicide is in some way an indication of her resistance. Being in the phase of her middle age, she feels that she is trapped and impotent in life for the abandonment of her husband, a son who steals things and is drug-addicted, and her inability to hold a job because of her epileptic fits. Just as an emblem of the dilemma as a woman in society, she considers epilepsy as the last straw for making her out of control and unconscious, only to be dominated by others. Therefore, in her mind, she thinks that if she has no right over her birth, then she can handle the right of death by her own. Just as what Foucault describes the power function of controlling one’s own behaviors, minds and daily life. Her proclamation of killing herself is the resistance of her inner heart and responses to disciplinary forces.

#### A. *Struggle and Discipline of Jessie*

Jessie’s dialogue with her mother before the completion of her intention does reveal her inward struggle. Regardless of Thelma’s cajoling, pleading and exhortation, she remains implacable with continuous self-reflecting and self-assessing: “Riding the bus and it’s hot and bumpy and crowded and too noisy and more than anything in the world you want to get off and the only reason in the world you don’t get off is it’s still fifty blocks from where you are going? Well, I can get off right now if I want to, because even if I ride fifty more years and get off then, it’s the same place when I step down to it. Whenever I fell like it, I can get off. As soon as I’ve had enough, it’s my stop. I’ve had enough” (Norman, 2004, p. 757).

Therefore, for Jessie, life is hopeless and empty and when Christmas comes, she has a clearer awareness of how nihilistic her life is. That ninety-minute talk between mother and daughter reveals much about her living conditions—“I’ve never been around people my whole life except when I went to the hospital. I could have a seizure anytime. What good would a job do? The kind of I could get would make feel worse (Norman, 2004, p. 758).

Jessie is actually a trapper in life and she is disciplined by both of the outside forces and her own physical conditions. Her knowledge of and discourse with the whole world is limited by disciplinary and penal power. Madness in Foucault’s words, results from civilization which leads to his outstanding power theory and he emphasizes that knowledge is paramount in disciplining prisoners because “power produces knowledge (and not simply by encouraging it because it serves power or by applying it because it is useful); that power and knowledge directly imply one another; that there is no power relation without the correlative constitution of a field of knowledge, nor any knowledge that does not presuppose and constitute at the same time power relations” (Foucault, *Discipline*, 1995, p. 27-8)

Jessie’s recognition of herself is largely based on her outside forces and and the latter at the same time disciplines and puts her into great suffering and struggle. Her choice of committing suicide is to some extent a punishment from society and even if outside forces “do not make use of violent or bloody punishment, even when they use ‘lenient’ methods involving confinement or correction, it is always the body that is at issue—the body and it’s forces, their utility and their docility, their distribution and their submission” (Foucault, *Discipline*, 1995, p. 25).

#### B. *Demonstration of Jessie’s Silent Resistance*

Before she shoots herself, Jessie arranges the whole evening to stay with her mother and makes a list of things she thinks that may be convenient to her families. The reason why she rummages for her father’s gun is for “protection” (Norman, 2004, p. 745). She does not responds to her mother correspondingly and just does what she has in mind and wants to have everything well-prepared before she’s gone. She collects old towels and pillows to minimize the chaos

when she kills herself and such meticulousness presents her desire for control and dominance regardless of her numbness and negligence towards her surroundings. Besides, she even tells her mother that she should “be more selfish from now on. Now somebody’s bound to ask you why I did it and you just say you don’t know. That you loved me and you know I loved you and we just sat around tonight like every other night of our lives, and then I came over and kissed you and said, “Night, Mother, and you heard me close my bedroom door and the next thing you heard was the shot. And whatever reasons I had, well, you guess I just took them with me” (Norman, 2004, p. 785)

Jessie is actually resisting all the time when she announces her intention and her resistance is in silence. She wants to keep the root of her committing suicide a secret and distances it from anyone that may be associated with it, and she draws back to her own being as an individual with dignity. That is the demonstration of her silent resistance and her true ego. Just as what Foucault asserts in his book *The History of Sexuality*, “discourse can be both an instrument and effect of power, but also a hindrance, a stumbling-block, a point of resistance and a starting point for an opposing strategy. Discourse transmits and produces power; it reinforces it, but also undermines and exposes it, renders sexuality fragile and makes it possible to thwart it” (Foucault, *Sexuality*, 1990, p. 101).

This statement indicates the paradox of discourse to power and the counterforce of resistance. Though Jessie is mainly tortured and punished by the disciplinary power, she still holds her own control of the right of life and death and isn’t totally suppressed. She resists in her own implacable way—“she vanishes into her bedroom and we hear the door lock just as Mama gets to it” (Norman, 2004, p. 788).

#### IV. TO BE OR NOT TO BE

Although Jessie kills herself as a way to resist and an announcement for her autonomy, the fact that she commits suicide can never be treated as a tragedy too much. Suicide as a consequence of madness is a real projection of man’s living plight—to be or not to be, and the gap between hope and reality. This kind of tragedy in Aristotle’s words, is “enriched by a variety of artistic devices appropriate to the several parts of the play; presented in the form of action, not narration; by means of pity and fear brings about the purgation of such emotions” (Aristotle, 2007, p. 22). Jessie, being described in the image of a self-destructive woman for the expression of desires for self control and freedom, deserves careful deliberation.

##### A. Confession: for “Protection”

Foucault holds in his lectures at Dartmouth college that “for a long time either as a condition or redemption for one’s sin or an essential item in the condemnation of the guilty. For his salvation, one has to know ‘as exactly as possible who he is’ and, adding to this, one is required to express it as fully and explicitly as possible to other people” (Foucault, *Lectures*, 2016, p. 20).

When Thelma asks her daughter why she attempts to find her father’s gun, she replies with “protection” (Norman, 2004, p. 745) by “I’m going to killing myself” (Norman, 2004, p. 747) because “I’m just not having a very good time and I don’t have any reason to think it’ll get anything but worse. I’m tired. I’m hurt. I’m sad. I feel use...It all” (Norman, 2004, p. 755). She kills herself for the protection of her life, her dignity and her ego. Being a woman in her middle age, with a failed marriage, delinquent son, alienation from the outside world and a purposeless life, Jessie is pathetic and lost. Because of the concealment of her epilepsy, people around her feels fearful and strange towards her because “her hands are cold...Like a corpse...Jessie’ shook the hand of death and I can’t take the chance it’s catching, Thelma, so I ain’t comin’ over, and you can understand or not, but I ain’t coming’. I’ll come up the driveway, but that’s as far as I go” (Norman, 2004, p. 763). She is helpless when her epilepsy deprives her of the possibility to work normally and feels lonely and painful because even if the ambulance comes for her seizures, “all they ever did for me in the emergency room was let me wake” (Norman, 2004, p. 770). Therefore, to Jessie, if no one can help and come to her assistance, she can protect herself, by way of leaving the world which has greatly put her into struggle and loss.

Jessie’s statement of “protection” is her last autonomy in extremity and a prelude for her tragic end. Her suicidal behavior is a true demonstration of her last confession and the “representation of an action that is worth serious attention, complete in itself, and of some amplitude” (Aristotle, 2007, p. 22).

##### B. Self Redemption: Suicide as a Consequence of Madness

As a middle-aged woman who seems to be deserted by the whole world, Jessie seeks shelter in death which is a significant section of the life-death cycle. On the one hand, death may be treated as determinism which leads to people’s fear of death, however, on the other hand, death provides the possibility of people’s self-accomplishment and freedom from restraints. And that’s why Jessie is firm in her choice to commit suicide—to free herself from constraints. She is suffering a lot both physically and psychologically, and from her reason to the behavioral madness of her intention to commit suicide is a kind of confinement, which in Foucault’s words, “this particular form of sensibility traces the features proper to madness in the world of unreason. It is particularly concerned with scandal. In its most general form, confinement is explained, or at least justified, by the desire to avoid scandal” (Foucault, *Madness*, 1988, p. 66) and Jessie’s determination to kill herself, “in the general sensibility to unreason, there appeared to be special modulation which concerned madness proper, and was addressed to those called, without exact semantic distinction, insane, alienated, deranged, demented, extravagant” (Foucault, *Madness*, 1988, p. 66). Jessie chooses to have a dialogue with

only her mother and keeps everyone out of it to avoid any scandal and meddlesome persons to get involved, and even her death scene only concerns with herself and a gun, embracing that her death should be a mystery and no one should know why except herself. Her committing suicide is actually a demonstration of animal instinct to protect themselves from dangers as a consequence of madness because “madness, insofar as it partook of animal ferocity, preserved man from the dangers of disease; it afforded him an invulnerability, similar to that which nature, in its foresight, had provided for animals” (Foucault, *Madness*, 1988, p. 75).

As for Foucault, “madness shows us nothing more than the natural contents of a determinism, with the sequences of its causes, and the discursive movement of its forms; for madness threatens modern man only with that return to the bleak world of beasts and things, to their fettered freedom” (Foucault, *Madness*, 1988, p. 83) and “all these phenomenon, these strange practices woven around madness, these usages which glorify and at the same time discipline it, reduce it to animality while making it reach the lesson of the Redemption, put madness in a strange position with regard to unreason as a whole” (Foucault, *Madness*, 1988, p. 82).

On the one hand, Jessie’s announcement of killing herself is in essence a symbol for her deranged psyche; on the other hand, her final choice is a conduct of self-redemption, and she, “the madman, tracing the course of of human degradation to the frenzied nadir of animality, disclosed that underlying realm of unreason which threatens man and envelops—at a tremendous distance—all the forms of his natural existence” (Foucault, *Madness*, 1988, p. 83). Jessie’s living dilemma and derangement in life is typical for each human being’s existence.

#### V. CONCLUSION

When Jessie decides to kill herself, she suffers torture on her own psyche and she is on the brink of madness. She attempts to conduct the final autonomy to recreate her soul and reason, and reflect on her own consciousness. “Protection” is her recognition and confession of the meaning of her committing suicide and she regards it as the only way to find hope and meaning in life regardless of her psychological derangement and nihilism. She suffers pain and desperation and it seems that she is an invisible woman whom everyone does not give a little care about. She can not find her sense of belonging and chooses suicide as a consequence of madness and a way of self-redemption. Between her madness and self-redemption, there lies the discipline of outside forces and her resistance towards it.

In some sense, Jessie’s committing suicide is a way of resistance but also, it is a pessimistic and selfish behavior which rids her of the reality. This kind of determinism and selfishness is in turn strengthening her loneliness and alienation from the outside world. Human existence is essentially a trap of life-death cycle, in which human beings have no right to decide their right of birth, but the attitude towards death is what really matters.

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# Strategy Analysis of Listening Discourse Acquisition: Based on the Special Dictation Text Type

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**Abstract**—The dictation text has always been a weak point for our students in Test for English Majors-4. Discourse teaching is an indispensable part of listening teaching. This paper mainly discusses the pattern analysis and strategy methods in the four dictation text listening discourse. The content includes TEM-4 listening examination requirements, dictation text discourse analysis, the answer steps and strategy methods in dictation text. The research of this subject is designed to help students perform better in their listening exam.

**Index Terms**—strategy analysis, dictation text, test for English Majors-band 4, listening discourse

## I. INTRODUCTION

TEM-4, Test for English Majors. Since 1991, it has been implemented by the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China to inspect students from all over the country. In the TEM-4 exam, the listening score is 30 points, of which dictation text has a large proportion. It puts great demands on students' comprehensive ability and individual skills. How to get a high score in the dictation text is a test of the learner's language skills.

## II. DICTATION TEXT ANALYSIS

*The dictation part of TEM-4 exam is aimed at testing candidates' listening comprehension, spell proficiency, and the ability to use punctuation correctly. It not only examines students' language knowledge, but also tests candidates' psychological quality, sensory coordination and responsiveness. This section requires candidates to dictate a short essay about 80-90 words. The essays are widely selected and not illegitimate. The genre includes various forms such as narrative, description and explanation. The daily life and social campus are the main topics. The time of dictation text takes about 10 minutes, the score is 10 points.*

### A. Theoretical Basis of Dictation Text Analysis

In second language acquisition, discourse acquisition has higher learning efficiency than vocabulary and sentence acquisition, especially in listening activities. Traditional listening training only stays at the level of sentences, focusing only on the linguistic forms of pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, etc., not the discourse analysis, which is inefficient. Some linguists apply discourse theory to English writing, reading and translation. However, the application of discourse theory to listening teaching is rare. Halliday believes that discourse analysis has two different levels of goals: 1. To understand the meaning of the text itself, through language analysis to illustrate how the text expresses meaning and why there is such meaning; 2. To analyze the cultural context and context of discourse, and also explore the relationship between discourse and context. Discourse usually refers to a linguistic whole composed of a series of consecutive segments or sentences, with logical rationality and formal coherence. Discourse analysis is mainly based on the third function (Metafunction) of the systemic functional linguist Halliday's functional grammar---the textual function. Discourse function refers to how people organize the information when they use language, and at the same time indicate the relationship between a piece of information and other, and also shows the relationship between the transmission of information and the communicative context in which the speaker is located. The discourse function has components such as the main structure, information structure, and coherence. Any discourse has a certain discourse structure, that is, the overall structure of the discourse, and the construct is composed of context variables associated with the actual context. The same type of discourse structure has roughly the same context variable. Halliday and Hasan summarized these relatively fixed discourse structures into the discourse structure potential, referred to as SP., which includes at least four aspects: 1. Essential elements, which are essential for any type of discourse. 2. Alternative elements; 3. the order in which the essential and optional elements appear. 4. Recursion potential, that is, whether a change in an element will necessarily cause another one. Understanding discourse in the practice of listening, especially the structural characteristics of short texts can improve the level of listening comprehension.

### B. Features of Dictation Discourse in Tem-4

As stated in the Tao Te Ching: "The knower does not speak, the speaker does not know." In other words, "listening"

rather than "speaking" is the root of learning and the source of wisdom. The dictation part of the Professional Level 4 exam is designed to test candidates' listening comprehension, spell proficiency, and the ability to use punctuation correctly. It not only examines students' language knowledge and professional skills, but also tests candidates' psychological quality, sensory coordination and responsiveness. (Zou Ke, 2010)The essays are widely selected and not illegitimate. The genre includes various forms such as narrative, description and explanation. The daily life and social campus are the main topics. Moderate. The dictation part takes about 10 points, out of 10 points. The dictation recordings are recorded by experts from the United Kingdom and the United States, with English or American sounds, without any local accent. The dictation part has a wide range of subjects and diverse genres. The following topics are from the dictation part of the Professional Level 4 exam (2009-2018):

- 2009 New Year's Eve holiday
- 2010 Freshmen's Week society
- 2011 British Holidaying Habits holiday
- 2012 Eco-tourism tourism
- 2013 What Are Dreams for? dream
- 2014 Limiting the Growth of Technology technology
- 2015 Male and Female Roles in Marriage culture
- 2016 Think Positive and Feel Positive learn
- 2017 Learning Sympathy learn
- 2018 Emotional Reaction to Music learn

Discourse structure of all these topics are similar in many linguistic aspects, such as vocabulary, sentence and grammar. Take 2014 audio-script as an example:

#### Limiting the Growth of Technology

Throughout history man has changed his physical environment to improve his way of life./With the tools of technology man has altered many physical features of the earth./He has transformed woodland into farmland./He has modified the face of the earth by cutting through mountains to build roads and railways./However, these changes in the physical environment have not always had beneficial results./Today, pollution of the air and water is a danger to the health of the planet. Each day thousands of tons of gases come out of vehicles./Smoke from factories pollutes the air of industrialized areas and the surrounding countryside./The air in cities is becoming increasingly unhealthy./The pollution of water is equally harmful./In the sea pollution from oil is killing a lot of sea plants and fish./It is now necessary for man to limit the growth of technology in order to survive on earth.

Article analysis: Among them, the long sentence has a maximum of 15 words, and the short sentence has a shortest length of only 7 words. The content is introduced the impact of technological development on life. The context is clear, the difficulty is intermediate, there is no singular words and complex background knowledge, and it can be used as a special four-level training course.

In the course of listening and writing, we should obey the rule of language learning. The background knowledge in the process of listening comprehension in short texts is especially important. It can make the listener predict the next content of the discourse based on the overall characteristics of the discourse. On the one hand, it can reduce the difficulty of understanding of subsequent listening, on the other hand, it can control the force of injection, suppress irrelevant associations appearing in the brain, and avoid the phenomenon of distraction. Based on the above characteristics, we can find the rules of language use in short texts in the practice of listening teaching, and find out the teaching methods that can help improve listening comprehension through analysis. (Fang Weiwen, 2008)

### III. THE STRATEGY ANALYSIS OF DICTATION TEXT IN TEM-4

*Listening strategy, as an crucial part of language learning strategy, with learning strategy as the theoretical framework, (Fang Weiwen, 2008) can be understood as deliberate behaviors or psychological movements of the learner in order to improve the listening level when dealing with the information they hear. On the classification of listening strategies, scholars at home and abroad express their opinions. Among them, the generally accepted classification method is Learning Strategy Trilogy by O'Malley & Chamot. According to them, Learning strategy refers to the "way of input" of the learner, i.e., how to process, store, and retrieve what they learn in the brain. (Ellis, 1985) In this sense, learning strategy is learning methods, management ways and various activities to employ language during the process of learning. Appropriate learning strategies will help L2 learners improve their TL competence while inappropriate ways will directly lead to fossilization. The three classification of cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies and social affective strategies is followed by foreign scholar Vandergrift (1997). Based on the specific description and classification, he constructed a relatively complete listening strategy.*

#### A. Answer Steps in Mini-lecture

During the exam, the dictation materials were totally read four times. The first time is read at normal speed, and the speech rate is 120 words per minute, so that the candidates can understand the material. When the second and third readings are made, leaving a gap of about 15 seconds between the groups, so that the candidates can write. The fourth time, then read at normal speed, let the candidates check. After the dictation recording is finished, the candidate has two

minutes of review time. So it asks us to grab the key points and make a response in the fastest time. To achieve this, the following guidelines must be observed.

1. To understand the general idea for the first time

After understanding the topic, you need to immediately grasp the time before the start of the essay text for fast prediction. The prediction should be targeted, mainly by using your own background knowledge and writing experience, association with the topic, possible vocabulary into a phrase; association and essay topic related synonyms, such as (08 years paper) career; similar and appear in the text words have job, work, occupation, position, etc.; associations and essays related to the tortuous change words, such as (07 years) advertising can be associated with the advertises, advertisement; association and essay topic related to the relationship between the upper and lower meaning, such as (06 years) the Internet has a relationship of ups and downs and the words appearing in the text are online, games, chat rooms, etc. The first time you listen to the sound, you will comprehensively grasp and integrate the meaning of the text. The key point is to understand the general idea: if you can't understand all of them, you can also integrate the cultural camp by catching the key essays in the text. For example, when listening to the 2009 New Year's Eve, according to the friends or family parties, drinks, fireworks, clock, 12, resolution in the text, you can reason that the essays are connected in tandem, that is, on New Year's Eve, people will reunite with friends and family. Have a party, or go out for a drink. Fireworks will be released that night. At 12 o'clock in the evening, people will count down to meet the New Year and make a New Year's wish...

2. To write the second and third times while listening

Pay attention to the first sentence and the outline. The first sentence or the first paragraph of the essay is often a summary of the content of the essay, such as the purpose of the talk, the main content, the author, the argument, the time, place and cause of the story. Therefore, if you grasp the first sentence during dictation, you can usually catch the essay. These major information can contribute to then grasp the background knowledge of the essay is conducive to dictation. Grasp the group and capture keywords. When reading the recording in the second time, you must first understand it in units of meaning group, you should grasp the sentence structure and keywords to record, and then try to make up other words when listening to the third time.

Important information keywords include: different forms of verbs, nouns indicating time, place, characters, adjectives and figures indicating the person's emotional attitudes.

3. Leaning filling for the fourth time

The fourth time is read as normal speech rate, and there are two minutes of review time. Candidates should seize the time to check carefully and correct some mistakes caused by carelessness and neglect.

### *B. Learning the Strategy Methods in Dictation Text*

Confucius said: If a worker wants to do something good, he must first sharpen his weapon. How to build confidence in the exam? We also need to master certain strategic methods in listening learning. There are some methods which can help you overcome the difficulties better in listening.

1. To overcome anxiety and build self-confidence

It is a natural phenomenon that words, sentences and even some contents cannot be understood in the dictation text. Fang Wenwei said that the principle of redundancy of discourse information, this part of the information which not be understood may be reappeared in other forms elsewhere in the discourse, or it can be reasonably guessed by the context or background knowledge of the discourse. On the basis of the potential structure SP of the discourse, the content of the necessary components of the discourse can be inferred, and this part may be only an auxiliary element, even if it is not understood, it may not affect the listening. In this way, students can truly establish a psychological advantage and lay a good foundation for rational speculation and prediction using textual features. (Fang Weiwen, 2008)

2. To strengthen the basic skills

Improve the English listening level, familiar with the different ways of listening and pronunciation of English and American families, and the pronunciation and intonation. Einstein said that "interest is the best teacher." It is conceivable that learning interest plays an important role in our life. In our free time, we can watch some of the classic English subtitle movies that we are interested in, and consciously imitate and follow, extract some authentic phrases, classic famous phrases and interesting background knowledge. Sometimes it is a background error, let us lose points in the exam. For example, ridiculous mistakes can occur because of the misunderstanding of the sound, but without the use of background knowledge or common sense to judge the meaning of the words or sentences that are heard. For example, due to the similar pronunciation of civil and silver, candidates have mistakenly listened to civil as silver. But according to background knowledge, we know that in the United States, marriage can be held in a religious ceremony or in a civil ceremony. Therefore, the civilization is correct.

The dictation text discourse as a model for learning English phonetics is also an important medium for us to learn grammar and vocabulary. While watching American TV dramas and listening to the radio, we expanded our vocabulary and knowledge likewise. As an English major, we must be proficient in the words and idioms listed in the syllabus. Constantly improve your global vision, and get more exposure to new words and new knowledge. In the meantime, the old words can not be neglected, so that you can learn new things and use more words. In addition, you should collect and sort out some words with multiple meanings. In this way, even if you encounter strange words or use the familiar words newly, you can be not afraid of making mistakes. Of course, a large number of intensive readings, extensive

listening, and long-term reciting of some world famous articles should be conducted.

Professional level four not only examine our expertise, but also our extracurricular knowledge. The mini-lecture listening discourse is a model for learning speech and an important medium for us to learn grammar and vocabulary. While watching the American TV dramas and listening to the radio, we have also expanded our vocabulary and knowledge. The standard vocabulary of the English Major CET is 8,000 words, and you need to master at least 5,000 words. As an English major, we must be proficient in the words or idioms listed in the syllabus. Constantly improve your global vision, and get more exposure to new words and new knowledge. At the same time, the old words can not be neglected, so that you can learn new things and use more words. In addition, you should collect and sort out some words with multiple meanings. In this way, even if you encounter strange words and use the familiar words flexibly, you can not be afraid and courageous.

### 3. To be careful with the listening traps

Misunderstanding is one of the most common mistakes in our dictation text. The difference between English pronunciation and American pronunciation, the distinction between homonyms and near-sound words, the mastery of weak-sounding syllables, incomplete plosives, and even pronunciation. In consequence, when listening to an article, be sure to judge which word is based on context, etc. There are the following common mistakes:

The difference between English pronunciation and American pronunciation, the resolution of homophones and near-sound words, weak syllables, incomplete plosive, continuous pronunciation. Also, writing mistakes is also a mistake we have made. Such as capitalization problem, grammatical error, background knowledge error and punctuation error.

### 4. "Listening" and "speaking" combination

In the current classroom, there are often "listening" and "speaking" separations, with separate listening and speaking classes. In fact, They are interdependent and interact with each other affects. In line with the theory of communication, the core of the process of verbal communication is the transformation between the linguistic sign and the meaning it represents. The speaker must translate meaning into sound (linguistic symbol), and the listener should transform the sound into meaning. This transformation process is mainly done by the brain, the vocal organs and the listening organs. Therefore, to complete the conversion activities, listening and speaking not only rely on the common physical, physiological and psychological foundations, but also in the process of conversion, the two influence each other and promote each other, the basis of listening is the basis, providing a true context for the theory. It is the precondition for listening, and the quality of listening can be tested to promote the mastery of listening skills. Therefore, in order to develop students' oral communication ability in the teaching of English, it is necessary to combine listening and speaking to cultivate, in light of absenting language environment, we need to create a real context of the classroom, so that students have an opportunity both listening practice and speaking. Gradually, it makes listening and speaking skills develop together and improve the level of oral communication. (Gao Mingxia, 2001)

We can use copious practical teaching methods to let students speak out in the listening class. For example, after listening to the recording or watching the video materials, students should repeat as much as possible in English according to the notes taken. If there is difficulty, the teacher can be given some questions as a guide. (Yang Yan, 2014) To encourage students to open their mouths as much as possible. Only when they can speak can they listen, only when they can listen can they write correctly. This relates directly to the question I put forward before.

### 5. To develop shorthand and predictive ability

Shorthand is a basic skill that students need to master when doing physical problems. (Luo Xuelin, 2016) On one hand, it can reduce the difficulty of understanding of subsequent listening, on the other hand, it can control the force of injection, suppress irrelevant associations appearing in the brain, and avoid the phenomenon of distraction. Sometimes, in the dictation text listening test, we clearly understand each word, but we can't write all the content. Due to the distinction in students' memory, the meaning of more than ten words and sometimes even eight words can only be recorded in the first half or half of the sentence. Seriously affecting the integrity of the group, it also makes students lose confidence. In addition to deliberately practicing memory, students should be trained to develop good dictation and writing habits. That is, while listening and writing, first write the meaning of the group structure. We can start writing immediately at the beginning of the second reading. You don't need to understand the meaning of the words. First, write down the first letter or highlight the consonant. When writing, use the notional word and the group of the subject as the object structure, back to supplement after. This can use the pen to make up for the weakness of memory.

At the same time, when we practice after class, we must also consciously use the group of meaning to understand and remember. If time is too late, you can use your familiar symbol abbreviations instead. Use the dictation method to select the appropriate writing skills. Listening and writing are a pair of spears and shields, so the relationship between the two must be handled correctly. In dictation, writing should be based on the following three steps: 1. listen; 2 while listening and writing; 3 listening while checking.

The first time is the full text reading, should pay attention to the overall understanding of the text, (Wang Ping, Liu Hongquan, 2008) properly fill in some words and make some notes, to listen to the main, as a supplement; the second and third times are repeated in sentences, to If the group is paused, the candidate can use the pause between the sentences to record the content, and should do both dictation and listening while listening. At the last time, check and check the main points of the content, and minimize the grammar, spelling, etc. in the language error.

### 6. To learn to choose according to the scoring method



After the dictation part of the scoring standard reform, each of the ten essays scored independently. Each group is mainly based on the size of the dictation error. Including singular and plural, capitalization, definite article and other levels of deduction. In the dictation material, the long-term group accounts for 30%, the medium-length group accounts for 40%, and the short-term group accounts for 30%. Two big mistakes in one group of meanings are zero points.

Therefore, we must distinguish between key points and non-key points when listening. We must strive to score ,meanwhile, we should learn to choose in accordance with the scoring standards.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

The English National Level 4 Unified Test Listening Test is a composite part. The level of dictation depends on the ability to listen and write. The key to improving dictation is to strengthen all kinds of relevant knowledge, improve the training of skills, master the language structure, the overall understanding of the text and the memory. This paper is designed to analyze the features of dictation text in TEM-4 and relevant strategies to improve language proficiency. In order to further take advantage of the dictation form, more empirical researches are needed and intensive study should be conducted. Although this study is important for L2 learners, there are many deficiencies in it. For this reason, it is actually not convincing and persuasive. It is hoped that the strategy analysis of dictation text be conducive to the improvement of learners' performance. The conscious training of listening strategies is beneficial for candidates to improve their self-confidence and promote the coordinated development of cognition, emotion, skills and interest, will other aspects of health development. To some degree, it will help students improve the students' listening level and have a better language applied ability.

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# Foregrounding and Metaphor: A Stylistic Study on Hamza Yusuf's Religious Poems

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**Abstract**—Poetry not only communicates information but also arouses the readers' feeling to a thoughtful sense and the life's perception of the author through parable objects. Poetry could be perceptually prominent if it is expressed through linguistic deviation, which further defined as "foregrounding". This article is an attempt to provide understandings from the analysis of Shaykh Hamza Yusuf's religious poems that engage both semantic and sound patterns (phonological) analyses. The semantic level of the poems dealt with metaphorical analysis as realized in several lines that observed the foregrounded words, phrase and sentences which are semantically deviant, and are classifiable into personification and depersonification. At the phonological level, the sounds patterns cover the use of certain sounds found on major lines of both poems, the distribution of similar sound patterns can produce the aesthetic effects, the common observed styles found in Hamza Yusuf's religious poems are the repetitions or anaphora, assonance, alliteration, rhythmic sounds of the beginning, in- and end rhymes, and the middle rhyme.

**Index Terms**—religious poetry, foregrounding, metaphor, semantic and phonological level

## I. INTRODUCTION

Poetry as a literary work is a manifestation of the poet's thoughts, ideas, allusions, and messages either directly or indirectly conveyed to the publics. Richards (1970) in his book *science and poetry* suggests (1926) that 'poetry is a unique form of discourse'. In essence, poetry not only communicates information but also arouse the readers to a thoughtful sense and the life's perception of the author through parable objects, which in terms of it meaning can be differently perceived. To understand the content of a poem, a person needs to have knowledge of poetry appreciation; otherwise shall not be able to appreciate the poetry. Thus, any observer of poetry should have an understanding of poetry appreciation, and the sense of beauty of the expressed poem (poetic thoughts).

Poetic thoughts aesthetically realized through particular expressions that for common people these can be complicated to be expressed. A poet needs to balance the presumptions of both 'accuracy' and 'decency', which means poetry observer should stay focused on the accurate expression of 'poetic ideas', in addition to deeply thinks of how these expressions can be accessible to the audiences (Furman, et al., 2006, Sherry & Schouten, 2002). This article mainly aims to answer the question on how the poet express his poetic thoughts within religious genre?, can anyone of the readers beyond the poet's 'episteme' or background knowledge to understand the whole meaning of each poetical line. Literary critics view this as an interpretive question, which depends on the fineness and clarity of style (stylistics) of the author's intuition, the ability to experience the poetic thoughts (in addition to be able to reflect back on each of those experiences). Specifically, I propose a theoretical question, as does Richards, Roman Jakobson and experts of Russian formalists view poetry as a realization of language functions.

Stylistics is a discipline associated with the language of literature in particular, despite it often it frequently addressed to some variety of language use, unexceptional to literature. Stylistics provides assistance for observers of language literature to take a deep look at what the author attempts to say through potentially appealing meanings of the poetical expressed language. The written language resources, i.e., figurative language such as metaphors and similes are the most respectively used in all kinds of speech and written language. In addition to the use of literary devices, the presence of metaphoric elements are one of the most widely used in any literary texts; it is even a specific 'package' that provides a greater contribution to the meaning (Black, 2006, p.231).

Stylistics provides ways of linguistic analysis on literary works. Stylistics serves as a medium between literature and linguistic studies. The linguistic elements in the language of literary work can be fully understood into its distinguishing patterns and structures; it provides ways to describe such a genre. In its historical journey, stylistics had not yet been claimed as a discipline until modern times. In terms of the methodology, stylistics concerns the linguistic analysis. The typical modern literary stylistics focuses mainly on the area of literary criticism (cf. McIntyre, 2012, Xin Li & Shi, M., 2015), i.e., on the case of poetry, stylistics helps language observers examining the interpretative meanings as realized in phonetic phenomena (Miall, 2001, p.56). A Stylistic study of Robert Frost's Poetry by Sumera Batool et al. (2014) suggested points of view that "an interpretation of a literary work, especially poetry, is diverse for every reader of the

texts. Interpretations should never be qualified as the only fact; there are different views and understanding that can make an interpretation of a poem accessible for every reader.” Apart from differently produced interpretations about the poetical meanings, Michael Toolan (2016) in his article “Stylistic iconicity and Love’s two orders of language” argued that “stylisticians majorly unaware of their difficulties, that the strong connection of the second-order description to the first-order description intermediated by the iconicity”. He maintained a view that by ‘the stylistic iconicity’ the addressee of a poem can ‘grasp the meaning without prior knowledge of the language in which it is carried’ (Toolan, 2016, p.7).

Some of the text features which reflect more effects to the readers known as ‘foregrounding’. Öztekin (2013) explained foregrounding as linguistic elements that concern affecting the psychological state of the readers. The analysis of foregrounded features provides us with a significant insight about the meaning patterns of poems”. He (2013) further explained that “foregrounding may lead to repetitions and deviations in the poetical language”. The foregrounded features according to Miall (20011, pp.66) in his paper “*Sounds of contrast*” involve doing analysis on the assonance or metrical effects at the phonetic level, grammatical level and semantic effects of metaphor.

This article attempts to provide understanding, descriptions and interpretation of the metaphorical and foregrounding use in Sheikh Hamza Yusuf’s religious poems. Hamza Yusuf Hanson is renowned for both as an Islamic scholar and Sufi, and is an influential Moslem American from Washington, USA. He converted to Islam in 1977 at the age of 17 years and spent many years studying in Arab countries, such as Emirate United Arab Emirates, Algeria, Saudi Arabia and Mauritania. In addition, he is also the founder and leader of Zaytuna College in Berkeley. It is the first Islamic college accredited and internationally awarded as a campus that applies classical Islamic education in the Western world, which is dedicated to revive the methods of science and teachings of the Islamic tradition.

The deviation of linguistic elements attributed in literary texts is theoretically called foregrounding; it evokes readers with the analogy of a figure represented by poetical lines (Leech, 1969, p. 57). The poet creates “*defamiliarization*” through linguistic “dislocation” that calls readers’ attention the awkwardness of the portrayed or depicted world in the literary work (Hardison, 2010). This study seeks to provide a general picture and understanding of how religious poetry is being represented through perspective of both literary and linguistic studies. It takes a stance from previous studies conducted by Sumera Batool et al. (2014), Michael Toolan (2016). The present study probes the religious poetry which expresses different kinds of positions, attitudes, and feelings directed by the poet to evoke certain meanings. The linguistic elements in the language use of a literary work can be fully understood into its distinguishing patterns and structures emphasizing on the foregrounded aspects in semantic and phonological level.

## II. THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS

The beginning of the 20th century, members of the Formalist Linguistic Circle in Moscow (the Russian formalists), such as I.A Richards had a focus interest on the analysis of texts of language in relation to the manifestation of the psychological effect on the linguistic structure. Roman Jakobson left Moscow at the time of the Russian Revolution and moved to Prague, where he became a member of the Prague Structuralists Association. Both associations contribute in developing the so-called theory of ‘foregrounding’ (Preminger and Brogan, 1993, p.411). This view suggests that some parts of the text have more effect on the reader than others in terms of interpretation, because the portions of textual linguistically deviant or specially patterned in some cases, making these elements are psychologically salient (or ‘foregrounded’) by the reader.

### A. Foregrounding

Foregrounding is a concept that was formerly introduced by Czech theorist Jan Mukárovsky (1964 as cited in Miall & Kuiken, 1994, p.390) with original term *aktualisace* and was translated in English into foregrounding. The notion refers to the stylistic variations that can be found in literature, among those literary variations such as alliteration, rhyme (at the phonetic level), inversion and ellipsis (at the grammatical level) and metaphor and irony (at the semantic level). Furthermore, a good poetic text observation analysis can be done by examining the important foregrounded parts by author and describe the elements of analysis and interpretation that connect those parts together. Having characteristically positioned as part of a text feature, foregrounding enables the author to highlight the expressed written thoughts or feeling that can either be consciously or unconsciously stated [...]” (Short 1997, p.36; Miall & Kuiken, 1994). Some authors named this strategy as linking features “cohesion of foregrounding” (Leech 1969). These foregrounded features in the text violated the constructed, defined and specified rules at each level of language. Native speakers, like many second language learners acknowledge that this feature is odd, which marked by stylistics and are substantially expressive in nature. However, as firmly stated by Short (1997, pp. 37), we need to ensure that “our intuition is reasonable, and not based on personal whim”. Thus, we need to analyze and describe the nature of the deviations.

Foregrounding is quite often studied in poetical texts where the elements of language (reflecting the aesthetic function) considered as the main source of the unexpected language use tool. Leech further explained that “foregrounding is a means to achieve a goal: it is the creation of an effect, a special effect which invokes the analogy of a figure (Leech 1969, p. 58-61). Pragmatic dimension that discusses it for it “is much more than a neutral objective description over the world” and intended to explain the social situation” (cf. Fowler 1986, p.9). Deviation, as clearly defined by Short (1996, pp.11) is a “linguistic phenomenon which reflects a significant psychological effect on readers

(and hearers) of a poem". Similarly, a literary text would be perceptually prominent if it is expressed linguistically deviant. This psychological effect according to Short (1996) is so called "foregrounding". The "foregrounded" element in any given text is a pivotal part to fully understand the conveyed message (s).

Through foregrounding, everything the poet wants to tell with the poetry is about his personal, more importantly "real" experiences and observations, through identical movements and insightful words that go hand in hand (Leech, 1969, p.65) whether to reflect spiritual and physical experiences of him. Shaykh Hamza Yusuf, the poet whose poems are going to be analyzed in this study aroused the impression of his audiences (both listeners and readers) by giving certain emphasizes on the foregrounded aspects in semantic and phonological level. These foregroundings enhance reliability of the poet and his facts related to the created poem. In this hopefully simple study, we will address our stylistic interpretation to the two poems of a well-known American Islamic Scholar, Shaykh Hamza Yusuf Hanson entitled "A Tree Knelt in Praise" and "Spring's Gift" through comparative metaphor, sound patterns (parallelism), and semantic deviations.

### B. Metaphors

Metaphors are conceptually and traditionally acknowledged as the language use that functions to compare between the target (a-term) and the base (b-term). Not surprisingly metaphor as many linguists would call as is a simple feature-matching process, but some may be defined it as 'a process of mapping between two different conceptual domains', it is 'basic schemes through which people conceptualize their experience and their external world'. In general, people use metaphor to express many things in their daily life interactions. Metaphors are not often found in poetical thoughts (imagination world), the complexity of real world problems is quite often solved by metaphors and analogies, the aim of metaphorical expression drives the point of perceptions between attitudes and mind (cf. Arora and Arora, 2015, p. xvi, case for metaphors in Socio-Engineering). At least, none of the available theories truly satisfied the explanation on the concept of metaphor, since it engages the understanding of language in relationship with the human mind (Paprotté and Dirven, 1985; Lakoff and Johnson; Mey, 1994 cited in Black, 2006, p.102).

## III. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

### A. Personification

Personification is defined as using comparative similes and metaphors to give living qualities to non-living objects or ideas, which is part of the figurative language.

**A tree who like us loved to pray** (3)

**In adoration every day** (4)

("A Tree Knelt in Praise")

The compared element of an adjective 'like' and the noun 'adoration' express the human feelings, but both semantically deviant from the nature of a tree. The pragmatic inference for the denoted thing implies that 'a tree whose existence generated benefits, the presence protects anything under it from the scorching heat and for the produced fruits and the woods benefiting human needs of life'. The distinguishing componential meanings of "**Agree who like us loved to pray**" and "**in adoration everyday**", the phrase 'happy' and 'adoration' supposed to be juxtaposed with the human being's natures (semantic deviation). Though, it is somewhat relevant to animals which instinctively feel pleased, while in *adoration* that closes in meaning to the word 'submission' (for fear and feel threatened, etc.) where both imply the same living entities that can interact towards one another. The personification in above passage imply certain meaningful expression that the author needs to convey to the publics in which the 'tree' is a figurative expression of the presupposition for 'the Prophet (Muhammad, the last prophet of Islam)' as a subject figure who provides a lot of benefits for mankind, and pleased with 'us' (the followers) who obey the God's command (obeying His command through righteous deeds). The foregrounded aspects of such sentence can perhaps be fully understood by readers of the same episteme (background knowledge) in order to properly use the mental knowledge known as inference. To an extent, the inference can only be made by readers who know the indirectly described figure behind the poetical lines.

The other similar data of personification in Shaykh Hamza Yusuf's poem is on below passage.

**It taught us all to clearly see** (17)

("A Tree Knelt in Praise")

The compared elements of the pronoun *it* (refers to the tree), personifically gives 'shade' and 'teach'. The pragmatic inference for the denoted act of 'taught' is metaphorical to the nature of shade giver, assuming that a person who is under the tree shall be protected from the scorching sun or heavy rain; it enables a person to feel comfortable and is able to clearly look around. The differentiator of such meaning of a sentence structure "**it taught us to clearly see**", in essence, the reference of tree is an entity that cannot overshadow the person (actively) instead the person who shaded themselves by coming across to and situated themselves under the tree. Obviously here, the semantic deviant in the expression of 'teaching', just being able to teach is an act that can 'only' be done by human beings. Therefore, the word element in the semantic meaning for a tree is, therefore, unable to teach, the verbal expression of 'teaching' is beyond the collocation of the tree and its attributive elements. By the metaphoric expression or simile reflected from the use of personification, the message directs the public readers contemplating to the role of Muhammad as a prophet and teacher

who literally comfort his followers (metaphorically expressed with 'shade') that thereof someone enlightened with the light of 'science', allowing them to see clearly to *the truth* and *falsehood*.

I envy ***the sand that met his feet*** (1)

(Spring's Gift-)

The compared element is the 'sand that met his feet' presupposed 'the prophet who was sent by God in a desert place, Arab'. The pragmatic inference for this case is that the significance for such utterance, the meeting was testified by the God's creation (sand) with the inferred human figure (Muhammad). The differentiator components of meaning for 'the meeting sand' implies the will of such person to step on the sand, so there was a meeting between his (Muhammad) feet with the sand, conversely sand did not meet the person's feet. The use of personification to express jealousy of the author on the meeting sand, it was the people who lived in the time of the prophet Muhammad, and became friends of him. Thus, *the sand that met his feet* semantically deviant, since the action of meeting can only be paired to the living and self-moving creation or being.

### B. Depersonification

Depersonification is a kind of figurative language that featured humans as animals, natural objects, or other inanimate objects. It is the opposite of personification. The below passage provides examples of depersonification in Shaykh Hamza's poem.

With his, ***whose face did shine so bright*** (9)

(Spring's Gift)

The compared element is the human body part, 'the face' (implied Muhammad's) '*did shine so bright*'. The equalizer components of meaning for the 'shine or shining' closes in meaning to the word 'illuminating', which is the absolute nature possessed by 'light', and is a source of energy providers that can benefit all his surroundings. The writer evokes a sense that the nature of the told person has a quality of shining face, because of his obedient to the God, performing prayers so often. Contextually, in Islamic belief, someone who often performs prayers, his face turns brightening or clean (because of taking ritual ablution before the prayers begun). Therefore, the describe figure was 'Muhammad shoes face did shine so bright' as oppose to the darkness. Conversely, the 'darkness' in opposite to 'bright' or lightness is conceptually defined in negative term as a quality which commonly associated other distinguishing concepts such as 'ignorance', 'adversity, and' 'contempt'. The inference of such word meaning is to denote Muhammad as a human being whose body and soul are comparable with something that generates physical light such as the sun, lamps or lanterns. But the dimension of light which the author wishes his audiences to reflect was the light in spiritual dimension, in which the Prophet Muhammad is the source of light 'science' whose teaching and life guidance removes the humans' ignorance. Here, we would say for the foregrounded aspect of '*the face did shine so bright*' and many more found in the passages is a highly motivated deviation (cf. Leech and Short, 2007, p.48), especially the way the author views the figure in his poems (with a sense of highly valued human or perhaps tend to be exaggerated).

For ***he was born to grace our Spring*** (46)

***With lilies, flowers, life's rebirth*** (47)

(Spring's Gift)

The compared elements found in the sentence '*he was born to grace our Spring, lilies and other flowers*'. The equalizer component of meaning for the word '*birth*' is the presence of an important person on earth, and was a mark for a new dawn bright. The birth of the implied figure was Muhammad, the one who intermediates man with the God to teach humans life nobility. The author figuratively used the parable of Spring as a peaceful concept of word, like the green was the mark for the Spring, and is accordingly the highest spectrum of colors (Hamza Yusuf's speech before reciting the poem Spring's Gift). The historical context for such account is the Prophet Muhammad's birth was coincided with the arrival of spring, and during his lifetime he chose the color of green as his favorite color. Conceptually, the 'green' as a marker for the 'Spring' arrival, for it is also correlated with 'photosynthesis' symbolizing the process of natural life (plants, extensively the world creatures). In addition, the color of green is a primary color that must be seen by a person who gets up early in the morning and then opens the window at the first time (the green color of the plants), all of which relate the core marks of the beginning of a better life, the foregrounded phrase here is on 'life's rebirth'. While the implicit metaphorical meanings displayed by 'lilies and some mentioned flowers' can be specifically defined, to borrow the concept of Christianity, that the lilies is associated with a sense of nature and attitude of obedience (devotion). In the metaphor of the Christianity, the lily is a symbol of obedience, majesty and holiness, "lily meaning and Symbolism".

Or he was sent by God to men (37)

***To hone their spirits' acumen*** (38)

(Spring's Gift)

The compared elements '*to hone their spirits' acumen*' can be pragmatically inferred as "sharpening spiritual acuity" "establishing spirituality". The equalizer components of meaning is 'to set efforts for a change', the parable of the word 'to hone' is 'to sharpen' i.e., a knives or sword, sharpening the blunt part (of blade), whereas in humans, sharpening is metaphorical as upholding the truth to the soul / spirituality. The distinguishing component of meaning 'to hone their spirits' acumen' is that between the object and the soul are materially different. In addition to being sharper in spirit's acumen' enables a person to cut or peel the reality of an object. 'To hone spirit's acumen' semantically deviant, because

the word 'honing' is generally collocated with the parts of an object that is used for cutting or peeling the other objects (of material).

### C. Poetic Sound Patterns

Aspects of sound in poetry are quite substantial to both the writers and the enthusiast readers or listeners; sounds significantly serve to provide melodious poetry. Likewise, the selection and placement of words within a poem are much more relied on the value of the sounds; hence the power of the words generated responsive thoughts to the readers or listeners. According to Wellek and Warren (1977, pp.158), "every work of literary art is, first of all, a series of sounds out of which arises the meaning". Furthermore, Pradopo (2004, p.1) elaborated that the sound style covers the use of certain sounds to achieve certain levels of effect, namely the aesthetic effect, among the common observed styles are the repetitions, assonance, alliteration sounds along with rhythmical divisions such as beginning rhyme, the in- and end rhymes, and the last is the middle rhyme.

#### Assonance and Alliteration

In poetry often encountered rhyme that occurs in a single line. The similarities can be realized in consonant sounds or 'alliteration' and the vocal so called 'assonance'.

A tree who gave our *scholars shade* (9)

A tree whose *worth cannot be told* (13)

Or ever *lent* or *bought* with gold (14)

A Tree Knelt in Praise)

I'm jealous of *honey he* tasted *sweet* (2)

It's *pride* that *blinds* us from the *sight* (39)

*Muhammad has God* on *his side* (44)

(Spring's Gift)

On the line meter (9) appeared as alliteration, s-s → scholars, shade.

On the line meter (13) appeared as assonance, o-o-o → worth – cannot – told.

On the line meter (14) appeared as alliteration, t-t → lent – bought

On the line meter (2) appeared as assonance, i-i-i → honey – he – sweet.

On the line meter (39) appeared as alliteration, ai-ai-ai → pride – blinds – sight.

On the line meter (44) appeared as alliteration, d-d-d →

Muhammad, God, side & h-h → his, has.

On the line meter (44) appeared as assonance, a-a → Muhammad, God.

The vocal and consonant of sounds repetition in above passage produced rhythmical sounds, and sonority that serve to stiffen the words but in melodious way to evoke certain senses created by the author. Apart from the unique use of both consonant and vocal, do the sounds of words really convey meaning?, of course any poetical sound convey meaning, certainly "the specific phonemes" as emphasized by Miall (2011, p.56) "encode innate meaning, whether visual, spatial or kinesthetic". In the poem of Spring's Gift' on the line meter 44, the author establishes alliteration that can be combined with assonance within a single line meter. This creates influential and thoughtful sense which further produces a more melodious atmosphere. Thus, the poetic effects on the above passage can electively affect the listeners or readers' feeling on the similar symbolic sounds.

#### Rhyme

Sound repetition generally realized in poetry, including the previously described, the assonance and alliteration. Anywhere the rhyme situated, whether in the beginning, middle and end pattern reflect aesthetic / beauty language in accordance with the repeated sounds: "first, the repetitions are entirely a matter of sound [.....] make enough impression on the ear to significant in the sound pattern of the poem" (Perrine, 1984, p.182), the mechanical repetitions often called parallelism, which according to Jakobson (1960, pp.423) "is an apportionment of invariants and variables". That is why, the sound of poetry often created to be expressive (Miall, 2011, p.56). Furthermore, the repeated sounds function as an evaluation and the main sustainer of the symbolic meaning which closely related to taste or sense, as described Perrine (1984, pp.177) "the poet, unlike the man roommates uses language to convey only information, chooses his words for sound as well as for meaning and he uses the sound as a means of reinforcing his meaning".

In common poetry, the most commonly used of poetical lines are:

#### Anaphora

Anaphora is a kind of linguistic units repetition which can be found in the form of words or phrases appeared in each first line or the successive sentence (Sumarlam, 2013, p.56), it significantly function to affirm, emphasize and demonstrate the importance and gives the intensity of the utterances or sentences.

A *tree* who gave our scholars shade (9)

And never asked that it be paid (10)

A *tree* whose needles never hurt (11)

(A Tree Knelt in Praise)

*With* those who prayed, and fasted too (15)

Simply because he told them to (16)

*With* truth and kindness, charity (17)

*To* hear him say there is one God (36)

Or he was sent by God to men (37)

*To* hone their spirits' acumen (38)

(Spring's Gift)

The foregrounded aspects shown by anaphora in each first line of the second poem of Shaykh Hamza Yusuf above reflect interests of the author to the readers. By foregrounding, the poet intentionally leads the reader's attention to a certain point. In showing the identical elements of poetry, the author wishes the readers to capture the importance of the poetic feature of language that he observed. Those identical elements can be either similar or contrastive forms with the successive line afterword, i.e., the identical feature as realized in phrasal repetition "a tree who.....and a tree whose....." "the use of the beginning line with identical verb bases "to hear..... and to hone.....". In such a case, the author expects the audiences to infer from the passage. It significantly implies a meaning that Muhammad was neither a God nor the one who would claim himself so. But he was just the messenger of the God to invite people declaring a fact that 'there is only one God' in the universe. In addition, the poem "The Spring's Gift" reflects the rhymical lines that observed less anaphoric structure in cooperation with "A Tree Knelt in Praise" poem.

#### Internal or Middle Rhyme

Middle rhyme line is the symmetrical sound in the middle between the two lines of a poetry, Perrine (1984, p.180) suggested a view that middle rhyme occurs 'when one or both riming words are within the line'.

A tree whose *worth* cannot be told (13)

Or ever lent or *bought* with gold (14)

A tree who *showed* us all its height (15)

(A Tree Knelt in Praise)

Of a sun *whose* light could not compete (8)

With his, *whose* face did shine so bright (9)

(Spring's Gift)

Middle rhyme line of the same occurring sounds on both poems established harmonious atmosphere between the center sounds. Middle rhyme evokes the listeners' feelings so that it can spur the desired poetic atmosphere. The above center rhyme realized not only in words level of form but also the syllables. In comparing both poems, 'A Tree knelt in Praise' poem consist more middle rhyme rather than the Spring's Gift.

#### End Rhyme

The end rhyme is considered to be the most rhyme pattern used by poets. It is similar sounds positioned in the end of a line, as described by Perrine (1984, p.180) "when both riming words are at the ends of lines".

A tree who humbly knelt in *praise* (5) → a

To God and never chose to *raise* (6) → a

A tree who showed us all its *height* (15) → a

With God by bowing with *delight* (16) → a

(A Tree Knelt in Praise)

I envy sightless trees that *gazed* (11) → a

Upon his form completely *dazed* (12) → a

Not knowing if the sun had *risen* (13) → a

But felt themselves in *unison* (14) → a

(Spring's Gift)

The end rhyme in above both poems reflects alignment of the final sounds such as *praise-raise* and *height-delight* etc. Through consistent rhythmical end, the poet intentionally evokes the readers to a deep sense of his spiritual experience by making those end rhymes unfamiliar in the listeners' ears. The foregrounded aspect as shown in the end rhyme that prolonged by the author upon reading these alignment sections with rhythmical sounds reflects an aesthetic sense of both poems.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

As illustrated from several foregrounded aspects found in both semantic metaphor and stylistic sound patterns analyses on the two poems, enable us to derive conclusion that at the semantic level of the poems dealt with metaphorical analysis realized in figurative language use of personification and depersonification. I.e., a sentence "*it taught us to clearly see*" line 17 in the poem "A Tree Knelt in Praise" shows the use of personification. The distinguishing meaning between the objects exemplified from the data such as a tree, should not be properly designated to human nature. The semantic deviant shown in the expression of 'teaching', since being able to teach is an act that can 'only' be done by human beings (and more described in the findings). Hence, it is justifiable that people of beyond specific episteme (background knowledge) with the author and the community may not be able to fully grasp the complete meanings of the poems. Again, by this finding, the claim that has been made by Toolan (2016, pp. 7) in which "readers can grasp the meaning without prior knowledge of the language in which it is carried" is semantically contradictable. At the phonological level, the sounds patterns cover the use of certain sounds found on major lines of both poems, the distribution of similar sound patterns can produce the aesthetic effects, the common observed styles

found in Hamza Yusuf's religious poems are the repetitions or anaphora, assonance, alliteration, rhythmic sounds of the beginning, in- and end rhymes, and the middle rhyme.

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