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# Witnessing the Unspoken Truth: On Residential School Survivors' Testimonies in Canada

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**Abstract**—Residential schools functioned from 1876 to 1996 in Canada in order to assimilate Indigenous children to Euro- Canadian culture. By implementation of Indian Act (1876), the Indigenous children were taken away from their parents and sent to these schools. The trauma that these kids underwent as a result of physical, mental and sexual abuse at these residential schools has not been discussed by the survivors for many years. Therefore, the current research will focus on ten testimonies by the survivors of residential schools which have been selected from YouTube in order to indicate how their school days experience was narrated to the listener. The survivors of residential schools were witnesses of those incidents and they need a listener to vocalize what remained unspoken for long. The concept of trauma by Judith Herman and testimony and witnessing by Laub and Felman will be discussed while listening to these testimonies by the survivors.

**Index Terms**—residential schools in Canada, trauma, testimonies

## I. INTRODUCTION

"If the *Greeks invented tragedy*, ... the *Romans the epistle* and the Renaissance the sonnet,' writes Elie. Wiesel, 'our generation *invented a new literature*, that of *testimony*' (Felman and Laub, 1991, p. 17). We are witness of incidents that happen throughout history and there are so many questions regarding those incidents that were never asked to find their answers. There is a connection between history, art, memory, and survival which the following research intends to explore by delving into residential school incidents in Canada. By listening to testimonies of survivors of residential schools, which remained unspoken for long, the listener can trace trauma in human narrative. The selected testimonies by the survivors were produced as a result of residential school incidents. The current research will emphasize that even though the last residential school was shut down in 1996, its repercussions in the history still affect the Aboriginal community in every aspect. One can notice that as a history, the incidents are not over and its traumatic consequences are evolving in political, historical, and cultural aspects of Canadian society. They might have marked shutting down of last residential school as the end of suffering for Aboriginal community, but its fluctuations are still remained and they need to be remembered. As Felman and Laub observe "testimony has become a crucial mode of our relation to events of our times- our relation to trauma of contemporary history" (1991, p. 5), and my research intend to delve into the trauma that First Nation kids underwent at residential schools in Canada.

Residential schools were founded by Canadian federal government and administrated by churches to deracinate Aboriginal children from their culture, language, tradition and spiritual beliefs. The Euro- Canadian system considered Aboriginal culture as inferior and through residential schools, they intend to assimilate Aboriginal children to Euro- Canadian society. Residential schools functioned from 1883 to 1996.

Although one could write a history of indigenous boarding schools in North America that dates to the 16<sup>th</sup> century Colegio de Santa Cruz de Tlateloco, histories of those schools typically focus on a period that began in late 19<sup>th</sup> century. This era was marked by the convergence of three phenomena- laws in the United States and Canada that made education mandatory, assimilationist education models designed to create uniform citizenries and scientific racism. (Dawson, 2012, p. 81).

Based on Canadian Policy, the children were taken away from their parents and sent to schools where they were forbidden to talk about their culture, language or community in general. These students were very young, sometimes they were just four years old. For any minor mistake that they made, they were punished severely by the staff. Over 100,000 children passed through the system of 125 schools over a century (MacDonald, 2007, p. 1001). At residential schools, Aboriginal children underwent physical, sexual and mental abuses. The training was not sufficient for those children to be prepared for white collar jobs; it focused on manual labor and domestic work.

Aboriginal culture was overlooked and belittled by residential school system and this attitude affected Aboriginal community for generations. The loss of culture and language were the consequences of those schools. As the kids were taken away from their families, they were deprived of nurturing family; therefore, they could not raise their own children with success. Since the main purpose of Canadian government and church was to eradicate Aboriginal culture, tradition and language in them, residential schools were considered as cultural genocide.

Since the Europeans settled in Canada, they assumed that their culture and civilization are superior to the natives. They believed that the first inhabitants in Canada are savage, ignorant and wild and they needed to be civilized and educated. Therefore, the government intended to civilize the Aboriginal people.

Nicholas Flood Davin, journalist and politician, had the duty to study the residential school system of Natives in the United States and report it to Prime Minister Sir John A. Macdonald. Davin believed that the aboriginal can be civilized if they teach them while they are very young. From 1880s, the government started establishing residential schools across Canada. The children were sent to school which was far from their own family in order to alienate them from their community. Based on Indian Act (1876), the Aboriginal children were forced to go to residential schools by law. Once at school, the students got their haircut, wore uniforms and had their fixed schedule. Boys and girls were separated and siblings were not allowed to interact. Besides the Indian Act, there was a 'pass system' which was never codified in Indian Act, but it was enacted within society. Based on this system, the Aboriginals were separated from the settlers. They could only merge with settlers once they have the travel permit, named pass. As Miller mentioned "the pass system prohibition of potlatch and dances and directed cultural change through residential schooling were much less effective than generally thought" (1990, p. 386). Based on this pass, cultural ceremonies, hunting, and commerce were affected. The residential schools and pass system affected the Aboriginal community and future generations.

The residential schools were underfunded and teachings were mainly about practical skills such as domestic services and manual labor. The mornings were devoted to classes and in the afternoon, the students were supposed to do some chores. When the students were 18, they were sent away and discouraged to pursue further education.

Physical abuse was very common at residential schools. The students were beaten, strapped or shackled to their beds. The severe punishment, malnutrition, overcrowding, and poor sanitation increased death toll at these residential schools. Based on Nagy and Sedhev residential schools was "a genocidal policy, operated jointly by the federal government of Canada and the Catholic Anglican, United and Presbyterian churches" (2012, p. 67). Some of these students died as a result of tuberculosis and cold weather since the health condition was very poor. The parents of these children were never notified of their death. Recently, "the missing children projects aimed at finding the names of all children who had died in the schools, the causes of the death, and places of burial" (Milloy, 2013, p. 12).

Besides corporal punishment, students were victims of assault and rape by staff and other students. Supreme Court Justice Douglas Hogarth called Plint, supervisor at Port Alberin Indian Residential school as a "sexual terrorist". As a result of huge number of incidents of rape at residential schools, they were called "institutionalized pedophilia" (Fournier and Crey, 1997, p. 7). Moreover, chair Justice Murray Sinclair described Indian Residential schools as "one of the darkest, most troubling chapters in our nation's history, especially, he continues because its target and its victims were the most vulnerable of our society: 'little children'" (Cassell, 2017, p. 125). By 1950s, government and church noticed that despite the harm that was done to Aboriginal culture and language, it still survived. Moreover, they noticed the devastating effects of residential schools on Aboriginal students. In 1951, the half day school work was abandoned.

The Aboriginal kids were allowed to stay with their families wherever possible and more of qualified teachers were hired. In 1969, the Department of Indian affair started to control the system and church was not allowed to be involved in the teaching anymore, however, abuse continued.

Meanwhile, the government allowed the Aboriginal children to enter public schools. Though they could gain higher level of education, they still faced problem. The discrimination troubled Aboriginal children and they had difficulties adjusting to Euro- Canadian system. The Aboriginal students were discouraged to go to universities.

The last residential school was closed in 1996, but its effects troubled not only the school survivors, but also their future generations. The burden influenced various generations in Aboriginal communities. Loss of culture, language heritage, and broken family ties and personal trauma are just some of the consequences of residential schools in Aboriginal communities. Since they grew up in abusive condition, and they lacked nurturing environment, they abuse their own children and family members. Domestic violence among Aboriginal families led to dysfunction over generations. Intergeneration trauma is the type of trauma that these survivors of residential schools suffer from which results in their lack of parenting skills, and myriad of social problem (MacDonald and Hudson, 2012, p. 432).

Since Aboriginal culture and civilization was belittled by the staff at residential schools, the survivors, have very low self- esteem, and carry the sense of worthlessness. Low self- esteem led these survivors and future generations to alcoholism, substance abuse and suicide. Moreover, Aboriginal kids struggle to fit in Euro- Canadian society, but discriminations stop them to improve in Euro- Canadian system. Besides, they do not belong to their own community since they forgot their culture and language. They are misfits in either of communities. Based on social identity theory, "identification with two distinct cultures is problematic for identity formation because of conflicts in attitudes, values and behaviors" (Goodwill and MacCormick, 2012, p. 23), as a result, the Aboriginal people are lost in between Aboriginal culture and Euro- Canadian one.

In 1980s, residential school survivors took government and church to the court for whatever damage has been done to them.

In 1988 the Act for Preservation and Enhancement of Multiculturalism in Canada was passed. It emphasizes the racial diversity of Canadian society and its objectives include fostering appreciation of minority cultures and preserving languages other than English and French. (Hanmill, 2007, p. 27- 28)

In 2005, the federal government apologized for the damage done to Aboriginal community. The apology was the first step for healing process, but without action, apology would not be enough. About 1990s, the former students asked for compensation from the government for the acknowledgement of their suffering. \$1.9 billion was granted to the survivors of residential schools by the federal government in 2005. "Almost 38,000 former living students have applied

under the 2006 settlement for compensation for serious physical and sexual abuse" (Roach, 2014, p. 566). Prime Minister Stephen Harper apologized to all former students of residential schools in 2008. Besides, Prime Minister Justin Trudeau apologized to survivors of residential schools in Newfoundland and Labrador in 2017. Despite all the past few attempts to "obtain redress have been made but Canadian law has frequently failed to appreciate the full scope of the harms of residential schools" (Roach, 2014, p. 566).

Since the government is not successful enough to help the Aboriginal people, "Indian people employed strategies of resistance, evasion and defiance to counter attempt to control their lives" (Miller, 1990, p. 386). There are some texts that were written by Aboriginal writers that deal with those residential schools and reflect the incidents. "Inuit writer Anthony Apakark Thrasher, Mi'kmaq poet Rita Jones and Cree playwright and novelist Tomson Highway" are some of the examples of Aboriginal authors (Grauer, 2011, p.308). As the native writers deal with Native life, they contribute in surviving the native culture and tradition which can be a kind of resistance against the imposed culture on them (Griffin, 2001, p. 291). Besides writing novels and reminding Aboriginal people of their history, culture and language, their community resisted the force of settlers by fighting "against their subordinate status" and asserting "their rights of equality" (Elkin, 1969, p. 112). The aboriginal people honored and respected their culture through songs, dances, prayers and ceremonies (Patridge, 2010, p. 42). Despite the apologies by Prime Ministers in Canada, still there is so much to do for Aboriginal people. As Howard Walker mentioned in his testimony his daughter could not get scholarship to continue her education as she is Aboriginal; therefore she needs to work by day and study by night (2014). This research aims at giving awareness to the incidents happened at residential schools in Canada and giving courage to survivors of those schools and their generations to fight for their rights. The government needs to preserve Aboriginal culture and language. The Aboriginal language is under serious threat of extinction since there is not enough fluent speakers within Aboriginal communities (Moore and Macdonald, 2013, p. 703). Besides malnutrition among Aboriginal people and their community is caused by "malnutrition and hunger in Canada's residential schools" (Habkirk and Forsyth, 2017, p.143); therefore, "the health and well- being of First Nations and Inuit are negatively affected" (Dell and Seguin, 2011, p. 76). As residential school incidents led to survivors' trauma, the concept of trauma by Judith Herman and testimony and witnessing by Laub and Felman will be used to analyze testimonies.

The current research involves practice of watching and listening attentively. As such ten testimonies by survivors of residential schools in Canada have been selected. These testimonies have been published in YouTube and they are open to the public. The listeners to those testimonies are witnesses of survivors' experiences. Here, listening would be a challenge since the survivors will speak about what had remained unspoken or unspeakable for long. Therefore, it is the listeners' duty to be the objective witness and listen attentively to unfold the testimonial life accounts of residential school days in Canada. However, listening would be a challenge as the listeners would understand their own limits. Their sanity would be at risk since they would sympathize with those survivors deeply. Therefore, they need to know the hazards on their path in order to fulfill their professional task which is reaching testimonial resolution. As the witnesses of the testimonies are informed of the incidents, it would be their duty to preserve the knowledge they gained as the reality was kept hidden for long and now it is revealed and it can help the survivors to continue their life after the traumatic incidents.

The current paper on the one hand will uncover the relation between art and culture, and on the other the conscious and unconscious witnessing of historical events. Therefore, testimony acts as a witness of traumatic historical incidents. As the historic incidents are witnessed, they need to be preserved and it can be done through the process of textualization. As residential school incidents led to survivors' trauma, the concept of trauma by Judith Herman will be used to analyze the ten selected testimonies.

## II. DISCUSSION

The listener to human's torment faces different challenges. He needs to go beyond words, and pay attention to silence and body languages. The victim's narrative might be fragmented which indicates the absence that was caused by traumatic incident. The listener testifies to the reality that had not come into existence yet, the reality of the incident is very compelling. Herman mentions that trauma is

A situation has not been satisfactorily liquated... until we have achieved, not merely an outward reaction through our movements, but also an inward reaction through the words we address to ourselves, through the organization of the recital of the event to others and to ourselves and through the putting of this recital in its place as one of the chapters in our personal history. (2015, p. 37)

Besides Felman and Laub confirm "to seek reality is both to set out to explore the injury inflicted by it- to turn back on, and to try to penetrate, the state of being stricken, wounded by reality and to attempt, at the same time, to reemerge from the paralysis of this state, to engage reality as an advent, as movement, and as a vital, critical necessity of moving on" (1991, p. 29). The historical narrative, and documentaries, related to traumatic incidents, might be available, but the overwhelming shock of the incident did not have its objective witness yet, and it is the listener's duty to listen attentively as the knowledge of the incident is being shared by its witness who asks for an attentive listener who believes in his words. Therefore, the survivor of an incident needs a listener who takes part in creation of the knowledge. Felman and Laub mention that "in the process of the testimony to a trauma, as in psychoanalytic practice, in effect, you often do not want to know anything except what the patient tells you, because what is important is the situation of

discovery of knowledge- its evolution, and its very happening" (1991, p. 62). As the listener listens to traumatic events, he participates in the experience. He will sympathize with the victim and if he remembers his traumatic past meanwhile, then the objective witnessing cannot take place. Therefore, the challenge is sympathy with the victim and dealing with his memories and at the same time his own traumatic past. Even the silence counts in the process of witnessing. "Testimony is a form of remembering. The faculty of memory functions in the present to recall a personal history vexed by trauma that thwart smooth- flowing chronicle" (Langer, 1991, p. 21). This part, testimony, is based on recorded videos by residential school survivors in Canada which are archived in YouTube and are open to public. The videos indicate the severe impact of trauma on survivors of residential schools. By giving their testimonies, these survivors can perceive the depth of what really happened to them, register, remember and transmit it to the listeners.

As the listener listens to the victim's narrative, he sympathizes with him, but as the incidents are too far from the listener, he does not become the victim of those incidents. However, while carrying out his function as a witness, he struggles with his own past memories and he needs to deal with them properly in order to be an objective witness. Therefore, he is not only trauma victim's witness, but also witnesses his own past. He needs to be informed of the challenges on his way. The listener should know that the trauma victim is scared of facing his traumatic past, his anguished memory and the ordeal he underwent. At any point of time, he might turn to silence. Herman notes "the ordinary response to atrocities is to banish them from consciousness" (2015, p. 1). The victims tend to go silent as they want to listen to their confessions about the traumatic incidents. Listening to themselves and confirming to themselves that those incidents have really happened is another ordeal for trauma patient; therefore, silence is a shelter to run to. The listener needs to know the silence he might face, respect it and wait for the victim to continue voluntarily.

Katherine Thomas, a woman in her late fifties, was narrating her 2 years residential school experience to the interviewer. Once asked about the moment that sticks out during her residential school incident, she had a lump in her throat. She held back her tears and went silent for a few seconds. She was overwhelmed by the magnitude of the catastrophe she was addressing and she started explaining about the separation from her mom and dad as the most horrible memory of those years. Her tone is low and still struggling to express the pain she underwent by that separation. The sound of her voice, her glance, and her body language speak volumes. As the interviewer participates in excavating the ruins of the past, he asks about the importance of keeping the memories of residential schools alive. "By the presence and involvement of the interviewers, who enable them for the first time to believe that it is possible, indeed, against all odds and against their past experience, to tell the story and to be heard" (Felman and Laub, 1991, p. 41), the victims gain courage to express their unspoken past. Thomas' tone changed to a higher tone. She seemed more determined and explained that the documentaries just depicted a small piece of the incidents. "It didn't really understand the impact they had on our lives and they just kinda accepted it and trying to make the best of life without really understanding how it affected like three generations of my family" (2018).

As Thomas expresses the pain of being deprived of her parents, Howard Walker, a man in his seventies, who spent almost ten years in two different residential schools, All Saints school in Prince Albert and Gordon school of Regina, narrates sexual abuse he underwent. Moreover, he was beaten by a big whip for speaking his own language. His body languages, holding his hands together and at times playing with his ring, express his fear and nervousness. He very randomly has eye contact with the camera which is the witness of his testimony. He confesses his shame of telling anyone about the incidents at school. As he goes on talking about his alcoholism as a consequence of the treatment he received at those schools, he gains a bit more confidence. He has more eye contact, but still he rests his hand at his waist which shows the difficulty he faces to tell his story. He cannot handle more than that. At the same time, having a listener encourages him to continue. He is not very optimistic about the government and what it would do for Aboriginal community. He expresses "a promise from federal government is just like pouring water into a strainer" (2014). To clarify his point, he gives an example of her daughter who works as an officer and she has problems continuing her education, since the government does not give scholarship to Aboriginals. He finishes his interview with a question "I can't think how they expect us to be part of society if you gonna keep us down" (2014). With this question, he lets his audience think of the grand scale of the action that should take place to support the Aboriginal community. He is the author of his testimony through giving his video testimony to the audience. Besides, he is a historical subject as he is the source of historical incidents. As Laub and Hamburger mention the person who offers video testimonies is "both, past and present, a remembered past in the present" (2017, p. 152). He narrates the history of what happened in the past and its impact on present.

Littledeer, a woman of seventy eight years old, spent eight years at residential schools and she narrates how she faced the fright when a six years old girl died next to her and there was no visit from that little girl's parents since they were never notified. She still suffers from being the witness to the death of that little girl since "feelings of guilt are specially severe when the survivor has been a witness to the suffering or death of other people" (Herman, 2015, p. 54). The memory of little girl's death comes back to her consciousness and leaves her feel guilty. After all these years, she still held back her tears and goes to silence when she talks about getting mad at her parents for sending her to a school and the bad treatment she received there. She sent her kids to residential schools too and she shrugs her shoulders as she mentioned her sons need to be strong; there is no other way to tough out the experience. Through her narration, the witness would know how Indian habits, snaring rabbits and picking blueberries, were destroyed by white people. "We didn't bother white people but white people bothered me" (2015). Not only Aboriginal customs and traditions, but also

mutual relationship between parents and children were severed by residential schools as Madeleine Dion Stout, sixty two years old, explains. She spent thirty six consecutive months at residential schools and calls those schools as "blood on Canadian landscape". As the kids become strangers to their native land and they had mentor stress once they left the school, she calls those schools as a shame. Her speech is mechanical. She narrates her story without showing any emotion and the only time she smiled throughout the whole interview was when she remembered the visit from her parents at residential schools. As a victim of residential school, she would like to make lasting difference for "residential school survivors, but the other little children who are having difficulties today" (2015).

As Walker experienced sexual abuse and beatings at residential schools, sixty two year old Mason, shared the beatings and sexual abuse experience with us too. He pinpoints that the teachers took advantage of teaching kids how to take shower and then abuse them sexually. Besides, he tells us about his deprivation of his mother tongue and he was beaten and his tongue was pulled out and punched. Moreover, he was wacked and strapped for talking to his siblings.

Likewise Karen Chaboyer who spent eight years at Saint Margaret residential school was wacked for getting attention of her siblings. She was deprived of her parents and her friends at the same time. She learned to be ashamed of being an Indian at residential school and she would go to hell just because she is Indian. Loss of identity and shame are the consequences of those years. She underwent grief counseling since she underwent grief and trauma. She is stranger to people to the extent that till now she has friends, but not a best friend. Trust is shattered for the survivors. While the listener listens to the testimony he shapes the testimony based on his understanding; moreover, the later recipients of testimonies interpret the testimony based on their understanding (Laub and Hamburger 2017, p. 153). Therefore, testimonies are not fixed but they depend on evolution and interpretation.

Michael Cheena, sixty two, explains how he was severely punished for stealing a slice of bread, but at the same time, he is the one among all the selected testimonies that said supervisors treated them with barbecue when they won the Champion. However, he also adds that he became an alcoholic since drinking alcohol is a coping mechanism. Herman notes that "traumatized people run a high risk of compounding their difficulties by developing dependence on alcohol or other drugs" (2015, p. 46). Survivors and their next generations use alcohol and drugs to forget about the pain they underwent during residential schools or their own parents; as the next generation of residential school survivors. He asks from all the Canadians, aboriginal or non-aboriginal, to learn about the true history of Canada. Herman believes "the victim demands action, engagement and remembering" (2015, p. 8). These survivors need listeners to listen to their stories and then take action for their protection.

Louise Longclow, sixty two, confirms that at times, she "just found kind of connection just not having some kind of memory at times and it all goes back to being robotic, no feeling, no emotion, no nothing" (2018). "The voluntary suppression of thoughts related to the traumatic event is characteristic of traumatized people" (Herman, 2015, p. 46). She was traumatized by being left alone and having no one to cuddle her or give her support. Therefore, trauma led her to amnesia. Her parents also had residential school experience and her mom was punched in her face for speaking her native language and even her tooth was protruded her upper lip as she was flown across the room. Her dad also told her about the hunger and how they learned to eat raw potatoes as it was the only way to sedate their hunger. She asks those who listen to her testimony to listen to her words attentively and believe in her and all the Aboriginal people. She is tormented even now since she cannot function as a parent, community member or any other kind of relationships.

In addition to Longclaws who listened to her parents' experience of residential schools, Mike Loft and Lorena Fontaine gave their testimonies as the next generations of survivors of residential schools. Neither of them felt safe at home with their parents as they underwent constant abuse by them. Herman points out that

The child trapped in an abusive environment is faced with formidable tasks of adaptation. She must find a way to preserve a sense of truth in people who are untrustworthy, safety in a situation that is unsafe, control in a situation that is terrifyingly unpredictable. (2015, p. 96)

Loft, fifty five years old sat with crossed arms, which indicates his defiant posture, tells us about the unpredictability of the punishment that he received from his father. "Children in an abusive environment develop extraordinary abilities to scan for warning signs of attack" (Herman, 2015, p. 99), and he still kept his defiant posture after years. His father spent eleven years at Spanish, Ontario and what he brought home was the fear that he imposed on his children. Loft testifies how survivors' children commit suicide these days rather than the survivors themselves. Moreover Fontaine expresses how her parents did not have any role models; therefore, she was a vulnerable kid.

The traumatic incidents that each of the survivors or their children underwent though belonged to real, it passed the normal reality. The traumatic moment does not have beginning, ending, middle, time or place. Its timelessness takes the victim away from comprehension. The trauma patient not only deals with the memories of the past, but also with the events that never ended completely; therefore, it still continues till the present time. The witness can perceive the incomplete events through their silence, body languages and their attempts to find a better way to explain themselves. The struggle they undergo to let the listener understand the depth and magnitude of tormenting moments they underwent. They all asked for a listener who believes in their words and understands their pain, plight and ordeal. "The testimony to the trauma thus includes its hearer, who is, to speak, the blank screen on which the event comes to be inscribed for the first time" (Felman and Laub, 1991, p. 57). Telling the stories let them articulate what remained unspeakable so that they can hear the reality of incidents themselves as well. They reassert the reality of incidents by articulating it to their witness which helps them to move to healing process. The recorded testimonial videos give

opportunity to the listeners to historicize the events. Testimonies take place between two people, the survivor and the listener who the survivor waited for a long time and needed his presence to reaffirm the incidents to himself. Herman mentions that "the fundamental stages of recovery are establishing safety, reconstructing the trauma story, and restoring the connection between survivors and their community" (2015, p. 3). Now that process of testimony is done, it is the responsibility and duty of Canadian federal government to support the survivors of residential schools and their following generations, though the survivors are not very optimistic about the actions the government would take.

### III. CONCLUSION

The residential school survivors mentioned that the support can help these survivors to survive the trauma they underwent days and nights. As Herman points out "the victim demands action, engagement and remembering" (2015, p. 7-8). The incidents that happened at those schools had ripple effects and deep harm and they should not be forgotten. As the society needs to take action and support the Aboriginal community, the residential school survivors need to unite and talk about their past and mention its hard truth about being uprooted from their communities and being stripped of their identity. They need to be heard as not only their generation, but also generation after generation the Aboriginal community was affected by the outcome of residential schools. The incidents should be told and retold until all the aboriginals receive the attention they deserve from their federal government only then the healing would be possible.

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# A Pragmatic Study of Humour in *Udurawana*'s Joke Stories of Sri Lanka: Implications for Second Language Teaching and Learning

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**Abstract**—This paper presents a step by step approach of unpacking humour in joke stories from *Udurawana* in Sri Lanka. The analysis has employed two theoretical models: Grice's (1975) theory of Conversational Implicature, and Juckel, Bellman and Varan's (2016) Taxonomy of Humour Techniques. The study has demonstrated that understanding humour involves going through different layers of language given that humour itself does not reside at the surface; but rather inside meanings of words and phrases. The paper appeals to language teachers to utilise humour as a teaching tool owing to the enormous joys it brings in facilitating the teaching and learning of the second language. We conclude that helping learners take baby-steps to decipher humour can lead them into better understanding and fluency of second language learning; an indication of advancement in language acquisition.

**Index Terms**—Udurawana, conversational implicature, humour techniques, second language acquisition

## I. INTRODUCTION

Humour research has gained much attention in modern studies worldwide with most studies focusing on cartoons and stand-up comedies. The majority of the studies have used linguistic, pragmatic, semantic, psycho-linguistic, and semiotic approaches (Kondowe, Ngwira, & Madula, 2014; Al-Momani, Badarneh & Migdadi, 2017; Ali Heidari-Shahreza, 2017; Skalicky, 2018). However, the current study attempts to analyse humour in the joke stories of *Udurawana* of Sri Lanka by using Paul Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle; and Juckel, Bellman and Varan's (2016) Humour Techniques Taxonomy as theoretical models. *Udurawana* is a fabricated name for humour stories in modern folklore of Sri Lanka which have been published informally on different websites and blogs. However, it is rumoured that indeed there lived a real person by the name of *Udurawana* in the area of Kandy in Sri Lanka although, the fictitious character does not resemble the real person in many aspects. *Udurawana*'s joke stories are famous amongst the educated elites unlike among the illiterates since these stories appear in English. They are rapidly popularised by the young and modern generation. It is noted that in these stories humour is created by playing with language and the interpreter has to calculate the additional implied meaning which can theoretically be called Conversational Implicature or Connotative Meaning in Grice's and Barthe's terms respectively.

### A. Rationale

Studies on humour have been popularised especially with the inception of *International Journal of Humour Research* that is specifically devoted to publishing research studies on humour. In this paper, humour is not studied in isolation, but rather as having a huge impact on the teaching and learning of second language. However, we understand that the concept of humour in relation to second language teaching and learning is not new. Different research papers have presented interesting findings on the role humour plays in the acquisition of second language (Deneire, 1995; Ali & Vijay, 2014). However, what is interesting in the present study is the multi-disciplinary link the paper establishes between humour as a linguistic phenomenon and as a teaching tool. We first analyse humour using Paul Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle; and Juckel, Bellman and Varan's (2016) Humour Techniques Taxonomy and we apply them into the teaching and learning of second language. We have also noted that there are studies that have used these tools, but studies that have employed both models, and link them to the concept of language teaching and learning, are hard to find.

### B. Research Questions

The study is guided by the following research questions:

- i) What humour techniques have been employed in *Udurawana* joke stories?
- ii) How can Grice's Conversational Implicature Theory help unpack humour in these stories?
- iii) How can humour facilitate the teaching and learning of the second language?

### C. *Udurawana Joke Stories as Data Texts*

Data for this study comprise of *Udurawana* joke stories which have randomly been collected from two major blogs and websites. Out of hundreds of stories available in these blogs and websites, we have only selected 10 for a closer analysis on the basis that they contain at least an interaction of more than one character rather than one figure (*Udurawana*). However, for the purpose of this paper, we have only examined and cited six jokes. Our choice of the stories has been guided by the theory which requires dialogue to determine the extent to which the interactants observe or break the maxims to create implicature (humour).

We have opted for these *Udurawana* texts as data because we have noted that even though the stories have gained huge popularity in Sri Lanka creating a new chapter of folklore, no serious studies have attempted to investigate how these stories generate humor; hence the reason to undertake this study. Basing on the results from the analysis of *Udurawana*, the study goes further to discuss the implications of the finding in second language teaching and learning in two parts. Firstly, we have illustrated the significance of humour in language teaching and learning environments. Secondly, using the linguistic analysis of the two models, the paper provides insights on how the teachers can help learners unpack and appreciate humour that appears in the second language in both oral and written forms.

## II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

### A. *The Theory of Conversational Implicature*

The theory of Conversational Implicature (CI) was advocated by Herbert Paul Grice, when he delivered three speeches in his William James lectures at Harvard University in 1967. The theory of “Cooperative Principle” and “Conversational Implicature” came out in his second lecture on “Logic and Conversation” (Wang, 2011). Cooperative Principle (CP) asserts that one should make contributions as is required at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which one is engaged (Levinson, 2000). CP is illustrated in the following four maxims that both speakers and hearers use as guidelines to interpret the inferences necessary to make sense of the conversation:

- i. Maxim of quantity: be informative
- ii. Maxim of quality: be truthful
- iii. Maxim of relation: be relevant.
- iv. Maxim of manner: be perspicuous.

The maxims are unstated assumptions people have when they enter into a conversation. Each participant is expected to adhere to the four maxims. When one of the maxims is exploited or not observed, an alternative meaning is generated (Thomas, 1995; Levinson, 2000). To Grice, this alternative meaning is what is known as Implicature. It is something meant, implied, or suggested as distinct from what is said. The term “implicature” is derived from the word “implicate” which was borrowed from Latin which meant to “intervene, involve, associate, entangle, incriminate” (Wang, 2011). In modern linguistics, implicature describes the implicit meaning or the meaning implied. These are assumptions over and above the meaning of given sentences which the speaker knows, and intends that the hearer will make in the face of an apparently open non-observance of the CP in order to interpret that sentence in accordance with the CP. The CI is generated due to the hearer’s ability to calculate the meaning on the basis of (i) the linguistically coded content of the utterance, (ii) the CP and its maxims, (iii) the linguistic and non-linguistic context, (iv) background knowledge, (v) the assumption that both participants are aware of (i)-(iv) (Grice, 1975). To Grice, the calculation follows this pattern:

B has said that *p*; there is no reason to suppose that B is not observing the maxim of CP; B could not be doing this unless B thought that *q*: B knows that the hearer can see the supposition that he thinks *q* is required; B has done nothing to stop the hearer thinking that *q*: B intends the hearer to think that *q* (Levinson, 2000; Grice, 1975).

According to Grice (1975), an implicature is generated when the participant(s) break or fail to observe the maxims in any of the following five ways: Firstly, a maxim can be *flouted* and it happens when a speaker fails to observe CP with deliberate intentions of generating an implicature. Secondly, a maxim can be *violated* when a speaker has an intention to mislead. The maxim can also be *infringed* which is as a result of imperfect linguistic performance (Levinson, 2000). Fourthly, a maxim can be *opted out* when a speaker indicates unwillingness to cooperate in the way the maxim requires. Finally, a maxim is *suspended* when the non-fulfilment of a maxim is expected by participants and, therefore, does not generate any implicature (Levinson, 2000; Kondowe, Ngwira & Madula, 2014). The fundamental assumption of CP and CI is that at some level, the speaker is always observing the CP, even if this is not evident from what is literally said. This means that if the addressee assumes the speaker is following the maxims, but that this is not evident at a literal level, then the addressee infers additional meaning to make up the difference. In other words, the maxims get satisfied if one combines what is literally said and the implicature together.

#### **Humour and Conversational Implicature**

In his *Logic and Conversation*, Grice has explained how the maxims could be broken which can lead to the production of irony, metaphor, meiosis and hyperbole. Even though Grice has not mentioned how non-observance of the maxims would generate humour, we still find CI to be very relevant to our present study. There is unsaid communication in jokes where funniness resides that leads to the creation of humour. As noted by Tabersky (1998), humour in jokes includes a pragmatic component that utilises implicature as its means. For instance, members of a

particular society have internalised a set of rules governing their behaviour, both verbal and physical, and humour comes from breaking of both linguistic and social rules. In other words, jokes become successful when they break and violate popular rules which become the centre from which humour emerges; hence the adoption of CI as one of the theoretical backbone is very relevant to the current study.

### B. Taxonomy of Humour Techniques

The theory of Conversation Implicature (CI) discussed above has been employed hand in hand with the tools outlined in Juckel, Bellman and Varan's (2016) Taxonomy of Humour Techniques. In their work, *A humor typology to identify humor styles used in sitcoms*, Juckel, Bellman and Varan (2016) provide a comprehensive taxonomy of humour techniques that people are likely to employ when creating humour. The following table, therefore, provides the typology as modified by Heidari-Shahreza (2017, p.22) from which tools for analysis have been drawn.

TAXONOMY OF HUMOR TECHNIQUES AS MODIFIED BY HEIDARI-SHAHREZA (2017, p.22)

No.	Humour technique	Short description
1	Absurdity	Nonsense, a situation that goes against all logical rules
2	Allusion	Indirect reference
3	Caught out	Unexpectedly get caught while wrong doing or saying something reprehensible
4	Clumsiness	Lacking dexterity or grace
5	Coincidence	A coincidental and unexpected occurrence
6	Conceptual surprise	Misleading the audience by means of a sudden unexpected change of concept
7	Condescension	Displaying arrogance by patronising those considered inferior
8	Deceitful behaviour	Being deliberately misleading, concealing or distorting the truth
9	Irony	Saying one thing and meaning something else or exactly the opposite of what you're saying
10	Malicious pleasure	Taking pleasure in other people's misfortune; victim humour
11	Misunderstanding	Misinterpreting a situation
12	Outwitting	Outsmarting someone or the establishment
13	Parody	Imitating a style or a genre of literature or other media
14	Peculiar face	Making a funny face, grimace
15	Pun	Playing with the meaning of words
16	Repartee	Verbal banter, usually in a witty dialogue
17	Repulsive behaviour	Offensive, aversive, disgusting behaviour
18	Ridicule	Making a fool of someone, verbally or nonverbally
19	Rigidity	Someone who thinks along straight lines, who is conservative and inflexible
20	Self-deprecation	Expressing something negative about oneself
21	Wit	Ingenious humour

The taxonomy provides comprehensive tools that are handy and easy to apply to every linguistic instance. It is easy to pick each technique outlined in the typology, with its provided description, and apply to the text we are working with. However, we have applied this model cautiously after observing that some of the outlined tools can only be applied in a face to face conversation like in stand-up comedies, but not in written texts like the ones under study. Therefore, this model has been very useful in our study in supplementing Grice's CI.

### III. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

In our analysis of humour in the joke stories under study, we have given prominence to the humour techniques identified in each story. Thus we have taken each tool in the humour taxonomy, and see instances where it applies in the joke stories. Then we have assessed how the audience can find humour in the stories by utilising the CI due to its ability to calculate an argument by providing a step by step illustration. We have first drawn tools from the Juckel, Bellman and Varan (2016) taxonomy then later we have explored the maxim that is broken and the implicature generated which eventually becomes the hilarious aspect. At the end of this paper, we have utilised insights obtained from this section to present their implications in the teaching and learning of second language.

To begin with, our linguistic analysis of *Udurawana* data using CI, has been guided by the step by step calculation of the model which has been modified:

- (1) Udurawana says/asserts that *p*
- (2) He believes that *p* is not observing the maxim of CP
- (3) He wants the audience to think of *q*
- (4) *p* implies *q*

Therefore;

- (5) Udurawana intends to the audience to see *q*; the humour

We believe that after the identification of humorous aspect is done; following the above steps would be quite helpful to arrive at humour. From the Taxonomy of Humour Techniques, we have identified that puns, misunderstandings, and ridicules are some of the preferred techniques employed in *Udurawana* joke stories which eventually flout maxim of quality, relation, quantity, and manner.

#### A. Pun as a Humour Technique

A pun is broadly defined as a play on words based on their double meanings (Lems, 2013; Juckel, Bellman & Varan, 2016). Understanding a pun can be very sophisticated, and one needs a good command of language to find humour in a story that has resulted from a pun. Consider the use of a pun by the use of “branch manager” in **text 1**:

*Udurawana gets ready, wears a tie, coat, goes out, climbs a tree, and sits on the branch regularly.*

A man: Why do you do this?

Udurawana: I've been promoted to a Branch Manager.

Udurawana responds that he has climbed a tree and sat on a branch because he is now a branch manager following the promotion. The answer is relevant because it has provided us with a missing variable as the question demands, but it is not stating the truth. By definition, a branch manager is an executive who oversees a division, office of a large business or organisation. Therefore, in such a response, readers are aware of three things: Firstly, there is no relationship between climbing up the tree and becoming a branch manager; and secondly, that Udurawana is aware of it. Udurawana has flouted the dictum of quality by stating a blatant lie. However, the lie is not really meant to mislead or cheat someone because he is also aware that readers will not believe and take it seriously. It is a mere pro-social lie with an intention to create humour and just to make the audience laugh it out. The humour becomes successful by playing with the double meanings of the word ‘branch’; as part of a tree to which Udurawana is sitting which, he interprets as a subdivision of an office. A branch, therefore, is an example of polysemy which is spelled and pronounced the same but has different meanings (Lems, 2013). Udurawana deliberately lies by exploiting one meaning and applies it into a wrong context which generates a conventional implicature which becomes laughable.

Use of puns has also been identified in **text 2** which is in a group of *homophones*. Homophones are words that sound the same but have different spellings and meanings. In the current text, the plane arrives at Heathrow. Udurawana is excited and anxious to get off. So he goes to the door before anyone and prepares to jump down.

Air hostess: Wait sir, Wait.

Udurawana: 75 Kilograms (*he jumps off the plane*)!

The text generates humour because readers are aware that Udurawana deliberately provided a completely different response to the situation at hand by taking advantage of the homophone ‘wait’. He intentionally flouts maxim of relation by providing an irrelevant response to the context at hand which then generates conventional implicature. Therefore, unlike in **text 1**, which generated implicature on phonemic realisation, humour in **text 2** is derived based on the phonetic realisation of the word “wait”.

### B. Humour Caused by Misunderstanding

Juckel, Bellman, and Varan, (2016) define ‘misunderstanding’ as a misinterpretation of a situation. Mostly, speaker ‘A’ utters something to speaker ‘B’ which the audience understands, but speaker ‘B’ fails to capture its meaning. In the sample of the texts under study, we have noted a number of instances that Udurawana fails to interpret the verbal statement made by the other participants correctly leading to the wrong action hence humour. In text 3, Udurawana calls the airport customer care line to find out the flying duration from Sri Lanka to Amritsar. The officer who picks the phone does not know the duration and s/he wants to find out from somebody else while keeping Udurawana online:

#### Text 3:

Udurawana: How long does it take to fly to Amritsar?

Airport officer: just a second.....

Udurawana: Thank you! (*He cuts the line*).

In **text 3**, the airport officer is cooperative and polite by responding *just a second*, a simple telephone etiquette. Udurawana **misunderstands** the response and takes it literally. This eventually leads to humour as the audience is fully aware that a plane cannot fly for ‘a second’. Udurawana derives the literal meaning of this utterance which does not make sense in the current context. However, it can be argued that Udurawana is justified in his action since the officer’s response flouts maxim of quantity. It does not tell Udurawana to ‘wait for a moment’ while the officer consults. To someone who is not well versed with telephones etiquette like Udurawana, the officer’s response is not adequately informative. CP calls that in any conversation, we must make sure that our contributions are as informative as is required for the current purpose of the exchange. If the airport officer had provided some more information, there could be no room to generate such humour.

Similarly, a case of **misunderstanding** has also resulted into humour in **text 4**. In the story, the house owner is delighted with the way Udurawana has done all the paint work on his house, and he gladly gives him a bonus pay and advises him to take his wife for a dinner.

#### Text 4:

House owner: You did a great job (*he said as he gives Udurawana his pay*). So in order to thank you, here's an extra 500 bucks to take the wife out to dinner and a movie.

Udurawana: No! I can't accept that (*he declined*)

House owner: I insist. It would make me very happy if you do it.

Udurawana: Well! (*reluctantly*) if you really don't mind it, I'll do it.

(*Later during the night, the doorbell rings and it is Udurawana, standing there holding a bouquet of flowers*).

House owner: What's the matter, did you leave something behind?



Udurawana: Nope! I'm just here to take the wife out to dinner and a movie like you asked.

The conversation in text four is informative, but not as is required due to the missing variable- the possessive determiner 'your'. Udurawana misinterprets the wife ('your wife') and thinks it means the house owner's wife. This lack of understanding between the two breeds a particularised conversational implicature which creates humour. The statement 'to take the wife out to dinner and a movie' flouts the maxim of manner by being vague and ambiguous which eventually has led to the misunderstanding. However, it can further be argued that Udurawana is not being truthful, and deliberately neglects to read the statement with context relativism. Unless otherwise, but the audience is aware that in an ideal situation, a boss cannot send his wife to go out for dinner and movie with his worker, therefore Udurawana's misinterpretation of the same becomes hilarious.

In text 5, Udurawana got the 4<sup>th</sup> child. He fills data in the birth certificate:

**Text 5:**

Mother: Sri Lankan

Father: Sri Lankan

Baby: Chinese

Officer: How come you write "Chinese" when both parents are Sri Lankans?

Udurawana: Ahhh... I read in the newspaper, 'every 4<sup>th</sup> person born on the Earth now is a Chinese'.

This is another analogy made by Udurawana based on a wrong presupposition. The news report uses hyperbole to highlight the world's highest population of China. To say "every 4<sup>th</sup> person born on the Earth now is a Chinese" does not entail that whoever is born 4<sup>th</sup> anywhere in the world, be it in a family, is Chinese. Udurawana misinterprets the statement and applies it literally which brings up the funny aspect. Due to this misunderstanding, Udurawana flouts the maxim of relevance due to his misapplication of information.

**C. Ridicule as a Humour Technique**

Ridicule, as a humour technique, is defined as making fool of someone, verbally or nonverbally so much so that in the end, it makes the audience laugh (Juckel, Bellman & Varan, 2016). In text 6, Udurawana goes to a shop where TVs are sold and manages to incite humour by making fun of the shop owner.

**Text 6:**

Udurawana: Do you have colour TVs?

Shop owner: Sure

Udurawana: Give me a green one, please.

Udurawana wants to fool the shop attendant by bringing in a controversial perspective to the meaning of colour in the context of TV which is different from the ordinary meaning we all know. The shop owner and the audience have a presupposition that the customer knows the meaning of 'colour TVs' as it is commonly shared by everyone. So, the answer provided by the shop owner is relevant to the question raised by Udurawana. It can be said therefore that Udurawana is also correct in asking for a green TV because the topic at hand is about colour TVs, and he is asking for a green one which is just fine. The two are trading on the same topic. However, the shop attendant and the readers know that Udurawana is not sincere in asking for a green colour TV. Even though it is possible to have a red, black, or silver TV at the outer side, Udurawana is just being radical by asking for a green one. He deliberately breaks the maxim of quality in order to make fun out of the shop attendant by generating particularised implicature.

**Implications of Humour in Second Language Teaching and Learning**

From the above analysis, the paper now seeks to illustrate the need for language teachers to employ humour as a teaching tool in second language classrooms, and how learners can be equipped with skills of understanding and appreciating the humour in spoken or written discourses. Despite the wide range of pro-social functions inherent in humour for the second language classroom, it is saddening though to note that some teachers and language educators consider humorous language as inappropriate and meaningless for the language classroom. Consequently, humour becomes rarely used in lesson plans or lesson units as most teachers stick to lesson objectives and syllabus coverage. This paper agrees with research and teaching experiences that have shown a positive correlation between humour and effective teaching. When employed ingeniously, humour remains part and parcel of effective teaching, and its role in facilitating the learning and acquisition of the second language cannot be overemphasised. As similarly noted by Azizinezhad and Hashemi (2011), humour helps in keeping students interested, motivated and get hold of their attention. It can improve classroom atmosphere, increase enjoyment and facilitate student-teacher interactions. A teacher that employs humour as part of his teaching culture is likely to defuse tension and anxiety amongst students. S/he is also more likely to bond, ease relationships and elicit cooperation with his/ her learners. In short, humour in the second language classroom offers enormous opportunities for learning. Moreover, learners ability to decipher humour can lead to a deeper understanding that is necessary for true fluency in second language learning (Lems, 2013). However, humour as a teaching tool must be employed cautiously because there is a danger of the teacher drifting away from the lesson objectives and turn the class into play stage and fun time (Chiyembekezo, Kondowe, & Ngwira, 2019).

However, the process of unpacking humour in jokes requires the highest fluency from the learners especially when the jokes appear in the second language as the case with *Udurawana*. The majority of Sri-Lankans second language learners with low ability proficiency levels may not be able to decipher the humour owing to its nature that the humour

is buried inside word meanings. It must further be stated that understanding the humour in jokes is part of the language acquisition process, and it does display one's advanced levels of second language mastery and acquisition; hence, it must not be ignored in any second language classroom. This way, learners can also learn to appreciate the beauty of the language as used in real life situations and possibly develop skills of creating humour on their own.

The discussion above has observed that prolific language users employ different linguistic techniques for creating humour by deliberately using puns, misunderstandings, or ridicule among others in face to face interactions. We also established that use of humour might be problematic especially in such environments where the learners have low proficiency levels of the language being used. Therefore, few steps need to be taught in order for learners to fully grapple with the humour and the language at large. Firstly, learners must start by unpacking the wide variety of meanings for words or phrases including possible meanings of such words or phrases. In the case of puns, for instance, learners must be taught for instance; homophones, homonyms, synonyms and antonyms. They must have access to all their possible meanings and be able to identify them. As noted by Lems (2013), if there is a close sounding pun, students must be able to figure out what the other word sounds like as the case with 'wait' and 'weight' in text 2. Finally, they need to consolidate the two possible meanings of the word, phrases, and sentences and be able to compare them in the context of use. When all of those steps are exhausted, there is an instance where the two meanings smoothly map into each other, and that is the time to laugh (refer to text 1 and 2). Unpacking these steps enhances our appreciation of the complexity required to understand an English pun, a privilege which is often enjoyed by those with advanced language proficiency (Lems, 2013).

Similarly, learners must be made to understand that language has a varied number of tools available at their disposal that can attract and delight their audience. As such, when a teacher brings in the concept that the majority of words in a language have multiple meanings, it is important to show the learners how the difference in meanings can lead to confusions, contradictions, and misunderstandings; and the teacher must point out that some of the confusions and misunderstandings can be quite funny just as in text 3, 4, and 5 above. Hence, individuals with a high sense of humour will capitalise on that versatility of words to induce laughter and free classroom atmosphere. The misunderstandings can be intended or non-intended but the end result is the beauty that comes out with it which enhances the learning and acquisition of a second language. The discussion, therefore, highlights how formal linguistic features, as well as the pragmatic components of CP and CI, can lead to the enjoyment of humour as a pedagogical tool in creating a conducive learning environment necessary for second language learning.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

This paper has provided a step by step approach of unpacking humour in joke stories by using *Udurawana* data of Sir Lanka. The analysis has employed Grice's (1975) theory of Conversational Implicature and Juckel, Bellman and Varan's (2016) Taxonomy of Humour Techniques as theoretical models. The study has discovered that understanding of humour involves going through different layers of language as most of the humour does not reside at the surface; but rather deep inside the meanings of words and phrases. We have discovered that *Udurawana*'s jokes create humour by using puns, misunderstandings, and ridicules as its major techniques which in the end flouts almost all the maxims in Grice's Cooperative Principle. It has been noted that the audience does not take the flouting of the maxims by the interactants as failure to understand one another, but rather deliberate and intentional techniques to make them laugh. However, for someone to understand and appreciate the beauty of humour that appears in a second language like that of *Udurawana*, the study has provided some insights on the need for language teachers to employ humour as a language teaching tool which can help captivate the learners, motivate them and get them glued to the lesson. Humour can further improve the classroom atmosphere, increase freedom and facilitate student-teacher interaction. Therefore, language teachers must take deliberate steps in training second language students take baby-steps for them to appreciate humour starting from the basic meanings of words to how the words build on each other so that humorous discourse can become wholesome. Second language learners' success in unpacking humour will be one of the indications of advances in second language acquisition.

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# The Change of Language: A Critical Analysis of New Literacies on Twitter and in Educational Context

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**Abstract**—In modern society, there has been a trend that people tend to use effective tool in everyday correspondence. The development of social media network contributes to such situation. Therefore, a study is needed for the new literacies in the current communication of people's daily life. With the aim to help educators better teach students in modern language context, the author adopted the information on Twitter, a widely-used social media network, and analysed it critically in educational context. It is found that the social media network brings both advantages and flaws to the English language. Such trend makes it more convenient for people to convey information but may confuse the readers and discourage them to read, especially aged people.

**Index Terms**—new literacies, Twitter, educational context

## I. INTRODUCTION

From the new millennium, there has been dramatic change in the way we live and communicate, owing to the development and rise of digital electronic technologies (Castells, 1996, 2000). For instance, blog, twitter, face book, and tumblr provide opportunities for individuals to share life experiences and personal diaries. Texts and messages contribute to a more convenient way for people to communicate with words rather than voice. E-resources and new media allow students from remote areas to get access to cutting-edge knowledge. Computers and internet implement methods for people from different countries to experience cross-culture communication. For sure, most of us are aware of such technical revolution that changes the way we work, communicate, and entertain (Kellner, 2000). We begin to think differently and formulate new perspectives and opinions about life and the world, our mindset. As a result, “a new kind of mindset has begun to emerge and some new kinds of literacies have begun to evolve” (Lankshear and Knobel, 2006, p. 30). In terms of a more convenient communicative approach, some words can be used with shorter forms, which often come with vowel-free abbreviations and acronyms, when people use in text messaging. An obvious example can be “txt”, abbreviated from text (Kleinman, 2010). Some words can be used in a new way. I often hear people use “to google something” in everyday life, which refers to look something up on a search engine. Some acronyms appeared in internet language, such as, “LOL”, “ASAP”, “DBA” and so forth. These new linguistic aspects provide us with a simpler method to respond and reply on text messaging and the Internet.

Despite the fact that new technologies undoubtedly create more convenient approaches for people's everyday practices, a number of scholars, however, reported great concerns that the change of language might ruin the academic world. Dyson (1997) and Gee (2004) demonstrated worries according to the aspect of educational reform and government authority in that the new forms of language could simplify and reduce public and professional conceptions of literacy. In a recent action research by Hagood (2012), teachers who participated in that study were reported to be uncomfortable about new literacies used in classroom discourse. Students, especially teenagers, are likely to mix words in academic context with those on the Internet, which contributes to a more challenging circumstance in their academic reading and writing practices (Kress, 2003).

Therefore, as a language teacher, it is important for me to comprehend this phenomenon and deal with the challenges. In this paper, I mainly investigate the following aspects:

1. What is the meaning of new literacies?
2. How do the new forms of language influence our everyday practices?
3. How can educators deal with such change in an academic context?

I argue that teacher should utilise the change of language in class but be aware to explain the differences between new language in everyday and academic practices. My opinion is that educators should take a critical view on new forms of language and new types of literacies should be utilised according to the demands of the new millennium in order to connect education to the changing world.

## II. NEW LITERACIES

The term New Literacies stems from Literacy, which, generally speaking, refers to the ability to read and write. To achieve a better understanding of New Literacies, it is necessary to investigate the meanings of Literacy. Titmus (1989) thinks a literate person should have the knowledge and skills that qualified him in reading and writing, and enabled him to use those skills in his group and community. In other words, literacy is not merely related to the ability of reading and writing a particular kind of script (Lankshear and Knobel, 2007). In addition, it largely includes “socially developed and patterned ways of using technology and knowledge to accomplish tasks” (Scribner and Cole, 1981, p. 236). I completely appreciate the social approach of comprehending the meanings of literacy and as far as I am concerned, literacy is a socially-constructed system of using language. Lankshear and Knobel (2006a) regard literacy as “socially recognized ways of generating, communicating and negotiating meaningful content through the medium of encoded texts within contexts of participation in Discourses” (p. 64). McCaffery et al. (2007) defined this term as “a set of social and cultural practices linked by the use of the written word, and a tool for critical reflection and action for social change” (p. 35). A reason definition of literacy can be traced to UNESCO (2012).

*“Literacy is the ability to identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate and compute, using printed and written materials associated with varying contexts, which involves a continuum of learning in enabling individuals to achieve their goals, to develop their knowledge and potential, and to participate fully in their community and wider society.” UNESCO (2012, p. 5)*

Regarding the above perspectives, it can be concluded that literacy refers to the competence of utilising language in certain social context to achieve communication. Since it is related to social activities to a great extent, the change of life styles in a society more or less influences the way, in which we use language.

Having comprehended the meanings of literacy, it is appropriate to study “New Literacies”. As part of social practice, the forms of language are largely regulated by the continuous social change and the technologies (Boyarin, 1993; Gee, 1996; Manguel, 1996). In contemporary society, the growth of new technologies places a huge demand on language in communication. It is easily to find that people redefine literacy or attach new meanings to linguistic aspects when using electronic devices, like website (Kinzer, 2003; Lewis and Fabos, 1999). To utilise the linguistic functions of inferring special ideas, like limited time or amusement, people feel the need to modify the language they use to some new kinds of literacies (Coiro, 2003; Kinzer and Leander, 2003; Lankshear and Knobel, 2003; Leu, 2000a; Smolin and Lawless, 2003).

To understand the meanings of new literacies, however, is not simply an unproblematic approach. Leu et al. (2004) pointed out two major difficulties when defining new literacies: there existed very little research on new literacies; scholars lack a precise definition of new literacies. Though I more or less disagree with the latter, I have to admit that few studies have been done on this field in that new technologies appear significantly fast. I understand the reasons why researchers, like Leu et al. placed a strong need for a precise definition. They want a framework of “theory development as well as systematic investigation” in order to form a clear concept about new literacies (Leu, et al., 2004, p. 2). However, one aspect we need to know is that language is not set in stone, so as definition. It changes with the times. Apart from requesting a precise definition, why don't we take a look at the major element (technology) of the terminology?

From the very beginning, literacy was connected to the available means of technology, namely, “oral sounds, drums and flutes, gestures, facial expressions, petroglyphs, or the display of artifacts” (Bruce, 2003, p. 15). Since the invention of the Internet, new forms of literacy appeared, which affected people's everyday practices of literacy. Those who used to read with books in the past are now used to reading e-materials, proved by Lenhart, Simon, and Graziano (2001) who discovered that the younger generations in the United States depended on e-recourses for study to a great extent. In other words, new literacies are largely influenced by technologies. Some scholars, like Hagood (2012) agreed with this aspect and contributed to some interesting definitions. One representative definition is that “new Literacies are digital literacies; online, messaging, sms, phones and computers” (New Literacies & Classroom Practice, 2005, p. 1). This definition regards new literacies as digital means of using language. The technical component of new literacies cannot be denied, but is it merely about technology?

In my opinion, the answer obviously is “no”. As I put forward at the beginning, literacy is largely related to social practices. An appropriate way to define new literacies is to combine social practices with technologies. In agreement with Leu et al. (2007), four categories have been listed to define new literacies.

1. New technologies require new linguistic knowledge and skills;
2. New literacies contribute to cross-culture communication and global society;
3. New literacies change regularly according to the change of technologies;
4. New literacies include multiple views towards comprehension.

It can be seen from these categories that new literacies are an inclusive concept, involving new technologies, communication, and views.

Though all the above components are relevant to new literacies, in this essay, however, the author mainly adopts the linguistic aspect of new literacies in contemplation of investigating the linguistic change. Lankshear and Knobel (2006) raised another definition, differentiated from the above definitions, that is, “new socially recognized ways of generating, communicating and negotiating meaningful content through the medium of encoded texts within contexts of

participation in Discourses” (p. 65). This definition emphasises the social way to generate text in certain context, which is about language change according to people’s everyday practices.

Combining the previous research and my interests in language change, I define new literacies as new ways to generate meaningful content to achieve communication in certain contexts, modified by new technologies and “pop culture” (Hagood, 2012, p. 10), which place differences compared to the conventionally recognised ways to use language.

### III. TYPICAL FEATURES OF NEW LITERACIES ON TWITTER

Nowadays, new technologies grow significantly fast and influence the language that people use accordingly. To investigate the modern language, it is necessary to study some concrete prevalent linguistic aspects. In this part, this essay analysed some current and popular examples in a worldwide blog, twitter, to take a closer look at how up-to-date language is used. The author adopted the tweets on Twitter, a worldwide blog that allows people to share information with limited words but various forms.

#### A. The Replacement of Word

On Twitter, people sometimes use different styles to post their tweet by replacing the words with various forms. Some numbers are used currently to take the place of letters, owing to their similar pronunciations. The Twitter only allows “our most sophisticated thoughts and feelings into a measly 140 characters (or less)” (Hockenson, 2012, p. 1). Therefore, another function of number replacement is to save space to express complete idea, which is adopted in some celebrities’ tweets.

a. *Some1 just said if u drink red wine everyday U'LL b more beautiful. Naturally blushed cheeks & relaxed facial expression. (Tyra Banks, 2015, Mar. 3)*

b. *So grateful 2 be included among the greatest comic talent of the last 4 gens on SNL 40th anniversary and 2 all of u 4 putting me there. ;^ (Jim Carrey, 2015, Feb. 16)*

c. *come 2night & see new exhibition, one of my FAV ARTISTS #waelshawky w/@klausbiesenbach @momaps1 amazing marionettes! (Lady Gaga, 2015, Jan. 31)*

The above cases represent some situations where number replaces letter. In (a), Tyra Banks used 1 after “some” to express the word “someone”, which combines letters and numbers to form a word that is commonly used. This act changes the conventionally recognised word forms to newly forms but not recognised structures. Similar examples can be seen in Netlingo, where chat acronyms and text shorthand are collected and listed. In (c), as well, Lady Gaga used 2 to represent “to” in the spelling of “tonight”. The newly formed word “2night” seems to be more prevalent than “somel” in that I received a number of messages where “2night” appeared in the text. Likewise, a more widely used form is number replacing the whole word rather than parts of it. In (b), Jim Carrey described his thankfulness to his fans. He adopted “2” and “4” to replace “to” and “for”. This adoption, however, may lead to misunderstanding of his expression for those are not familiar with the use of number in internet language. It can be seen from these examples that there are two major trends of using number in new literacies practices: the combination of figure and letter, and the replacement of number and word. Through the observation of over 500 tweets among different individuals in Twitter, the trend of using number is still in a traditional manner, which replaces the word form of number with figure, like four and 4.

Besides numbers, some letters also replace words. A very typical example can be “U”. The pronunciation of “U” is the same as “you”. For the purpose of convenience, Tyra Banks in (a) used “U” and “U'LL” instead of “you” and “you’ll”. This expression is widely accepted on Twitter and can widely be seen in people’s messages and notes.

#### B. Sign and Picture

A very interesting expression on Twitter is the use of pictures and signs to cover the meanings of words. Some signs have typical meanings in internet language, like @ and #.

d. *Thank you dear friend @KarlLagerfeld for photographing me and my stylist @Brandonvmaxwell Fashion is love! (Lady Gaga, 2015, Mar. 19)*

e. *Get the champagne! The show was a HIT! Kate and Gaga ♥ Wang at Balenciaga!! (Lady Gaga, 2015, Mar. 6)*

f. *Chris is joining @GlbICtzn in their campaign to end extreme poverty by 2030. Please sign up with him <http://bit.ly/glbictzn> #GlobalCitizen (Coldplay, 2015, Feb. 13)*

g. *Mornin' (Tyra Banks, 2015, Mar. 13)*

The sign @ is considered as the most important aspect on Twitter, without which people are not able to communicate (Hockenson, 2012). It is the “necessary marker for the system to recognise when you’re talking to someone and therefore alert them of the mention” (Hockenson, 2012, p. 1). With this sign, individuals feel it easier to contact people and seek reply. For example, in (d), Lady Gaga used the symbol “@” to send her thankfulness to her friend KarlLagerfeld and tell her stylist Brandonvmaxwell about her passion of fashion. By using “@”, her friends can see what Lady Gaga writes on Twitter immediately, owing to the alert of the Twitter’s system. It plays an important role in people’s requirement of easy and quick communication and interaction on Twitter. Similarly, another significant

symbol is “#”, which expresses the meaning of “topic”. By showing the topic of a tweet, this hashtag implies a current event. Therefore, it refers to “topic” and “current tendency”. In (f), Coldplay persuaded the fans to take part in the campaign to end poverty and used “#” to connect the expression to a current programme, GlobalCitizen. By demonstrating the idea clearly, the fans are able to recognise the content of GlobalCitizen, which helps Coldplay to achieve their goal. Some oral expressions are also used on Twitter. In oral English, some people tend to weaken the sound of “ing” when speaking. This phenomenon now appears on Twitter, like (f). Unlike the typical form of “morning”, Tyra Banks used the oral expression “mornin’”. It can be seen that oral English affects people’s literacy practices.

Instead of expressing the whole ideas with phrases and sentences, people sometimes use pictures to describe their feelings. Like ♥ in (e), it infers the meaning of “like” and “love”. Lady Gaga used this to show her love and appreciation of Wang. However, pictures may result in misunderstanding. Without words, the viewers have to guess the meaning according to their own experiences and opinions. Although pictures can add vividness to the tweets, they also create obstacles for people to achieve comprehension.

### C. The Change of Words

Besides the use of numbers and signs, another tendency is the change of words, obvious examples of which are abbreviation and initial. The former (also called clipping) refers to “a process that shortens a polysyllabic word by deleting one or more syllables” (O’Grady et al., 2001, p. 157), whereas the latter (also called acronyms) means “taking the initial letter of (some or all) the words in a phrase or title and pronouncing them as a word” (O’Grady et al., 2013, p. 137).

The use of abbreviations of English language stemmed from the fifteenth century, when the “early forms of dictionaries of initialisms” appeared (Cannon, 1989, p. 99). A main reason why people tend to use shorter form of word and phrase is that it helps save time and labour. Therefore, it is “convenience and sometimes a temptation” (Cannon, 1989, p. 103). Through the frequent practices of abbreviation, some words have been modified to a shorter form and widely recognised, like “exam” and “examination”, “photo” and “photograph” (Cambridge Dictionaries Online, 2015). Language on Twitter meets such change as well.

h. @Helix: RT if you can't wait to swoon over Sergio in tonight's all-new episode of #Helix at 10/9c. ”

Crockett! (Steven Adelson, 2015, Mar. 20)

i. My bro killed that shiiiiitt! #Ultra lets GOOO JB! (Justin Bieber, 2015, Mar. 29)

j. Lol. #BieberRoast (Justin Bieber, 2015, Mar. 30)

RT refers to retweet, “an action on tweeting where someone broadcasts the message of another person they are following” (Hockenson, 2012, p. 2). This acronym has the function of replying and requesting. In (h), for instance, Steven Adelson used RT to make a request to his fans that attracts their attention to the new episode. RT is unique on Twitter in that it reflects the communicative function of Twitter system. In addition to “RT”, LOL is accepted in everyday speaking and also used on Twitter, like (j). The prevalent meaning of “LOL” is laughing out loud (Morgan, 2011). And it is used in everyday communication to express joke, amusement, and humorous statement. People often say this phrase as a word to begin a conversation with friends. “Bro”, the shorter form of “brother” is also widely accepted in everyday language. It does not merely refer to “brother” as relative, but can also be used among close friends, especially by boys.

### D. Summary

It can be seen from the above features that new literacies on Twitter have multiple forms, such as number expression, letter replacement, sign and visual expression, and the different adoption of word and phrase forms. The various forms of language demonstrate its animation and vividness, which help prosper the language. Through the analysis of the above tweets, the author found that people had personal and individual preference of using new literacies, probably as everyday language. In addition, everyday language practices largely affect people’s adoption of new literacies on Twitter. In certain discourse, the new literacies convey concrete meanings. However, people outside the discourse may not be able to comprehend the tweets clearly. In this manner, new literacies create obstacles for viewers to peruse successful understanding. As a result, new literacies on Twitter may still not be accepted by the majority of people.

## IV. DISCUSSION

Compared to new literacies on Twitter that focus on individuals’ everyday language practices, the literacy in educational context consists of three main differences: literacy in educational context is largely taught by teachers in schools; it is conventionally formed and recognised by the majority of people; it relates to “the use of dominant language” (McCaffrey et al., 2007, p. 126) and accepted as national and official language (UNESCO, 2005a). Some literacy teachers think highly of new literacies in classroom teaching and learning out of the reason that the new forms of language contribute to learners’ better understanding of “real-world skills and exhibit personal growth” (Kist, 2004, p. 3), whereas some disagree with such idea and place negative opinions of new literacies in that the change of language may break the “original standard” (Aitchison, 2000, p. 120) and lead to some side effects (Bruce, 2003). The new form of language is actually the challenge of tradition. With critical perspectives, a number of researchers consider this

situation as a double-edge sword (Baker and O'Neil, 1994; Roblyer, Castine and King, 1988). In agreement with the objective and critical approach of these researchers, the essay views that new literacies could break the traditionally formed language and cause trouble, but educators should have a critical point of view towards such language change and utilise it in educational context.

The spread of new literacies may result in troubles. The new forms of language people use on Twitter keep challenging their traditional knowledge. A major difference between them is the way in which people acquire knowledge. Generally speaking, there is little systematic education of new literacies, especially the analysis of online reading comprehension (Coiro and Dobler, 2007). Individuals, in most cases, learn the way to use these skills through their everyday practices, which, largely depends on their original literacy skills. However, "little is known about how to analyze or teach those skills" (Leu et al., 2007, p. 39). Without systematic study, they are not able to use the new language as well as the traditionally formed language. According to the examples of the above celebrities, people have preferable choice of language and expressions, which, sometimes, cause misunderstanding to those outside the discourse. Unlike new literacies, traditional literacy is generally acquired by people from schools and everyday practices, which help them found an overall and background knowledge of the prevalent language and contribute to their mutual understanding owing to that fact that the literacy they acquire is publicly recognised and systematically studied. People are taught with dominant language. On the Internet, the abuse of new literacies, however, creates obstacle for people to read, especially the older generation. Currently, most students do not receive support when developing new literacies skills in online reading comprehension (Leu, 2006). These students, however, depend largely on the Internet for resources for the Internet becomes a central source of information (Lyman and Varian, 2003). Therefore, new literacies actually discourage people to read on the Internet and contribute to people's online reading difficulty.

Another flaw of new literacies is the misuse of language. Language has different functions in context. In some important context like speeches and interviews, individuals are supposed to use formal language in order to demonstrate their ability of academic status and impress the audience. Generally speaking, there are a few situations that require people to use formal language:

*When writing an essay for a class.*

*When writing an email for work that's going to go out to a lot of people in the company who you don't personally know.*

*When speaking to a customer who you don't know on a first-name basis.*

*When speaking with someone who's a lot older than you.*

*(PhraseMix, 2015, p. 1)*

Writing in educational often requires students to use formal English so as to equip those students with literacy skills in their future career. To show respect to the older generation and people with high status, individuals are supposed to utilise formal English. Nevertheless, the spread of new literacies on the Internet often leads to the mix of languages from different contexts. Through the analysis of Twitter language, the author found that new literacies were closely related to peoples' everyday language. People are likely to write with everyday language, proved by the analysis of tweets. As a result, teachers may find it more difficult to improve students' academic writing ability.

Despite the fact that new literacies place great challenge in the educational context, it can not be denied that the new literacies have some advantages. Firstly, new literacies contribute to the diversity and variety of English that stop English from dying out. The phenomenon of language dying out does not refer to the alter of language over centuries, but means the total disappearance of a language (Aitchison, 2000). The appliance of new literacies combines people's everyday language practices with the new technology to create new forms of language that can be used for individuals to catch up with the times. This is an effective way to demonstrate the liveliness of language. With multiple forms of expressions, people are able to build up personal and individual styles when writing on Twitter. Additionally, the contemporary society increasingly requires people to utilise new literacies skills. The Internet, nowadays, frequently appears in the workplace, in which the staff must possess certain skills and strategies during online reading (Coiro and Dobler, 2007). Those knowledge and skills include the components of traditional literacy and new literacies. Coiro and Dobler (2007) also found a number of connections between online reading comprehension and offline reading understanding. That is to say, it may be ignorant to neglect the functions and skills of new literacies in the new millennium.

## V. CONCLUSION

This essay considered new literacies as a social approach to language change according to new technologies and new ways to generate meaningful content to achieve communication in certain contexts. With a critical analysis of new literacies on Twitter, the author found the major advantages and flaws.

On the one hand, new literacies place great challenge on the conventionally formed language in the educational context, where formal language is taught. Literacy education equips students with socially recognised and systematic skills of reading and writing through classroom teaching and everyday learning. New literacies, however, mainly focus on students' everyday practices and so far there is little systematic education guide about those new languages. As a result, people adopt their preferable new aspects of language in online reading and writing, which have not been

publicly recognised. This phenomenon in fact may confuse the readers and discourage them to continue reading. Also, the fact that new literacies are more prevalent in the younger generations, aged people may not understand the change, which strengthens the generation gap.

On the other hand, new literacies serve people's requirement for convenient communication in the new millennium. In the modern society, an easy and fast approach of communication has become a trend of individuals' everyday practices. Some companies place great emphasis on employees' new skills and strategies to online reading comprehension (Leu et al., 2007), which has been a major source of information since the new millennium when computers and the Internet were put to use and spread all over the world. The skills and strategies of new literacies actually equip the next generation with better literacy ability to keep pace with the times and the social tendency.

### Implications

There exist both positive and negative views on such change of language. Neither view may not be appropriate for educators in the society with increasing new technologies and modern culture. Teachers are supposed to take a critical perspective of new literacies and make good use of those skills and strategies in the educational context. Through the study of the current situation of new literacies, the author has summed up with some recommendations for educators.

1. Teachers should recognise the communicative approach of new literacies but remember to help students distinguish the useful forms of language in different context.
2. Formal language teaching is still appropriate in the current literacy education, which contributes to students' future development.
3. Online reading support should be given to students.

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# Thai EFL Learners' Collocational Competence and Their Perceptions of Collocational Difficulty

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**Abstract**—The collocational competence of undergraduate students of English at a university in northeastern Thailand and their perceptions of collocational difficulty were investigated in this study. The participants were 153 2nd-, 3rd-, and 4th-year students of English selected through a convenient sampling method and via their consents to take part in the study. The participants who were enrolled in the second term of academic year 2017 were administered a collocational competence test which comprised 35 fill-in-the-blank items with optional alternatives. They were to answer a Likert's type questionnaire of 5 rating scales (Reliability coefficient = 0.96) probing their perceptions of the difficulty of collocations in parallel with each test item. The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and One-Way ANOVA was computed to test the hypothesis. The results indicated that on the whole the participants had a 'moderate level' of collocational competence. They were not significantly different in terms of their collocational competence when it comes to their different years of studies. The participants perceived collocations as fairly difficult with the idiomatic collocations reported as being the most difficult category. The findings were discussed in relation to the theoretical difficulty of collocations and suggestions for pedagogy and further research were offered.

**Index Terms**—collocation, competence, difficulty, perceptions

## I. INTRODUCTION

The ability to use proficient English in both speaking and writing is entirely the result of adequate knowledge of vocabulary, especially expressive vocabulary. And this knowledge involves no other aspects than competence of collocations which are conventionalised word combinations that are often used together in a language. Collocation is the way one word is seemingly automatically used with another word in a recurring manner. For example, in the sentence Have some toast for breakfast, the preposition for is always used with the word breakfast. If someone says with or by breakfast, it is a wrong collocation, thus sounding unnatural. However, it is not always easy for a second language learner to be able to recognize or to use a collocation, although a native speaker will immediately notice when a learner uses a word combination that is different from the conventional one (Lewis, 1997).

Thai university students, especially those who major in English, are ideally expected to perform more than satisfactorily in English, and this means they use English in a natural-sounding manner. However, research has shown that collocation is and has been problematic and difficult for Thai students, impeding their proficiency in English as a result (Mongkolchai, 2008; Sridhanyarat, 2018). Moreover, this line of research has focused on the investigation of two major strands of collocations—lexical and grammatical collocations, and seems to have concluded that Thai EFL students find lexical collocations as the most difficult, followed by grammatical collocations (e.g. Yumanee & Phoocharoensil, 2013). Very few research works have been carried out to study the collocational competence of Thai EFL students pertaining to the category of collocations in which they show their weakness or in particular the perceptions of collocational difficulty in tandem with the reception and production of English collocations. Moreover, most research works pertaining to Thai EFL university students' collocational competence focused on a limited sub-category of collocation structures such as Verb+Noun and Adjective + Noun (e.g. Meechai & Chumvorathayee, 2014). However, research on Thai EFL students' collocational competence and their perceptions of the collocational difficulty is still scant.

In this study, an attempt was made to investigate the collocational competence of Thai undergraduate students of English based on the three classifications of collocations—lexical collocations, grammatical collocation, and idiomatic expressions, and to juxtapose the students' perceptions of collocational difficulty with their collocational competence. The results from this study would be beneficial for explaining the phenomena of language use by the learners, preparing a language course curriculum, and for framing a policy of English learning and teaching. They would also hold a theoretical significance for second language learning and teaching, adding more literature to the existing repertoire of the related literature in this line of research. The following research questions were addressed in this study:

1. What is, holistically, the collocational competence of the students of English at KUCSC?
2. Are the second, third, and fourth-year students of English at KUCSC significantly different in terms of their competence in grammatical collocations, lexical collocations, and idiomatic expressions?
3. Are the students with different English proficiency levels significantly different in terms of their collocational competence?
4. How do the students of English at KUCSC perceive collocational difficulty?



5. Is there a significant difference in the perceptions of collocational difficulty among the second, third, and fourth-year students of English at KUCSC?

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Collocation: Definition and Classification

Scholars have defined the term collocation in a various but seemingly similar way. McCarthy and O'Dell (2005) define collocation as a close word combination with other words as in the following examples: too collocates with much or late; the word tall seems to collocate with building and high with mountain. Lewis (2000) gives the meaning of collocation as the method of unexpected natural co-occurrence with lexical items in a context. Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English (McIntosh, Francis, & Poole (2009) offers the following clear-cut definition "Collocation is the way words combine in a language to produce natural-sounding speech and writing (p. v). It elaborates further by providing examples such as strong wind, and heavy rain.

Pertaining to the classification of collocations, various types of collocations have been distinguished. However, Benson, Benson, and Ilson (2010) seem to be the first academics who delineate the two major strands of collocations which have been widely well-accepted –Grammatical collocations and lexical collocations.

Grammatical collocations consist of the main word (a noun, an adjective, a verb followed by a preposition or 'to+infinitive' or 'that-clause' and they are marked by 8 basic sub-categories:

G1= noun + preposition e.g. blockade against, apathy towards

G2= noun + to-infinitive e.g. He was a fool to do it., They felt a need to do it.

G3= noun + that-clause e.g. We reached an agreement that she would represent us in court., He took an oath that he would do his duty.

G4= preposition + noun e.g. by accident, in agony

G5= adjective + preposition e.g. fond of children, hungry for news

G6= adjective + to-infinitive e.g. it was necessary to work, it's nice to be here

G7= adjective + that-clause e.g. she was afraid that she would fail, it was imperative that I be here

G8= 19 different verb patterns in English e.g. verb + to-infinitive (they began to speak), verb + bare infinitive (we must work) and other.

Lexical collocations consist of two or more content words, i.e. nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. They do not contain prepositions, infinitives or relative clauses. Examples of lexical collocations as follows:

Adjective + noun	: sour milk
verb + noun	: conduct research
noun + noun	: dust accumulates
adverb + adjective	: mentally disabled
verb + adverb	: move freely
adverb + verb	: proudly present

However, Wei's (1999 as cited in Tekingul, 2013)) classification of collocations is still practical and seems to add to the seemingly incomplete list. He added one more category to collocations; that is, idiomatic expressions. Idiomatic expressions are the combinations of words that are entirely fixed, and it is impossible to substitute any of their components with other words.

Examples of idiomatic expressions include: kick the bucket, till the cows come home, it rains cats and dogs, wet behind the ears, in conclusion, a helping hand, etc. For the purpose of the present study, Wei's classification of collocations was applied.

### B. Importance of Collocations

The literature in reference to the importance of collocational knowledge or competence seems to have agreed on the three common areas of the importance of collocations for language competence. First, language knowledge requires collocational knowledge. As claimed by Hill (2000), collocations are everywhere. They are found in up to 70% of everything said, heard, read, or written. Collocations underline the strong patterning that exists in language and shows that a word-by-word approach cannot be an effective way of deriving the meaning in a text. Moreover, Nation (2001) posits that the strongest stance is that language knowledge is collocational knowledge because "the stored sequences of words are the bases of learning, knowledge and use" (p. 321).

The next importance of collocational knowledge lies in the fact that it is key to native-like production (Men, 2018); that is to say, a good command of collocational knowledge helps to achieve the native-like production through promoting fluency. What differentiates between native speakers and non-native speakers is that native speakers have accrued more examples of the language and are consequently able to speak at a relatively fast pace because of their calling on a vast repertoire of ready-made language in their long-term memory (Hill, 1999). That L2 learners can use language fluently indicates their native-like fluency. When L2 learners communicate in the target language, they usually compose sentences by putting words together. This process delays their speech. Some English learners spend a bit longer time thinking about what words to say and when they speak, they speak in a broken manner because they try to

choose words for use together. If they know collocations, they will speak faster because of the word combinations in their mental lexicon will work automatically, thus there is no waste of processing time, which usually renders a mistake.

Another salient benefit of knowing collocations is it contributes to efficient comprehension for L2 learners. Hunston and Francis (2000) maintains that with a good command of collocational knowledge, learners can understand the meaning of text without having to focus on every single word. Fluency in reading and listening can also be enhanced as a result of this knowledge. L2 learners can reconstruct the meanings even if they mishear some words in speech. Collocation is thus recognized by Lewis (2000) as “the most powerful force in the creation and comprehension of all naturally-occurring texts” (p.45).

### *C. Development of Collocational Competence*

It has been widely accepted that collocational competence can be developed through systematic and explicit teaching methods. Dokchandra (2015a) systematically taught Thai EFL students how to notice collocations as they read 4 English texts from the VOA news special English web pages and 4 texts from BBC learning English web pages. After 8 weeks of instruction, it was found that the experimental group's collocation test score significantly increased from before the treatment, and the researcher confirmed that teaching collocation noticing in a systematic way indeed helped to develop the learners' collocational competence, particularly their receptive skill of collocations. Other researchers, moreover, confirmed similar results of a systematic instruction of collocations for learners' improved writing abilities (Eidians, Gorjian, & Aghvami, 2014), as well as speaking abilities (Attar, 2013; Mohammadi & Enayati, 2018).

### *D. Relevant Past Studies*

Several studies have been carried out to investigate collocational competence of Thai learners of English, especially at the university level. Mallikamas & Pongpairaj (2005) investigated the collocational knowledge of Thai learners of English in the receptive and productive modes, and found that lexical collocations and grammatical collocations were equally difficult for them to receive. In the productive mode, lexical and bound collocations were found to be less difficult. Other research works focused on some patterns of collocations as the objectives of investigation. For example, Detdamrongprecha (2014) singled out three patterns of lexical collocations for the investigation; that is, verb+noun, adjective+noun, and noun+noun, in order to investigate the receptive and productive collocational knowledge of the students—International programme, English major, and non-English major. On the whole the results indicated that the students of all groups had fair level of collocational competence. The findings indicated that the participants could identify which were nouns, adjectives or verbs, but they did not know how to use those words in collocations. The researcher put this down to the fact that collocations are rarely taught, even if they are, the learners do not pay sufficient attention. Suwitchanphan and Phoocharoensil (2014) also measured the collocational competence of Thai EFL students focusing on the adjective + noun pattern of lexical collocations. The participants were regular programme and English programme secondary school students, and they were administered three formats of collocation test-gap-filling, multiple-choice selection, and descriptive written task. The findings showed that the regular programme students outperformed the English programme students, whose medium of instruction is English, rendering the author to justify that massive exposure to the target language without sufficient opportunity to produce adjective+noun collocations through speaking and writing in class is not necessarily conducive to enhancement of adjective+noun collocational competence. This finding was reiterated by El-Dakhs (2015) who studied the collocational competence of 90 Arab undergraduate students at three academic levels in a university in Saudi Arabia, and found that collocational competence of learners was notably unsatisfactory though English is the medium of instruction at the university. Recent research by Thongviti and Thumwongsa (2017) who investigated the misused collocations in research article abstracts written by Thai EFL writers indicated the difficulty of grammatical collocation (noun+preposition) followed by lexical collocation (adjective+noun).

The above-reviewed line of research seems to focus on the two popular classifications of grammatical and lexical collocations, but the idiomatic expressions as another category of collocations are rarely researched. Previous research is therefore still shallow pertaining to the exact types of collocations that pose the real problems for EFL learners. Moreover, no research has been done to investigate the collocational difficulty as perceived by EFL learners in parallel with their collocational competence. To fill this gap, the present study was carried out.

## III. METHODOLOGY

### *A. Population and Sampling*

Two hundred and twenty seven second, third, and fourth year-students of English who enrolled in the second term of the academic year 2017 at Sakon Nakhon province campus of Kasetsart University in Thailand's northeastern province of Sakon Nakhon served as the population of this research. Of the 227 students, 153 were conveniently selected as the samples on the basis of their willingness to take part in the study. Subsequently, the samples were administered the collocational test and the collocational difficulty questionnaire.

### *B. Research Instrument*

Collocational Competence Test and Collocational Difficulty Questionnaire (CCT&CDQ)

The CCT&CDQ was an all-inclusive data collection tool the researcher constructed for gathering the data pertaining to both the collocational competence of the participants and their perceptions of collocational difficulty.

The CCT&CDQ was composed of two parts: Part I was a demographic section which contains 4 items that elicit personal information about the participants in terms of age, gender, year of study, and the recent GPA. Part II was a 35-item set of a collocational competence test and a collocational difficulty questionnaire. Each item is an English sentence with a blank where one correct collocate is needed to be chosen in order to form the correct collocation. The participants had to choose one best alternative out of the three given in the parenthesis by underlining or circling it. At the same time, they were required to rate the difficulty of each target collocation by indicating the level of difficulty ranging from "5 = Very difficult", "4 = Fairly difficult", "3 = Difficult", "2 = Easy", and "1 = Very easy". Of the 35 items in the CCT&CDQ, 12 items (item 1-12) were grammatical collocations; 18 items (item 13-30) were lexical collocations; and 5 items (item 31-35) were idiomatic expressions. There was an indication of the collocation type prior to each group of the test items. Figure 1 below illustrates what each test item looks like.

		5	4	3	2	1
0	Noun + Verb Business is _____ for the big car companies. (booming / advancing / progressing )			/		

Figure 1: An example of a CCT&CDQ item

In this example, the word *booming* is to be chosen as the correct collocate, indicating that "Business is booming" is the correct collocation (Noun + Verb), while "3" is chosen to indicate that the respondent considers this collocation as somewhat difficult. In order to ensure the reliability of the research tool, the internal consistency method was implemented in this study which involved one test, one research tool, and one group of participants. The CCT&CDQ was tried out in two stages, in the first pilot stage and in the second one. The piloted version of the CCT&CDQ was administered to 15 students of English who were not the same target group (year 2-4) at Sakon Nakhon Rajabhat University, and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the tool was 0.791. The CCT&CDQ was then slightly amended and improved before being put to use with another group of 30 English major students at the same university. The improvement of the CCT & CDQ included, for example, changes of some words in each sentence to ensure they were in the list of high frequency words, and the layout of the questionnaire as a whole. This is because some respondents commented that the CCT&CDQ looked a bit cramped. Also, from the researcher's own observation, they students seemed to be in a rush in completing the CCT&CDQ, and that might have resulted from their tiredness from reading the poorly-designed layout of the test and questionnaire. The results of the second piloted study saw the CCT&CDQ reach a Cronbach's alpha of 0.96, hence being deemed highly reliable and acceptable for use in this study. Generally, a Cronbach's alpha of .70 and above is fair, .80 and above is good, and .90 and above is excellent (Taylor, 2013).

### C. Procedure

The researcher and his assistants started collecting the data by administering the CCT&CDQ to the participants in August, 2017. To this end, they sought cooperation from the teachers who taught the class which was attended by the participants in making sure they took it seriously in completing the CCT&CDQ; that is, they were not allowed to use a dictionary of any type, and collecting the completed CCT&CDQ, which was then handed over to the researcher and his assistants.

### D. Coding, Scoring, and Analyzing the Data

The collocational competence test in the CCT&CDQ was then coded and scored by using the answer key prepared by the researcher based on Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English (McIntosh, Francis, & Poole (2009) and BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English (Benson, Benson, & Ilson, 2010). In addition, an English native teacher was requested to give a helping hand in crosschecking and confirming that the word chosen as the correct choice in each item can no longer collocate with other words. The right answer received "1" and the wrong answer received "0". An unanswered item was given "0" as well. The researcher used SPSS for Windows (version 21) to analyze the data for descriptive statistics—percentage, mean, and standard deviation, and statistical tests—independent samples t-test, correlation, and one-way ANOVA.

## IV. RESULTS

### A. The Participants' Demographic Results

One hundred and fifty three students took part in this study. Of this number, there were 77 second-year students (50.3%), 36 (23.5%) third-year, and 40 (26.1%) fourth-year students, respectively. In terms of the level of English proficiency, 29 students (19%) were low, 108 students (70%) medium, and 16 students (10.5%) were high.

### B. Answer to Research Question 1

To answer research question 1 which asks: "What is, holistically, the collocational competence of the students of English at KUCSC?", the collocational competence test (CCT) scores were computed. The participants' collocational competence was categorized into four levels based on the mean scores they managed to get: very low (0-7 scores), low (8-14 scores), moderate (15-21 scores), high (22-28 scores), and very high (29-35 scores).

As indicated in Table 1, the average collocational competence test (CCT) score of 153 participants was only 16 (44%) out of total score of 35. This indicates that the students of English at KUCSC had a moderate level of English collocational competence. Taking into account the 15.56 mean, which is just 1.56 higher than 14, it can be seen that the participants' collocational competence was only narrowly higher than the low level. The minimum score was 4, while the maximum score was 23.

TABLE I.  
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' CCT SCORES

Number	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Meaning
153	4	23	15.56	3.02	Moderate

#### *The participants' overall collocational competence by types*

As illustrated in Table 2, the students had a very low level of competence in idiomatic expressions, while with regard to grammatical and lexical collocations, they had a low level of competence. Only 8 out of 18 items of lexical collocations (43.61%) were correctly answered by the students, and only half of the students (51.16%) could correctly select the grammatical collocation items.

In detail, there were 12 items of grammatical collocations. On average, only 78 (60.70%) students could correctly answer this part of the test items, while 75 students (46.42%) chose the wrong answers.

The idiomatic expressions part of the CCT contained 5 items. Of the 153 students, only 49 (32%) correctly answered these 5 test items. Most of them (68%) chose the wrong answers. On the whole, it was found that there was only one item (item 31– He was caught between the devil and the deep \_\_\_\_\_.(blue sea , green line, hole) that was correctly chosen by more than half of the students. The items other than item 31 were wrongly answered by more than half of the students.

TABLE II.  
PARTICIPANTS' COLLOCATIONAL COMPETENCE BY TYPES (N=153)

Types of collocations	Min	Max	Total score	Mean	S.D.	Percent
Grammatical collocations	2	11	12	6.14	1.76	51.16
Lexical collocations	0	12	18	7.85	1.86	43.61
Idiomatic expressions	0	4	5	1.61	1.10	32.2

#### *C. Answer to Research Question 2*

Are the second, third, and fourth-year students significantly different in terms of their competence in grammatical collocations, lexical collocations, and idiomatic expressions? As illustrated in Table 3, the average mean scores of the students classified by their years of study look seemingly not much different. However, one-way ANOVA (F-test) was used to analyze the results to assess the differences in the collocational competence among the second, third, and fourth-year students of English at KUCSC. The analysis showed statistical significance at the 0.05 level, as indicated in Table 4.

TABLE III.  
PARTICIPANTS' COLLOCATIONAL COMPETENCE CLASSIFIED BY YEAR OF STUDY (N=153)

Year of study	Number	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
2	77	4	21	14.87	3.10
3	36	12	22	16.83	2.53
4	40	11	23	15.75	2.91

TABLE IV.  
F-TEST RESULTS FOR THE DIFFERENCES OF COLLOCATIONAL COMPETENCE BY YEAR OF STUDY

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	89.560	2	44.780	5.078	.007
Within Groups	1322.689	150	8.818		
Total	1412.248	152			

As shown in Table 4, the P-value (Sig.=.007) is smaller than the alpha value (0.05), the conclusion was that the second, third, and fourth-year students of English at KUCSC were significantly different in regard to their collocational competence at the 0.05 level.

#### *D. Answer to Researcher Question 3*

To answer the question: "Is there a significant difference in collocational competence among the students with different English proficiency levels?", the scores from the CCT were analyzed and it was found that, based on their

recent grades point average, the high scorers (GPA = 3.50–4.00) had the average CCT score of 16, while the medium scorers (GPA = 2.50–3.49) got 15.50 on average, and the low scorers (GPA = 1.00–2.49) obtained 15.48 on average. To test if the students of three different proficiency levels are significantly different in terms of their collocational competence, F-test was conducted and the results of the analysis were as shown in Table 5.

TABLE V.  
F-TEST RESULTS FOR THE COLLOCATIONAL COMPETENCE BY PROFICIENCY LEVELS

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3.610	2	1.805	.192	.825
Within Groups	1408.639	150	9.391		
Total	1412.248	152			

As Table 5 indicates, the P-value (Sig. = .825) is larger than the alpha value (0.05), it was therefore concluded that the students of English at KUCSC with different English proficiency levels were not significantly different in regard to their collocational competence.

#### E. Answer to Research Question 4

To find the answer to the question: "How do the students of English at KUCSC perceive collocational difficulty?", the data from the collocation difficulty questionnaire (CDQ) were analyzed for means and standard deviations, and the participant's perceptions of collocation difficulty were interpreted based on the following criteria for the interpretation of means: mean range from 4.21-5.00 = very difficult; 3.41-4.20 = difficult; 2.61-3.40 = Fairly difficult; 1.81-2.60 = easy; 1.00-1.80 = very easy.

The results of the data analysis showed that the overall mean of the CDQ was 3.32, meaning "difficult", and the SD 0.74 indicated that the students of English at KUCSC perceived the collocation difficulty in the same direction; that is, they regarded collocation as something difficult.

To further investigate how the participants perceived the collocation difficulty according to types, the CDQ data were analyzed for the overall means and standard deviations of the perceptions of the difficulty of grammatical, lexical, and idiomatic expressions collocations.

TABLE VI.  
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE PARTICIPANT'S PERCEPTIONS OF COLLOCATION DIFFICULTY ACCORDING TO TYPES (N=153)

Types of collocation	Mean	SD	Meaning
Grammatical	3.12	0.82	Fairly difficult
Lexical	3.35	0.81	Fairly difficult
Idiomatic expressions	3.69	0.91	Difficult

Based on the results in Table 6, it was found that the participants perceived grammatical and lexical collocations as somewhat difficult, but the idiomatic expressions collocation was perceived as difficult.

The analysis of the CDQ also revealed the results regarding the participants' perceptions of collocation difficulty as subcategorized by their year of study and collocation types, as indicated in Table 7.

TABLE VII.  
MEANS AND SD OF THE PARTICIPANT'S PERCEPTIONS OF COLLOCATION DIFFICULTY ACCORDING TO YEAR OF STUDY AND COLLOCATION TYPE (N=153)

Year of study / Type	Number	Mean	SD	Meaning
2 / Grammatical collocations	77	3.35	0.87	Fairly difficult
2 / Lexical collocations	77	3.54	0.88	Difficult
2 / Idiomatic expressions	77	<b>3.75</b>	0.96	Difficult
3 / Grammatical collocations	36	2.90	0.47	Fairly difficult
3 / Lexical collocations	36	3.40	0.69	Fairly difficult
3 / Idiomatic expressions	36	<b>3.82</b>	0.90	Difficult
4 / Grammatical collocations	40	2.86	0.83	Fairly difficult
4 / Lexical collocations	40	2.93	0.60	Fairly difficult
4 / Idiomatic expressions	40	<b>3.48</b>	0.76	Difficult

From Table 7, it can be clearly seen that the participants of all years of study perceived idiomatic expressions as difficult. Grammatical collocations and lexical collocations were perceived as somewhat difficult, with the exception that the second-year students also perceived lexical collocations as difficult.

#### F. Answer to Research Question 5

Question 5 asks: "Is there a significant difference in the perceptions of collocational difficulty among the second, third, and fourth-year students of English at KUCSC?" One-way ANOVA was computed to compare the means of the participants' perceptions of collocational difficulty, and the F-test results revealed that there was a significant difference ( $F=7.177$ ,  $df = 2$ ,  $sig.=0.001$ ) in the perceptions of the difficulty of collocations among the second, third, and fourth-year students. To find out which groups of the participants are really different, a second Scheffe post hoc test was run, and the results are presented in Table 7.

TABLE VIII.  
THE RESULTS OF SCHEFFE POST HOC TEST FOR SECOND, THIRD, AND FOURTH-YEAR STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF COLLOCATION DIFFICULTY

Groups	Group	Mean Difference	Sig.
year2	year3	.21559	.328
	year4	.52448 <sup>*</sup>	.001
year3	year2	-.21559	.328
	year4	.30889	.172
year4	year2	-.52448 <sup>*</sup>	.001
	year3	-.30889	.172

Table 8 shows that the differences in the perceptions of collocation difficulty among the three groups of students were significant. In other words, the second-year students perceived lexical collocations as difficult, while the fourth-year students perceived the same type of collocations as somewhat difficult.

## V. DISCUSSION

The overall results in this study indicated that the students had moderate to low level of collocational competence. The findings were in line with previous studies conducted in both Thailand and other countries which similarly confirmed that learners of English at all proficiency levels had difficulty learning and using English collocations (Hsu & Chiu, 2008; Yumanee & Phoocharoensil, 2013). In particular, the findings in this study reflected the conclusion by Mallikamas and Pongpairoj (2005) who asserted that Thai learners of English had a considerable problem with lack of collocational knowledge which was a widespread problem.

The idiomatic expressions collocation was found to be the most difficult type as indicated by the students' CCT mean scores, followed by lexical collocations, and grammatical collocations respectively. The students also perceived this type of collocations as difficult. However, Yumanee and Phoocharoensil (2013) found that among Thai EFL learners with low proficiency level, lexical collocations were the most problematic to them. Idiomatic expressions collocations were not included in the classification of collocations in Yumanee and Phoocharoensil's study, and therefore, the findings in the present study added to the literature pertaining to Thai university EFL students' knowledge of collocations in the sense that the most problematic collocations for them were idiomatic expressions but not lexical or grammatical collocations. Moreover, the perceptions of collocational difficulty were found to be agreeable among all proficiency level groups.

Yumanee and Phoocharoensil (2013), investigating the receptive and productive knowledge of English collocations of high-proficiency group and low-proficiency group of Thai EFL students, found that both groups were of low levels of collocational knowledge. Both low and high achievers could not choose the correct lexical collocation of การจราจรหนาแน่น. The majority of the students chose "thick traffic" rather than "heavy traffic". By the same token, the incorrect choice of Verb + Noun lexical collocation was also found when they chose "compare a contrast" instead of "draw a contrast", while indicating in the CDQ (Item 29) that it was fairly difficult. Therefore, the conclusion can be drawn at this point that the students' collocational competence and their perceptions of collocational difficulty were consistent, based on their overall CCT scores in comparison with the perceptions of collocational difficulty they reported in the CDQ. That is to say, most of the students wrongly answered items 31-35 (Idiomatic expressions collocations), and at the same time, they perceived these items as difficult and very difficult.

The plausible explanations for the students' nearly low level of collocational competence could be due to their shortage of collocational knowledge (Hashemi, Azizinezhad, & Dravishi, 2012), lack of a systematic teaching of collocations in class (Bueraheng, 2014 as cited in Chansopha, 2018), lack of support strategies for acquiring collocations (Dokchandra, 2015a), and less exposure time (Durrant & Schmitt, 2010; Vahabian, et al. 2018). Collocational knowledge is important for language reception and production. With profound and rigid knowledge of collocations, EFL/ESL learners can expect to achieve the native-like language use target. The students in this study lacked collocational knowledge, thus clearly showcasing their failure in receiving and producing the target language as indicated in their CCT scores. In terms of the receptive skill, if the learners are struggling in the word combinations (another phrase for collocations), they will perform unsatisfactorily in any standard English tests, let alone the specific collocational test such as the one used in this study.

Several of the students in this study, in conversation with the author, revealed that they were not taught about collocations in high school, and also in other classes at the university, the teachers did not emphasize the importance of collocations. Unsystematic teaching of vocabulary is, for example, when the teachers tend to focus on individual words and often lack useful materials for raising learners' awareness of collocations (Henriksen, 2009). This lack of systematic teaching of collocations resulted in their low level knowledge of collocations and perceptions of the word combinations as difficult in this study. According to Dokchandra (2015b) and other scholars such as Rahimi and Momeni (2012), learners of English need to know and use specific strategies to support their acquisition of vocabulary, especially collocations. He proposes the four-element cycle of vocabulary acquisition—*noticing, recording, revisiting, recreating*—as a seemingly effective support strategy for learning and acquiring collocations. The four elements are in fact intertwined, and would be highly effective if EFL learners put them into use persistently. However, the salient fact in the present context of English learning and teaching in Thailand is that a vast number of learners do not uphold

effective support strategies for learning collocations, their collocational competence development is, as a result, thwarted.

Less time exposure to collocations also accounts for the poor collocational knowledge of EFL learners. The participants in this study performed quite poorly in the CCT test, clearly indicating their lack of adequate exposure time to collocations. In this regard, Durrant and Schmitt (2010) posit that adequate input is highly important for the learners' retention of any learned collocations. Though learners are taught collocations in a systematic way, they are prone to the loss of retention of those word combinations if they do not consistently expose themselves to those collocations in an adequate input.

Lastly, the students' perceptions of collocational difficulty were in congruence with their almost low level of collocational competence; that is to say, they scored scantily from the CCT test, indicating that their perceptions were accurate. Several participants in this study indicated that idiomatic expressions were not difficult, but on the whole, their CCT performance was less than satisfactory. One explanation in this regard could be that learners may know idioms, but they are often wanting in the knowledge of when or how the idioms can be used appropriately (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1998; Siyanova & Schmitt, 2007). Another explanation might be that those students were not determined enough in answering the test. They just selected the alternatives and indicated their perceptions of the difficulty of the test item at their whim. For example, they perceived item 13 of the CCT&CDQ [She was an adviser \_\_\_\_\_ the prime minister. (of, to, for)] as easy, but in fact they wrongly scored because of their selection of "of" instead of "to". This wrong perception and consequently, wrong answer could be attributed to first language interference. The phrase adviser to is equivalent to ที่ปรึกษาของ in Thai, and the preposition ของ is generally translated as of, hence incorrect collocation when she was an adviser of the prime minister was chosen.

## VI. RECOMMENDATIONS

### A. Pedagogical Recommendations

(1) EFL learners should be systematically taught to be aware of and notice collocations in use (Ghazali, 2015). In this regard, the teacher is of a substantial role to play in teaching the learners to habitually notice collocations as used in authentic English. Supplementary exercises and activities for enhancing the noticing of collocations could be drawn on from various authentic newspapers and other online materials. In practice, when teaching how to notice collocations, the teacher should emphasize the structures involved such as adjective + noun and adverb + adjective, etc.

(2) The length of time for practicing the noticing and using collocations should not be short (e.g. 1-2 months), rather lengthy periods of at least 1 year should be emphasized because even 4-6 months might not be sufficient for the noticeable enhancement of collocational development (Li & Schmitt, 2010).

(3) More emphasis should be placed on idiomatic expressions when EFL learners are taught about collocations. To this end, the teacher should urge the learners to do more self-study on the idiomatic expressions that are mostly associative with basic vocabulary. For example, the word blow appears in the idiom blow the gaff, meaning lose one's temper or become angry and cannot stay calm.

### B. Recommendations for Future Research

(1) Future research should be carried out to investigate the collocational competence of Thai EFL students as well as their perceptions of collocational difficulty on a larger scale, for example at a cross-country level in order to get the holistic picture of the Thai EFL learners' levels of collocational competence and perceptions.

(2) Future research should explore pedagogical methods that focus on the development of idiomatic expressions and their effects on the learners' improvement of idiomatic expressions.

(3) Since this research relied on a questionnaire as its major tool for exploring the participants' perceptions of collocational difficulty, future research might incorporate other data collection tools such as an in-depth interview in order to grasp broader and more extensive perceptions of the participants.

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# A Comparative Study of Novel Translation from the Perspective of Feminist Translation Theory: A Case Study of the Two Chinese Versions of *Persuasion*\*

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**Abstracts**—Female translators differ from male translators in the choice of the original texts, the adoption of translating strategies and the diction features of the translation, etc. From the perspective of Feminist Translation Theory, the paper made a comparative study of the two translated versions of *Persuasion* by Qiu Yin, a woman translator and Sun Zhili, a man translator, in the aspects of female preferences of exclamatory sentences and rhetorical questions, sentence final particles, reduplicated words as well as prefaces and footnotes. The identity of the female translator is reflected in Qiu's version in comparison of Sun Zhili's.

**Index Terms**—*Persuasion*, feminist translation theory, female translators

## I. INTRODUCTION

*Persuasion* is a literary work that has withstood the test of time. Written by Jane Austen, the nineteenth-century English novelist, the novel has sparked constant interest and academic concern of numerous scholars, most of whom studied the classic from the literature, social or linguistic perspectives. The translations of the novel promote the spread of the novel throughout the world. Among the various translated versions in different languages there are also several Chinese translations of the classic and this study selects two versions, one by Qiu Yin, a female translator and the other by Sun Zhili, a male translator, as the corpus to conduct a comparative study from the perspective of Feminist Translation Theory, to explore and reveal the gender consciousness of female translators in contrast with male translators.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Feminist literary criticism was born in the Second European and American Women's Liberation Movements in the 1960s, and wherein Feminist Translation Theory derived in the 1980s. The pioneers of the theory include Sherry Simon, Louise von Flotow and Spivak, Gayatri Chakravorty. Simon's (1996) *Gender in Translation* is the first comprehensive study of feminist issues in translation theory and practice. She was concerned with the existence of female translators and criticized the tendency in the translation study field to belittle female translators and their translations, in the hope to alert translation theorists to the range of issues suggested by gender. Flotow (1997) concluded three major translation strategies of feminist translation theory, which are complement, notes and preface, as well as hijacking. Spivak (1992) held that the task of the feminist translator is to consider language as a clue to the workings of gendered agency and he attached great importance to the voices of the females in the Third World.

Feminist translation theory was first introduced into China by Zhu Hong in the 1980s, but it was not until 2000 that the theory has been concerned by the academic circles. The first scholars were dedicated to the introduction of the theory and some tentative studies. Liao Qiyi (2002) holds the opinion that imperfect as feminist translation theory is, it acknowledges the influences of specific cultural and political factors have on people's notions and translation process. Ge Xiaoqin (2003) points out that translation is a complicated process involving collision and fusion between diverse cultures while feminist translation theory means to intervene in the cultures involved in the translating and to rewrite the discourse. Liu Junping (2004) delves into the interrelations among translation, the female, the author, the text, the translator and the readers. Based on Simon's and Flotow's researches, Xu Lai (2004) reprimands the discrimination against feminist translation and female translator, playing a major role in the fight for feminist dignity and equality. In summary, feminist translation theory proposes that translation is a recreation on the basis of the original on the one hand,

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and on the other hand puts emphasis on the influence of gender difference on translation.

The years from 2005 to 2007 witnessed Chinese scholars' researches on feminist translation theory combined with translation texts by female translators. The representatives include Chen Yu and Chen Lin (2005) who explore the translation strategies and methods of protruding the female discourses in their *Feminist Rewriting of the Discourses—With a Comparative Study on the Two Translation Versions of Jane Eyre* and Yang Xue (2007) who, in her *Translators' Feminist Consciousness and the English Translating of Zang Hua Ci*, analyses the three translations of *Zang Hua Ci* in light of the sound, word, sentence and text levels and concludes that not only female translators but also male translators contain feminist consciousness.

Since 2008, there also have been some skeptical voices. There might be deficiencies of the theory itself that call for improvement and need perfecting. Modern translators and translation researchers should treat the theory by a developmental view and dialectical attitude. Only in this way can feminist translation theory be employed as a boon in translation practice and more and greater achievements made in the study on the theory.

### III. A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE TWO TRANSLATED VERSIONS OF *PERSUASION*

The following section entails the main body of the study. The research will be performed in some typical dimensions that could adequately demonstrate the gender difference between male and female translators in the respects of female preference for exclamatory sentences and rhetorical questions, for sentence final particles and for reduplicated words. This section will take a focalization analysis of the samples from Qiu's and Sun's translated versions from *Persuasion*.

#### A. Female Preference for Exclamatory Sentences and Rhetorical Questions

In his *Language and Women's Place* Robin Lakoff (1975) proposes some linguistic features of female discourses, including female tendency to use exclamatory sentences and questions in making statements, to seek for the approval from the addressees and female preference for rhetorical questions when asking questions. Based on the related experimental analysis, Holmes puts forth that, compared with men, women tend to utilize disjunctive questions in order to ensure a smooth exchange and interaction. Chinese women also reveal a propensity to use disjunctive questions to express an affirmation.

##### Example 1:

**The Original:** Captain Harville has no thought but of going.

**Qiu's Version:** 哈维尔上校真想去呢!

**Sun's Version:** 哈维尔舰长是一心一意要去的。

**Analysis:** Anne, the heroine, held a party for which she enjoined Mrs. Musgrove to pass on the word to Captain Harville and Captain Wentworth, inviting them to the party. The above example is Mrs. Musgrove's reply to the request. The original is a statement, and Sun Zhili's translation follows the source language in the sentence pattern as a statement, stating the inornate fact the Captain Harville would love to attend the party while Qiu Yin's translation, by changing the statement into an exclamation, representing female linguistic preference. As the employment of exaggerations and modifiers and the modulations of tones unveil more affective variables in female language (Qian Jin, 2004), the exclamation contains stronger emotional coloring, leaving the readers a distinct impression that Captain Harville was keen on the oncoming party.

##### Example 2:

**The Original:** Could she believe it a week ago— three hours ago!

**Qiu's Version:** 一个星期之前, 甚至在三小时之前, 她能相信这一点吗?

**Sun's Version:** 这在一周之前, 甚至在三个钟头以前, 简直叫她无法相信!

**Analysis:** On seeing Anne explaining an Italian song to Elliot, Captain Wentworth mistook it as Anne's affection for the latter and quitted the concert out of jealousy and outrage. When Anne saw the reason why Captain Wentworth left the concert, she was astonished and at the same time complacent as well. The sentence is a description of Anne's surprise. The original is an exclamatory sentence, and Sun Zhili, the male translator, simply reproduces the sentence pattern to reveal Anne's astonishment. In a conversation with the opposite sex, women are usually passive and humble. They often use questions, disjunctive questions or modal verbs, taking them as a means to proceed with the conversation or to attract attention from the opposite sex (Su Wenjin, 2000). The point is illustrated by the situation in which Qiu Yin, the female translator, converted the original exclamation into a rhetorical question, succeeding in capturing the readers' attention as well as displaying Anne's astonishment.

#### B. Female Preference for Sentence Final Particles

In the 1920s, Lakoff studied female linguistic features and pointed out the female preference for sentence final particles such as “吧”, “啊”, “吗”, “呢”, etc. The use of sentence final particles makes the request, question or statement less rigid and more courteous. In China, women utilize sentence final particles more frequently than men do, which coincides with the norms for females in the traditional Chinese culture. The use of sentence final particles in translation demonstrates a distinguishing feature in the female utterance, revealing to the readers the identification and an evident image of a female translator.

**Example 3:****The Original:** Do promise me.**Qiu's Version:** 请答应我吧**Sun's Version:** 请答应我。

**Analysis:** This is what Anne said to Mrs. Musgrove when she pleaded the latter to pass on her invitation to Captain Harville and Captain Wentworth to the party. It's obviously a request, so Mr. Sun Zhili bluntly translated it into “请答应我”. Males are deemed as of higher status in the society, and therefore they assume a dominant style in social discourse (Su Wenjin, 2000). As is illustrated in Sun's translation of the sentence, “请答应我” carries an imperative tone, liable to invoke a resentment from the readers by its stiffness and might, which does not conform with the gentle nature of the speaker. On the contrary, Qiu's addition of a sentence final particle “ba” softens the plea, corresponding to the mild and courteous personality of Anne, the speaker.

**Example 4:**

**The Original:** Even, if your own feelings were reluctant or indifferent, to consider what powerful supports would be his! Was it not enough to make the fool of me which I appeared? How could I look on without agony?

**Qiu's Version:** 即使你本人的感情比较勉强或冷漠，可是支持他的力量是多么强大啊！这难道不足以把我变成当时那个傻样子吗？我怎能眼看着这一切而不感到难过呢？

**Sun's Version:** 即使你自己心里不愿意，或是不感兴趣，想想看他有多么强大的后盾！我看上去傻乎乎的，难道这还不足以愚弄我？我在一旁看了怎能不痛苦？

**Analysis:** The above discourse occurred in an enthusiastic conversation between Anne and Captain Wentworth when the latter became aware of the fact that he himself had been in love with the former and felt furious at the intimacy Anne showed towards her cousin and finally couldn't help saying out loud his affection. The addressee is a woman the speaker profoundly loved and therefore, although he was to unleash his outrage and indignation, he could not do it wantonly or reprimand Anne but with some gingerliness, his mood at the moment being actually a contradictory one. The meaning of language is determined by the specific context of the utterance. To achieve an accurate comprehension of the original, the translator is obliged to infer the genuine intention of the original author. He should combine the semantics with the specific context before representing to the readers of the translation the information encoded in the original. In translation, what should be taken into account is not only the language context, but also the restrictive function of the communicative context (Yang Junfeng, 2005). In the above example, the female translator complemented three sentence final particles “啊”，“吗”，“呢”，mitigating the tone of the reproach and embodying Captain Wentworth's tender care for Anne. Conversely, the lack of the sentence final particles in the male translator unfolded a distorted image of Captain Wentworth, which appeared to be more commanding than he really was.

*C. Female Preference for Reduplicated Words*

As an enhancement expression model of the adjective or the adverb related, reduplicated words are commonplace in everyday Chinese and are especially to the liking of females when they attempt to describe an issue or narrate an event to impress the audience. The present study contributes to the conclusion that female preference for reduplicated words is a distinguishable mark which female language bears in contrast to male language.

**Example 5:**

**The Original:** There could not be an objection. There could be only a most proper alacrity, a most obliging compliance for public view; and smiles reined in and spirits dancing in private rapture.

**Qiu's Version:** 不可能有反对意见，有的只是恰如其分的欣然同意，是做给旁人看的乐于助人的顺从，他们心中却是乐滋滋的，高兴得发狂。

**Sun's Version:** 这不可能遭到反对。在公众看来，只能见到温特沃斯舰长极有分寸、极有礼貌地欣然接受了。他收敛起笑容，心里暗中却欣喜若狂。

**Analysis:** Charles had intended to escort Anne home, but when he saw Captain Wentworth in the company of the latter, he meant to transfer the task to the captain, so that he himself was free to go to the gunsmith's. Though apparently composed, Captain Wentworth was on top of the world to accept the request in that he was craving to have an opportunity to be alone with Anne. The original text is a description of Captain Wentworth's response to Charles' plea. Both Qiu's and Sun's versions are adequate at conveying the exhilaration from the inner heart of Captain Wentworth but utter equivalence between the target language and the source language is virtually unattainable due to the affecting factors of historical background, communicative environment, and such factors as the ideology, aesthetic taste and the translation purpose of the translator (Zhong Wen, 2011). The Chinese female preference of the reduplicated words invalids “乐滋滋” in Qiu's version which vividly pictures Captain Wentworth's heartfelt delight in spite of the omission of “smiles” in the translation, exhibiting the character depicted on cloud nine.

**Example 6:**

**The Original:** And she answered the question, smiling also.

**Qiu's Version:** 安妮也笑盈盈地回答了这个问题。

**Sun's Version:** 安妮同样嫣然一笑，答道。

**Analysis:** In a talk with Captain Harville, Anne remarked that women would not forget the man they loved once they have given their heart. At Captain Harville's disputation on the opinion, Anne explained to him the reasons supporting her viewpoint and the discourse is a depiction of Anne's appearance and expression when she was expounding her view. There is a consensus between the two renderings in the presentation of Anne's smiling expression when she was replying Captain Harville. However, in the choice of the topic, as well as in the volume, the manners and the strategy of the discourse, there are gender differences to the diversified degrees (Lv Jing, Hu Zhiqing, 2001; Xu Lisheng, 1997). As is illustrated in the translations of the word "smiling", Sun Zhili transformed the single word into a Chinese four-character structure "嫣然一笑", while Qiu's translation employs "笑盈盈", a "verb plus reduplicated phrase" pattern to depict a lifelike smiling Anne, vividly portraying the character as a confident and composed girl, leaving a deeper and more favorable impression on the readers.

#### D. Female Preference of Making a Point by Prefaces and Footnotes

Feminist influence on translation and translation studies is most readily visible in the metatexts — the prefaces and footnotes that have been added to the works published since the late 1970s. In these texts a noticeable trend is the developing sense of self exhibited by translators, increasingly aware that their identities as gendered rewriters enter into their work. Translators are introducing and commenting on their work, and offering explanations for it (Flotow, 1997).

##### Example 7:

**Qiu's Preface:** .....在书中, 奥斯丁还通过她塑造的新型妇女形象——克罗夫特太太, 说明了妇女在婚姻和家庭中应有的地位, 歌颂了妇女的社会作用.....事实上, 安妮确实是一位正直、无私、乐于助人、对爱情坚贞不渝的女性.....安妮同情弱者, 助人为乐.....安妮还是一个临危不乱、善于决断的女性。她的智慧和处理事务的能力大大超过男子汉.....

袁因

**Analysis:** Prefacing is a common means of translation, but female translators regard it as a kind of translation convention. They apply "Preface" to intervene in the text. In the preface, female translators often explain the main idea of the original work, introduce the purpose of their translation, summarize their translation strategies, and state their own views. There is no preface in Sun Zhili's *Persuasion*. However, in Qiu's *Persuasion*, she has exerted further influence by writing the preface that draw readers' attention to the work of herself as a translator and the historical, literary as well as biographical research that accompanies the translated text. In her preface, she strongly expresses her praise to the heroine Anne and Mrs. Croft, explains women's proper position in marriage and family, and describes women's important social role. Finally, Qiu Yin writes her name at the end of the preface, which makes the identity of the female translator visible to the readers. This is all part of a concerted move away from the classical 'invisible' translator (Flotow, 1997).

##### Example 8:

**The Original:** IR Walter Elliot, of Kellynch Hall, in Somersetshire, was a man who, for his own amusement, never took up any book but the Baronetage.

**Qiu's Version:** 萨默赛特郡凯林奇府的沃尔特·艾略特爵士, 每当自己消遣时, 总是捧着一本《从男爵录》<sup>①</sup>, 从不阅读其他任何书籍。

①《从男爵录》中收集了英国历代从男爵的资料。从男爵可以称为爵士, 但并不属于贵族。可是沃尔特·艾略特爵士总是洋洋得意地翻阅着这本《从男爵录》, 充分反映出他的浅薄。

**Sun's Version:** 萨默赛特郡凯林奇大厦的沃尔特·埃利奥特爵士为了自得其乐, 一向什么书都不沾手, 单单爱看那《准爵录》<sup>②</sup>。

②系指 1808 年初次出版的 J.德布雷特编纂的《英国准爵录》, 分上、下两卷。

**Analysis:** In this example, both Qiu Yin and Sun Zhili have made a footnote but for different purposes. Sun Zhili just objectively introduces the book Baronetage to the readers while Qiu Yin, in addition to making an objective introduction, also takes the opportunity to express some of her own views and satirizes IR Walter Elliot, who is a crucial male figure in the novel. In Qiu's opinion, IR Walter Elliot is a vain and self-righteous man. It is often considerably easier for a translator to proclaim his or her own opinions in footnotes than to actually take action in the process of translation (Flotow, 1997). Obviously, Qiu's footnote marks and explains her motivations and interventions skillfully.

##### Example 9:

**The Original:** And, if I dared, I would breathe my wishes that the name might never change.

**Qiu's Version:** 如果我有胆量, 我愿倾吐我的心愿: 希望这姓名永远不要变<sup>①</sup>。①在英国, 姑娘结婚后要改用夫家姓氏。这里是婉转的求婚, 因为艾略特先生与安妮同姓。

**Sun's Version:** 假如我不揣冒昧的话, 我倒要希望这个名字永不改变。

**Analysis:** This is what Mr. Eliot said to Anne. If this sentence is translated directly into Chinese, readers can understand the superficial meaning of this sentence easily. But some readers may not see the information hidden behind this sentence because of cultural differences—Mr. Eliot is proposing to Anne euphemistically when he is saying this sentence. Sun Zhili has neglected this point when he translates this sentence. He just translates it literally without any additional explanation. As a woman, Qiu Yin's mind is more delicate and sensitive than men's, so when she translates

this sentence, she adds a footnote, introducing the cultural background behind this sentence and the important information hidden behind it, expressing her inner thoughts, thus enabling the readers to understand the content of this part more thoroughly.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

The above in-depth comparison of Qiu Yin's and Sun Zhili's translated versions of *Persuasion* evidently illustrates the gender differences of the linguistic features in translation. Female translators usually have a more nuanced mind that enables them to perceive the various actions and states of mind of the characters in the novels and so there is a propensity in their translation to employ exclamatory sentences, rhetorical questions, reduplicated words and sentence final particles to present the personalities of the characters to the target readers of the translated version, accurately conveying the context of the original. In doing so, they reflect their female image in their translation. In addition, with gender viewed as an integral factor in textual production, attention has increasingly focused on politically engaged translators, who are conscious of their influence on the text and may seek to impose it overtly. Therefore, female translators have a preference for prefaces and footnotes in order to state their opinions more easily and make themselves visible to the readers.

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# A Study on the Translation of Architecture in *Hong Lou Meng*

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**Abstract**—With the development of globalization, cultural exchanges have been widely concerned. And the translation of Chinese literary works has become a trend. Due to the pivotal position of architecture name in literary works, coupled with the rich connotations and communicative function, architectural translation is of great. The building names in the classical novel *Hong Lou Meng* contained meaningful Chinese cultural connotations, so when translating these names, the literature and culture elements should be taken into consideration. This paper makes a comparative study between Yang Xianyi's and Hawkes' translation on the base of language and culture, picking up some typical buildings to do the case study and exploring the charm of Chinese ancient architecture culture. At last, in the hope of giving some reference to the practical translation process, the paper will give some suggestions in some architecture translation.

**Index Terms**—translation on HLM, language and culture, architecture translation

## I. INTRODUCTION

Cross cultural communication refers to the communication between native speakers and non-native speakers as well as the communication between the people of different language and cultural backgrounds (Nida, 1993). Since twentieth century, international communication has increasingly frequent, and the special features of the global economic integration require us to pay attention to cross cultural communication (Mark&Moria, 2005). In 1970s, with the cultural turn on translation studies, translation as a cross-cultural behavior has attracted mounting public attention of translation researchers. *Hong Lou Meng*, as one of the greatest classical novels, tells a story about decline of a rich and abundant family. The author Cao Xueqin drew a vivid picture of all walks of life in every class in the declining Qing Dynasty. Whether for experts and scholars or the general reader, *Hong Lou Meng* has a far-reaching influence. In 1970s, English sinologist, professor of Oxford University, David Hawkes began to translate the former 80 chapters of *Hong Lou Meng*, and the latter 40 chapters were translated by his son-in-law, John Minford. Penguin Books LTD published this translation version, which is called *The Story of Stone*. At the same era, Chinese translator Yang Xianyi and his British wife Gladys Dai also completed the translation of this masterpiece, which was called *Dream of Red Mansions* and published by Foreign Language Press.

The two full translation versions of *Hong Lou Meng* are not only a major event in cultural exchanges between China and English speaking countries, but also an outbreak in literary translation, which promotes the literature translation of Chinese classical novels. Although the investigation of translation study on *Hong Lou Meng* is a case study, we can gain rich aspirations and resources through the comparison between two languages, literatures and cultures. Moreover, managing them in a scientific method, we can conduct our translation study on the base of our knowledge on language, literature and culture, and meanwhile gain some findings on architecture translation.

## II. TRANSLATION STRATEGIES ON TERMINOLOGIES ARCHITECTURES IN *HLM*

The architectures in *Hong Lou Meng* are created based on Chinese classical gardens. This literary work contains so many buildings ranging from garden yards, pavilions to temples with various styles. The names of those buildings are with different characteristics. Their names follow some rules.

The classical architecture first has a certain type of term in its terminologies. There are two main types: realistic name and abstract name. Realistic names often describe the building's shape, characteristics, usage, functions or its location etc., while abstract names tend to show the emotions or wishes. Unlike realistic names, abstract names pay more attention to its beauty, culture connotation or historical meaning. Except for the realistic and abstract name, there are some special ones that without any regulations but may be the words and phrases from some poems or legend.

According to those different types of name, we should adopt different strategies. Generally speaking, there are three translation methods, transliteration, literal translation and free translation (Baker, 2000). For the realistic name, the translation work would be easy because the building name is understandable thus translator can use responding method to express the meaning. Here are the examples:

a. 太虚幻境: The Land of Illusion.

This place in the novel refers to a place that not existed in real life, so its translation “the Land of Illusion” adopts literal translation method to illustrate this meaning very well.

b. 省亲别墅: House of Reunion

In Chinese, “省亲” means a married lady goes back home to visit her parents and relatives, and usually with a family reunion meal. Therefore, the free translation “House of Reunion” accurately expresses the function of the building.

However, the abstract names are quite a tough issue in architecture translation, because the name always has some implicit meanings that we must use related stories or other extra information to help understand what it intends to express. And usually the information we use to understand the name is related to the cultural background. Therefore, the translation should not just be expressiveness but meanwhile pay attention to the culture factors. No matter what kind of translation method is, it can hardly work to keep balance between expressiveness and cultural correctness. Let's see some examples:

c. 有凤来仪: Where Phoenix Alights

This is a special name that fails following any rules. These four Chinese characters come from *Book of History* and refer to the place a noble person stay. But the translation just shows the original meaning of the phrases and lacks its inner meaning. Besides, Phoenix in Chinese means the outstanding woman. Without any further explanation, foreign readers may be confused at the word cluster.

From the examples above we can make a brief conclusion on the problems in architecture translation. First, only the use of one kind of translation method can't do a good translation job. Sometimes we need to integrate two or three methods so as to translate the architecture name correctly and accurately. Second, translators may tend to ignore the hidden meaning when it comes to some abstract names, or fail to keep the culture connotation. Third, the culture gaps between two languages make it sometimes hard to find a corresponding word to express the original language and culture. The most difficult problem in architecture translation is the balance between meaning and culture. The translation pays attention to the meaning may ignore the original text's culture background, and the translation that preserves the culture background may be unreadable to its target readers. Besides, adding explanation is a good way in translating the abstract names, especially in published books but the length should be taken into consideration.

### III. ANALYSIS ON ARCHITECTURE TRANSLATION OF *HLM*

In *Hong Lou Meng*, there are a number of different buildings with special names. All the buildings are arranged complicated but well-organized. Yang's translation strategy is different from Hawkes' in the architecture. This chapter will give a brief analysis to the architecture translations of the two famous versions.

#### A. Architecture Systems in *HLM*

There are numerous architecture names in *Hong Lou Meng*, which are arranged into a complicated but well-organized system. In addition, every architecture name in *Hong Lou Meng* has deep hidden meanings and special functions. This paper divides them into three groups: public architecture, residential architecture and religious architecture.

##### 1. Public Architecture

Public architectures are large-scale with good wishes and represent the wealth and high position, which are always used to treat high officials and noble lords or held family parties. Table-2 is some public architecture and its translations.

TABEL-2

Original Names	Yangs	Hawkes
嘉荫堂	Auspicious Shade Hall	Prospect Hall
晓翠堂	Morning Emerald Hall	The Paulownia Room
荣禧堂	Hall of Glorious Felicity	The Hall of Exalted Felicity
凸碧山庄	Convex Emerald Hall	Convex Pavilion
大明宫	the palace of Great Splendour	The Da-Ming Palace
沁芳亭	Seeping Fragrance Pavilion	Drenched Blossoms Pavilion
梦坡斋	Mengpo Studio	The Su Dong-Po Rooms
红香圃	Red Fragrance Farm	The Peony Garden

##### 2. Residential Architecture

Residential architecture names are very unique and each one has its own characteristics. With the indication of personalities and destiny, the translation of those names is a great challenge. Table-3 is the Yangs' and Hawkes' translation of residential architecture in this literary work

TABLE-3

Original name	Yangs	Hawkes
蘅芜院	Alpinia Park	All-Spice Court
潇湘馆	Bamboo Lodge	Naiad's House
有凤来仪	Where the Phoenix Alights	The Phoenix Dance
怡红院	Happy Red Court	House of Green Delights
缀锦阁	Variegated Splendour Tower	Painted Chamber
紫菱洲	Purple Caltrop Isle	Amaryllis Eyot
秋爽斋	Studio of Autumn Freshness	Autumn Studio
蓼风轩	Smartweed Breeze Cot	Smartweed Loggia
藕香榭	Pavilion of Scented Lotus	Lotus Pavilion
暖香坞	Warm Scented Arbour	Spring In Winter Room
稻香村	Paddy-Sweet Cottage	Sweet-Rice Village
栊翠庵	Green Lattice Nunnery	Green Bower Hermitage
紫檀堡	Sandalwood Castle	Fort Redwood
天香楼	The Pavilion of Heavenly Fragrance	The Celestial Fragrance Pavilion

### 3. Religious Architecture

Religious architectures always relate to traditional culture and show peoples' beliefs. In *Hong Lou Meng*, those religious buildings are built for funerals, praying activities and ancestor worship. This group of architectures has the most obvious Chinese characteristics. Here are some examples.

TABLE-4

Original Name	Yangs translation	Hawkes
铁槛寺	Iron Threshold Temple	Iron Threshold
水月庵	Water moon Convent	Water-moon Priory
玉皇庙	The Jade Emperor's Temple	The Temple of Heavenly Master
阎王庙	The temple of the king of hell	The temple of Yama
元帝庙	The Temple of Emperor Yuandi	The Temple of the Great Lord
地藏庵	The Ksitigarbha Nunnery	The Convent of the Saviour King
水仙庵	River Goddess Convent	The Temple of the Water Spirit
清虚观	Ethereal abbey	The Taoist Temple of the Lunar Goddess
玄真观	Mysterious Truth Temple	The Dark Truth Monastery

Certainly, the above tables are just part of the whole architectures. Considering the large amount of the architecture names, this paper only selects some special and typical architecture names as examples. The translations of those examples are rather different so that we can make a further study.

#### B. Analysis on the Two English Versions

As what mentioned above, although the architecture is very complicated, from the three tables above we can see that they are all put in the well-organized system. In different groups, the names are very different both in language and culture, so the analysis should consider from those two aspects.

##### 1. Analysis on Public Architecture

First, from language aspects, Chinese is a language with the emphasis of its sense of beauty, highlighting the connotations instead of the literal meanings. By contrast, English is a language more logical. To understand English, one needs to focus on all the parts of a sentence. However, If other information are not associated to dig its inner meanings, it's difficult to understand Chinese. Just because of such a difference, Chinese architecture can be translated into various English forms.

##### (1) 嘉荫堂: [Yangs] Auspicious Shade Hall; [Hawkes] Prospect Hall

Analyze the name word by word, “嘉” means good things and “荫” is shade, so Auspicious Shade can be considered as a good translation version. While at most cases, Chinese, unlike English, should consider the meaning from the



whole context instead of each part of the sentences or phrases. Thus we should combine the two Chinese characters to understand it. “嘉荫” here means good wishes and the hope that family Jia will have a good future under the blessing of the ancestors, so the word “prospect” can better describe such meaning.

(2) 沁芳亭: [Yangs] Seeping Fragrance Pavilion; [Hawkes] Drenched Blossoms

First, the building in the original text is a leisure place for the girls' playing and rest. Because it is built along with the river, the river's name has been adopted. So, this building name indicates its location and beautiful scenery. Yang translates it into “Seeping Fragrance”, which can present the beautiful scenery from the smell feelings, and meanwhile meet the demand of expressiveness. As for “Drenched Blossoms”, it's more like a metaphor to refer the girls' fate would just like the drenched flowers, although having fair appearance but without good results. Therefore, from the lexical level, Yang's translation is more beautiful but from textual level, maybe Hawkes' is better in the inner meaning.

Then, the name of public architecture, though less related to the theme, contains some cultural items. In the Table-2, there are two culture items, historical person and flower culture.

(3) 梦坡斋: [Yangs] Mengpo Studio; [Hawkes] The Su Dong-Po Rooms

This building is the main stage for Jia Zheng to read books, have meetings with his colleagues etc. Yang's translation is the transliteration. And Hawkes, by using the name a literary giant of Song Dynasty, carried on the Chinese culture in his translation. Su Dongpo is the Hailin scholars in Song Dynasty, but his official career isn't good as his literary work. He was demoted and exiled for several times. Jiazheng is an official of Hanlin Imperial Academy, while at the end of the story, he lost his positions. Thus Hawkes compared Jia Zheng to Su Dongpo to reflect his career as well as the declining of Jia's family.

## 2. Analysis on Residential Architecture

Residential architectures, especially those for the main characters, are the most important where nearly all the main stories of protagonists happen. And the name of them, to a large extend, are abstract with many quotations.

(4) 有凤来仪[Yangs] Where the Phoenix Alights; [Hawkes] The Phoenix Dance

The original words, as mentioned in Chapter 2, is a phrase from *History of Book*, but in the text, the author used such an idiom as the architecture names. Without a common term, it's hard to make the readers understand what the phrases refer to. Looking at the two versions we will find the word “where” is the major difference in language structure. Yang Xianyi used the adverbs “where” to remind the readers of a place. Hawkes, however, just capitalize the first letter to inform the reader that this is a proper noun. Both methods are reasonable from language formation, but the adverb of place makes it more accurate.

Besides, the word selection should also be considered into the comparative studies. Different words will influence the whole context at some cases. Here is the example:

(5) 大观园: [Yangs] the Grand View Garden; [Hawkes] Prospect Garden

Both of the versions adopt the word “Garden” to refer to a large private garden. And the difference lies on the former words. Yang basically used literal translation method according to the original words but without losing its grand and spectacular style that sets a variety of landscape in one. Hawkes only used one adjunct word prospect, which belongs to free translation scope. Referring to the Oxford Dictionary, prospect means: (a) wide view of a landscape; (b) picture in the mind or imagination, especially of a future event. Obviously, Hawkes adopted both meanings. For one thing, prospect expresses the grand of the building; for another, this kind of translation has a hint that the name contains the builders' good wishes for this garden, hoping its descendants will keep such a grand style and scenery for a long time. Comparing the two versions, Yang's is direct and understandable on expressing the splendid features and Hawkes' is better in its extending meaning. But if making a comprehensive view of this book, we can see that “大观园” actually reflects the aristocratic wealth's luxury, but its existence is very short because the existence of the builders is also a flash in the span. Unlike the builders' good wishes to keep the prestige, the family eventually went to declining. Thus the word “prospect” is better than “Grand View”.

Then, we can easily find some cultural factors in the building names. Those factors are related to their habitants.

(8) 潇湘馆: [Yang] Bamboo Lodge; [Hawkes] the Naiad's House

The name contains a literary legend. This building is the living place for Lin Daiyu. In Chinese, “潇湘” is the combining name of Xiao River and Xiangjiang River. As a traditional image related to water, the word contains a fresh and beautiful meaning with rich cultural connotation. Meanwhile, it has something to do with the myth of Ehuang and Nvyng, the wives of emperor Shun (a legendary monarch in ancient China) who ended their lives in Xiangjiang River after their husband's death. Lin Daiyu, in the novel, was dead when Jia Baoyu married Xue Baochai. So we can deduce that the author compared Lin Daiyu to Ehuang and Nvyng, reflecting that her love won't come to a result and at last she will dead for love. In Hawkes' translation, Naiad is a water- nymph in Greek Mythology. Using a nymph that western readers are familiar with to replace the Chinese characters “潇湘” can make readers easily get the obvious characteristics of Lin Daiyu. Yang Xianyi, however, changed it into “bamboo” that fits for the building's features: being surrounded by a bamboo forest. What's more, there is one type of bamboo called mottled bamboo that represents for the story of Ehuang and Nvyng. Therefore, from the cultural perspective, Yang cared more about the original text while Hawkes cared for the target language receivers. But what we should note is “潇湘” in Chinese has the same sound as “消香”(usually are used to refer a beautiful girl's death) that indicates the sad ending of Lin Daiyu. So if just translating

into Naiad, it only indicates the beauty of Lin Daiyu without showing her larmoyant and sentimental personality. Yang's translation can better reflect the novel's connotation, suggesting the protagonist's sentimental, noble and elegant character, representing the Chinese cultural allusions in bamboo, and convey traditional Chinese culture to foreign readers. Considering more dialectic, Yang's version lacks of hints so readers need to understand it through the context or even the explanations. In contrast, Hawkes' translation can make target language receivers understand in a short time because he transferred the context and cultural connotation to make it more convenient and coherence to readers.

Color is another cultural difference between Chinese and English. The most obvious example is the translation of Jia Baoyu's residential place:

(9) 怡红院: [Yang] Happy Red Court; [Hawkes] the House of Green Delight

We can see that the major difference between the two translations is the different translation of color word. The two translators chose a totally different way to deal with the color. Yang preserved it and Hawkes changed it according to their different aims. Red in Chinese culture represents for joyful and happiness while in western country, red is an ominous color. Green, on the contrary, is equivalent to red in English culture.

In the original text, the premier name of this building contained both red and green. Red refers to the crabapple planted in the yard so it represents for the girls. Green is on behalf of the plantain on the other side of the yard, which symbolizes the only boy in the Garden, Jia Baoyu. And “怡” in Chinese means happiness. Jia Baoyu grown up with girls including his sisters and servants, so “怡” in Chinese can be interpret in this way: Jia Baoyu lived happily with all the girls in the Garden. Hawkes, on the contrary, considered red a color represents for celebration and love in China so he changed it to green, the color loved by westerns. Again, Hawkes' translation is target language oriented so that he ignored the culture loads. Yang Xianyi, on the contrary, kept the Chinese culture in his translation aiming at passing the traditional culture to the target language readers.

### 3. Analysis on Religious Architecture

Religion is a kind of culture itself. So this part, the paper mainly analyzes the translations in a religious cultural view. The architecture terminologies in *Hong Lou Meng* involved Taoism, Confucianism and Buddhism, which are all equipped with Chinese characteristics. Therefore, the name of those religious architectures contains many features existed in Chinese religions. And the translators, because of different cultural background, use different method to deal with those religious characters.

(10) 地藏庵 [Yangs] the Ksitigarbha Nunnery; [Hawkes] the Convert of the Saviour King

Ksitigarbha is a word in Sanskrit, it is the Sanskrit name for one Chinese Buddha. Saviour King is a character in the Bible. So Hawkes tend to change the obscure Chinese word cluster into the target language that readers familiar with. However, the Saviour King is obvious a Christian word that conflict to the original language. It is a kind of naturalization method. But *Hong Lou Meng* is a work with vivid Chinese traditional culture. Considering the culture exchanges, it's not a good way to translate the novel with naturalization.

(11) 水仙庵: [Yang] River Goddess Convent; [Hawkes] the Temple of the Water Spirit

In *Hong Lou Meng*, this architecture is a temple worship goddess of the Luo River. According to a fairy tale, Cao Zhi had seen the goodness of daffodil in Luo River in the twelfth month of the lunar year. Afterwards, men of letters often use the Chinese characters “洛神” to refer the daffodil. Therefore, based on such a cultural background, Yang translated it into River Goddess. In western culture, people regard daffodil the demon on water, thus Hawkes used the image “Water Spirit” to describe it.

## IV. FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

### A. Findings and Suggestions on the Architecture Translation in HLM

Considering the above analysis, the paper has found the characteristics of two versions. First, for the public architecture, Yang preferred to translate the literal meaning and left the inner meaning to the readers while Hawkes chosen to translate the connotations. As for the residential architecture and religious architecture, Yang, in order to preserve the original culture, translated the literal meaning and sometimes while added the connotative meanings for the requirements of understanding. And Hawkes tried to equivalent the Chinese cultural factors to western ones. Thus Hawkes' translation destroys the original language.

After the analysis, I have found some problems in some architecture translation in both versions.

The first one is “潇湘馆”. One of the translation used “House” and the other adopted “Lodge”, but both words are neither suitable to the original architecture scale. So I would choose the word “Chamber” to replace them and add an explanation on it. Here is my translation:

潇湘馆: Mottled Bamboo Chamber

*Mottled bamboo in Chinese is an incarnation of Ehuang and Nying, beautiful women dead for love in Chinese legend.*

The second one: “紫菱洲”. “紫菱” is a kind of caltrop plants, and in English it is usually called water chestnut. Hawkes translated it into “Amaryllis Eyot”, but amaryllis is a tall white, pink or red flower shaped like a trumpet that native to South America which has nothing to do with the caltrop plants. Yang translated it into Purple caltrop Isle, but

there is no purple caltrop in English. Caltrop plants in English only contain Red Caltrop and Water Caltrop. And according to Chapter 37 and Chapter 67 in *Hong Lou Meng*, water chestnut can best describe it. My translation is as below:

紫菱洲: Water Chestnuts Isle

Thirdly, the translation of “水月庵” is totally literal translation. But actually, water and moon in Chinese have connotative meanings. We often use water and moon to describe things that looks real but actually don't exist. So “illusion” should be added into the translation. My advised translation of “水月庵” is : “Water-Moon Illusion Priory”

#### B. Conclusion

In my opinion, architecture translation is for better communication. Thus it is necessary for target readers know the culture background of original language. With such a purpose, concept translation and literal translation is necessary. And for that architecture with connotations, if the translation can't convey such connotations, we need to adopt free translation to make a explanations.

However, due to inexperience of the author and limitation of space of this paper, this paper certainly has its limitations. First, my analysis of the architecture name translations just picks up some typical ones not all the building names in *HLM*. Second, the paper is based on the two unabridged translation versions of *Hong Lou Meng* and ignores those abridged ones. So the study is kind of inadequate and insufficient.

Despite the flaws in this paper, the author believes that this informative and insightful paper provides an inspiration for future researches on architecture translation, especially the ancient architecture in China. Besides, since it is far from perfect, any suggestions are welcome.

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# The Application of Graduation in Political Speech

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**Abstract**—In this paper, the graduation system in appraisal theory is combed, and the development and theoretical origin of the graduation system are discussed. The development of graduation system can be divided into three stages: embryonic stage, develop stage and mature stage. The graduation system embodies three important thoughts: the thought of grading, the thought of strengthening, the thought of vagueness. They are interrelated and have a broad theoretical basis. Tracing the development of the graduation system and its theoretical sources will help us to further to understand and improve the graduation system, and better apply the evaluation theory to discourse analysis, language teaching and other research fields. Political speech is a written oral speech that reflects the value of the discourse information conveyed by the speaker by means of explicit or implicit evaluation. These value judgments and their evaluation resources also reflect the speaker's position, views and attitudes. In the appraisal theory, the speaker uses the graduation system to increase the intensity of discourse. This paper proves that the graduation to analyse the special political speech is useful, it enriches the research on political speech and provides valuable inspiration for Chinese and foreign scholars in the relevant academic writing.

**Index Terms**—appraising, graduation, political speech

## I. INTRODUCTION

Appraisal Theory is an interpersonal functional category developed by Professor Martin and his colleagues in the Department of Linguistics at the University of Sydney since the mid-1980s. It is used to show how we use language to express or communicate attitudes and emotions. This theory starts with appraising vocabulary and promotes the study of interpersonal meaning within the framework of discourse semantics. It fills the gap between classical systemic functional linguistics which focuses on the study of interpersonal meaning from clause grammar and neglects the study of lexical resources in discourse. Appraisal theory is divided into three subsystems: Attitude, Engagement, and Graduation. Among them, the position of the graduation system is very special. It runs through the whole appraisal system and provides graded resources for the attitude system and engagement system. "We can say that the attitude system and engagement system belong to the category of graduation," he said. But the meaning of grading is essentially different (Martin & White, 2005, p. 136).

Appraisal is an indispensable feature of any text, which is manifested in the semantic structure of the text. Public speaking especially the political speech is the best material for discourse analysis because of its epochal, social and scientific nature. Having an appraisal means interaction and negotiation between the speaker and the listener, and the speaker tries to get the reader to accept his comments. In the graduation system of appraisal theory, focus and linguistic potential can be explored from two aspects at the same time, that is, softening, reduction and sharpening, raising, representing different semantic values of the same category. The author usually realizes a political speech by changing the semantic value of the graduation, sharpening one aspect of the event with a high semantic value, and softening the event with a low semantic value on the other hand. In political speech, which emphasizes objectivity, authenticity, tightness and rationality, the accuracy of the author's words is very high, so it is very important to choose the appropriate semantic value.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

As the early 1990s, Martin systematically explained the generality of grading. Later, the concept of grading was gradually incorporated into the appraisal system, which constituted a subsystem-graduation system. Generally speaking, the development of graduation category has experienced three stages.

### A. The Embryonic Stage

This stage took place in the early 1990s. The representative worker were Martin (1992a). Martin inherited the viewpoint of Sapir (1944) and considered that the significance of graduation was universal, and put forward the concept of grading system for the first time. Martin pointed out that The grading system is organized according to degree, evaluation and attitude, usually divided into three degrees, high, medium and low. The classification system is embodied in clauses, noun phrases and verb phrases. Martin often used lexis to express different degrees of attitude, such as bad-horrible-appalling, good-great-fantastic, walk-stroll-saunter, cry-scream-howl. In these words of attitude, the extreme examples are the swearing and the taboo word, for example, the curse Jesus that god-damn bastard is un-bloody-believable. Taboo words, such as penis-prick, breast-tit, urinate- piss.

The graduation category in its infancy is only a simple classification system, which classifies the interpersonal meaning of clauses, noun phrases, verb phrases and some words from the perspective of grammatical structure. This classification has a relatively strong arbitrariness, each subsystem is usually divided into three levels: high, medium and low. It can be seen that on the one hand the graduation category at this stage still emphasizes the interpersonal meaning of different values of the grammar (modality) of small sentences; on the other hand it begins to pay attention to the graduation meaning embodied by lexical resources in discourse. Martin had not formed a complete attitude system and engagement system at this time, because the category of graduation in the embryonic stage was outside the appraisal system and did not form a part of the whole appraisal system.

#### *B. The Develop Stage*

Martin & Rose (2003) promoted the study of appraisal theory as an interpersonal meaning system and incorporated it into Martin's four discourse systems (1992b). In this way, five discourse systems were formed: appraisal, ideation, conjunction, identification and periodicity, further promoted the development of textual semantics. Martin & Rose (2003) divided the appraisal theory about three existing subsystems: attitude, engagement and graduation. Among them, the graduation system is further divided into force and focus. The potential is used to strengthen or weaken the meaning, which can be divided into raise and lower. In terms of square expression, the force can be divided into intensifiers and attitudinal lexis, metaphors and swearing. Focus is the classification of categories that are essentially non-hierarchical, including to sharpen and soften for the tested categories.

Obviously, there is a great change in the category of graduation in the develop stage, it breaks with the excessive reliance upon classical systemic functional linguistics on the analysis of mood and modality at the clause level in order to explore the aspect of interpersonal meaning. Focus on the interpersonal meaning is expressed by lexical resources in discourse, the emphasis is exploring the enhancement or weakening of interpersonal meaning from the perspective of lexical resources themselves.

#### *C. The Mature Stage*

Martin & White (2005) discussed in detail the subsystems of appraisal theory and their applications, and further developed and perfected the graduation system. Compared with the first two stages, there are three main changes in the graduation system in this stage. First of all, the status of the graduation system in the whole appraisal system has been clear, and all the attitude significance is scalable. Martin & White (2005) held that the semantic study of graduation occupied a central position in the appraisal system, the attitude system and engagement system belonged to the category of graduation, but the semantic essences of classification are different. Second, they reintegrated the meaning of the linguistic potential and the subsystem of focus on the graduation system. There are two choices: up-scale and down-scale, which avoid the overlap between the strong / weak and the sharp / soft on the subsystems of force and focus. Finally, they both inherited and developed the specific classification of the graduation system. They still divided the graduation system into two subsystems: force and focus, but abandoned the previous stage of classifying the system purely from grammatical expressions, no longer distinguishing between intensifiers and attitudinal lexis, metaphors and swearing. They used dichotomy to classify the force system from the perspective of the lexical expression of experiential meaning and mode. From the perspective of the empirical meaning of lexical expression, the force is mainly an evaluation of the intensity and the degree of quantity, so it can be divided into two subcategories: intensification and quantification. Intensification is mainly concerned with quality and process. Quantification is the evaluation of number, mass and extent, in which the extent includes the proximity and the distribution. In terms of expression, the force can be divided into two types: isolating and infusing. The former means that the intensification or quantification of the force is mainly accomplished by adding individual words, and does not depend on other words. For example, happy-very happy; the latter thinks that force is realized by a word itself, which belongs to a certain group of words. These words are relevant, but indicate different degrees of processing, such as contented-happy-joyous.

### III. THEORETICAL SOURCES OF GRADUATION SYSTEM

Martin absorbs the theory of the multi-disciplinary field and develops the graduation system step by step. In general, there are three important ideas about the graduation system: (1) the thought of grading; (2) the thought of strengthening; (3) the thought of vagueness.

#### *A. The Thought of Grading*

The thought of grading is the core of the differential system. In essence, the grading system is about how to classify the appraisal resources. This thought also runs through the whole development process of the grading system. Martin (1992) inherited and developed Sapir's thought (1944) "the classification of meaning is universal." (p. 96). This paper probes into the grammatical expression of classification and its relationship of interpersonal meaning, and constructs a classification system, thus forming the embryonic form of grading system. Martin & Rose (2003) inherited the previous idea that an important feature of attitude is that they can be graded. Focus is the classification of things that cannot be graded qualitatively. Martin & White (2005) reiterated that graduation is not only an important characteristic of attitude

systems, but also an important characteristic of engagement systems. Thus, the central position of the graduation system in the whole evaluation system is established.

The research on grading has a long history. When Sapir evaluated the characteristics expressed by unit of measure or number, he always directly or indirectly involved the appraisal of classification. He distinguished logical classification, psychological classification and language level. Horn (1972), he introduced the concept of scale, when discussing the semantic features of logical operators in English, grading phenomena is very common to language, not only at the lexical level, but also at the semantic, syntactic and pragmatic levels. Grading studies had been extended to all field of linguistic research.

The graduation system in the appraisal system absorbs the research results of graduation, and introduces the idea of classification into the attitude and engagement resources in the appraisal system, which is used to explain the enhancement or weakening of the meaning in the attitude and engagement subsystems. In addition, Martin further developed the idea of classification and combined it with the concept of cline in systemic functional linguistics. In his view, the grading meanings in the attitude and engagement subsystems are not isolated, they are related to each other to form a continuum, high and low values are the two ends of the continuum, and in the middle of the continuum has various changes. This idea of continuous classification is the theoretical foundation of graduation system. Any category in graduation system can be classified into a continuum, such as the continuum of quantitative, the continuum of process, the continuum of focus, and so on.

### *B. The Thought of Strengthening*

The thought of strengthening is in the same vein as the thought of grading that mentioned above. Since meanings can be graded, they can be strengthened or weakened. In the graduation system, Martin distinguishes between two types of enhancement: quality and process. The enhancement of quality is mainly to the meaning of adjectives or adverbs, while the process of strengthening is to strengthen the meaning of verbs or modality (possibility, habituation, obligation and tendency). In terms of representation, intensification in graduation system can be divided into isolated type, injection type, reduplication type and metaphorical reinforcement.

Bolinger (1972) systematically explored the intensification of various words of English. He believed that not only adjectives and adverbs are often reinforced in English, but nouns and verbs can also be strengthened. These four types of words are usually reinforced by the intensifier. There are four types of intensifiers: boosters, compromisers, diminishers and minimizers. In addition to degree modifiers, there are other ways of strengthening: rhetorical reinforcement, prosodic reinforcement and word repetition reinforcement. Labov (1984) explored the phenomenon of reinforcement in language from a sociolinguistic point of view. It was believed that the core of social and emotional expression is a linguistic phenomenon, and the reinforcement is a grading feature, which depends on its linguistic expression.

Quirk (1985) promoted the study of the phenomenon of intensification in language, which collectively refers to adjectives or adverbs that have an enhanced or weakened effect on the modified components as intensifiers. Among them, adverb degree modifiers can vary according to the modified components. When modifying adjectives, most adverbs are intensifiers.

The idea of intensification in the graduation system absorbs the research results of the above phenomenon. The enhancement of quality and process in the intensification subsystem refers to the adjectives and adverb and verb mentioned by Bolinger (1972), and the intensifiers in Quirk (1985). In addition, several expressions of reinforcement of graduation system, such as superimposed reinforcement and metaphorical reinforcement, are mentioned in Bolinger (1972) and Labov (1984).

### *C. The Thought of Vagueness*

The thought of vagueness is closely related to the thought of graduation mentioned earlier. Because the meaning can be graded, and each grading meaning constitutes a continuum, the boundary between the meanings of each classification is not obvious, and sometimes it is difficult to distinguish. This reflects, in another way, that language is vague and uncertain. The thought of vagueness on the graduation system is mainly reflected in the focusing subsystem. Focus is a graduation system based on prototypicality, which shows that when we use language, we often use some lexical means to obfuscate the boundary of categories and change the typicality of an empirical category. Through the focusing system, the typicality of the empirical category is sharpened or softened, thus being given an attitude meaning, such as, "they don't play real jazz, I'm feeling kind of upset".

The thought of vagueness in graduation system mainly comes from the study of hedging in pragmatics. Zadeh (1965) proposed the concept of vagueness set for the first time, but Lakoff (1972) was the first work in the study of vague language. In this paper, Lakoff first put forward the concept of vague words, which is defined as "some words that make things fuzzy". Since Lakoff (1972), the study of vague language has been greatly developed and widely used in various fields of linguistics, especially in pragmatics and discourse analysis.

The construction of focusing subsystem in graduation system absorbs the research achievements of vague language theory of pragmatics. The focusing system is divided into two sub-systems, that is ascending and decreasing. Ascending is related to the concept of enhancement word put forward by Hyland (2000), while decreasing to embody the idea of "making things have fuzzy characteristics" in vagueness language theory. In terms of expression, the expressions of the

focusing system refer to the number of vague words of Brown & Levinson (1987), the simple vague words of Hyland (1998) and the vague words of Hyland (1998).

#### *D. Political Speech*

The concept of speech first appeared in the Homer epic. It refers to the public transmission of information, the expression of opinions, the clarification of facts, and the expression of feelings to the audience by means of sound language and corresponding body language in a specific spatio-temporal environment. In order to achieve the purpose of inspiring the audience. It is an artistic social practice, a means to impart knowledge and a powerful tool for social communication. Among them, political speech is a kind of speech which is widely concerned by people. Its speakers mainly expound and comment on international and domestic major events and practical problems from the political point of view. Election speeches, inaugural speeches, reports on government work at all levels, debates, political rallies, diplomatic speeches, military speeches, political and ideological education all belong to political speeches. It is often possible to understand the social culture, traditional customs, historical background and ideology of its speakers and even the countries it represents from political speeches. Political speeches use explicit or implicit evaluation methods to reflect the value judgment on discourse information conveyed by the speaker. These value judgments and their embodiments constitute the evaluation resources of the speech discourse, which in turn reflect the speakers' positions, viewpoints and attitudes. Generally speaking, the functional tone of political speech discourse is mostly persuasive. The speaker's communicative intention is to change the original belief of the audiences and urge them to take some action to realize the intention of persuasion. Therefore, most speech languages have the functions of expression, appeal and infection.

Political speech is a kind of speech that represents certain political position and group interests. The basic characteristics are ideological, policy and strategic. Political speeches are more propaganda than other speeches. It conquers the audience with a clear and firm position, full and eloquent reasoning, and urges the audience to accept and act on the ideas they propagate. Political speeches include campaign speeches, political reports and debriefing speeches. Campaign speech refers to a speech in which a certain organization recommends itself for a position or job by eloquence. A speech outline or draft should be prepared in advance, either in a given order or in the order determined by lot, or in a debate. A campaign speech is actually a kind of self-promotion of a speaker, explaining "he can't do it, I can do it," or "he can do it, I can do it" in a way that argues for it, and induces voters to "vote for me." A political report is a speech made at a meeting on a political issue, that to state one's own political point of view. In our country, people concerned are often organized to listen to political reports, and leaders give speeches on political situation, political principles and policies. And guide relevant personnel to make clear the political direction. In capitalist countries, political reporting is usually made by important figures of political parties, group meetings, or Congress, collectively referred to as speeches. A debriefing speech expresses one's attitude to a person or the public on how to deal with official matters. The content of the speech is clear and clear-cut, with specific implementation methods, often indicating the goals achieved and the results achieved. Leading Western government officials are required to deliver such speeches when they take office. Our government officials and leading cadres at all levels of the Party also make work reports on a certain time and at a certain meeting, which is also a debriefing speech.

### IV. THE APPLICATION OF GRADUATION IN POLITICAL SPEECH

Graduation runs through the whole appraisal system, attitude resources and engagement resources can be classified, which mainly to reflect the strong, weak and prominent degree of the speaker's evaluation tone, and can make the speech more freely. Force does not produce new interpersonal meaning, but only increases or reduces the level of appraisal resources, it has two branches: quantification and intensification. The former is measured according to quantity, form and degree, while the latter is measured by quality, process and modality. Focus includes sharpen and soften, which are graduation system based on typicality. The former describes prototype, modified with 'real, genuine', and the latter describes marginalized things, modified with 'sort of, kind of'. The following excerpts from public speeches are selected to illustrate the application of graduation in political speech.

#### *A. The Application of Force*

(1). Billions of people are moving towards modernization with quickened pace. Multiple growth engines have emerged in regions across the world.

(2). As challenges often take on global dimensions, it is more necessary for all countries to take on them cooperatively, turning pressure into motivation and crises into opportunities.

(3). At the same time, we are soberly aware that as a large developing country with 1.3 billion people, China will encounter still greater and tougher challenges on the road to progress.

These several sentences are selected from a major speech by Chinese President Xi Jinping at the Moscow Institute of International Studies, entitled "keeping pace with the times and advancing the trend of world peace and development," to elaborate on China's views on the current international situation, also elaborate China's diplomatic Policy and its position on developing Sino-Russian Relations.

In example 1, the words "billions of" and "multiple" both denote the number of people, indicating the rapid development of the world, which is China's view of the current world. In example 2, the enhanced form of "more necessary" highlights the need for active cooperation among peoples in the face of global challenges. In example 3, the specific data of 1.3 billion clearly shows the number of people in China, and the use of the comparative form of "greater and tougher" highlights the magnitude of the challenges facing China. This statement shows that China will face even more difficult problems with its development path, and that it will have to work hard to achieve the goals it has set.

(4). The best hope for peace in our world is the expansion of freedom of all the world. America's vital interests and our deepest beliefs are now one.

(5). Guided by these principles once more, we can meet those new threats, which demand even greater effort, even greater cooperation and better understanding between nations.

The above sentences were taken from the inaugural speeches of two US presidents, Bush and Obama, both of whom described their principles and policies to lead the development of the country and the solutions to the current difficulties encountered by the country.

In his inaugural speech in 2005, Bush emphasized the concept of freedom by using the comparative form "best" and the quantitative word "all", pointing out that the fervent desire for peace can only be attributed to the expansion of freedom from the world. And "vital" is more important than "important" and "significant", so "vital" is also a sign of graduation, it can express the author's attitude and arouse the attention of the audiences. When it comes to Iraq, Obama is calling for even greater efforts, inter-state "even greater" cooperation and greater understanding in response to new threats. The comparative form is also used, which shows that the comparative form is a common means of graduation.

(6). We must reclaim our country's destiny and dream big and bold and daring.

(7). ... made up of millions of hard-working men and women who love their country and want a better, brighter future for themselves and for their family.

These sentences from a speech that Trump made after he won the general election in the United States on November 9, 2016. Trump shaped his social image, built relationships with his audience and achieved political goals.

In example 6, "must" is a high-valued modal verb used to reinforce a firm attitude. Through such words, the speech reinforced the language's momentum, demonstrating Trump's determination and his desire to win more civic support. Example 7 describes the desire of the American people for a better and brighter future, which can strengthen the enthusiasm of the audience and ignite public expectations. At the same time, it can also resonate with each other, and enhance the persuasiveness of the speech. Trump has used "millions of" to quantify a large number of supporters in an effort to seek the favor of citizens that have not previously supported him.

(8). That's the future we hope for. That's the vision we share. That's where we need to go forward. That's where we need to go.

(9). It doesn't matter whether you are black or white, Asian or Native American, young or old, rich or poor, able or disabled.

These sentences are selected from Obama's presidential victory speech in 2012. He used a wealth of language appraisal resources to impress and inspire the audience with one or more passionate victory speeches, he tried to close the gap between the audience, to create a positive image among the audience, and to enhance the authority and persuasions of his views. Repetition is a reflection of strengthening resources and means, such as the repeated use of "that's" and "or" by Obama to strengthen feelings, which enhance the authority on their positions and views, reflect their self-confidence and optimism, his advocacies including democracy, equality, progress and other ideas stimulate public enthusiasm and patriotism.

#### B. *The Application of Focus*

(10). There are a lot of speeches, and we've heard lots from the president of Sri Lanka.

(11). We, the assembly, have been turned into a merely deliberative organ.

(12). Truly. As the owner of the world,.....

The text used in this article is a speech delivered by Venezuelan President Hugo Chavez at the 61st United Nations General Assembly, which fiercely criticized US foreign policy.

In 10, 11 and 12, the speaker used focused words such as "merely, a lot, truly" to "highlight the boundaries of the scope of intervention," noting that the original purpose and nature of the United Nations General Assembly had changed. As masters of the world, we must act and expose the use of hypocritical rhetoric by the United States to conceal its paradoxical behaviour.

(13). To Melania and Don and Ivanka and Eric and Tiffany and Barron, I love you and I thank you, and especially for putting up with all of those hours.

This sentence is also from a speech Trump made after he won the general election in the United States on November 9, 2016. In example 13, "especially" uses sharpening techniques in focused resources to stress the hours of suffering before waiting for results to come out, to express himself and his team, to express strong emotions, and to arouse the emotions of the masses.

(14). As my husband has said, the United States is offering many resources as possible to assist in search.

This sentence selected from the speech that Michelle Obama made on the theme of studying abroad at Stanford Center at Peking University. Michelle Obama began her speech by expressing concern about the MH370 crash in



Malaysia, as well as the U.S. government's sympathy for passengers and members of his family who were unlucky in the crash. And said that the United States government is with them, will work to search for the missing flight MH370.

In the example of 14, the use of the focus fuzzy word "possible" reflects the high life and human rights of the United States. At the same time, the U.S. government has spent as much aid as possible to search for and rescue the missing flight MH370, thereby demonstrating the image of a responsible U.S. power.

## V. CONCLUSION

Generally speaking, the function of political speech discourse is mostly persuasive, and the speaker's communicative intention is to change the original belief of the audience and urge them to take some actions in order to make them realize the meaning of persuasion. Therefore, most speech languages have the functions of expression, appeal and infection. Graduation makes the speech clear, sonorous and forceful. Using the graduation to analyse political speeches, Finding that the language that is actually hidden behind the ideology of the state. To a great extent, it conveys political strategies and speech skills, achieves the purpose of political speeches, inspires the public, and shapes the good image of the government. At the same time, it also tests the applicability of appraisal theory about this kind of political discourse analysis. It is still in the process of gradual improvement on political discourse, and there are many problems to be solved urgently. In terms of research methods, most of the previous studies used small-scale corpus for text analysis, and the reliability of the analysis still needs to be improved. In addition, there is a broad space for research on the topic of graduation discourse application patterns and genre differences. It provides a new theoretical perspective on political discourse analysis.

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# Actualizing Language Learners' Potentials through Mediation: Cumulative vs Concurrent Group Dynamic Assessment and Students' Self-management of Learning Tasks

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**Abstract**—This study aims to investigate the effect of implementing cumulative GDA and concurrent GDA on students' self-management of learning tasks among Iranian intermediate EFL learners. For conducting this study 40 homogenized intermediate EFL learners were selected from private English language institutes in Sari. For collecting data in this study, participants were randomly divided into two groups named concurrent GDA group and cumulative GDA group. For measuring learners' self-management on learning tasks before the instructional phase, the researchers used the learners' self-management on learning tasks questionnaire (SLTQ). At the instructional phase, both groups were exposed to GDA procedures on doing their learning tasks. The cumulative GDA group members were exposed to cumulative GDA teaching. On the other hands, in concurrent GDA group the learners were exposed to concurrent GDA teaching style. After the instructional phase, the SLTQ was administered by the researchers in order to evaluate learners' self-management on learning tasks. The data analysis revealed that both cumulative and concurrent GDA had statistically significant effect on promoting students' self-management on learning tasks. But the cumulative GDA group outperformed the concurrent GDA group.

**Index Terms**—mediation, cumulative GDA, concurrent GDA, self-management, and learning tasks

## I. INTRODUCTION

For years, the dominant perspective on language testing and assessment is the static one in which the testing and assessment are implemented separate from language instruction. In static view on testing and assessment, individuals' performances are tested or assessed without provision any help from teacher or their peers. The absence of mediation is obvious in this view on language testing and assessment. But nowadays, the awareness about the importance of mediation in the process of language assessment and teaching flourished. In recent years, the concept of Dynamic Assessment (DA) appeared in TEFL field concerning to integrate testing and instruction through provision of mediation. According to Lantolf and Poehner (2004) non-dynamic assessments assess fully ripen abilities and performances of students whereas DA concentrated on immature and ongoing abilities and performances of students which are potentially ripen and shaped by provision of mediation in future.

In dynamic assessment, the necessity of one to one interaction between mediator and learners make it inefficient for crowded language classrooms especially in schools where the number of students are at least 20 members. So this shortcoming of dynamic assessment leads to introduce the notion of Group Dynamic Assessment (GDA) recently. In GDA, the procedure and process of DA is totally applied but in GDA in addition to individual ZPD, the group ZPD is concerned too. In other words, GDA focused on developing all the students' current level of performance to their potential level of performance through mediation provided by teacher. Regarding the role of teacher in classroom, the scenario is changed. Now language teachers are considered as facilitator of learning rather than transmitter of knowledge. Also at the side of language learners, they are no longer considered as passive receivers of knowledge but they are regarded as active participants of learning process. So the language teachers try to involve students in learning process and give the responsibility of learning to students as much as possible.

In traditional language classrooms, teachers are regarded as a single person who are authorized to regulate and manage everything about teaching and learning process. In such a context, there is no allowance for students to show their feelings, opinions, and unique manners of learning. They supposed to follow the steps and restrict guidelines that provided by their teachers. Thus their creativity is blocked and their right to be seen as an independent individual is ignored respectively. But in recent years by spreading the learner-centered and learner-oriented approaches in language teaching, the table has turned. Students are considered as active agencies in their language learning process and their

feelings, needs and preferences, learning styles, and uniqueness are respected more than before. So it is the time to allow them to play the game in their own manners and carry their learning responsibility on their shoulders.

For developing students' academic achievements, they need to be able to adjust and manage their learning process based on their capabilities. Simply knowing more than others cannot guarantee student success in language learning. They must be capable to assess and use their acquired knowledge, adjust, monitor, and change their learning behaviors when they dealing with learning challenges. Students who are capable to self-manage their learning tasks, show more desire to spend their learning time effectively and choose more difficult tasks with longer persistence on doing them. On the other hands, students who are unable to self-manage their learning tasks, tend to use more failure-avoiding strategies on their tasks and spend considerable time on doing their learning tasks respectively. Also their persistence on difficult tasks is considerably lower than students with high self-management ability.

Regarding Iranian EFL context, the dominant approach towards testing and assessment is the static one especially in public school. The final outcome and performance of students are emphasized without provision of any mediation by teachers. Also in terms of group-based learning and teaching, there are still miles to go. One of the most important obstacle on the way of group-based learning is the absence of cooperative learning culture among Iranian EFL students. Even in some cases language teachers are not ready technically or emotionally to implement cooperative and group-based teaching in their classroom. In addition, there are not serious and effective actions and endeavors for making language student as an autonomous learner whether in language institutes or public schools. The ability of self-management on learning tasks is considered as building blocks of the autonomous learning. Unfortunately there is no opportunity for students to develop their self-management ability in Iranian EFL context yet. Because such an issue is not on the center of attention by language program developer or even language teachers.

Considering above mentioned problems, this study aims to investigate the effect of implementing cumulative GDA and concurrent GDA on students' self-management of learning tasks among Iranian intermediate EFL learners. Based on the purpose of this study the following research questions are formulated:

**RQ1:** Does cumulative GDA have statistically significant effect on students' self-management of learning tasks?

**RQ2:** Does concurrent GDA have statistically significant effect on students' self-management of learning tasks?

## II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

DA is rooted in Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory which emphasizes the role of society and culture in language learning and acquisition. Based on this view, students' cognitive development depends on their interactions with their social and cultural environments and contexts. Through interacting with social and cultural context, students construct their own meaning and knowledge about language. Vygotsky (1978) believed that in DA the gradual and dialogic mediation based on learners' current level of development in accordance with their ZPD level, help the learners to move the space between their independent ability and performance and their potential ability and performance under the guidance and support of more capable others mediation. Lidz (1987) defined DA as an interaction between an intervener (teacher) and a learners who are actively participate in mutual exchange of information in order to diagnose the degree of modification and mediation needed for inducement and maintenance of intended cognitive, behavioral, and functional changes in learners' mind and performance.

In implementing DA, the role of teacher should be changed from an inactive examiner towards an active mediator who is interact with learners dialogically during assessment or testing process (Lantolf & Poehner, 2004). The dialogic and interactional nature of DA, enables teachers and students to work on their developed and still developing abilities. Through DA procedure, not only students' mature, developed, and achieved abilities are assessed but also on-going, immature, and ripening abilities are considered (Poehner & van Compernelle, 2011). Proponents of static assessment refuse provision of any intervention by the teachers during test administration because they believed that teachers' mediational supports and actions have potential threat to the reliability of tests and assessment (Poehner & Lantolf, 2005).

Because DA concentrated on mutual and individualistic interactions between teacher and students in solving their learning problems or doing their learning tasks, it arises the issue of practicality of DA in large language classes. So some practitioners and scholars believe that DA is more appropriate for small scale classrooms rather than for large scale classrooms. For instance Anton (2009) asserted that despite DA potentiality for providing rich and insightful information about individual learners under assessment, but the individualistic nature of required interaction of DA makes it time-consuming and inappropriate for actual classroom setting with numbers of students. Also Guk and Kellog (2007) believed that many language teachers especially in public school refuse the concept of DA because they supposed to teach whole class and in their views DA is time demanded and specified for individual level rather than group level.

In response to such a logistical and theoretical considerations, Poehner (2009) introduced the concept of GDA which is considered language teacher as a team driver, facilitator, and mediator in order to capture the whole students' ZPD. GDA is designed for involving students in learning tasks that required to perform in group-based dialogic interaction in order to reach the whole groups' intended learning goals. In both DA and GDA, the provision of mediation is based on learners' ZPD to help them to construct their knowledge around their actual potentiality. The distinctive point is here that in GDA, all participants' ZPDs are concerned by the assessment procedure and process (Poehner, 2009).

Two major and distinctive concepts in the procedure of GDA are the primary and secondary interactants. According to Poehner (2009) teacher and learner are considered as primary interactants when the teacher provides mediation for certain and individual learner directly in order to overcome the learning problem and difficulty. On the other hand, when this exchange and negotiation of information takes place in the classroom the rest of the class members are benefited from the potentiality of mediation and interactions between primary interactants. So the rest of classroom are considered as secondary interactants in this case. On other words, when teacher mediates given learner in response to his/her problematic learning area in order to develop his/her ZPD to next possible level they play the role of primary interactants. Since this negotiation of meaning occurs in classroom as a social environment, other learners are exposed to the dialogic exchange of information and they are considered as secondary interactants respectively.

In the process of GDA, learners are engaged in tasks that they individually cannot completely accomplished it but are achievable whenever they work in collaborative and cooperative manner and negotiate in dialogic interactions using whole class capabilities i.e. group-specific mediation. Poehner (2009) points out in GDA process teachers are required to mediate the whole class as a group in order to promote the whole class ZPD. This emphasize on group-oriented mediation does not mean that individual learners in classroom are not supposed to receive necessary mediation and interactions. In fact, the orientation and direction of every mediation are adjusted based on the group of learners' ZPDs.

Concurrent and cumulative GDA are differentiated by Poehner (2009) who believed that in concurrent GDA, first the teacher provides the mediation for particular learner (primary interactants) in classroom, if the intended learner fails to response correctly and completely to given mediation, the other learner takes the primary interactants role. This circular actions continues until one learner gives the correct response. So in concurrent GDA, all of the participants have chance to play as primary interactants with their teacher or mediator. In cumulative GDA, the teacher provides a series of one-on-one DA mediation on whole class until the group mastery happened on the target learning goal. So in cumulative GDA, all of the participants considered as the primary interactants regardless of their response to mediation.

Studies show that self-management is the important strategy for learners which enables them to understand and adjust their learning patterns, attitudes and feelings in order to achieve their learning objectives successfully (Wenden, 1995; Rubin, 2001). Self-management is the ability and capacity to work effectively toward meaningful goals, and to be flexible in dealing with unpredictable situation in learning process. Students with higher self-management ability show higher perceived self-value, resilience on difficulties, academic performance, and capacity to adapt to change on their learning tasks (Agolla & Ongori, 2009). Self-management ability enables learners to take their learning responsibilities and manage and regulate their own learning process. Self-management concept is two folded including self-adjustment where context management occurs at social, resources, and actions level and self-monitoring where learners monitor, evaluate and regulate their own learning process and strategies (Garrison, 1997).

Self-management capability at the side of students enable them to practice self-monitoring, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement strategies in their learning tasks and considered as an effective step towards independent and autonomous learning. When students equipped with self-management the feeling of control over their own behavior and performance is constructed in their minds. Successful learners can manage their metacognitive knowledge in learning, and they are aware about their learning circumstances and skills necessary to achieve their learning goals. According to White (1995) self-management takes place when learners demonstrate their competence for the best way of setting up their intended learning conditions and goals at the process of interacting with the target Language.

Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1988) characterized individual with effective self-management skill as a person equipped with abilities such as: goal setting ability, problem solving ability, positive thinking ability, resource management ability, self-reflection ability, and resistance on achieving goal ability. Also Rubin (2001) believed learners who possess self-management skill, are able to regulate and access their prior and current knowledge, learning process based on the nature of tasks in order to adjust their learning conditions dynamically based on different situations. Self-management skill enables students to complete their assigned tasks autonomously and act as an active participant in classroom who are able to monitor and reinforce their own learning behavior towards gaining the learning goals. The critical elements of self-management skill are including ability to set learning goals, self-monitoring, self-evaluation of learning progress, time-management, self-adaptation, and self-reinforcement.

Shabani (2018) investigated the effect of GDA on L2 learners' writing ability. The results showed that receiving GDA, prompts, hints, and scaffolding promoted L2 learners' writing ability. Also the study revealed that GDA was successful in diagnosing learners' writing problems and moving the learners' ZPDs individually and at the whole class level.

Tabatabaee, Alidoust and Sarkeshikian (2018) conducted a study to compare the effects of interventionist DA, cumulative GDA, and static assessments on the grammatical accuracy of the EFL learners' narrative writing. The results of the study showed that cumulative GDA outperformed the other two groups on developing the EFL learners' accuracy in writing narrative paragraphs.

Miri, Alibakhshi, Kushki and Salehpour Bavarsad (2017) tested the efficiency of concurrent and cumulative GDA in teaching and learning English articles. This study showed that both types of GDA whether concurrent and cumulative had positive effect on developing learners' knowledge and awareness about English articles. But, it revealed that the concurrent GDA group outperformed the cumulative GDA group in promoting the learning of English articles.

Hashemi Shahraki, Ketabi, and Barati (2015) studied the effects of GDA on learners' pragmatic knowledge of conversational implicatures through listening activity. The findings of this study showed that GDA had positive and significant effect on improvement of learners' listening skill especially their pragmatic competence of conversational implicatures.

In a qualitative study Mehri and Amerian (2015) investigated the effect of GDA on the development of the control over the past tense. The results of the study showed that the three learners had significant development in their control over the past tense in their writing skill. Also it revealed that the learners no longer stayed passive in their classroom as a receiver of the teacher's mediation but they interacted actively in classroom through provision of mediation to their peers.

Alavi, Kaivanpanah, and Shabani (2012) investigated the potentiality of GDA in identifying the mediational supports by a mediator in terms of collective scaffolding when work on 12 learners' listening skill. The results indicated provision of scaffold mediation based on GDA procedures could help the learners to establish their understanding and knowledge about target skill. Also the results of the study revealed that the mediation had constructive effect on all the learners' contributions whether as primary or secondary interactants.

### III. METHODOLOGY

#### A. Participants

A convenience sampling procedure was conducted for the subject selection. For conducting this study 40 homogenized intermediate EFL learners were selected from private English language institutes in Sari. They were male and female learners aged from 15 to 20 years old. They spend at least three years in their language institutes learning English language. All the participants were assured the confidentiality of data. In addition they were consent to participate in this study.

#### B. Instrumentation

**1. Oxford Placement Test (OPT):** This test was applied to homogenize language learners in the present study (Syndicate, 2001). It comprised 60 items in two parts. These parts designed for vocabulary and grammar (40 items) and reading comprehension (20 items).

**2. Learners' Self-management on Learning Tasks Questionnaire (SLTQ):** The SLTQ was designed by the researchers in order to measure learners' self-management on learning tasks. The questionnaire comprised of 30 items in a Likert scale format. The SLTQ had four parts included orientation (9 items), time planning (7 items), accomplishment (7 items), and strategic management (7 items). The researchers piloted this questionnaire on 150 participants and calculated its reliability by using Cronbach alpha formula in which it was about 0.88 respectively. Also for validating this questionnaire the factor analysis was done using SPSS software. Some modification and amendment were done as a result of factor analysis and these 30 items considered as valid items for measuring learners' self-management on learning tasks.

#### 3. Procedure

For collecting data in this study, first the researchers administered OPT on available learners and 40 out of 68 EFL learners were selected as homogenized and intermediate language learners. Then they were randomly divided into two groups named concurrent GDA group and cumulative GDA group. For measuring learners' self-management on learning tasks before the instructional phase, the researchers used the SLTQ. At the instructional phase, both groups were exposed to GDA procedures on doing their learning tasks. The GDA procedures were done by the researchers on each group separately. The researcher used techniques such as graduated prompt, direct prompt, leading questions, clarification, and hints as mediation with emphasize on groups' ZPD developments. But the cumulative GDA group members were exposed to cumulative GDA teaching style in which all of the participants have equal chance to play as primary interactants with their mediator. In other words they were considered as primary interactants by their mediator. On the other hands, in concurrent GDA group the learners were exposed to concurrent GDA teaching style in which the participants have chance to play as both primary and secondary interactants with their mediator based on their responses to mediator contributions in classroom. The instructional phase last 8 sessions, each one and half hours two days a week. After the instructional phase, the SLTQ was administered by the researchers in order to evaluate learners' self-management on learning tasks. The obtained data were recorded and analyze through SPSS software.

### IV. RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSIS

#### A. Analysis of First Research Question

The first research question of this study was as follow:

**RQ1:** Does cumulative GDA have statistically significant effect on students' self-management of learning tasks?

In order to answer first research question, the descriptive statistics for cumulative GDA group is presented in table 1.

TABLE I.  
THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR CUMULATIVE GDA GROUP

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Cumulative GDA Pre	20	59	89	<b>75.85</b>	7.322
Cumulative GDA Post	20	70	102	<b>85.45</b>	7.681
Valid N (listwise)	20				

The table 1 shows that the cumulative GDA group pre and post-tests' means are **75.85** and **85.45** respectively. Since choosing the appropriate test for inferential statistics is depend on pre and post-tests' scores normality, the normality calculation is presented in table 2.

TABLE II  
THE NORMALITY STATISTICS FOR CUMULATIVE GDA GROUP

	Shapiro-Wilk Statistic	df	Sig.
Cumulative GDA Pre	0.974	20	<b>0.837</b>
Cumulative GDA Post	0.963	20	<b>0.604</b>

According to the table 2, the sig values for cumulative GDA group pre and post-tests' scores are **0.837** and **0.604** respectively. Since both of the sig values are more than 0.05 ( $0.837 > 0.05$  and  $0.604 > 0.05$ ) it means that two sets of scores are normally distributed. So the researchers are allowed to use parametric test for comparing two means i.e. the paired sample t-test. The inferential statistics for cumulative GDA group is presented in table 3.

TABLE III  
THE INFERENTIAL STATISTICS FOR CUMULATIVE GDA GROUP

THE INFERENTIAL STATISTICS FOR CUMULATIVE GDA GROUP						
		Paired Differences		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Cumulative GDA Pre Cumulative GDA Post	-11.129	-8.071	-13.141	19	<b>0.000</b>

Based on the table 3, the sig value is **0.000**. Since the obtained sig value is less than 0.05 ( $0.000 < 0.05$ ) it can be concluded that this sig value is statistically significant and the observed difference between two means is meaningful. So for the first research question, it can be said that cumulative GDA had statistically significant effect on promoting students' self-management on learning tasks.

#### B. Analysis of Second Research Question

The second research question of this study was as follow:

**RQ2:** Does concurrent GDA have statistically significant effect on students' self-management of learning tasks?

In order to answer second research question, the descriptive statistics for concurrent GDA group is presented in table 4.

TABLE IV.  
THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR CONCURRENT GDA GROUP

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Concurrent GDA Pre	20	55	92	<b>73.75</b>	9.313
Concurrent GDA Post	20	62	96	<b>80.15</b>	9.016
Valid N (listwise)	20				

The table 4 shows that the concurrent GDA group pre and post-tests' means are **73.75** and **80.15** respectively. Since choosing the appropriate test for inferential statistics is depend on pre and post-tests' scores normality, the normality calculation is presented in table 5.

TABLE V.  
THE NORMALITY STATISTICS FOR CONCURRENT GDA GROUP

	Shapiro-Wilk Statistic	df	Sig.
Concurrent GDA Pre	0.990	20	<b>0.998</b>
Concurrent GDA Post	0.962	20	<b>0.589</b>

According to the table 5, the sig values for concurrent GDA group pre and post-tests' scores are **0.998** and **0.589** respectively. Since both of the sig values are more than 0.05 ( $0.998 > 0.05$  and  $0.589 > 0.05$ ) it means that two sets of scores are normally distributed. So the researchers are allowed to use parametric test for comparing two means i.e. the paired sample t-test. The inferential statistics for concurrent GDA group is presented in table 6.

TABLE VI  
THE INFERENTIAL STATISTICS FOR CONCURRENT GDA GROUP

		Paired Differences		Interval of $t$	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		95% Confidence the Difference	Lower	Upper		
Pair 1	Concurrent GDA Pre Concurrent GDA Post	-8.212	-4.588	-7.393	19	<b>0.000</b>

Based on the table 6, the sig value is **0.000**. Since the obtained sig value is less than 0.05 ( $0.000 < 0.05$ ) it can be concluded that this sig value is statistically significant and the observed difference between two means is meaningful. So for the second research question, it can be said that concurrent GDA had statistically significant effect on promoting students' self-management on learning tasks. Also the means differences in the table 1 (cumulative GDA group) and the table 4 (concurrent GDA group) show that the cumulative GDA group outperformed the concurrent GDA group.

## V. DISCUSSION

The data analysis revealed that both cumulative and concurrent GDA had has statistically significant effect on promoting students' self-management of learning tasks. But the cumulative GDA group outperformed the concurrent GDA group. As Lantolf and Throne (2006) believed by DA procedure and using mediation, teachers become able to discover the learners' learning obstacles and difficulties in order to assist them to overcome the problems. DA integrates two separate parts of educational process i.e. instruction and assessment. This integration of instruction and assessment enables students to control their own learning better by giving them active role in the process of assessment. When students considered as an active agency in assessment, their level of self-confidence and motivation in doing assigned tasks increased.

As Poehner (2009) believed, in GDA, the provision of mediation is based on learners' ZPD to help them to construct their knowledge around their actual potentiality. The distinctive point is here that in GDA, all participants' ZPDs are concerned by the assessment procedure and process. In GDA process whether in cumulative GDA or concurrent GDA, teachers seek to engage whole students in the assessment and instruction process. This engagement give them opportunity to express their opinions and ideas about their learning tasks. In terms of classroom atmosphere, GDA can provide student-friendly environment for students where their voices are heard by their mediator and their classmates. It encourages them to spread their learning responsibly boundaries and move towards autonomous learning practice.

Moreover, the role of the teacher cannot be ignored in this process. Teachers are required constantly refine their mediation and contributions based learners' learning actual and potential problems in order to extend students' ZPDs level. Also in GDA, teachers are considered as feedback provider and agent of attunement on students' learning tasks. Through provision of feedbacks on students' works, the students become capable to control and regulate their learning process better. Based on Rubin (2001) point of view, learners who possess self-management skill, are able to regulate and access their prior and current knowledge, learning process based on the nature of tasks in order to adjust their learning conditions dynamically based on different situations. So the GDA process and procedures can be considered as constructive and facilitative factor in students' ability to manage and adjust their learning tasks.

## VI. CONCLUSION

Language assessment play an important and critical role in students' current and future language learning journey because the process of decision making is the indispensable part of assessment and it can affect students' language or even academic life. On the other hand, this is logical to think that assessment should be in service of instruction and learning (assessment for learning) not instruction works for assessment (assessment of learning). The integration of instruction and assessment for the purpose of better learning can be regarded as an effective idea. DA can provide such a ground for integration. According to Poehner (2008), every DA session performs both an instructional and an evaluative function in integrative manner in which it's difficult to distinct instruction from assessment.

Poehner (2009) argues that a major challenge to implementing DA in the classroom is that these contexts do not permit the mutual interactions between teacher and individual students which are considered as core feature of DA process. So regarding this challenge on the way of using DA in classroom level, the concept of GDA introduced by emphasizing on whole group ZPDs development. The group-oriented mediation of GDA in classroom can be beneficent for students' learning development in many ways. As the findings of this study revealed, cumulative and concurrent GDA had has statistically significant effect on promoting students' self-management on learning tasks. On the other hand, the self-management ability is regarded as initial step towards autonomous learning. So it is important to help students to be able to manage their learning process and tasks. It can help students to be self-confident and believe that they have the abilities to succeed independently in their language learning.

This study findings can be helpful for English language teachers especially EFL teachers in their teaching practice. Also these findings can be considered valuable guide for English language program designers and curriculum developers in Iran for providing better and more effective English language programs especially in assessment and testing orientation. In addition, these finding can help teacher educators to increase their teacher-students awareness

about the true nature of assessment and testing. The last but not least, these findings can help the EFL learners whether in private language institutes or public schools to plan and schedule their learning behaviors and performances towards better learning situations and opportunities.

#### APPENDIX. LEARNERS' SELF-MANAGEMENT OF LEARNING TASKS QUESTIONNAIRE

1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree

N	Questions	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Orientation</b>						
1	I can establish my learning goals and objectives successfully.					
2	I set and follow short-term, mid-term, and long-term goals for my language learning.					
3	Being an autonomous language learner, is my ultimate goals in language learning.					
4	I make a to-do list for my learning tasks.					
5	I believe that learners' abilities, qualities, and efforts affect their effectiveness and success in doing their learning tasks.					
6	I confident enough to manage and complete my learning tasks alone.					
7	I take a positive view of my situation even when I am in trouble.					
8	I aware that receiving guidance from teacher can help me to complete my learning tasks.					
9	I understand my strengths and weaknesses in doing assigned tasks.					
<b>Time Planning</b>						
10	Finishing tasks on-time is my priority in language learning.					
11	I prepare schedules to help myself finish tasks successfully.					
12	I do not like disorderly learning environment.					
13	I prefer to plan everything related to assigned tasks before actual attempt for completing them.					
14	I am able to follow the plan line that I set for doing my assigned tasks.					
15	I try to be attentive and active in classroom practice as much as possible.					
16	I often think about how to better manage my time and efforts in doing assigned tasks.					
<b>Accomplishment</b>						
17	I can adapt my language skills based on assigned task's requirements.					
18	I can generalize of the learning undertaken throughout the intervention process on previous learning tasks to other situations.					
19	I am good at handling problems that come up in doing my learning tasks.					
20	I can regulate and handle strategies for executing and completing assigned tasks.					
21	I am able to predict and anticipate the potential problems and difficulties in doing my learning tasks.					
22	Before doing my assigned learning tasks, I analyze and synthesize the required process for doing tasks effectively.					
23	I can use specific cognitive techniques for various learning tasks autonomously.					
<b>Strategic Management</b>						
24	I try to develop necessary skills, ability, and understandings for successful completion of assigned task.					
25	In doing my learning tasks, I can bridge between my previous knowledge and newly acquired knowledge in practical manner.					
26	I try to put innovation in techniques and strategies for completing my learning tasks.					
27	I always try to accommodate solutions for learning tasks based on different learning contexts, needs, and objectives.					
28	I pay particular focal attention on guidelines provided by teacher for doing my assigned tasks.					
29	I often try to think critically about various aspects of my assigned learning tasks.					
30	I try to use my own specialized techniques and strategies to improve my performance in doing different learning tasks and accumulate my expertise.					

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# A Study on the Problems and Countermeasures of Oral English Teaching in Rural Junior Middle Schools under the Background of Man-machine Dialogue Examination in China

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**Abstract**—English is a main subject of high school entrance examination in China. Many Students have learned English for more than ten years, but they are still unable to communicate with others in English after they graduate from middle school or even high school because of the poor oral English. With the advocacy of the new curriculum reform and quality-oriented education, many provinces and municipalities in China have introduced oral English test into the English exam of high school entrance examination. However, comparing with urban students, students' oral English in rural areas is relatively weak, which is undoubtedly a huge challenge for rural junior middle schools. Hence, rural junior middle schools need to take measures to improve the oral English of students. This paper analyses the problems of oral English teaching in rural junior middle schools from the aspects of teaching facilities, teachers and students, putting forward some suggestions accordingly.

**Index Terms**—man-machine dialogue, rural junior middle school, oral English, problems, countermeasures

## I. INTRODUCTION

English, as a high school entrance examination subject, its essence is a language and a communication tool between people. A large number of students can write and read in English, but they are afraid to or cannot communicate with others in English because of the bad oral English. It is called “Dumb English” in China.

Listening, speaking, reading and writing are four basic language skills. According to Wilga M. Rivers (1982), listening, speaking, reading and writing respectively account for 44%, 30.3%, reading for 16%, and writing for 9.7% in language activities. That is to say, listening and speaking account for 74%, which shows the importance of oral communicative competence. Under the trend of the new English curriculum reform, more and more attention has been paid to students' oral English competence. Students have good language output ability and can better communicate with others, which also meets the requirements of quality-oriented education.

Nowadays, plenty of provinces and municipalities gradually realize the significance of oral communication under the requirement of the new curriculum reform, and finally incorporate oral English test into high school entrance examination. At present, most provincial and municipal oral exams are man-machine dialogue with the help of computer software. The man-machine dialogue mainly divided into four types: reading passages aloud, situational dialogue, answering questions and brief introduction of the given topic, which was closely linked, besides, its requirements increase stage by stage. The widest gap between urban and rural students in English learning is oral English competence. It is obviously a huge challenge for teachers and students in rural junior middle schools. It's high time for junior middle schools in rural areas to change the current situation of English teaching and take a series of measures to improve students' oral English gradually.

## II. PROBLEMS IN ORAL ENGLISH TEACHING IN RURAL JUNIOR MIDDLE SCHOOLS

The phenomenon of “Dumb English” is caused by various reasons. For many years, schools and teachers just pay attention to the listening and writing abilities of students but ignore the oral English ability both in urban and rural areas. According to the requirements of new English curriculum standards, which lays a solid foundation for students to learn oral English. The target framework of the new English curriculum standards includes language knowledge, language

skills, learning strategies and cultural awareness. Language skills include listening, speaking, reading and writing. These four skills promote each other in language learning and communication. Students can acquire the ability to use the language, so they have undergone a large number of specialized and comprehensive language training, laying a foundation for communication (English Curriculum Standards, September 9, 2011). We can't ignore each one.

Next, this paper will analyse the problems of oral English teaching in rural junior middle schools from three aspects: teaching facilities, teachers and students. Teaching facilities are external factors, which mainly include imperfect multimedia equipment, lack of voice training room in language teaching. Teachers and students are the main participants in class, meanwhile, they are the internal factors of problems in oral English teaching in rural junior middle schools.

#### *A. Analysis on Teaching Facilities*

As far as the present situation is concerned, most of the education funds obtained by schools can only be enough to maintain daily teaching work, and only a small amount can be invested in teaching facilities, which leads to the serious shortage of English teaching facilities in some rural areas. Teaching facilities have influence on the effectiveness of teaching, especially language teaching. Teaching facilities like multimedia equipment and voice training room can vividly show the situation by pictures and videos. Problems of teaching facilities are mainly as follows:

##### *1. Imperfect multimedia equipment*

In recent years, with the support of the education department and all walks of life, teaching equipment in rural areas has been greatly improved, but for English, a highly interactive language subject, the current situation of teaching equipment can not meet the needs of English teaching.

##### *2. The lack of voice training room*

Most schools in rural areas do not equip schools with voice training room and related software for oral English teaching and tests. There are four types of questions in the oral test of man-machine dialogues for high school entrance examination: reading passages aloud, situational dialogue, answering questions and brief introduction of the given topic. The requirements are as follows: in term of "listening", students can understand the speaker's intention according to intonation and stress; students can understand the conversation about familiar topics, and students can extract information and viewpoints from it; students can overcome the obstacles of new words and understand the main idea in accordance with context. In term of "speaking", students can read the text coherently; students can answer questions in English according to the situation; students can familiarize with the topic according to the information provided, and speak a paragraph in line with the above oral activities; the pronunciation, intonation should be natural, the tone should be appropriate. It can be seen that the oral test requires pronunciation, intonation, fluency and other aspects. Without a large number of training in a voice training room, students can not get language corrections and fluent expression. Even schools with voice training rooms are confronted with the predicament of large numbers of students and short supply of voice training rooms.

#### *B. Analysis on Teachers*

As we all known, English teachers play important roles in class, and they stand at a dominating position in the process English teaching. Teachers' self-development of English exactly affects the proficiency of student, including pronunciation, intonation, communicative ability, thinking method and learning method. Hence, the English teaching quality is closely connected with the professional level of English teachers.

Due to the harsh conditions, English graduates are reluctant to teach in rural schools, resulting in a relatively small number of English teachers. It is unable to meet the teaching needs. In addition, an English teacher has to teach several grades and classes concurrently, which leads to poor teaching effect.

##### *1. Teachers' oral proficiency are not of high level*

Because the rural conditions are worse than those in cities, the level of English teachers in rural junior middle schools is uneven. Many rural English teachers are not English majors, and some have poor professional competence, including pronunciation, intonation and fluency, and so on. All of these influence the students' pronunciation and intonation imperceptibly.

##### *2. The teaching method of teachers is limited*

Some English teachers just focus on vocabulary and grammar to explain and impart English knowledge under the pressure of the examination-oriented education, while they ignore the cultivation of students' comprehensive ability to use language. Many English teachers in rural junior middle schools don't adjust English teaching to the new syllabus and still adopt the Translation Method. Students' English ability cannot keep up with the development of knowledge and information age. Traditional foreign language education has been unable to adapt to the requirements of modern society. In order to be in accordance with the purpose of English teaching, the method of English teaching in rural area must be changed.

In Translation Method teaching, translation is the basic means and grammar learning is the key point of teaching. Students learn English by reciting vocabulary and grammar rules. This method is not taught in English in the course of class. Both the grammar knowledge and the content of the text is explained in Chinese, and the teacher is the center of class. Teachers in rural areas do not adopt the Task-Based Teaching Method which is strongly recommended at present. Under the teaching of Translation Method, students aren't encouraged to use English in class. Jespersen, a Danish

linguist, also emphasized that one of the significant factor of English teaching is that you should expose students to English as much as possible.

### *C. Analysis on Students*

From the perspective of student, the main problem is that students have psychological barriers in learning oral English. According to Affective-filter Hypothesis in Krashen's Second Language Acquisition Theory, the success of second language acquisition depends on learners' emotional factors. Emotional factors include self-confidence, anxiety and motivation.

Due to various reasons, rural students are less confident than urban students, which make them unwilling to show themselves too much. Students can cope with written examination. But if oral presentation is required, students usually show their refusal.

In addition, rural students are generally anxious about learning oral English. Anxiety refers to a person can not achieve their goals or overcome obstacles, so as to combat self-confidence, self-esteem, increasing the anxiety of failure. Anxiety in foreign language learning refers to the special psychological state of fear or confusion when English learners express themselves in English. If students feel anxious, they will form emotional shielding thus produce less input of English language, which is not conducive to the mastery of second language English, especially oral English. Language expression is a major obstacle. Students fear that they can't speak well and be laughed at, thus forming a vicious circle.

In terms of learning motivation, the lack of English language environment in rural areas and schools and students' wrong understanding of English leads to students' low learning motivation. Many students believe that the purpose of English learning is just taking exams, and they have no idea that English plays an important role in their future study and work.

## III. TEACHING AND LEARNING STRATEGIES OF ORAL ENGLISH TEACHING IN RURAL JUNIOR MIDDLE SCHOOLS

### *A. Suggestions for Teaching Facilities*

The Strategy of Rural Revitalization clearly puts forward "give priority to the development of rural education". Under the call of the Strategy of Rural Revitalization, the investment in education for rural schools will be increased. It is necessary to improve the multimedia facilities in teaching infrastructure, which can enrich the English classroom, and better strengthen students' understanding of knowledge. For example, using video, audio or picture to import teaching content will help to attract students' attention, make teaching more intuitive and interesting, and improve students' interest in English learning.

Rural schools should further improve multimedia equipment, establish a voice training room and install oral test software in the voice training room for students to practice in turn. Only through plenty of oral practice, rural students can gradually eliminate the lack of self-confidence, anxiety and tension, and be calmer in the daily communication and oral test, laying the foundation for the further study.

### *B. Suggestions for Teachers*

English teachers should design activities as effectively as possible in class and after class. Oral English transfers the internal language into the external language. English teachers should design effective and innovative class activities to create a good English atmosphere so that students can turn the language knowledge into practice. English teachers ought to make efforts to turn the English class into a place where students can communicate with each other effectively so as to gradually improve students' oral English competence.

#### 1. Various teaching methods are adopted in class

In class, teachers should abandon backward teaching methods, use diversified teaching methods and teach in English. Students should be encouraged to open their mouths and speak English aloud. This is in line with The Input Hypothesis, which refers that it is only when the learner is exposed to comprehensible language input, can language input produce acquisition (Krashen, 1985). In others words, the appropriate language input is a little higher than his current second language level. Teachers teach in English, which is slightly higher than students' understanding. This is conducive to students' second language input.

When students make language errors, teachers should pay attention to the ways of feedback and error correction. As we all know, mistakes are inevitable in the process of learning English. In oral English teaching, teachers should balance the relationship between fluency and accuracy. Speaking is a productive skill that requires fluency, accuracy, and appropriateness. In oral English teaching, fluency is a top priority, following is accuracy and appropriateness. Teachers should encourage students to use the language by designing exercises that imitate real-life situations (Ziwen Lu, 2012). Generally speaking, imitative spoken language should correct errors in order to ensure correct output and lay the foundation for accurate expression; communicative spoken language should tolerate errors, try not to interrupt students' thinking and eliminate students' enthusiasm, and correct typical errors after students consistently express their ideas. When giving feedback to students, we should also pay attention to language expression and use more encouraging language, such as "You did a good job! Very well!", in order to stimulate students' motivation and self-confidence.

The traditional teacher-centered English class makes students become passive learners and ignore their subjective

ability and creativity. Modern English classes should follow a student-centered, teacher-led teaching model. Teachers are no longer the authority on everything, and students are no longer the passive learners. English teachers should be promoters of English teaching instead of traditional knowledge disseminators.

## 2. Enriching teaching activities after class

English teachers should organize English activities on a regular basis and arrange a fixed time for the English activities to provide students with an efficient oral English communication and practice environment. During the activity, the organizer should set a theme in advance and inform the students, giving them time to prepare. In fact, the process of preparation is the process of learning English. Secondly, English teachers should give active guidance to students when they are free to express themselves and provide personalized guidance in time to make students' oral English expression more effective.

Only the language input in class can not meet the needs of students. After class, different ways should be adopted according to different grades and stages to stimulate students' interest and cultivate students' oral competence. There are three levels of oral activities: controlled activities, semi-controlled activities and open activities.

In the first semester of grade 7, students' language foundation is weak. Teachers can give each student an English name after class, so that students can have a sense of substitution in the language situation. After class, students are encouraged to read aloud and retell. Reasonable use of classroom retelling in English teaching is of great benefit. First of all, it can improve students' understanding of the text. Secondly, it is beneficial for students' oral expression ability. In the second semester of grade 7, students have a certain language accumulation. Each class can arrange students to talk about topics they are interested in English for three minutes, such as their family, favorite food, a trip, etc.

In the first semester of grade 8, English song contests can be held in the class meeting, and the most popular English singers can be selected. In the second semester of grade 8, students can rehearse the English drama and select the best performances. They can also participate in the school's New Year Art Performance on behalf of the class. At the same time, oral test should be included in the mid-term and final examinations, and the single evaluation method should be changed.

In the first semester of grade 9, the students' language foundation has been greatly improved. They can hold an English speech contest in the class, and even promote the contest in the whole school. In the second semester grade 9, there will be a high school entrance examination, which can organize multi-machine simulation tests and practice the examination skills.

## 3. Establishing a two-way communication mechanism

Education departments should establish a two-way communication mechanism between urban and rural teachers. Two-way communication mechanism refers to the exchange between the rural and urban schools to guide the balanced layout of excellent teachers.

On one hand, urban teachers teaching in rural areas can bring more diversified teaching methods and oral edification to students. On the other hand, rural teachers teaching in urban schools can learn more advanced teaching methods. Teachers in urban and rural areas should strengthen communication and jointly promote students' oral English communicative competence.

## 4. Strengthening the training of rural teachers

Teachers in rural schools need to keep pace with the times and strengthen training. The best way to solve the fundamental problems is to study new textbooks and design a set of textbooks suitable for local rural schools to learn oral English after the new curriculum standards.

There are various elements that contribute to the qualities of a good language teacher. These elements can be divided into three categories: ethic devotion, professional qualities and personal styles (Parrot, 1993). Educational administrators can establish regular training mechanisms for English teachers to improve their professional level in all aspects, especially teaching methods and oral English ability. Professional training can invite stunt teachers and excellent teachers to hold a lecture in the school, in order to improve teachers' English professional knowledge and oral English expression. In addition, Educational administrators can also try to find high-quality educational resources through the Internet to improve the comprehensive ability of our teachers. Video and other resources can be used to watch excellent teachers' class video.

## 5. Establishing the concept of lifelong learning

Lifelong learning represents the educational philosophy of learning. Since ancient times in China, there has been sayings that one is "Never too old to learn", "Knowledge knows no bounds" and "Knowledge is inexhaustible", which illustrates the principle that learning should take place throughout life. In recent years, it has become increasingly unlikely that what we learn in school will satisfy all the needs of our lives. With the rise of knowledge economy, lifelong learning has become a hot topic in international education circles (Ziwen Lu, 2012).

Teachers should set up the concept of lifelong learning and strive to improve their English level. Rural English teachers ought to insist on English reading, listening and speaking training every day, watching excellent teachers' videos in the spare time, and reflecting on teaching. With the development of the Internet, the cost of knowledge dissemination has been greatly reduced, which is conducive to teachers to enrich themselves by using network resources after class.

## C. Suggestions for Students

Students are the main object and focus of learning. Teaching facilities and teachers are just helpers, and only students are the ones who decide English learning. Rural students need to correct cognition that the purpose of English learning is just taking exams, develop good learning habits and learning methods. With the help of teachers, students should make good use of school resources to practice oral English, overcoming psychological barriers gradually.

#### 1. Correct English learning cognition

Schools and teachers should gradually guide students to correct their understanding of English learning. English learning is not for exams. As a language, English plays an important role in students' further study and future work. Students should balance the relationship between oral English learning and oral English test, so as to make learning practical. At the same time, students should overcome their anxiety and inferiority through a lot of language practice.

In their spare time, students should make use of the abundant network and multimedia resources, listen to more standard English texts, read more authentic English expression and understand western culture. Only by understanding the cultural background can we learn English better and cultivate correct oral expression. Secondly, students with limited conditions can achieve ideal pronunciation and excellent English reading level by imitating the English texts they have learned.

#### 2. With the help of mobile spoken software

Nowadays, the society can contact learning resources in many ways. Junior middle school students in rural areas also have their own mobile phones. There are many mobile phone software for practicing oral English in junior middle school, such as "Fluent English Speaking", "English Imitation Show" and "Interesting English Dubbing", and so on. These mobile learning software are downloaded free of charge. There are a lot of interesting English video and audio resources on the platform. To begin with, it can attract students' attention, increasing their interest and understanding of British and American culture. What's more, it can help them learn the pronunciation and intonation, liaison, stressing and other phonetic skills in the communication of native language. Finally, they need to imitate video fragments. The platform can also save imitation audio, or share to Wechat, which can make students have a sense of achievement, and later they can observe their own language changes. It can make up for the shortcoming that can not take each student into account in class through the use of these oral softwares, so that each student can develop their listening and speaking ability. Besides, students will be more interested and more confident in oral learning. Meanwhile, it also plays an important positive role in the oral test.

### IV. CONCLUSION

Linguist L. G. Alexander (1988) proposed that "Listen before you speak, say before you read, read before you write". It can be seen that speaking is particularly important in a language. In China, English is a subject for high school entrance examination, college entrance examination and even the examination of postgraduate and doctoral students. Therefore, many people just regard it as an examination subject, and the phenomenon of "Dumb English" appears. At present, with the advocacy of the new curriculum reform and quality-oriented education, oral expression has also been paid attention to. Man-Machine dialogue examination of the high school entrance examination will improve students' oral expression ability to a certain extent.

However, many rural junior middle schools in China do not have an advantage in the man-machine dialogue test. Rural Revitalization Strategy clearly put forward the "priority development of rural education" and its overall arrangement. The key to the revitalization of rural areas lies in industry, among which the guarantee of industrial development lies in talents, and the fundamental of talent cultivation lies in education. Therefore, to realize the revitalization of rural areas, we must put rural education in an important position, especially English. Because English education is the weakest in rural education. This paper analyses the problems that restrict oral English teaching in rural areas, and the reasons are various. There is a long way to go in developing oral English teaching in rural middle schools. The author puts forward specific strategies to improve oral English teaching in rural areas from three aspects: teaching equipment, teachers and students. The improvement of oral English teaching can not be separated from the national macro-control, the attention of schools and the society. It is hoped that oral English can get more cooperation and support from educational administrators and even the whole society, so that rural students' oral English can be effectively improved, thus more talents can be cultivated and trained, building a talent base for the revitalization of rural areas.

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# A Diachronic Study on Chinese Resultative Construction of Second Language Learners\*

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**Abstract**—Resultative construction is a very special phenomenon in Chinese grammar and also a difficult issue for second language learners. This paper summarizes diachronic research on resultative construction including its definition, formation times, forming and development, the characteristic. As a comparative study of language, this paper can benefit the teaching and acquisition of Chinese resultative construction.

**Index Terms**—Chinese, resultative construction, diachronic

## I. INTRODUCTION

For more than 30 years, Chinese resultative construction has been the focus of academic world because of its diversity in semantics and syntax. Based on different linguistic theories, scholars made intensive and deep researches on it and achieved certain research results. This paper summarizes the research results in a diachronic perspective and points out the problems and research prospect of this issue.

## II. THE DEFINITION AND FORMATION TIMES OF RESULTATIVE CONSTRUCTION

It was Wang Li who first defined and made monographic study on Chinese resultative construction. He called it as “causative form”. In 1980, Wang Li made the definition: “Causative form is a structure of word group. In form, transitive verb carries about adjective(修好, 弄坏) or transitive verbs carries about intransitive verbs (打死, 救活); In meaning, action and result are showed in one verbal word group. The action can make the object get certain result. So it is called causative form.” Later, Wang Li revised the former definition and excluded intransitive verb plus intransitive verb and intransitive verb plus adjective. He said the first element must be transitive verb.

As for the formation times of resultative construction, experts didn’t make a consensus on it. The representative views were as following:

1 Some scholars thought resultative construction came into being in Qin Dynasty, such as Zhou Chiming, Yu Jianping, Pan Yunzhong and Zhang Xiancheng. In 1957, Zhou Chiming said that “Sharing type of causative compound verb originated from the semantic relationship in Yin Dynasty. Departing from syntactic relationship in Qin Dynasty.” Also in this year, Yu Jianping put forward that resultative construction germinated in Zhou Dynasty, developed in Qin Dynasty and was used widely in Han Dynasty.

Scholars who thought resultative construction formed in Qin Dynasty ignored an important fact that intransitive and transitive verbs had different categories in ancient and modern Chinese. Different from modern Chinese, ancient Chinese didn’t distinguish intransitive and transitive verbs clearly and many verbs could be used as intransitive and transitive at the same time. For instance, “灭”、“破”、“伤”、“断” could be used as transitive verbs in ancient Chinese. However, they were defined as intransitive verbs in modern Chinese. Therefore, “扑灭”、“攻破”、“射伤” in ancient Chinese could be seen as serial verbs or compound verbs. The viewpoint that resultative construction was formed in Qin Dynasty was doubtful.

2 Some scholars thought resultative construction appeared in Han Dynasty, such as Wang Li, Zhu Minche, Cheng Xiangqing, Song Shaonian and Wu Fuxiang. In 1958, Wang Li said that “resultative construction was appeared in Han Dynasty, expanded in the South and North Dynasty and used widely in Tang Dynasty.” He used “推堕”、“击走”、“填满” as the examples. Based on the semantic orientation of complements, Wu Fuxiang divided verb-complement into movement, agent and object, which appeared in Dong Han Dynasty, Song Dynasty and South and North Dynasty respectively. Among them, movement complement appeared first. Wang Li didn’t regard “扰乱”、“助长”、“拉杀” as resultative construction because they were specious. “扰乱” was bisyllable of synonymous morphemes. “助长” was a transitive form that omits a nominative, while “拉杀” was coordinate construction of two verbs.

3 In 1984, Japanese scholar Zhi Cun Liang pointed out that in early middle Ages with a large increase in disyllables some words crossed the coordination usage and became compound verbs. Compound verbs probably appeared in Six Dynasty. He added that the formation of compound verb didn’t finish in early middle Ages at a time.

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The process was completed mostly in Tang Dynasty. The other scholars with the same viewpoints were Mei Zulin, Li Ping, Jiang Shaoyu and Liu Chenghui, etc.

4 According to Japanese sinologist, intransitive and transitive verbs were fixed as intransitive verbs in Tang Dynasty. So he thought compound verbs appeared no later than Tang Dynasty.

According to above discussion, on the one hand scholars carried on research on different materials. On the other hand, they had different understanding on the definition and formation times. They might come to different conclusions based on the same materials because of different viewpoints. Therefore, scholars remain far apart on the formation times of resultative construction. As the description in *Modern Chinese* (2007), the disagreement of grammar system comes from the different views of grammarian who acquired different materials, viewpoints and methods. To some degree, the grammar system was subjective.

### III. THE FORMATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF RESULTATIVE CONSTRUCTION

Resultative construction expressed action and semantic relations at the same time, which was a distinctive syntactic structure in Chinese. As the other language phenomenon, resultative construction didn't appear in ancient times. It experienced a development process. Resultative construction in ancient times was closely tied to serial verb construction which was the foundation of resultative construction. In order to study the formation and development of resultative construction, we had to research on the categories of resultative construction in ancient times.

Serial verb construction was the coordination of two or more than two verbs and appeared in the early ancient times. It could be divided into broad and narrow sense. The broad sense included two types: The first type had the same agentive subject. The verbs had their own objects which forms successive actions or events. The grammar structure was "V<sub>1</sub>O<sub>1</sub>+V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>+.....V<sub>n</sub>O<sub>n</sub>", such as "公惧, 队于车, 伤足, 丧屨" (Zuo Zhuan). The second form was two actions or events connected by the conjunction "而". It could be divided into different categories based on different grammar and semantic features of the two verbs. Resultative construction in the narrow sense referred to the close connection of the verbs which could not be inserted any element. Its grammar form was S+V<sub>1</sub>+V<sub>2</sub>+.....+V<sub>n</sub>+ (O). The number of the verbs could be two, three or four. Two forms were the most common. Without special annotation, we restricted the number into two. With the influence of two elements, serial verb construction in narrow sense appeared on the basis of broad resultative construction. On the one hand, Chinese polyphones appeared in ancient times which provide the necessary conditions for narrow resultative construction. On the other hand, in cognitive linguistics, syntactic structure was similar to the experience structure of human being. Chinese resultative construction was grammatical reflection of cognitive style, metaphor. It belonged to grammatical metaphor. In other words, the sequence of the two verbs in Chinese serial verb construction was determined by this cognitive style.

The serial verb construction (in narrow sense) was the syntactic foundation of resultative construction. Therefore, in order to find out the formation and development of various resultative constructions, we had to understand the syntax and characteristic of resultative construction in narrow sense. Resultative construction in narrow sense just provided syntactic preconditions for resultative construction. In semantic perspective, in some "V<sub>1</sub>+V<sub>2</sub>" structures, V<sub>1</sub> represented reason and V<sub>2</sub> represented results which was very similar to resultative constructions. However, "grammatical analysis didn't depend on semantics only" (Jiang Shaoyu, 1999). The serial verb construction in narrow sense had essential differences with resultative construction. Resultative construction described causal relationship in one event while serial verb construction in narrow sense described causal relationship in two separated actions or events. All kinds of serial verb construction in narrow sense experienced different evolution and development since pre-Qin period and some didn't become resultative construction. However, they became attributive structure or coordination structure. This showed that whether serial verb construction could become resultative construction was decided by structure and semantics. Even if there were certain logic causal relationship between two actions in serial verb construction, they might not become resultative construction in the end.

### IV. MOTIVATION AND MECHANISM OF RESULTATIVE CONSTRUCTION FORMATION

Some Chinese words developed from content words to function words, which was the result of grammaticalization. Grammaticalization was the term in Western linguistic field. While in Chinese traditional linguistics it was called "grammaticalization of content words". Grammaticalization emphasized the grammatical scope and the production of grammatical items. Shen Jiaxuan (1994) pointed out that "Grammaticalization referred to the process that content words in languages changed into functional words with grammatical functions." He noted further that grammaticalization was the process in which content words changed into grammatical marker. Liu Jian, Cao Guangshun and Wu Fuxiang (1995) said that normally one content word changed its meaning because of the change of syntactic position or combination function. Furthermore, the meaning changes caused the change of syntactic position or combination function. Finally, the word lost the original meaning and had certain grammatical meaning, which was called functional words. This process was called grammaticalization. Concerning the explanation of grammaticalization in academic world, Hopper & Traugott's view was representative. In their opinion, there are two aspects of grammaticalization research. Diachronically, researchers investigated the origin of the grammatical items, especially the process of their development. In the study, it concerned how a common word changed into grammatical marker and the further development of the

grammatical marker. Synchronically, grammaticalization was regarded as a kind of syntactic chapter and pragmatic phenomenon which focused on the various forms of languages.

Grammaticalized result complement in resultative construction was called complementary components which were caused by the grammaticalization of verb-complement structure. Although resultative construction had different origins, they had the same formation mechanism and grammaticalization causes. In syntactic meaning, the complements and verbs must be close neighbors frequently, which was the syntactic condition. As for rhythm forms, verbs and complements became disyllables and their structure would be changed. After reanalysis, they formed a highly integrated structure, resultative construction. Based on the grammaticalization of resultative construction, the complement of resultative construction could be grammaticalized to complementary components “ $R_2$ ”, even “ $R_3$ ”. In cognitive perspective, there were expressions from “摔死了” to “神气死了”, from “墙敲坏了” to “孩子宠坏了”, from “鞋底磨破了” to “真相被揭穿了”. The change from concreteness to abstraction, from physiology to psychology, from space to time was one way of human cognition. This connection was the association of objective things in human cognition, which was set up by metaphors. Then, we would analyze the formation mechanisms of resultative construction from syntactic aspect, disyllable tendency and analogy effect. We would also explain grammaticalization causes from metaphor and metonymy.

#### A. Syntactic and Semantic Factors

Changes of syntactic position and semantic meaning played important roles in the formation of resultative construction. In 1987, Jie Huiquan explained the fixation of syntactic position. A content word changed into a functional word expressing certain grammatical relationship because it often appeared in certain position expressing a proper grammatical relationship. In 1995, Liu Jian discussed the grammaticalization of Chinese words from the aspect of syntactic position change, semantic meaning change, context influence and reanalysis. In 1998, Hongbo pointed out that grammaticalization of Chinese content words had two kinds. They were cognitive effect and syntactic semantics. Among them, syntactic semantics was the main mechanism. The grammaticalization of most content words in Chinese was influenced by syntactic structure and syntactic semantics.

Usually, only one verb used as the predicate in an expression, which was the center of the sentence structure. If two words formed serial verb construction and they were close neighbors frequently, they would complete with each other and had differentiation between priority and others. If the word was secondary in the serial verb construction, it would be weakened. If a verb played a secondary role in a sentence and its position was fixed in a sentence, its meaning was grammaticalized gradually and its grammatical function was changed at the same time. Once the resultative construction was formed, the latter verb was no longer a predicate but the complementary component of the predicate verb which was called complement.

The Chinese words “成、穿、掉、坏、破、死、透、着” changed from verbs to complementary components, which started from the serial verb construction. The grammaticalization of them could be summarized as this: from serial verb construction to resultative construction ( $R_1$  expressing the verb result) to resultative construction (complementary component  $R_2$ ). Some could even be grammaticalized as mark  $R_3$ . In this grammaticalization chain, the change of syntactic position and entering into certain grammatical structure (serial verb construction) were the cause and foundation of the change. Only in certain grammatical position and under the influence of all kinds of factors, the words could produce new usage, which used as complement after main verbs. In conclusion, the change of syntactic position was very important towards the formation of resultative construction.

#### B. Diphonic Tendency

Bisyllablization played a decisive role in Chinese development history. In 1988, Wang Li regarded bisyllablization as one of the five important changes in Chinese grammar history. In 2002, Shi Liuzhi put forward that the formation of verb-complement construction was the actually the fusion of the verb and result component. There were many fusion factors, in which bisyllablization was essential. Bisyllablization had profound influence on the word formation, morphology and syntax.

As for bisyllablization, it referred to that the word changed from monosyllable to bisyllable in Chinese development. With the further research on Chinese grammaticalization, experts had deeper understanding towards it. In 2002, Shi Liuzhi thought that two monosyllables which were close neighbors frequently might become a bisyllable under the influence of bisyllablization. The process was called compounding in which two morphemes weakened or lose the word boundary and became one language unit. According to Wu Weishan's view in 2003, bisyllablization referred to that two monosyllables formed the basic rhythmic unit, merter. With the influence of rhythmic unit, two monosyllables which were close neighbors frequently might compound into one language unit. The compound condition was the two monosyllables which co-occured frequently.

#### C. Analogy Effect

In 1993, Hopper and Traugott pointed out that analogy was the paradigm of grammar organizations which would cause the change of surface collocation. The production, development and wide use of verb-complement structure were caused by syntactic semantics, bisyllablization and analogy.

In ancient Chinese, because  $V_{i2}$  became intransitive and the transitive usage of  $V_{i-1}$  was declined, some serial verb

construction “ $V_{t1}+V_{t2}+O$ ” and “ $V_t+V_{i-t}+O$ ” fused into resultative construction “ $V+R+O$ ”, such as “ $V$  得”、“ $V$  取”、“ $V$  破” and “ $V$  坏”. This new syntactic construction became a motive power which made action verb  $V_1$  and result verb  $V_2$  combine and became resultative construction. According to the view of Wei Zhaohui in 2008, analogy was one of the important factors to induce changes. In other words, it was the generalization of grammatical rules. Because of analogy, many  $V_{t2}$  in serial verb construction became intransitive verb and complement of former verb, such as “ $V$  掉” and “ $V$  住”. As the causative usage declined, the secondary verb “ $V_{i-t}$ ” in serial verb construction “ $V_t+V_{i-t}+O$ ” regained the intransitive usage and didn’t govern object alone. It combined with the former verb and became resultative construction, such as “ $V$  穿” and “ $V$  动”.

#### D. Cognitive Motivation

In the last decade, grammaticalization has been the major scope of cognitive linguistics. In 1987, Lakeoff proposed the idealized cognitive model (ICM) in the research of semantic scope and concept structure of natural language. Based on different construction principles, ICM could be divided to four types: proposition model, image schema model, metaphor model and metonymy model. Metaphor model and metonymy model played important roles in the grammaticalization of resultative construction.

The basic cognitive style of human being started from specific to general, from space domain to time domain and went to subtler domain. That is to say, when people understood things, they usually started from themselves and the things around them, then extended to external things such as space, time and characteristics. The projection between the different cognitive scopes was accomplished by metaphor. Metaphor was a common cognitive phenomenon and language expression phenomenon. In 1980, Lakeoff regarded metaphor as a systematic method of human’s thinking, action and expression, which was called metaphorical concept of conceptual metaphor. In daily life, people often understood, thought, experienced invisible and undefinable concept in accordance with familiar, visible and specific concept. With the development of human cognition, metaphorical thinking ability became a creative thinking ability which was the high phase of cognitive development and an essential cognitive ability towards abstract things. This abstract cognitive ability originated from the understanding of the similarities between two concepts.

During the diachronic evolution of resultative construction, the effect of metaphor could be seen in the complement grammaticalization. For instance, the semantic evolution of “ $V$  破” was connected with human cognitive activity and metaphors. For the daily language “衣服穿破了”、“鞋子磨破了” and “手指划破了”, we discovered that clothes, shoes and fingers which were intact became incomplete because of damage. The physical feeling of something or somebody from intact to incomplete was similar to the psychological feeling of abstract things from intact to incomplete. There were examples “一语道破真相”、“盗窃案侦破了” and “阴谋已被揭破”. The truth, theft case and conspiracy were intact. Once they were revealed, they were broken and incomplete like the things. In phrases “打破成见”、“突破常规思路” and “冲破传统思想”, “成见”, “常规思路” and “传统思想” were subjective concepts which were considered intact and became incomplete after breakthrough.

Traditionally, metonymy was also regarded as a kind of rhetoric device. Cognitive linguists thought metonymy was not the substitution of words but an import method of understanding things. An object, a thing and a concept had a lot of characteristics. However, people’s cognition was only focused on the most prominent, memorable and understandable characteristics which were called highlight attributes. Metonymy was the connection between different cognitive domains. In metonymy, a prominent thing replaced another thing, parts replacing the whole or container replacing the function. For instance, “银发游” represented tourist groups of old people. “白宫” represented American government. “国脚” represented excellent football players and “新面孔” represented someone new.

In a diachronic study on resultative construction “ $V$  好”, we discovered that metonymy played a role in the semantic evolution of “好”. “好” was a Chinese associative compound composed of “女” and “子” which were pictographic characters. Xu Shen in Xi Han Dynasty explained it in *Shuo Wen Jie Zi* as “好, 美也, 从女子.” It meant that “好” represented beauty of women. According to Duan Yucai, “好” represented the beauty of women at first and then it referred to all the beautiful things. It was metonymy from parts to the whole as “好” changed from the beauty of women to the beauty of all things. In 2008, Chen Mei thought that “好” with different semantics had related meaning but different word formation, which highlighted the different aspects of things. The verb “好” highlighted actions and habits while the adjective “好” highlighted nature and state. The change between different word formations was the result of metonymy. Metonymy established connection between similar and related cognitive domain. It was also the transition of the related cognitive domains. Metonymy played an important role in the semantic evolution of “好”.

#### V. THE CHARACTERISTICS OF RESULTATIVE CONSTRUCTION

Lv Shuxiang illustrated resultative construction in his book *Eighty Hundred Words* (1980) in *Modern Chinese* as this: resultative construction was formed by main verbs plus adjectives verbs which shows results. The adjectives and verbs had some common words, such as “了、着、住、掉、走、动、完、好、成”etc.

As described by Zhu Dexi(1982), predicate-complement structure which was formed by result complements

belonged to agglutinating-style structure. The complement included adjectives and verbs, such as “长大、变小、染红” or “写成、杀死、说完”. The form group was adjectives and the latter one was verbs. In addition, he pointed out that some verbs could be used as result complement, such as “走、跑、动、倒、翻、病、死、见、懂、透”.

In the article *Formation Times of Chinese Resultative Construction*, Jiang Shaoyu said that resultative construction should emphasize the definition in semantics rather than its semantics. There were two conditions for resultative constructions. First, the second verbs in serial verbs was automated or blurred. Second, automation didn't have causative usage and didn't form predicate and object structure with the objects. In 2004, Liu Ziyu thought that objects were not the necessary conditions for resultative construction after Tang Dynasty.

## VI. CONCLUSION

Resultative construction has been the focus in grammar field for many scholars since 1980s. There are many influential works in recent 20 years. As an agglutinating complement, resultative construction was very characteristic and had high value for research. In a diachronic perspective, minor sentences in pre-Qin Dynasty, the double predicate sentences and resultative constructions which appeared in ancient times had the evolution from chapters to syntax and morphology. Resultative construction was the result of compound predicate and had the tendency of lexicalization. Despite the large number of achievements, there were still some problems worth researching. First, we could perfect the research in macro-perspective. Second, as a kind of construction, we could make deep research on many specific phenomena in order to make more sensible interpretation.

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# On the Strategies of Improving Oral Application Ability for Students of Non-English Majors

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**Abstract**—The cultivation of students' oral application ability in college oral English teaching is a vital part of foreign language learners' communicative competence. Therefore, this paper introduces communication strategies into college English classroom teaching, and discusses the feasibility and effectiveness of communicative strategy training as well as the practical improvement of oral English competence, so as to achieve effective oral English classroom teaching in a real sense.

**Index Terms**—communication strategy, feasibility, effectiveness

## I. RESEARCH BACKGROUND

There has been the rapid development of China's higher education, and it is the same case with college English teaching, which makes the conversion from the traditional classroom teaching to the diversified teaching mode, a comprehensive teaching mode based on computer network together with network-based autonomous learning to realize the effective teaching of intensive reading, listening and oral English. Meanwhile, the Ministry of Education pointed out that college English teaching should aim to improve students' comprehensive application ability, especially the listening and speaking ability. Therefore, oral English teaching gains an increasing attention of many experts and scholars home and abroad, and becomes the emphasis of teaching reforms in colleges and universities in China.

But oral English teaching for non-English majors based on multimedia network is still in the stage of exploration, and there exist many difficulties to conquer. To start with, the examination-oriented education in high school, especially in the third year, makes most of the students' basic knowledge of spoken English weak, which results in their silence in oral English class in universities. Besides, for the students of non-English major, the difficulties are even bigger: large classes with the number of students ranging from seventy to over ninety, insufficient class hours with only one class or two classes a week. Finally, the emphasis of oral English teaching for the non-English majors has been laid on improving students' language ability, neglecting the training of language application ability, which makes the students who have good language ability still fail to communicate with their counterparts smoothly.

Based on the above problems, we should not only aim at improving the students' language ability, but also improve the students' ability to apply the language so as to better the oral English teaching under the new teaching mode. Therefore, communication strategies, the language use strategy, can be introduced into the teaching of oral English for non-English majors.

## II. COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

### A. Definitions of Communication Strategies

The term "communicative strategy" was first raised by Selinker (1972) in his seminal paper on "interlanguage", referring to the skills adopted by second language learners to overcome communication barriers caused by limited language resources. Nevertheless, he did not dwell on the nature of communication strategies. Soon after that Savignon (1972) published a research report in which she highlighted the importance of coping strategies, which was the equivalent of communication strategies, in communicative language teaching and testing. Thereafter, different scholars, including Tarone (1980), Faerch & Kasper (1983), Stern (1983), Ellis (1985), Brown (1987), Bialystok (1990) etc., put their definitions of communication strategy in terms of a psychological or communicative perspective.

Take Corder (1981, p.103) as an example, he raised that communication strategies are the systematic skills used by the speakers to express themselves when encountering difficulties. And Cohen (1998, p.68) defined linguistic strategies as teaching students how to use acquired language knowledge flexibly and effectively. Among the definitions, the widely accepted one was put forward by Faerch & Kasper (1983, p.36), "communication strategies are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal".

### B. The Criteria for Communication Strategies

From the above definitions, the distinctive features of communication strategies would be discerned, namely, problem-orientedness and consciousness.

“problem-orientedness” originated from Bialystok’s “problematicity”, which referred to “the idea that strategies are used only when a speaker perceives that there is a problem which may interrupt communication” (Bialystok, 1990, p.3). And some other researchers developed the concept of “problem-orientedness” and defined the problems precisely, say, own-performance problems, other-performance problems, processing time pressure (Dörnyei&Scott, 1997, p.182-183). Own-performance problems occur when one says something incorrect or partly correct and they are related to diversified types of self-repair, self-rephrasing and self-editing mechanisms; other-performance problems deemed as problematic exist in the interlocutor’s speech due to the lack of complete understanding; processing time pressure refers to the frequent need of more time than would be naturally to process and plan the second language speech in the smooth communication, in which strategies like fillers, hesitation devices, and self-repetitions would be employed.

The second criterion is consciousness, as it is pointed out by Cohen (2000, p.4) that strategies are conscious techniques used to achieve a goal. There are three connotations in reference to consciousness according to Dörnyei and Scott (1997, p.183-185), that is, awareness of the problem; intentionality; awareness of strategic language use. Consciousness as the awareness of the problem means that speakers can only consciously recognize problem-based and language-processing communication strategies so as to distinguish mistakes and communication strategies that may have a similar erroneous form. As for the connotation of intentionality, it is the speaker’s intentional use of communication strategies, which separates the strategies from other unintentional verbal behaviors. And finally awareness of strategic language use refers to the usage of imperfect devices for mutual understanding when making communication, in which code switch is a case in point to illustrate this point.

To sum up, problem-orientedness shows that it is of great importance to teach communication strategies as its objective is to tackle the problems in communication; meanwhile, consciousness indicates that the use of communication strategies is conscious, so it could be improved by intentional training of awareness.

Consequently, it is feasible to introduce communication strategies into the teaching of oral English for non-English majors. After all, not only language learners, but the native speakers, may turn to communication strategies to convey messages because of lack of language resources or temporary oblivion. So under such circumstances the use of communication strategies would furnish second language learners with many more opportunities to keep their communication smooth and successful.

### III. THE RELEVANT INFORMATION ABOUT THE STUDY OF IMPROVING ORAL APPLICATION ABILITY FOR STUDENTS OF NON-ENGLISH MAJORS

#### A. *Subjects of the Study*

In this study, sixty students from Taishan University in Shandong province, China, are chosen to be the subjects of research, among which thirty of them are from College of Liberal arts majoring in Chinese language and literature and the other thirty from College of Mathematics majoring in mathematics and applied mathematics. Such a choice of the subjects of the study aims to make a horizontal comparative study of liberal arts class and science class, hoping to identify the different characteristics of students of different majors so as to achieve an effective classroom teaching of oral English.

#### B. *Objectives of the Study*

In view of the present situation of oral English teaching in our university, the study is designed to get some ideas of the problems and difficulties of the students in their oral English learning. Moreover, the combination of oral English teaching and the learning of communication strategies could promote students to have a deeper understanding of western culture, and to provide a new perspective for the improvement of college oral English teaching. Specifically, the objectives of the study could be generalized as follows:

(1) Try to explore the feasibility of introducing communication strategies into college oral English classroom teaching to improve students’ language application ability.

(2) Try to develop students’ awareness that under different cultural background different communication strategies could be employed, which would be helpful for students to have a deeper understanding of Chinese culture and western culture.

#### C. *Methods of the Study*

During the study, selected students’ oral English level was tested, their puzzles and difficulties in learning oral English were detected, their need of learning communication strategies was discussed and their final learning effect was evaluated comparatively. To achieve these targets, qualitative analysis method, literature summary method and comparative research method etc. were adopted to track the whole process of the study.

### IV. THE PROCESS OF THE STUDY

Based on the above introduction, selected students’ language ability was analyzed in the first place before starting the teaching research. The analysis showed that all the selected students have at least six years or more of traditional English learning experience before entering Taishan University. Since they were from different regions and half of them

belonged to a liberal arts class and the other half was from a science class, they did show some differences in vocabulary and grammar, but not very obvious. After the test taken at the time of their admission, it was estimated that their vocabulary size was three to four thousand, above average.

The experimenting began in the fall semester of 2013 and lasted two years, including about 120 days of winter vacation and summer vacation. The experimental feedback was conducted at the end of the second semester of sophomore year 2015, the spring semester of 2015. The students in each class were randomly divided into six groups, one leader in each group. The study was started in the following three stages:

#### *A. Pre-preparation Phase*

The first stage was the pre-preparatory phase, which lasted about four months. At the beginning of the study, from September 2013 to December 2013, the first semester of their first year of college, students' language ability, the difficulties and problems in their oral English learning were detected.

First of all, all the students were assembled to have a discussion about their oral English learning, which indicated that they all showed great interest in oral English learning, hoping to communicate smoothly and fluently in English in life, and that the problems and difficulties were disclosed to a large extent, including the feeling of helplessness, the lack of the systematic learning of phonetics, and the maladjustment of college oral English class etc.

Secondly, the oral pretest of recording was arranged for all the sixty students in the language lab. During the process of pretest, students were provided with three topics and with two minutes' preparation they made a presentation of at least two minutes in terms of the topic they chose. After analyzing the recording of the students, we found that although students from the liberal arts class were better than those in the science class in terms of vocabulary size, there were similar problems in the expression of language, for example, 80% of the students had difficulties in pronunciation, especially labiodentals sound, friction sound and nasal sound; while in terms of expression, 70% of the students failed to express their views fluently with the constant breaks in the process of speaking, and 20% of students could hardly say a complete sentence; the rest of the students were fluent and capable of stating their views in more complete sentences.

Thirdly, students were assigned assignments during the winter vacation of 2014, namely, during a period of about forty days they voluntarily practiced some basic knowledge of oral English with the relevant exercises sent to them by emails. At the beginning of the second stage, a test was carried out to make a survey.

#### *B. The Phase of Improving Language Competence*

The second phase was for the improvement of students' language proficiency, which lasted for about nine months, from January 2014 to September 2014, with one winter vacation and one summer vacation accounting for about 80 days. The first stage of group discussion and pre-tests showed that the selected students' language proficiency was relatively weak, which to a large extent affected their confidence in communicating in English. And the lack of basic knowledge of spoken language inevitably led to the ineffective English communication. Therefore, in this stage, students studied together once a week mainly through the way of collective instruction.

Before group learning, through classroom questioning and quizzes, it was found that 82% of students could not understand correctly the rules of phonological knowledge, and there were pronunciation errors in their previous voluntary oral training. Only 10% of the students had a good grasp of the pronunciation, and another 8% did not complete the assigned tasks. In view of the students' condition, the collective teaching of the basic knowledge of oral English focused on correcting pronunciation errors, analyzing rules such as liaison, strong and weak form, consonant clusters and intonation etc. During this process the team leaders were responsible for the large quantities of practice. Meanwhile, the counterpart oral English training of application ability was performed in the college oral English class teaching, with such forms as making a speech, group discussion, debate, role play and fun competitions etc.

At the end of the second stage, a follow-up test was carried out in the forms of group discussion and group oral performance test to get understanding of the improvement of students' English language ability. During the discussion, 90% of the students said that their language ability had been improved and the basic knowledge of oral English was grasped better. Only 10% of the students felt it was a struggle, but there was still progress. Moreover, in the process of the fifteen-minute oral tests, students were graded on the aspects of time, pronunciation and intonation, fluency of expression, integrity of the content and smoothness of the communication.

In addition, in order to strengthen the knowledge students learned in the second stage, they were arranged to practice further during the forty-day summer vacation in 2014.

#### *C. The Phase of Studying Communication Strategies*

The third phase aimed to enhance students' strategic capacity, lasted nine months from October 2014 to June 2015, including a winter vacation of about 40 days. Different from the previous phases, students from the liberal art class were taught communication strategies once a week in extra-curricular time; in contrast, students from the science class were still trained in traditional oral English teaching as the controlled class. A questionnaire survey was conducted prior to the strategy training of the experimental class and it was learned that all students had no idea of communication strategies before, and they were willing to make the attempt to study the strategies, but they were not certain as for the necessity of teaching communication strategies.

The teaching mainly includes the history of the development of communication strategies in foreign countries, the

definition and classification as well as the learning of major communicative strategies: avoidance strategy, paraphrase, approximation, word coinage, code switch, foreignizing, literal translation, appeals and non-linguistic strategies. The methods of strategy training used were as follows: making discussions about the strategies that students have used unconsciously when completing the learning task; introducing the new strategies by definitions and descriptions; illustrating the usage of the strategies with examples; providing a large amount of practice by the means of making definitions, describing pictures, playing the game of finding differences of similar pictures, giving instructions, and retelling stories, etc.

Through the study of communication strategies, students understood that it would be inevitable to encounter obstacles in communication, but with a considerable number of vocabularies, they could cope with these barriers by using communication strategies flexibly. Furthermore, students also comprehended which strategies could be more conducive to a successful communication and reflect the speakers' high communicative competence, for example, using achievement strategy more and avoidance strategy less; second language-based strategies more and first-language-based policies less. Of course, the above statements did not necessarily mean that students could not use such strategy as word coinage as it would be risky to produce some non-existent words and inappropriate statements, by contrast, such use of the strategy should be encouraged under the circumstance of insufficient vocabulary because it would contribute to a smooth communication.

At the end of this stage, all the sixty students were tested for impromptu oral communication, giving students three impromptu topics, and each group organized a performance of about ten minutes within a designated ten-minute period after the topic was selected. In order to ensure the appropriateness and the effectiveness of the test, another English teacher was included. The results showed that: firstly, after three stages of experimental teaching, all the sixty students have improved their language ability, decreased their pronunciation errors, and strengthened their ability of organizing language. Secondly, when the students from science class encounter barriers in communication, they intentionally turned to avoidance strategy, paraphrase, code switch, imitation and body language etc., to make the communication continue smoothly. At this point, they performed better than the students from liberal art class, 50% of which unconsciously adopted the avoidance strategy and remained silence, which made the communication lack of fluency. Third, after the same training, students from the liberal art class are only slightly better than those in the science class in terms of language proficiency and language use ability, mainly reflected in the choice of words and the organization of sentences in communication.

## V. ANALYSIS AND CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

First of all, the first stage of research made it clear that although students of different majors are of different language level, they still shared such common problems as the insufficient phonological knowledge, the lack of oral English practice and the maladjustment of college oral English teaching etc. This indicated that language communication, in other words, language application ability was not only determined by the learners' language ability, therefore, the study on this subject was necessary to improve college students' English application ability.

Secondly, after the comparison and analysis of the large amount of the data accumulated in the second stage and the test results in the pre-preparation phase, it was suggested that 65% of the students had a great improvement in pronunciation, intonation, the fluency of the expression and the integrity of the content. For the remaining 35% of the students, there was no significant progress in the level of language proficiency, of which 28% were from the science class. After a separate interview with the 35% of the students, it was revealed that many factors led to the failure of their performance, such as, "so nervous at the time of the test that they forgot to correct the mistakes", "lack of the awareness of applying the learned knowledge to the real communication, and went back to the previous level at the start of the performance", or "having difficulties in understanding their group members' statements, so no effective response could be made". Hence, the study of this stage stated clearly that to improve language application ability and ensure smooth language communication, language competence was the basis. Besides, the failure of the small part of students in this stage showed that additional practice and follow-up track would be required for them, especially the students of science class because of their weaker language ability.

Thirdly, through the test results of the students in the third stage, it was shown that only paying attention to the cultivation of language ability in college oral English teaching could not guarantee the improvement of language application ability and the smooth progress of language communication; and that it was necessary to incorporate communication strategies into the college oral English classroom teaching, which could contribute to the improvement of college students' language application ability for both students of liberal arts class and those from science class.

## VI. REFLECTIONS AND PROSPECTS FOR FOLLOW-UP STUDY

This paper justified integrating oral communication strategies into college oral English teaching, and proved that students' language ability was improved and their application ability was developed, which would be beneficial to college oral English classroom teaching. However, in the process of implementation, there also occurred two problems. First, there was the problem of overcorrection in the class where communicative strategies were taught. 30% of students use avoidance strategy, code switch, imitation and body language significantly more than other strategies, which would



also hinder normal language communication. Second, since the handouts on communication strategies sent to students were in the original English language, 60% of the students reflected that was difficult for them to read and increased the difficulty of understanding.

Consequently, it is a long-term process to improve college students' language application ability, so during the oral English teaching of students from Class of 2017 and 2019, I further checked and adjusted the design of the way to evaluate students' language ability, and made it more diversified in the detection of statistical tools, so as to really improve students' language application ability and finally promote college oral English teaching.

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# Investigating the Effectiveness of Classroom Based Assessment on ESL Teaching Strategies and Techniques in Pakistan: Study from Teachers' Perspective

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**Abstract**—Assessment plays vital role in language learning. It is responsibility of a teacher to know all aspects of assessment as it can be beneficial and harmful at the same time for students. Therefore, what to assess, how to assess and mastery of assessment tools for specific purpose is very essential for ESL teachers. The current study is based on classroom based assessment because it deals with all aspects of instructing and guidance process. Present study investigates effectiveness of CBA in improvement of teaching strategies and techniques from teachers' perspective. The study is designed on quantitative method and follows exploratory research design. The findings of the study showed that if Classroom based assessment is applied in educational institutes and proper training of assessment techniques is provided to the teacher, it can be the most beneficial assessment for both teachers and students. It will not only be the assessment of students' performance and progress but will also assess the success of teacher, teaching strategies and methods; and will hence contribute towards the betterment of educational system overall.

**Index Terms**—assessment, classroom teaching, perspectives, teaching strategies

## I. INTRODUCTION

A proper and wisely used assessing do help to motivate unwilling, revise, less courage, to enhance, and straight to avoid direct assess the achieving of goal. Assessment has vital role in teaching and learning process. It is the responsibility of a teacher to know all aspects of assessment as it can be beneficial and harmful at the same time for students. Therefore, what to assess, how to assess and mastery of assessment tools for specific purpose are very essential for ESL teachers (Snow, Griffin, & Burns, 2005).

Majority of teachers in Pakistan are unable to find out the reasons of poor teaching and learning process. Researches have emphasized that the role of teaching strategies, methods and styles is also main factor for the failure of educational system (Gipps, 1994; Rehmani, 2003). Educational system in Pakistan follows summative assessment system at majority of its institutions; the exams are held once or twice a year in which only grades are awarded not the performance or proficiency of students is assessed (Warsi, 2004; Mahboob, 2012). Due to this assessment system, teachers cannot figure out how far their teaching strategies and methods went successful, where they need improvement or change of strategy. At the same time, there is no proper or established system of teachers' professional development except for few programs that are not in access of every teacher.

Assessment is an ongoing process in which teacher and students both need to know the success of learning process with the explicit feedback during the instructions. For that purpose, the mastery of assessment skills, what to assess, how to assess is important (Snow, Griffin, & Burns, 2005).

Through the course of history, different assessment techniques and procedures are experienced, practiced and researched. Most prominent of which are;

- Proficiency Based Assessment tests the achievement of student in certain skill, it can be normative and criterion based.
- Learning Based Assessment: Assessment of task

- Summative Assessment is done at certain time to evaluate student's learning according to some standard or grade.
- Formative Assessment is a continuous monitoring of students' learning to make student aware of his strength and weakness as well as help teachers to find out and address the problem areas of students. It's ongoing assessment.

#### A. Classroom Based Assessment

CBA is continuous monitoring of students' behavior, motivation, attitudes, learning styles and teaching strategies during a class. Like formative assessment CBA is also beneficial for teachers as well as students. It can be beneficial for preparation of IELTS, TOEFL. Classroom based assessment deals with all aspects of teaching and learning process. CBA is not only assessment of student and his achievement but also critically analyses teaching techniques and strategies of a teacher.

The current study is carried out to find the consequences of Classroom Based Assessment to the instructing strategies as well as techniques in English as second language teachers of Pakistan. The study analyses the CBA from teachers' perspectives and their professional development. Classroom based assessment or formative assessment has gained prominent importance in current education policies. According to (Looney, 2011), the Formative type of assessment has been referred as most occurring, collaborative assessment of learner's development to find learning essentials and towards shaping the teaching method.

#### B. Background of the Study

Teaching and learning are interrelated processes. Not only they depend on each other but have immense affect on each other. Similarly, assessment and instruction are also related components. The feedback gained through assessment plays vital role in the adoption, rejection and adaptation of certain teaching strategies and methodologies. The result of assessment is not only grading of students' achievement but also help teacher to take decisions for his teaching styles.

Since last couple of decades, there have been revolutionary changes in the system of education. Besides focusing on the learning behaviors and attitudes of students, researchers are also emphasizing on the teachers' part within getting guidance and teaching process. It is for that reason professional development related to teachers is considered as the crucial element for the education system. According to Gathon and Pestieau (1995), the instructor's growth as a professional teacher achieves with a result to gain the increased experiences as well as investigating either his or her teaching in a systematic way. The teacher is regarded as thoughtful expert, who come in the occupation with one's basic familiarity to improve it with his experiences and new knowledge gained (Cochran-Smith and Lyte, 2011). This idea of improving skills and knowledge through experiences is only possible through classroom based assessment, where you can get students' responses on the spot and reflect on the teaching styles and strategies in perspectives of the students' performance. For that purpose, knowing how to examine and what to examine is most important factor.

Unfortunately, in Pakistan there is lack of such professional development centers and institutes for teachers in general and for assessment as specific (Villegas-Reimers, 2003). Rehmani (2003) shed light on different issues in the assessment system of Pakistan and concluded that assessment and examination system in Pakistan has more demerits than merits. Institutes like Agha Khan University, Society of Pakistani English Language Teachers and Higher Education Commission of Pakistan are taking efforts in this direction but they are not in access of all Pakistani teachers.

#### C. Objectives of the Study

Present study is carried out to figure out the assessment strategies in Pakistan from teachers' perspectives in general. Specifically the study focuses on classroom based assessment, its usage and teachers' perception for CBA. It focusses on how far CBA is beneficial for teachers. Specific objectives of the study are to find out;

1. The general views of teachers about the assessment system in Pakistan.
2. The usage of classroom based assessment and perceptions of teachers for that.
3. Advantages of CBA for improvement of teaching strategies and methods.

#### D. Research Questions

The research questions are designed on the basis of research objectives:

1. What are the general views of teachers about the assessment system of Pakistan?
2. How far CBA is used in classrooms and what are teachers' perceptions about CBA?
3. How far CBA is beneficial for improvement of teaching strategies, styles, and methods?

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

#### A. Classroom Based Assessment

The debate of Classroom based assessment started with the publication of Black and Wiliam's (1998) phenomenal article on classroom formative assessment. The study of opened the new spheres in assessment strategies and fetched interest of academicians and researchers towards classroom-based assessment (CBA) and its potential for enhancing learning. In order to understand the phenomenon of Classroom based assessment, it is essential to understand the relationship between learning, teaching and assessment techniques used (Perron, 2011). It is through implementing various strategies of assessment that teachers collect information about the success or failure of their teaching styles,

methods or decision making about the classroom instructions (Purpura, 2009). According to Purpura (2007, 2009), the information collected in assessment and observations determines the confirmation of comprehension and learning gaps in classroom; hence, teachers subsequently incorporate more intervening and improvised teaching strategies.

#### *B. Teacher & Classroom Based Assessment*

Although the research has acknowledged the importance of learner in assessment, (Andrade, 2010), it is nonetheless recognized that teachers still have an important part to play in the process (Purpura, 2009). Hence, the importance of teacher has gained increasing concerns towards using assessment for accountability purposes (Leung & William 2014; Malone, 2013) as well as the widespread introduction of policies to implement assessment-for-learning principles in curriculum and assessment (Fulcher, 2012; Leung, 2014). These developments have focused attention on teachers' capacity to deliver assessment reforms, with teacher assessment literacy (TAL) identified as a critical factor in improving student learning (Hattie, 2012).

#### *C. Role of CBA in Language Acquisition*

The importance of Classroom based assessment has not only been acknowledged in learning and comprehension (Cheng, 2005; Wall, 2001) but has also been examined as main factor in to promote second language acquisition (Re-Dickens, 2008). A lot of research has been conducted on the impact of CBA on EFL learners and second language acquisition (Perron, 2011; Purpura, 2004, 2006, 2007, 2009; Re-Dickens, 2001, 2004, 2013). A detailed study of these researches will enable teachers to comprehend the relationship between CBA and language learning and acquisition.

Most state certification systems and half of all teacher education programs have no assessment course requirements, nor do they have an explicit requirement that teachers have received training in assessment (Boothroyd, 1992; Trice, 2000; Wise, 1991). Soon after, Bloom (1968) and Bloom, Madaus and Hasting (1971) took up this idea, applying the concept to student assessment in their work on "mastery learning". They initially proposed that instruction be broken down into successive phases and students be given a formative assessment at the end of each of these phases. Teachers would then use the assessment results to provide feedback to students on gaps between their performance and the "mastery" level, and to adjust their own teaching to better meet identified learning needs (Allal, 2005).

#### *D. Classroom Based Assessment in Pakistan*

Warsi (2004) and Kenan (2006) termed the assessment system in Pakistan as examination of rote memorization. According to them, the language assessment in Pakistan is not assessing or testing the concrete skills of students but it is the test of their cramming. Whereas the objectives of the examination and the nature of assessment determines the approaches of teaching and learning (Rehmani, 2003). The primary objective of an assessment is towards facilitating processes of teaching and learning by gaining feedback from the results (Gipps, 1994). Rehmani (2003) argued in his study on public examination in Pakistan that assessment in Pakistan will play significant role if it is conducted for the improvement of education, teaching learning approaches and it is only possible with the blend of summative and formative assessment. Similarly, L.D Fink (2003) proposed a model of course designing emphasising that assessment should be the main element of any course design and it is critical for students and teachers to know whether the goal is teaching is accomplished or not. Fink (2003) argued that assessment is not only the tool of "Audit-ive assessment" to assign only grades but should be "Educative assessment" to measure whether students got it and teacher realized his/her weakness and strength in teaching process.

English, being the official and foreign language in Pakistan has critical role in educational, professional and official system. Hence, learning of English has become vital part in society and named as social symbol by researchers (Rehmans, 2008; Shamim, 2011). So, the understanding and training of Classroom based assessment can be beneficial for both students and ESL teachers.

### III. METHODOLOGY

This study followed the Mixed Method Research approach looking at the nature of the study. Mixed method is an approach where researchers employ strategies to collect data numerical and text based to better understand the research problem. From 1977 to 2008 there have been seen a rise in number of studies carried out on mixed methods approach and it is gaining recognition in recent studies (Plano Clark, 2008; Tashakkori & Teddlie 2003). It is observed since beginning that there has been drawn a distinction between qualitative and quantitative method (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2000) while it is considered as a "continuum rather than a dichotomy" (Brown 2004). This approach is popular nowadays in social, behavioural and health sciences where researcher collect data on both qualitative and quantitative methods in a single study to answer the research questions of the study better. Creswell (2003) makes it clear in words, "It employs strategies of inquiry that involve collecting data either simultaneously or sequentially to best understand research problems.

As mentioned earlier, the objective of this study is to explore the perceptions of teachers for classroom based assessment as the tool to improve their teaching strategies and methods. Moreover, it also highlights the general perceptions of teachers for the assessment at educational system of Pakistan. Considering the genre and objectives of the study, in quantitative part a questionnaire was used as research instrument to collect the data. The respondents were

given questionnaire about the assessment in general, assessment at Pakistan, their views and experiences of assessment and usage and perceptions about CBA. It is already mentioned in problem statement, that summative assessment is the main type of assessment all over Pakistan and all public and private sector universities. Keeping this idea in mind, in qualitative part of the study only those respondents were selected and interviewed who use and practice CBA in their class. The semi structured interview focused only on CBA and respondents' perceptions for this type of assessment. Items of the questionnaire and interview were based on the following major themes.

#### A. Questionnaire & Interview Themes

- Assessment
- Types of Assessment
- Relationship between Assessment and Strategies
- Students' Motivation, Learning Styles and Behavior
- Outcomes & Flexibility in Change of Teaching Strategies

#### B. Participants of the Research

For this study, 20 ESL teachers (both male and female) of district Hyderabad of Pakistan were selected as respondents for the questionnaire. Hyderabad has 5 Major Government universities and other higher education institutes. Each institute comprises of well established English department and three of them offer bachelor to PhD degrees in English Linguistics and Literature. Out of the twenty ESL teacher participants, four respondents were selected for further interviews based on their usage of CBA in their class. Hence, the Four respondents (2 male and 2 female) were selected for further qualitative part of the research and semi- structured interviews.

### IV. FINDINGS

As mentioned earlier, the study was based on mixed methods research design. The data gathered from the questionnaire is presented in tabular form as follow.

The Table 1 shows the responses of ESL teachers towards the satisfaction for assessment system in Pakistan. The data depicts clearly that 60% of the respondents consider it unsatisfactory, 20% of the participants of this study consider it as a test of rote learning and 20% are satisfied with the assessment system in Pakistan. Hence, it can be concluded from the findings that majority of the teachers showed dissatisfaction with the assessment system in Pakistan.

TABLE I.  
SATISFACTION WITH ASSESSMENT IN PAKISTAN

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Satisfactory	4	20.0	20.0	20.0
	Unsatisfactory	12	60.0	60.0	80.0
	Test of Rote Learning	4	20.0	20.0	100.0
	Total	20	100.0	100.0	

The training of teachers after appointment is the major debate in Pakistan. Although the importance of it is being highlighted on different forums but no step is taken in this regard. Currently, Higher Education Commission of Pakistan is organizing different workshops for Higher Education Institutes. The data in Table 2 shows that 55% of the respondents have got training on assessment procedures and techniques while 45% of the respondents have not got any training on the assessment anywhere before joining the duty or on the duty.

TABLE II.  
TRAINING OF ASSESSMENT

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	11	55.0	55.0	55.0
	No	9	45.0	45.0	100.0
	Total	20	100.0	100.0	

Similarly, the question no 3 inquired about what type of assessment method is used in the relative institute of the respondents. The responses were in alignment with the literature review on the assessment system of Pakistan. Majority of the respondents i.e 50% (as seen in Table:3) confirmed that summative assessment system is followed in their respective institutions. While 25% of the respondents stated formative assessment and 25% stated classroom based assessment as the mode of assessment in their institutes.

TABLE III.  
ASSESSMENT MODES PRACTICED BY PARTICIPANTS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Summative Assessment	10	50.0	50.0	50.0
	Formative Assessment	5	25.0	25.0	75.0
	Classroom Based Assessment	5	25.0	25.0	100.0
	Total	20	100.0	100.0	

The Table 4 shows the data for the level of satisfaction of ESL teachers with their teaching methods. The data show that majority of the respondents have opted for the average of 40% to 70% level of satisfaction with their teaching methods and strategies. 20% of the respondents fall in 10% to 40% level of satisfaction while 25% are highly satisfied (70% to 100%) with their teaching methods and strategies.

TABLE IV.  
PARTICIPANTS' CONFIDENCE ABOUT THEIR TEACHING METHODS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	10% to 40%	4	20.0	20.0	20.0
	40% to 70%	11	55.0	55.0	75.0
	70% to 100%	5	25.0	25.0	100.0
	Total	20	100.0	100.0	

In response to the usage of CBA in classroom, the respondents showed higher positive response towards using CBA. 50% of the respondents stated that they use CBA in class, 40% use CBA sometimes in class, 5% rarely use CBA in class while 5% never used CBA in classroom activities. The figure 4 can be seen for the presentation of the data.

TABLE V.  
USAGE OF CBA IN CLASSROOM BY PARTICIPANTS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	10	50.0	50.0	50.0
	No	1	5.0	5.0	55.0
	Sometimes	8	40.0	40.0	95.0
	Rarely	1	5.0	5.0	100.0
	Total	20	100.0	100.0	

The aim of this study is to investigate the effectiveness of CBA for teaching methods and strategies and it is also clear that CBA is not only the continuous assessment of students' performance but also teaching strategies of the concerned teacher too. Once we have the data of the usage of CBA in classroom, it is essential to know whether respondents reconsider their teaching in light of the classroom assessment or not. The figure 5 shows the significant results in this regard. Almost 65% of the respondents reconsider their teaching style and methods in light of the result of classroom based assessment. Whereas, 25% respondents reconsider their teaching sometimes, 5% rarely change and 5% don't change at all. The findings of the data highly signify the importance of CBA for improvement and betterment in the teaching as in CBA teachers get on spot result of their strategies.

TABLE VI.  
RECONSIDER TEACHING STRATEGIES AFTER FEEDBACK

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	13	65.0	65.0	65.0
	No	1	5.0	5.0	70.0
	Sometimes	5	25.0	25.0	95.0
	Most of the Time	1	5.0	5.0	100.0
	Total	20	100.0	100.0	

Table 7 shows the most important finding of the data that better relates and narrates the rationale of this study. In response to the question who is responsible for the failure or bad result of students, 45% respondents blamed educational system of Pakistan, 40% responded teaching methods and strategies as responsible whereas 15% think that faulty assessment system is responsible for this failure.

TABLE VII.  
RESPONSIBLE FOR FAILURE

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Teaching Methods/Strategies	8	40.0	40.0	40.0
	Educational System	9	45.0	45.0	85.0
	Faulty Assessment System	3	15.0	15.0	100.0
	Total	20	100.0	100.0	

### A. Analysis of Semi Structured Interviews

As mentioned earlier, the study is based on mixed methods research paradigms. The qualitative part of the study is based on the interviews conducted from the ESL teachers that use CBA in their classes. The analysis of the interview was done on thematic pattern. The themes are generated from the data obtained from the respondents. The findings are discussed thematically as under;

#### 1. Usage of CBA in Class

The usage of proper tool for specific assessment is the crucial part of the learning and assessment. The participants of the study, who use classroom based assessment had different views about the assessment techniques in CBA. For example, Participant D mentioned that oral presentations in pair or group work at the end of the class is the best way to assess the students' learning in the class. She further added that,

*"Since students enjoy pair and group work activities, it is the better and productive technique for me to see whether I am doing well in class or my teaching needs more improvement."*

Likewise, participant C favoured the oral quiz or short questions at the end of the class. Whereas participants A and B stated that a she used written test, task, formative and diagnostic test and emphasised that through these tools students' classroom performance and learning can be assessed in fair way. Somehow different perspective was presented by participant E. According to him,

*"As teachers, we must promote activity based learning and task based activities should be made mandatory.....during these activity the observation as a tool of assessment would better explain the interest, difficulties, shortcomings of students."*

All the five respondents use different types of techniques in class to assess students' classroom learning. It shows that few of the teachers are willing to use assessment techniques that better benefit the students and teaching and learning process.

#### 2. Impacts of CBA on Students' Performance; Teachers' Perspective

The main purpose of the Classroom Based Assessment is to guide the learning of students to right direction. Hence, the respondents were also questioned whether the CBA enriches the performance of students or not. Most of the respondents gave positive views about the improvement and polish of students' performance in Classroom Based Assessment. Respondent A explained the scenario in words;

*"During classroom work, the observation and assessment of teacher is very essential as teacher notes the rights and wrongs of students, he then tries to correct the misinterpreted concepts of learning."*

On the other hand, respondent B was of the view that CBA gives more chances of learning to students as teachers assess them during and after the lecture completion and try to fulfil the gap left by him/her. (teacher). Respondent C illustrated the impact of CBA in following words.

*"CBA is a light of learning for both teachers and students. With this teacher improvises his/her strategies but indirectly that also is for the betterment of students as in the end, they are the real beneficiaries of the process."*

The data of the research indicates that all the respondents were satisfies with the performance of their students in CBA and mentioned that their students perform well in their final tests also as they have already been assessed and given feedback in the class.

#### 3. Impact of CBA on Teaching Strategies

As discussed earlier, the main objective of the study was to investigate the impact of CBA on the teaching strategies of ESL teachers. the quantitative part of the study shows that most of the teachers change heir teaching strategies after analysing the response of the students. In qualitative part the focus will be given that how CBA helps them improvise and improve the teaching strategies. In response to the question that how respondents assess that their teaching strategies are successful or need to be changed, the ESL teachers responded differently. For example, respondent A told,

*"Students' feedback, result in class test, response of students shows the quality of a teachers' teaching strategies."*

While respondent B expressed,

*"Students' interest, behaviour and positive response shows the success of teaching style"*

According to respondent C,

*"The relevancy of students' questions in the class shows the understanding of student and hence the success or failure of teaching method or strategy."*

Participant D and E however had somehow same opinions as,

*Students' classroom performance, achievement of lesson outcomes (D) feedback and classroom response of students (E) indicates the productivity of the teaching method or technique.*

In response to the question of impacts of CBA on teaching strategies, respondents gave positive feedback. All the respondents were of the view that CBA leads them towards the assessment and analysis of their teaching strategies as well. Eg. Participant A discussed;

*"Moslty teachers use traditional, lecture methods in class but I felt students were not participating in ESL class and most of the ideas were not clear to them, then I tried to change the style"*

Participant B added;

*"I observed that rather than individual assignments and task, students participated and learn more effectively in pair, group work and discussion so I adopted more activities that had collaborative learning."*

Similarly, the views of participants C,D and E also indicated towards the same point. It was seen in data that ESL teachers learn a lot through CBA and try different strategies to be productive in the class.

### B. Discussion

The data revealed that majority of the teachers showed dissatisfaction with the assessment system in Pakistan. According to the responses, since beginning, in government sector schools and colleges summative assessment system is followed in which once or twice exam is held and students are judged on their cramming and on their performance. The finding also showed that in most of the institutions/universities the same system is followed, in which two semester examination is held and that is also summative. It was also seen that assignments and presentations are also held to see the progress of the students.

The data also indicated that majority of the respondents have not got any professional development training or assessment training. It was also found that most of the respondents consider educational system responsible for the poor result of the students. Despite the lack of trainings and professional development, respondents showed their interest in the assessment in shape of assignments, class presentations, competitions by which they could assess students' interest and progress towards learning. Results also showed that there is no daily or activity based assessment used in the classes except few of the responses.

When it comes to the success of teaching strategies and interest of students in class and teaching method, there comes very diverse and confused responses. For example, one of the respondents was of the view that students' interest and participation is the proof of success of his teaching strategy. While another respondent said that students' overall good result is proof of his success. But there is no strong and solid reason or assessment that proves the success of their teaching method.

### V. CONCLUSION

The following research was conducted in order to explore the efficiency of classroom based assessment on improvement of ESL teaching strategies and techniques. Mostly all studies are carried out from students and their performance perspectives. The aim of this study was to see how helpful CBA is for teachers and the improvement of teaching strategies and methods. Findings of the study showed that despite the lack of resources, trainings, professional development skills, teachers still believe that the effectiveness to assess for process within learning and teaching procedures. Teachers' views proved that learning and teaching are interlinked process and hence, the idea of Snow, Griffin, & Burns (2005) is validated that for the success of this process mastery of assessment skills is compulsory.

Findings of the study also show that if Classroom based assessment is imposed in educational institutes and proper training of assessment techniques is provided to the teacher, it can be the most beneficial assessment for both teachers and students. It will not only be the assessment of students' performance and progress but will also assess the success of teacher, teaching strategies and methods

### VI. RECOMMENDATION

In light of the data collected and findings, there are two major recommendations for the education policy makers, administrators and government. The first one is the need of professional development of teachers in general and assessment in particular. Although there are few institutes working for professional development but looking at the population of Pakistan and need for improvements in educational sector, more institutes with better professional skills is need of time.

The 2nd recommendation is the need to go ahead of summative assessment and encourage teachers for the specific assessment styles needed to achieve specific objectives. The journey towards new and modern assessment techniques can bring new trends in teaching methods and hence contribute towards the betterment of education system of Pakistan.

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# On the Differences between English and Chinese Animal Words Cultural Connotations\*

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**Abstract**—A social language could reflect culture which is correspondent and its manners show in the contents of words and vocabulary. The same to the animal words what contains rich and profound cultural customs of various nationalities and reflects the philosophical and cultural mentality of all ethnic groups profoundly. In the course of the development of human history, animals keep in touch with human beings. Many animals yet have been being human beings' pets and friends. Many animals have formed a certain symbol in the minds of people, and are embodied in the language. Animal words are also forming a specific meaning in these processes. There are abundant words in English and Chinese with large number of animals as a metaphor. The cultural diversity of all nations around the world causes people to have different emotional attitudes towards animals in the different cultures, thus, the meaning of animal vocabulary is different in different cultures. It's helpful to improve the communicative competence of English for the understanding of the cultural connotations of English and Chinese. To promote English learning and intercultural communication is of great practical significance.

**Index Terms**—animal words, cultural connotations, cultural differences

## I. INTRODUCTION

Language is the cultural carrier and the tool which could communicate. Language is “the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral-auditory arbitrary symbols”. (Hall, 1959) After the evolution of history, language is abundant in a variety of cultures. At the same time, words tend to be branded with culture and the same word has different or opposite meanings in different language environments. It is defined that the implication of a word, apart from its primary meaning in the *Longman Modern English Dictionary*. *Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary* defines the word connotation as: “the suggesting of a meaning by a word apart from the thing it explicitly names or describes.” On the one hand, the similarities have the same meaning to the same animal words between the imagination of English and Chinese culture and the way of thinking. For example, the English word “fox” denotes “wild animal of the dog family, with reddish brown fur, a pointed face and a bushy tail.” (Homby, 1997) On the other hand, due to the personality of the national culture and the different cultural background of the English and Chinese people, the same animal will have different associations and the same animal has different meanings. Animal words, in addition to their literal meaning, on behalf of the animal itself and have abundant cultural connotations. That is the implied or incidental associative meaning of the word, the metaphorical meaning, the symbolic meaning and emotional commendatory and derogatory.

In the course of the development of human civilization, people are contact with animals frequently what causing there are a lot of words that reflect the name of the animal in the human language. Their image, vividness and intuition have greatly enriched the human language. According to Lian Shuneng(1997)and Wu Guohua(2000), animal words belong to the category of culturally-loaded words. Generally, people cannot compare with animals, but there are many words in language which make use of the characteristics of animals to depict the personality of a person in the daily life. Owing to the life customs, religion and values, the words express the same animal symbols which have different cultural connotations under their unique cultural traditions. These differences have a reflection in the animal words. Without understanding these differences, you can't full accept the amount of language information that a word carries. The meaning of the same animal word is different in Chinese and English. An animal word in Chinese has a variety of expressions in English and has its own cultural connotations. “Cultural meanings are additionally expressed through complex process of semantic extension and transfer” (Bonvillian, 1993) Words in English and Chinese reflect the characteristics of the two ethnic cultures in varying degrees. Clarifying the cultural connotations of English and Chinese animal words helps us to understand and master the communicative language and communicative changes in English. And it can be properly expressed in verbal communication to improve our communicative competence in English. Sometimes, English and Chinese aim to express the same meaning what use diverse animal words. Thus, an analysis of the cultural connotations of English and Chinese animal words is necessary to carry out crossing cultural communication smoothly and better mastering English language. To explore the cultural connotations of animal words between English and Chinese is the theme of this thesis.

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## II. LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

### A. Definition of Language

Language is very common and essential in human life because every day we use language to communicate with other people and to commute views and express feelings. Many linguists from different points of view give varied statements of language by its definition.

First, language can mean a person's words, as in "what he said sounds reasonable enough." Secondly, Sapir indicated "language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotion and desires by voluntarily produced symbols." (Sapir 1921)<sup>1</sup> Thirdly, Martin Heidegger points out "Language – as of primary significance for the existence of man, language serves a home of existence." The statement means that only speech can give human beings the existence of living. Language used by mankind has only the unique features of human communications.

### B. Definition of Culture

Culture is an extremely complicated and enormous subject. A common view of culture is that of something learned and then passed down from one generation to the next through human actions and linguistic communication. A wide range of things are involved in culture both in physical and spiritual worlds. Sapir points out "Culture may be defined as what a society does and thinks". (1921)<sup>2</sup> The scholar's definitions to culture all point to the fact that culture has extensive and universal implication. Culture is the precipitation of temporal acquired by lots of people in the process of generations by means of individual and group striving.

### C. Word and Its Connotation

Word is a small unit of expression which has general intuitive discrimination by native-speakers. Animal words have an important role in communication. Meaning is the only carrier where words and language are related to the real world. Leech divided meaning of language into several types: conceptual meaning, connotative meaning, and stylistic meaning ect. This is a great discovery, which makes people more conscious of the constitution of meaning in order to comprehend the meaning of the language better.

Conceptual meaning also called cognitive meaning which is supposed to be the main factor in linguistic communication. The functions are to designate or describe something and the meaning network and the main foundation of cultural connotation is the nucleus. We must know its definition if we study connotative meaning. Leech's explanation is: "Connotative meaning is the communicative value an expression has by virtue of what it refers to, over and above its purely concept content"(1989)<sup>3</sup>. Its characteristics are that connotative meaning is precipitation of culture though some persists generation after generation. Associative meaning contains the elements of cultural backgrounds and is liable to the influence of geography, history, religion and customs, ect. It belongs to secondary meaning which supplement to the conceptual meaning.

Words can also be used to relay culturally shared symbolic meaning through contextual associations. Some identical animal words have diverse connotations in various nations on account of different value orientations. Dealing with the connotations of animal words is useful for us to know about the cultural factors. The reason is that language derives from the real life and reflects the real life. Similarities and differences in the connotations between two languages should be taken into account in cross-cultural communication.

### D. Relationship between Language and Culture

Language lays the basis of the culture. In 1988, Samorner and Porter remark "Language is a reflection of culture, and culture is a reflection of a language." (1988)<sup>4</sup> culture is entirely a portion of the interaction in language and thought. Scholars admit that culture is inseparably intertwined with language and the formation of culture cannot be separated from language. Language is the vehicle of culture and is also a means of communication.

#### 1. Language as the basis and carrier of culture

Language is a unit of culture, and it is also a crucial expression of culture. Language is the consequence of culture and is the prime means for human beings to study culture. Language is a picturesque characteristic of humanity and it is also a symbol system which is regarded as a symbol of cultural value.

#### 2. Culture as the controller of language

Culture influences intensively language owing to a mirror of culture. The development of language often embodies the cultural change. Language is deeply engrained with traces of special society and the meanings of language must be decided by their cultural contexts. Learning a foreign language inevitably concerns foreign cultural learning. There is a conclusion that the changes of language often are caused by some cultural factors due to the relationship between language and culture. The Chinese culture and English culture referred to different cultures. Therefore, the comparative study of different cultures should be emphasized.

<sup>1</sup> Sapir, E. *Language: An Introduction to the Study of Speech* [M]. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, 1921:8.

<sup>2</sup> Sapir, E. *Language: An Introduction to the Study of Speech* [M]. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, 1921:233.

<sup>3</sup> Leech, G. *Semantics*. Suffolk: The Chaucer Press, 1989:17.

<sup>4</sup> Samovar, L. A. *Communication Between Cultures.(third education)* [M]. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, 1988:96.

### III. THE COMPARISONS OF THE ENGLISH AND CHINESE ANIMAL WORDS

Different countries have different associations of animal words on account of differences in geography, history, convention and religion. Similarities and dissimilarities in the connotations of animal words in two languages (Chinese and English) should be considered in cross-cultural communication.

#### A. *Animal Words with Similar Cultural Connotations*

Identical animal words may have similar cultural connotations between English and Chinese which are completely correspondent, and different animal words may also have similar cultural connotations.

##### 1. Identical animal words with similar cultural connotations

Both the Chinese people and English people almost have the similar knowledge of animals because of all people live in the similar environment. They put the similar cultural connotation to animal words. For example, "Fox" has the similar connotations of culture between English and Chinese. It symbols "cunning and fraud". Chinese people can understand the meaning of the sentence correctly when English people say he is as artful as a fox. They share the similar comprehension about the similar term in spite of people of different cultural backgrounds have different approaches of perceptions.

##### 2. Different animal words with similar cultural connotations

Different animal words have similar cultural connotations both in English and in Chinese. In China, "cow" is the main animal to cultivate the land. But in Britain, horse is used for most farming work and usually regarded as the symbol of diligence. When we reshape a strong person, we say "壮得像一头牛". While in English, people choose "as strong as a horse". The Chinese regard the "tiger" as the king among beasts and which symbols power and courage. But in English, "lion" represents courage. "Tiger" and "lion" have the similar cultural connotations

#### B. *Identical Animal Words with Partially Similar Cultural Connotations*

Culture has great effect on the people's view and thought. In the same environment, different nations have themselves experiences in the objective world. Therefore, the identical animal words have partially similar cultural connotations inevitably. In English and Chinese, "bee" and "蜜蜂" have similar cultural connotations. They are both used to depict diligent person, for instance, "as busy as a bee (非常忙碌)". In spite of the quantity of animal words with partially similar cultural connotation is rather limited, they express the similar meaning on some situations and a different one on other situations in different cultures.

#### C. *Identical Animal Words with Different Cultural Connotations*

English and Chinese people have different attitudes to towards the identical animals. It is common that identical animal words possess remarkable cultural differences in English and Chinese. For example, In English culture, "cat" usually represents the malicious woman. "Cat's paw" refers to what other people use to do dangerous or unpleasant things. In Chinese, "cat" is a friendly domestic animal. When we say "she is a cat", the Chinese would consider that she is lovely or useful. They usually take cats as lovely pets or intimate companions in their life,

Identical animal words with different cultural connotations have some pitfalls that they look like the same but practically have distinctions. "Dog" is the persuasive example to show this sort of cultural differences. The English and Chinese have different cultural connotations to the identical animal words because of their different cultural backgrounds.

#### D. *Unique Cultural Connotations in One Language*

##### 1. Animal words with the rich connotations in Chinese, but vacant in English

The cultural connotations of animal words only embodied in Chinese which is facily understood by Chinese people. For example, "鹤"(crane) and "Cicada"(蝉) have abundant connotations of culture only in Chinese, but vacant in English. In Chinese, "鹤"(crane) refers to longevity. However, in English, "crane" only means "large bird with long leg, neck and beck. In Chinese, cicada on behalf of frustration and mourning and implies "loftiness". But in English, "Cicada" has no such abundant connotations of culture.

##### 2. Animal words with the rich connotations in English, but vacant in Chinese

Both English and Chinese have expressions associated with their respectively national culture. "Beaver"(河狸) and "Beetle"(甲壳虫) have rich cultural connotations only occurred in English, but Chinese vacancy. "Beaver"(河狸) in Chinese, is only a sort of animal. While in English, it has sophisticated technique and creative ability in making a nest. "Beetle"(甲壳虫) in English means clumsiness and foolishness and stands for a silent person, while in Chinese, "beetle" is only a kind of insect.

A common animal word influenced by the national cultures which has various cultural connotations in one language but it is just a symbol in another language. When people in one country send messages, people in another country don't understand or misunderstand just on account of the words with especial cultural connotations. Thus, we should lay more emphasis on the animal words with unique cultural connotations merely in one language.

### IV. FACTORS INFLUENCING DIFFERENCES OF CULTURAL CONNOTATION

English and Chinese animal words express different cultural characteristics and information of their own nations, and reflect their own cultures. The following analysis may be helpful to understand factors influencing differences of cultural connotation.

#### A. Geography

There are many cultural differences in terms of English and Chinese animal words which originate from the differences in the geographical environments of the two countries. Britain is surrounded by waters and British like ocean and many relevant things very much. There are many words and phrases about navigation and fishery in English. As is known to everyone, China belongs to inland country. Many expressions have to do with farming and hunting.

We conclude that thinking pattern of people is different from the value system by the contrast of the geographical environment. Britain is an island country with a distance from any point to the sea not more than 120 kilometers. They putted an emphasis on individualism and wanted to conquer nature. However, Chinese people devote themselves to study and get rich. They attach importance to the development of agriculture and are satisfied with their simple life. This semi-closed geographical environment makes Chinese people have the philosophy of Harmony between Heaven and Man. We can see that the factors of geographical environment cause these differences. When we study the animal words, we shall more emphasize the geographical factors that are useful for us to comprehend the cultural connotations.

#### B. History

Different countries have various history cultures, which mainly involve myths, ancient books and records, etc. The connotation of culture is the seed of human cultural heritage from history. Knowledge of the historical background of English and Chinese may contribute to understand the meaning of cultural connotation. The Pope and the King ruled England for a long time so there are so many dialects to express their anger, such as "Kings and bears often worry their keepers (伴君如伴虎)". China has 5000 years of cultural tradition. In ancient China, the King considered as a dragon.

#### C. Religion and Belief

Religion belongs to cultural phenomenon. Language is a mirror of the religious culture. Therefore, many expressions comprise the religious coloring of different nations. In the English-speaking countries, Christianity has a profound bearing on people's manners of life and opinions for several hundred years as the primary religion. In China, Buddhism has been prevailed several thousand years. The Chinese think Buddha all of the things around the world are grasped by Buddhism. Different religions and beliefs will give different meanings to different animal words and use the animal words with special national significance. The belief of religion is the crucial factors to affect cultural discrimination s.

#### D. Convention and Value

Conventions and values are the reflection of the cultural awareness for a long time. Every nation has its own established and recognized convention and value. "owl" in English symbols wisdom. However "owl" in Chinese is usually related to disaster and death in China. Different nations have varied psychology and attitudes owing to their own particular value. Cultural connotations of animal words are different between English and Chinese is clear owing to the different ways of comprehension and observation of the world. Convention and value may be useful to avoid the misunderstanding in the communication.

### V. IMPLICATIONS

#### A. Applying Comparative Study to Learning Cultural Connotations

Comparative study is an effective way to learn cultural connotations. Through comparative study, we learn that in most occasions we use various animal words in English and Chinese to express the similar cultural connotations in respective language. By comparing the contrast between the source culture and target culture, learners can know where the bewilderment is and facilitate the language learning. And through the comparative study, one can understand the personality and commonness of culture and reduce the impact of culture.

#### B. Suggestion on Translation

The cultural connotations of animal words often cause the misunderstanding in the process of translation if we are not familiar with the cultural factors. Every nation has its own cultural background, translation problems what are restricted by cultural factors due to the cultural differences. Applying comparative study of cultural differences to translation is important. The cultural connotations can be well handled is the key in the process of translation.

##### 1. Identical animal words with partially similar cultural connotations—literal translation

Literal translation is a kind of method to follow closely the form of the source text and the target language readers can get more information from foreign culture. Adopting the literal translation is a better method to express the literal meaning and cultural connotation which is faithful to the original text. Such as: cowboy(牛仔), a dark horse(一匹黑马). Target language readers can acquire it because the high integrity of the cultural meaning transferred from the source text and a rather high degree of the effectiveness in the course of translation. Through literal translation, more expressions of English have now been received by the Chinese.

## 2. Identical animal words with partially similar cultural connotations—literal translation with footnotes

To minimize the opportunity of misunderstandings of literal translation, the literal translation with footnotes is applied in the translation. Adding footnotes can help not only to strengthen the advantages of literal translation, but also to increase the validity of cross-communication in the course of translation. The literal translation with footnotes is a better way to add the disadvantage of literal translation for the identical animal words with partially similar cultural connotation. The literal translation with footnotes can provide a broader cultural vision to them. Of course, too many footnotes will thwart reader's appreciation of the original as a whole. So translators must make the footnotes concise, accurate so as to maintain the integrity of the source language text and the coherence of the target language text in the process of translation.

## 3. Identical animal words with partially cultural connotations—substitution

Substitution refers to the way of replacing the original image with a ready target language image. For the identical animal words with partially cultural connotations, it is a desirable way to adopt a substantive image in the target language. The target language cannot wholly express the cultural images in the course of translation. By adopting the substitution, target language readers facilely comprehend the ideals of the original work. The reason is that readers are acquainted with their own cultural expression.

## 4. Unique cultural connotations in one language—explanation

Some cultural images are special to one culture, and the target language readers cannot comprehend or accept these unknown images. On this occasion, we transfer the meaning and change the form by adopting the way of explanation. When we translate the unique cultural connotation in the original work, there is no equivalent word which is only used to explain in target language. As for the overlapping parts of two cultures, each person who has no difficulty to understand that part which still has a large part in the two cultures that is specific. This specific part cannot be easily comprehended by target language readers without explanation. Explanation is used to express the special connotations of the source language for the animal words with unique cultural connotations in one language.

## VI. CONCLUSION

No words can be found in almost isolation. They nearly always have partners together from meanings in particular ways. People of different cultural backgrounds tend to give different meanings to language by comparison. Culture provides life and nourishment to every language. Through having a comparison in the differences between the native culture and target culture, learners can know where the puzzled parts are. In the meantime, the combination of language and culture helps to fully excavate the influence of the subconscious on the development of cultural quality. It is very necessary for us to improve and strengthen the comprehension of English and Chinese cultures. Shorten the distance between two cultures can eliminate the barrier of comprehension which caused by the lack of knowledge or cultural connotations in two cultures.

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# A Survey of English Learning Based on M-learning—Case Study of Students of Grade 2017, BIPT

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**Abstract**—In the contemporary time, mobile devices are particularly popular among college students; so does it on Beijing Institute of Petrol-chemical Technology. And the paper aims to make clear of English learning involved the students of Grade 2017, BIPT, by using mobile equipment. It adopts survey study to the students in the project, which focuses on the detailed investigation, such as gender, program, application, time, length, place, material, style, major and effect, and etc. Based on the results of the data about the students' application of mobile devices into English learning, the survey is likely to give tips to the students and provide Dept. of Foreign Languages and other relevant departments of BIPT with some suggestion, which is of significance to improve English teaching and learning.

**Index Terms**— mobile devices, English learning, survey, pluralism

## I. INTRODUCTION

The saying, “Good tools are prerequisite to the successful execution of a job,” stresses that a good tool is vital to do anything well. So it does to English teaching and learning. At the present, which is called the Age of Internet, it is not too much of importance enough for us to stress the Age. In particular, young people cannot be separated with the Internet even for a single moment; and they are often labeled with a tag “Give me network, or give me death”,<sup>2</sup> to some of contemporary college students, they often feel heart-broken when Wi-Fi, Wireless Fidelity, is disconnected suddenly. Such a case is not overstated at all. Thus, it is impossible for English teachers to change but adapt to the Age of Internet in their teaching job. For teachers, especially teachers of English, have to naturally make full use of the networks, the good tools to benefit both students and teachers. It is the Age of Internet that has forced English teaching and learning to advance forward. Moreover, in China the unique status of English is another factor, which have aroused teachers' and learners' awareness and attracted their attention to the course, that is to say, every college student, whatever he is majoring in, he is supposed to select English course. It is absolutely true that English in China is No.1 Course because of large volume of attendants; no other course could be competitive with the biggest number of the selected Course. Thus, the efficiency of English teaching and learning is involved into all levels of administrations at college. Moreover, the result of the course is something connected with a teacher's promotion and students' employment over China. That is one of the motivations of the survey of English learning as well.

English teaching in China, from its initial stage of dumb teaching, the first phase, then, recorder teaching the second phase, has leaped to online teaching the third one, and updated to mobile teaching the last one. Every update of English teaching is tied closely to new technology and new tool. In the current of mobile devices employed popularly among masses, teachers of English, who are ignorant of the new mobile Appliances, such as smart phones, will definitely be washed away, swept and swallowed by such kind of isolation or ignorance; worse, though it brings downside to the students. Unfortunately, no doubt, the mobile appliances are vital to master any language, let alone mention English learning, for which is easy to grasp than Chinese. However, the teachers of English at Beijing Institute of Petrol-chemical Technology (Hereafter initialed as BIPT) are not quite clear about the status of mobile-learning among their students. That is the content to be investigated throughout the survey so that the investigators could provide with some proposals to the relevant sections of BIPT for future improvement.

### A. Foreign Research

Since the concept of mobile learning (shortened as m-learning) is first put forward in the United States in 2000, researches and practices on this aspect have been widely spread over the world. Stanford University of the USA is the

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1. Wensheng Deng is the corresponding author of the paper. The survey is a URT (University Research Training) Project of BIPT (Beijing Institute of Petrol-chemical Technology); other team members are Yu Li, Simeng Li, Xin Tan and Jinting Zhang.

2. It is a parody of “Give me liberty, or give me death” by the author of the thesis.



first university to adopt the mobile learning in foreign language learning over the world. In 2002, the learning lab of Stanford University has conducted an experiment to learn English words by using SMS, which means short messaging service. In 2004, a Bangladeshi American called Salman Khan (Liu & Ge, 2004, p13-17) has employed Internet to teach his relatives math simply by chance. It is the occasional teaching by using Internet that Salman Khan has carved out a completely new space in teaching and learning over the world. In 2006, Salman Khan has established a college entitled Khan Academy, using mobile Internet to teach foreign languages and other courses in class. In 2005, BBC, British Broadcasting Corporation, began to use radio and text messages to teach English in West Africa. At the same time, Europe's m-learning program, mobile learning, also applies short messages to teach Finnish. In 2006, an Australian doctoral student set up his own WAP (Wireless Application Protocol) website in South Korea, by which 30 students have completed WAP-based tasks and communicated with classmates and teachers. Thus, from the retrospect of m-learning mentioned above, it is clear that the theory and practice abroad is popular.

### B. Domestic Research

In China, Professor Gui Qingyang of Zhejiang International Studies University is kind of somebody remarkable in m-learning, for who has first connected mobile learning with foreign language learning and teaching. His thesis, entitled "M-learning: The Future of Foreign Language Learning in Chinese Context", has been published in the journal, *Technology Enhanced Foreign Language Education*, in 2003. Gui (2003, p14-17) advocates that "M-learning is a new revolution in learning, which is the future of foreign language learning in China". And Han Ling, Man Zhaohui and Shao Wen (2004, p43-45) have explored mobile English teaching and assessment of the teaching. Among other scholars of m-learning, Ma Junbo (2007, p30-36) is one of the representatives. He tries to apply m-learning to foreign language teaching, and alleges foreign language teaching aided by computer (CALL) to shift to m-learning (MALL) granted by classroom context, educational technology and linguistic development.

Now, it is clear for us to see the foreign researches have been concentrating upon teaching knowledge, especially in the USA; and the domestic researchers have paid more attention to teaching and learning. However, both of the two kinds are ignorant of gender, program, application, time, length, place, material, style, major and effect in m-learning. These are points of departure of the survey.

## II. SURVEY OF M-LEARNING OF ENGLISH ABOUT THE STUDENTS OF GRADE 2017, BIPT

The goal of the survey is to get a clear idea of m-learning of English involved the students of Grade 2017, BIPT. However, the focus of the research is not the relativity to English competence and performance, nor is the comparison of English levels among the respondents, by m-learning. We intend to figure out how many students of Grade 2017 are using mobile devices in learning English, what kinds of English resources they prefer, and what time is available to them. It is our hope that we get some objective findings from the data. And, based on the survey, some tips will be given to the students, and proposals to the Dept. of Foreign Languages and other relevant departments of the college, to enhance English teaching, learning and administration.

Throughout the research, the method of document and material, surveying method, and questionnaire method are combined together. The questionnaires, both digital and paper ones, are supposed to be filled in online and offline by interviewees. Some foreign and domestic file and thesis are adopted. The students of Grade 2017 are respondents of the survey. And some interviews or conversations will be held to collect response from the respondents to verify the data of the survey. There are 1,700 student enrollments of Grade 2017 in BIPT, i.e. the population of the survey. And 250 respondents from each department are picked at random to be as samples to fill in the online questionnaire; the percentages of male and female of the respondents are identified with 1 to 1, but in practice the ratio is 13 to 12, male is a little higher than female; other 100 respondents are picked to interview by E-mail, the ratio of male and female is 11 to 9; and another 50 are picked to be interviewed by telephone, the sex ratio is 1 to 1; and other 100 are picked to write the paper questionnaire, the percentage is 3 to 2. All the samples of 500 respondents are not repetitive, which have accounted for 29.4% of the students, Grade 2017. Therefore, the data of the survey are reliable and accurate. And 3 repeated samples are eliminated and excluded by the researchers of the project, for which are not available enough to interfere with the findings and validity of the investigation, they can be negligible. In brief, descriptive way is adopted in the survey.

As to multiple channels, i.e., questionnaire online and offline (digital and paper questionnaire), interview, telephone and e-mail, adopted in the survey, it is the investigators' hope that they could get more reliable and objective data by using various methods, i.e., a kind of triangle proofs, to demonstrate some possible regularities, so that they can kick out rash or ridiculous questionnaire, in case some of the students are irresponsible to the survey. The interview is a sort of structured interview, in which topics and contents are designed in advance (Liu Runqing, 2005, p80).

Throughout the survey, the investigators are non-participant of the subjects enrolled, but are students of Grade 2017 as well. All instructors, who help the investigators, are from the departments which the subjects belong to, for it is convenient for them to find the respondents.

The survey lasts from November, 2017 till October, 2018. And the respondents are required to report their English learning with m-learning devices within one year after class. We are going to neglect the subjects' intelligence, prior knowledge of English. And the questionnaire are designed and written in Chinese so the subjects can understand it at

one look.

### III. FINDINGS OF THE SURVEY

#### A. Findings of Online Survey

With the help from assistant instructors of the Departments or schools of BIPT, the team group of the survey is able to distribute 250 pieces of questionnaires to the respondents, the students of Grade 2017; there are 242 effective answer sheets, with 8 answer sheets deleted for failing to meet the demands of the survey, only accounting for 3.2% of the total, so the survey online is reliable and accurate. Among the 242 respondents, male percentage is 52.07%, female 47.93%; 25.21% are from A-level Class, 74.79% from B-level Class.<sup>3</sup> There are 27.69% of the interviewees who own a desktop computer, 68.18% with a portable computer, 19.42% with an ipad, 80.99% with a smart phone, 14.05% with an MP3 or MP4 player, and 13.22% with an electronic dictionary.

The figures mentioned above are listed in the following histogram.

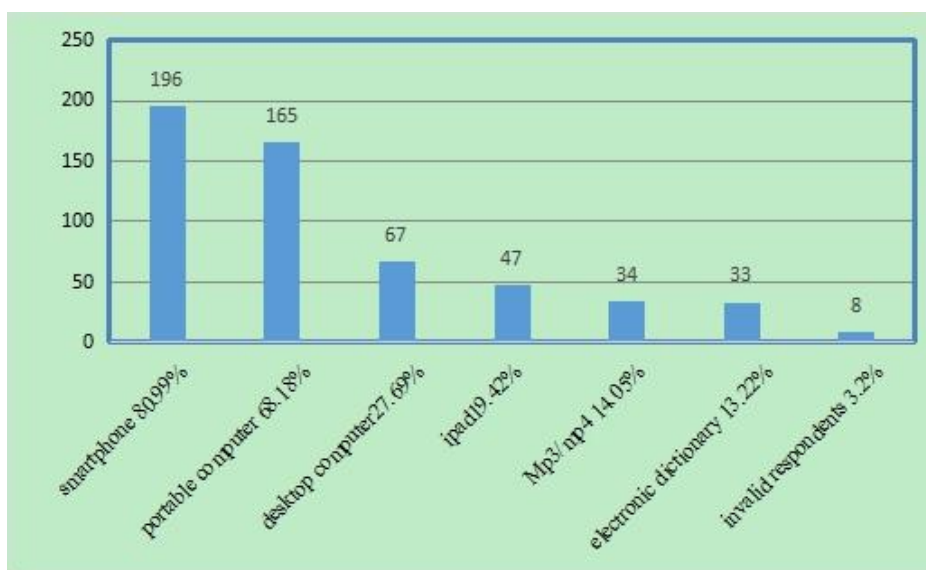


Figure 1 Mobile Device Distribution

When the respondents are asked whether he or she knows the concept of m-learning, 35.95% of them say they have never heard of it before; 59.92% knows a little of it; and 4.13% say they are familiar with it. The percentages are indicated as below.

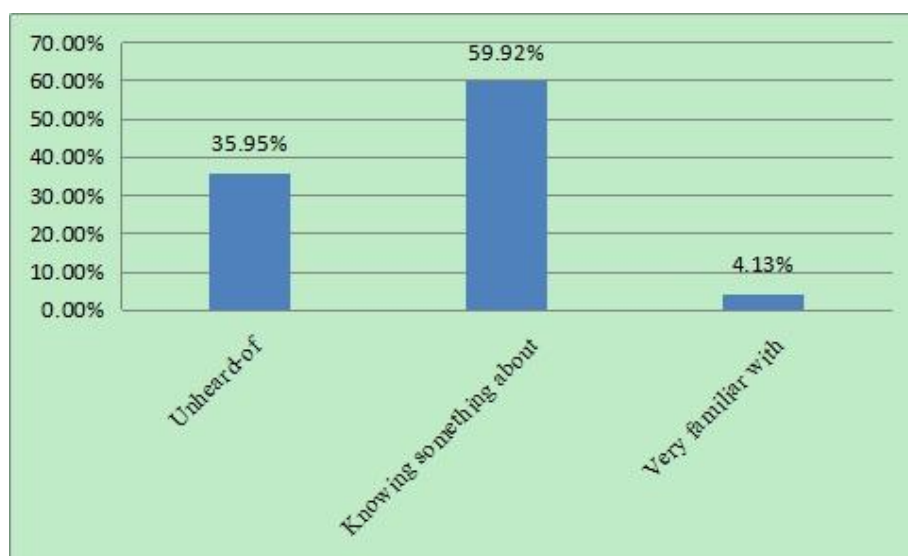


Figure 2 Distribution of Familiarity with M-learning

There are 21.9% of the respondents with frequent use of mobile Internet to learn English; 67.77% of them say they

3. There are two kinds of classes in BIPT, who are divided into A-level Class or B-level Class according to their marks in the first entrance exam of English. A-level Class is a little over 60 points if the full marks are 100; and others are B-level.

occasionally make use of mobile Internet to do so; and 10.33% of them say they never use the mobile networks to learn English.

And when the subjects of the investigation adopt the mobile networks to learn English, 83.88% of them are preferable to employ through mobile App; 12.4% have the inclination to take a computer notebook; 3.72% are used to applying an MP3 or MP4 player. Here is a pie chart for the statistics.

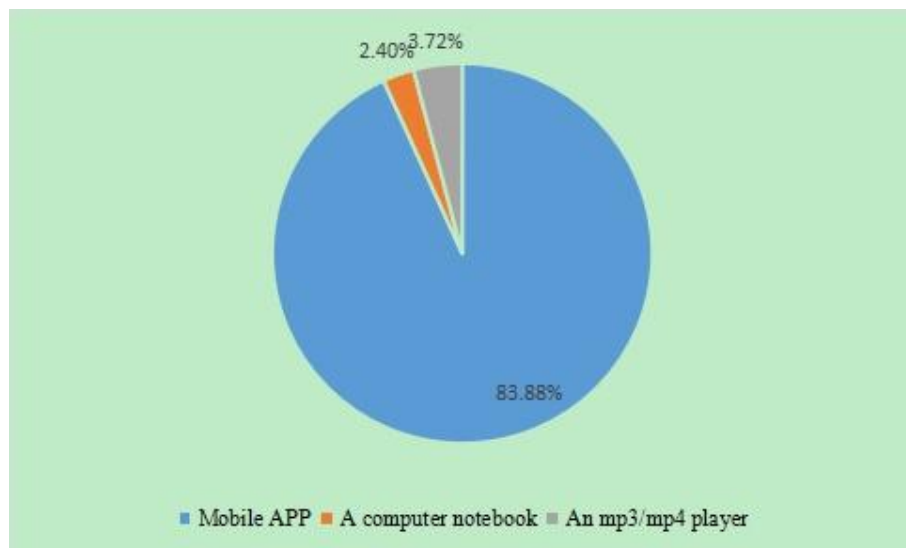
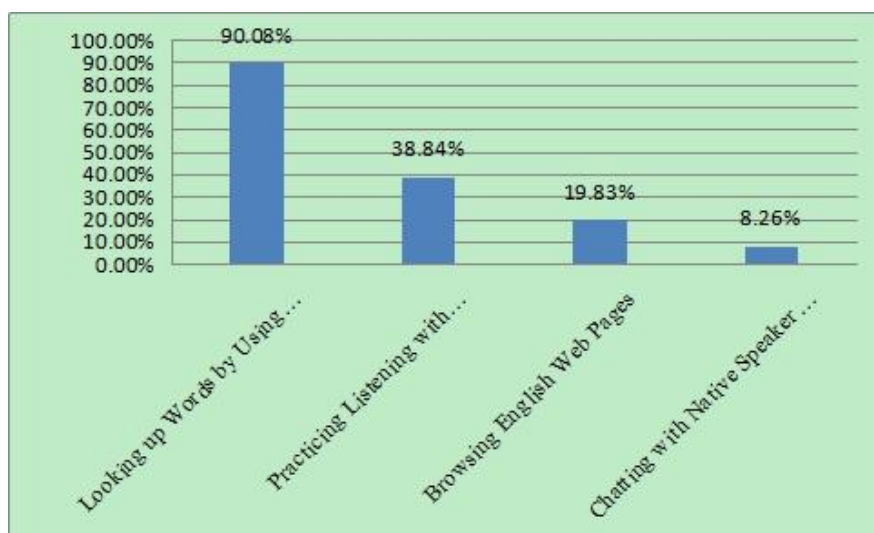


Figure 3 Distribution of Using Mobile Devices

There are 90.08% of the respondents to look up new words through mobile App in English learning; 38.84% of them listen to listening materials; 19.83% browse the Web; and another 8.26% of them chat online with native English to enhance their English level. The subsequent figures are listed here.



As to English learning with mobile App, 60.74% of the respondents do with the App or something the like. 56.2% of them make use of it to learn words by heart; 35.12% of them finish assigned translation, both from English to Chinese or vice versa, with the aid of the App; 24.38% use it to practice listening comprehension, 19.83% to dialogue with it in English, 16.53% choose the App for writing English essays. And 33.47% of them never apply the mobile App to English learning at all.

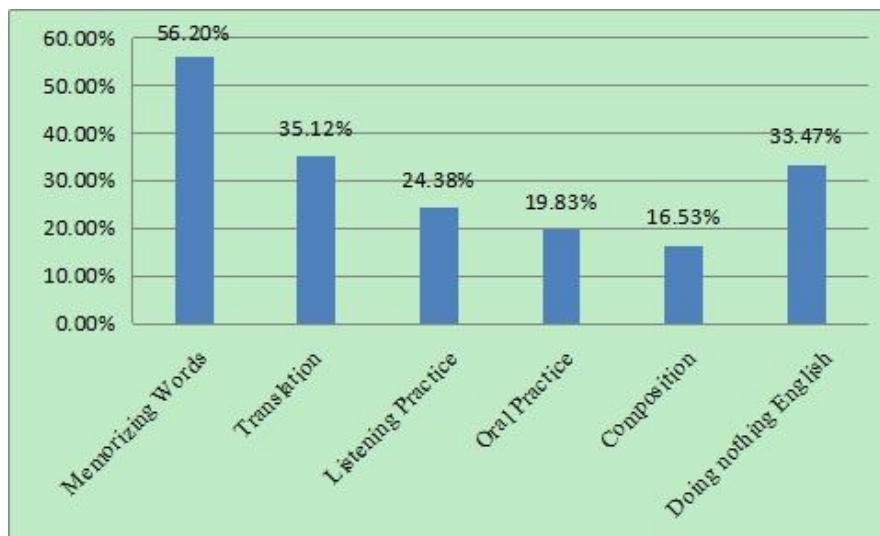


Figure 4 Distribution of M-learning

Among 39.26% of the respondents, who have never applied the mobile App, 32.23 of them are distracted by other information from the Internet, and they are not able to devoted to English studies, 25.62% because they are not getting used to English learning with a mobile phone; 25.62% of them have not done it because of the App without proper specifications and assessments; and 11.98% for the network speed and reliability are not quick enough or stable to use the mobile App.

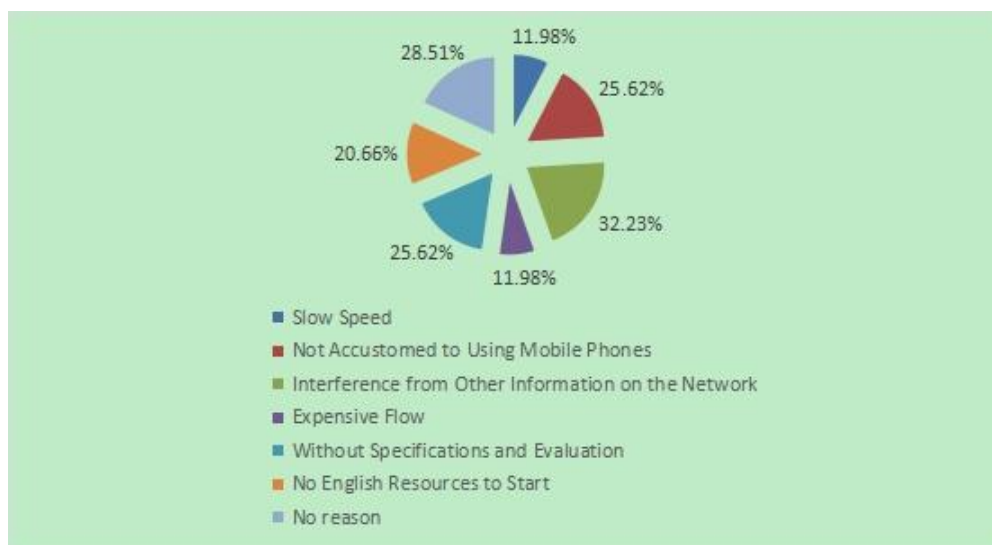


Figure 5 Distribution of not Using Mobile Devices

When it comes to the validity of English learning by using mobile devices, 54.13% of the respondents admit that it is effective for learning English; 35.95% think its validity is just so-so, not ideal; 9.92% express the mobile Internet is of no help at all to learn or improve English. 48.35% of the students are most likely to use the mobile appliances when they have difficulty in finishing English assignments; 42.56% of them use the mobile before they go to bed; 28.93% prefer to do after class; it is more possible for 23.97% of the respondents to adopt it to learn English while they are waiting for vehicle. Besides the reason, 10.74 of the students would like to listen to lectures delivered by a distinguished professor for they are too far from the lectures' site to attend.

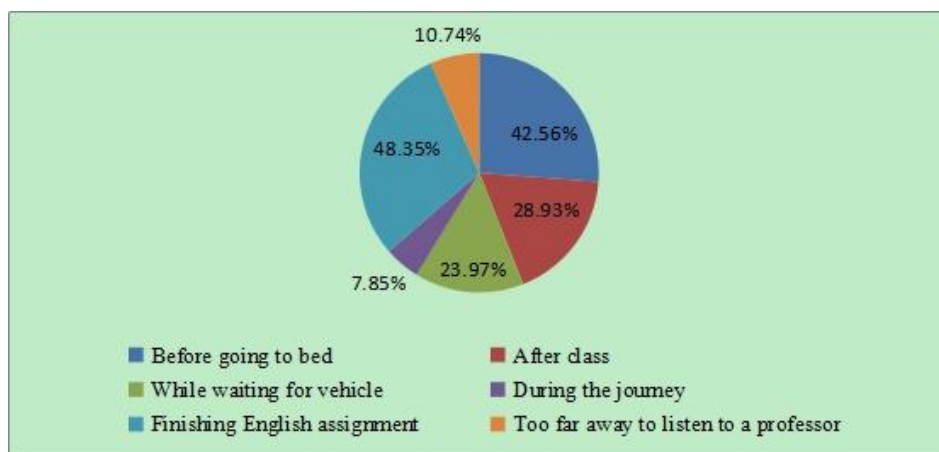


Figure 6 Distribution of Specific Period of Time of English by Using Mobile Devices

The time duration to learn English by using mobile devices are varied greatly. 47.93% of the respondents says that they spend less than 30 minutes every day; 24.38% with between half an hour and an hour, 4.96% with over one hour, and 22.73% of them have barely touched the devices to learn English.

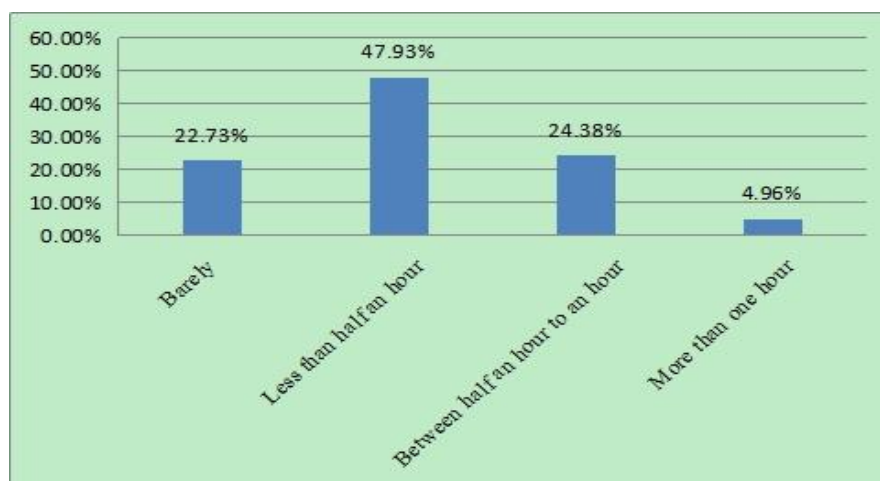


Figure 7 Distribution of Time Duration to Learn English by Using Mobile Devices

As to the purpose to learn English by using mobile devices, the respondents are different. 61.16% of them learn it with mobile equipment to strengthen basic skills of English, 71.94% to pass various levels of tests; 16.94% to understand more Anglo-American culture; 19.01% to prepare for future professionals.

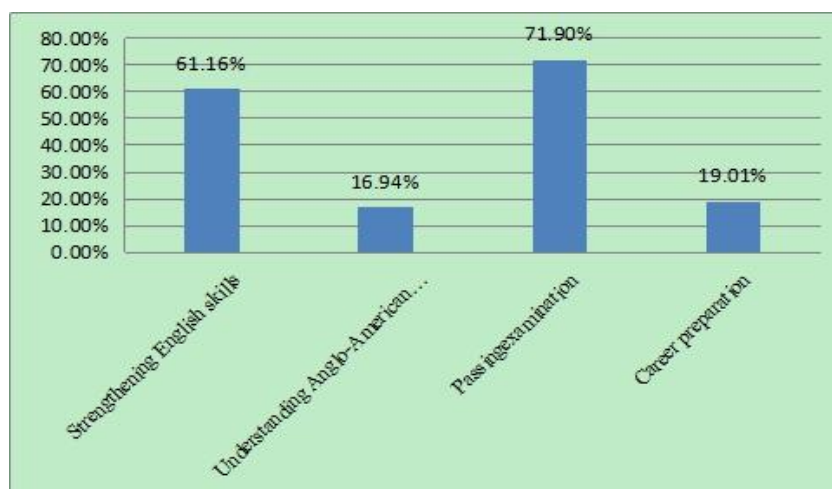


Figure 8: Different Purposes to English with M-learning

### B. Findings of Paper Questionnaires

The Project has distributed 100 pieces of questionnaires, and 74 questionnaires are recovered. Among the completed

surveys, 13.5% of them are from College of Chemical Engineering of BIPT, with sex ratio of 4 to 1; 13.5% from Material College with 7 to 3, 13.5% from Information Technology and Engineering College with 4 to 1, 59.5% from Mechanical College with 29 to 15; among the Mechanical College, 36.4% of the subjects are from specialty of the Process Equipment & Control Engineering, 22.7% from specialty of Oil Storage, 22.7% from specialty of Electron-mechanical Engineering, 18.25 from specialty of Energy and Power Engineering.

Among the 74 questionnaires, 67.6% of them admit that they know something about m-learning, 13.5% express that they are quite familiar with it, and 13.5% say they have never heard of it before. 21.6% of the subjects say they are interested in English, 35.1% are not in it; and 43.3% of the respondents are not good at English, with average level in English exam. In English learning, 18.9% frequently make use of the Internet, 67.6% occasionally with the use of mobile networks, 13.5% never with the use of it. 31.1% of the respondents use the mobile App to look up new words, 6.8% to improve listening comprehension by it; 36.5% of them say they use the App for both, and 25.6% use other various ways.

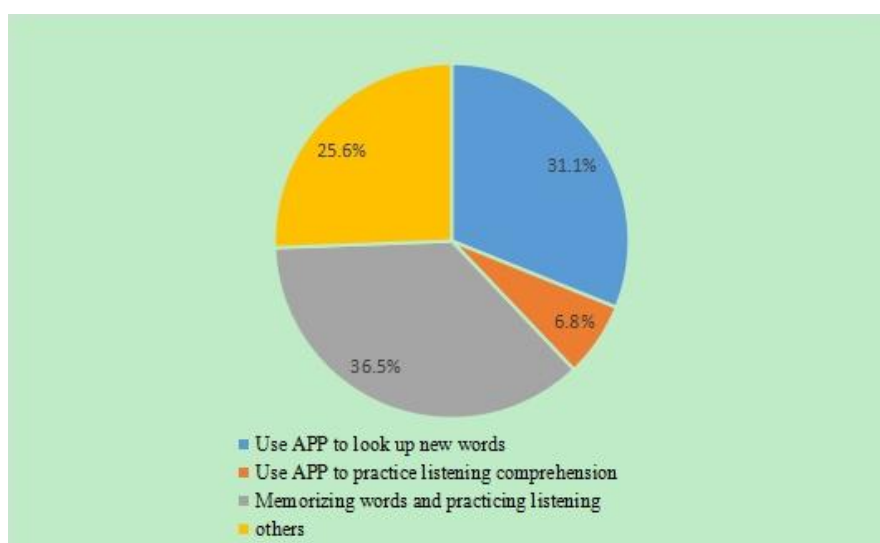


Figure 9: The Pie Chart Distribution of Purposes to Use the App

As to the types of the App, the findings are varied. 10.8% use Memory App, 6.8% with Auxiliary App, 36.5% adopt multifunctional App; 45.9% have not used the App. The reasons not to use any learning software for them are different from person to person. 30.3% are disturbed by other Web information to concentrate on English, 39.4% have varied reasons, 30.3% of them with sole reason. 29.7% of the students say they use the App to deal with difficulties in assignments; 20.3% use it before they go to bed; 25.7% when they get bored, 8.1% in waiting for a vehicle, 16.2% at other occasions. And 14.9% spend more than an hour, 17.6% between half an hour and one hour, 39.2% within half an hour, 28.3% nothing.

TABLE I.  
TIME DURATION TO LEARN ENGLISH

Over 1 hour	Between half an hour and one	Within half an hour	Zero
14.9%	17.6%	39.2%	28.3%

### C. Finding of E-Mail Survey

The survey group has sent 100 samples, the ratio of male to female 11 to 9; and the ratio from Level A and B is 3 to 7. Among them, 40% say they frequently learn English, 30% sometimes (so-so), 30% not frequent; 39% of the respondents are interested with English, 24% so-so, 37% not at all. 20% of them prefer to use Audio types, 50% video ones, 30% pictures. 80% of the interviewees think m-learning is effective, 20% with no use at all.

TABLE II.  
FREQUENCY TO LEARN ENGLISH

frequently	sometimes (so-so)	infrequent
40%	30%	30%

### D. Findings of Telephone Survey

The survey has 50 respondents. The ratio of male to female is 1 to 1, the ratio of Level A to B is 2 to 5. 20% of them are interested in English, 24% not strong, 56% not interested in it. 40% know something about m-learning or micro-learning, 22% not much, 38% nothing. 37.5% say the video is of most help; 25% are inclined to use audio, 37.5% with both, 12.5% for pictures. 40% of them have equipped with learning software, 60% not; 30% like to download materials to learn English, 20% by WeChat, QQ or other software.



#### IV. CONCLUSIONS

Obviously, the survey has both theoretical and realistic significance. On one hand, theoretically we get a basic map of English learning with mobile devices about Grade 2017 of BIPT. That is, from the online survey, we see there are 21.9% of the respondents with frequent use of mobile Internet to learn English; from the paper questionnaires, 18.9% of the subjects frequently make use of the Internet, 67.6% of them occasionally use mobile networks; and from the e-mail investigation, 40% of them say they frequently, 30% sometimes (so-so) use mobile devices to learn English. The data indicates that m-learning of English is acceptable or popular to some students.

On the other hand, realistically, from the data listed above, some proposals could be drawn to give the Dept. of Foreign Languages, or other administrations related with teaching affairs. 80.99% of Grade 2017 have a smart phone at least, so it is advisable for the teachers of English at BIPT to make good use of them in class as a teaching aid; 68.18% have portable PC, 27.69% with desktop PC, 19.42% with an iPad, and English teachers could regularly assign some quiz or share some websites to learn English with their students, for at least they have no worry about the mobile devices at all. And most of the respondents have not adopted radio broadcasting, MP3/MP4 and electronic dictionaries, they are not suitable in learning English in BIPT. Thus, we hope that the English radio broadcasting station be stopped using any more.

And, 83.88% of the students have been tending to use mobile App, and 90.08% of them often look up new words by using the Apps, so the English teachers are supposed to learn online technology to check the students' vocabularies by the App, or establish a series of rules and regulations to motivate them. As to the teachers of English at BIPT, they had better learn to make use of the widely adopted Apps,<sup>4</sup> <sup>②</sup> which are designed for English learning, so that they can have interactions with the students in or after class. And all levels of the administrations, like teaching section, network labs and language labs should be provided with online classroom and equipment, have the Apps installed, updated in time, and make sure they are smooth in use. To English Department, authorities of BIPT, a detailed teaching plan and program should be designed for the whole body of the students, not only Grade 2017, but also students of other grades, and prepare online resources for the teachers; the Institute should be responsible for the funds and projects to encourage the teachers, who could be pioneers in the field of m-learning.

Third, 48.35% of the students use mobile networks to learn English in finishing their assignments, 42.35% would like to use m-learning before going to bed; and 28.93% apply them into learning after class, so the three choices of the time to publish materials online are most effective.

For the students of Grade 2017, the subsequent tips are of importance to learn English with efficiency. Those 32.23% of the students, who are distracted by other online information, should have a plan to design and decide for their future career, or have other classmates to remind or supervise him at any time; 11.98% of them, who find slow speed of the Internet, are better to learn in the classroom of BIPT for a quicker flow of the Internet; 25.62%, who have no guidance or evaluation in learning English, can go to their English teacher for help or find a suitable App with such a system instead.

#### V. LIMITATIONS OF THE SURVEY

The reporter of the survey has some limitations as well. First, the investigators of the project have not given sufficient evidence to every finding, just analysis and synthesis with some figures. Second, the survey is merely a reporter of Grade 2017 at BIPT, an illustration of m-learning of English, but it has nothing to do with the respondents' mentality and psychology, which is a key factor to affect upon English performance. Third, the respondents of the survey are not inclusive from the whole body of Grade 2017, and the variables of the survey are far from absolutely reliable.

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4. For the students' convenience, the URT Project recommends the following as well to those who are not able to find any m-learning App or websites related to English. For spoken English practice, MyET, and Fluency English are good Apps, and website <http://dwz.xdfan.cn>; for English writing, [www. Pigai.org](http://www.Pigai.org); for word memorizing App, Bubeidanci(不背单词), Leici(乐词), Baicizhan (百词斩), and <http://www.shanbay.com>. The authors of the paper find them online, through Baidu search engine, <https://www.baidu.com>, 3/5, 2019.

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# An Ecological Analysis of Emily Dickinson's "The Grass"

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**Abstract**—As a burgeoning branch of applied linguistics, ecolinguistics mainly studies the influence of language on the sustainable relationships between human themselves, human and other organisms and even the natural environment. One of the most important approaches of ecolinguistic studies is ecological discourse analysis. For instance, the ecological analysis of natural poetry is bound to involve the hidden ideology and potential significance behind the discourse. Emily Dickinson, a famous poet in the United States, has written 1775 touching poems in her life, more than 500 of which are directly or indirectly related to nature and ecology. It has been discussed from different perspectives in the field of literary studies, but discussion from the linguistics perspective is still rare. Working within the framework of Systemic Functional Linguistics by M.A.K. Halliday, this paper tries to explore how the poem language expresses the writer's attitude and thought towards the nature through an ecological and linguistic analysis of Emily Dickinson's representative nature poetry—*The Grass*. The study shows that the poet's choice of language serves the meaning of the poem appropriately and that linguistic analysis of the poem can give implications for literary studies.

**Index Terms**—Emily Dickinson, ecological analysis, systemic functional linguistics

## I. INTRODUCTION

In a broad sense, ecolinguistics combines ecology and linguistics. British ecolinguists Alexander and Stibbe (2014) once gave a detailed definition of ecolinguistics: "Ecolinguistics is the study of the influence of language on the life-support relationship between human beings, other organisms and the physical environment. In other words, ecolinguistics focuses on how language forms, maintains, influences or destroys the relationship between human beings, other forms of life and the environment." (p.104)

One of the most important approaches of ecolinguistic studies is the ecological discourse analysis. For instance, the ecological analysis of natural poetry is bound to involve the hidden ideology and potential significance behind the discourse. Arran Stibbe (2015) divided discourse into three categories: beneficial discourse (such as nature poetry), ambivalent discourse and destructive discourse. This is the classification of discourse from the perspective of ecolinguistics. The reason why we want to promote, encourage and propagate natural poetry is because this kind of discourse reminds people to be close to nature, to love nature, to respect and to protect nature.

Emily Dickinson is a poet with strong artistic personality and regarded as one of the pioneers of modernist writers in the 20th century. Her poems are mainly about life, nature, faith, friendship, love and death. More than 500 of her poems are about nature. From the perspective of ecolinguistics, these poems belong to ecological discourse. She experiences nature carefully, observing everything around her, including animals and other forms of life. (Zhang, 2007, p.63) Through the poetry, she explores the relationship between human beings and physical environment and combines herself with the nature.

This paper is an attempt of ecological discourse analysis, which is based on Systemic Functional Grammars. The author tries to explore how the poem language expresses the writer's attitude and thought towards the nature through an ecological and linguistic analysis of Emily Dickinson's representative nature poetry—*The Grass*. The study shows that the poet's choice of language serves the meaning of the poem appropriately and that linguistic analysis of the poem can give implications for literary studies.

## II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Broadly speaking, ecological discourse analysis includes the analysis of ecological discourse and the ecological analysis of discourse. The former focuses on the discourses concerning ecology. The latter concerns the study of the ecological factors in the discourse, which can be extended to the study of the ecological and non-ecological factors in the language system. (Huang & Zhao, 2017, p.585) By this way, they always complement each other and should not be discussed separately, even in this paper.

As an analytic paradigm with grand target, ecological discourse analysis is concerned about the positive development of the ecosystem. It needs to be rooted in the philosophical thought and cultural tradition, and should be based on the theory of linguistics. Specifically, the relevant theories of System Functional Linguistics (such as Transitivity Theory and Appraisal Theory) have been integrated into EDA practice. For example, Bednarek & Caple (2010) analyzes the environmental report of the Sydney Morning Herald of Australia by using the Appraisal Theory. Stibbe (2015) makes a

functional analysis of the process, role and modality of neoclassical economic discourse based on Systemic Functional Linguistics. He Wei and Wei Rong (2017) initially constructed the transitivity analysis model of international ecological discourse also based on the theory of systemic functional linguistics.

In general, this paper is an attempt of ecological discourse analysis, which is based on the Systemic Functional Grammar and follows the assumption that "Form is the realization of meaning", with emphasis on the three meta-functions of language. According to Thompson (2004), each clause in grammar has three meta-functions at the same time: "we use language, mainly to describe our experience of the world, establish and maintain interpersonal relationships with others and organize our discourses." (p.64) These three meta-functions express different meanings, namely conceptual meaning, interpersonal meaning and textual meaning. Halliday asserts to regard language as an integral part of society and even the whole living system, and he especially emphasizes the role and influence of language in environmental protection and degradation. Otherwise, according to Halliday, human beings recognize the world and interpret experience through language, at the same time use language to create meaning and to construct the world. Their behaviors and words are determined by relationships between themselves with other humans or other species in the ecosystem, even the relationship with nature. (Huang & Zhao, 2017, p.586)

### III. SOME PRELIMINARY REMARKS ON POEM *THE GRASS*

American poet Emily Dickinson wrote more than 1700 poems in her life, though she has been isolated from the world since she was in her thirties. Thus it was not until a few years after her death that all her poems were discovered, collated and published, which gradually attracted the interest of people and the attention of experts and scholars at home and abroad. Some scholars found that Nature is one of the most important and major themes in her poetry. Frederick J. Pohl (2011), who points out that Dickinson has a wild love affair with nature and finds beauty, freedom, excitement and life in nature in his article *Emily Dickinson Controversy*. On the other hand, he also believes that Dickinson's poems reveal the author's scientific attitude towards nature to a certain degree. Song Xiukui and Zhou Qing (2007) deem that Dickinson's natural poems express the ecological idea that mankind and nature live together in harmony. She proposed that human should eliminate the idea of "Anthropocentrism" and develop the inseparable aesthetics conception between human being and nature. Her work also reflects a strong sense of distress and an invaluable ecological consciousness.

The poem *The Grass* is selected from the first series of *Emily Dickinson's Poems*. It is consisted of five verses: The grass so little has to do,—/ A sphere of green,/ With only butterflies to brood,/ And bees to entertain, // And stir all day to pretty tunes/ The breezes fetch along,/ And hold the sunshine in its lap/ And bow to everything; // And thread the dews all night, like pearls,/ And make itself so fine,—/ A duchess were too common/ For such a noticing. // And even when it dies, to pass/ In odors so divine,/ As lowly spices gone to sleep,/ Or amulets of pine. // And then to dwell in sovereign barns,/ And dream the days away,—/ The grass so little has to do,/ I wish I were the hay! //

This poem revolves around the main theme of "*The grass so little has to do*", describes the daily life of grass, and then expounds its elegant and glorious life. The first three sections are the author's detailed and even elaborate descriptions of various creatures in nature. Grass, butterflies, bees, sunlight, breezes and dewdrops have all become the author's companions, and in her poems they have become so beautiful and harmonious that readers can naturally feel their presence. All these natural objects are centered around the image of grass, in which the author depicts the pictures at day and night. During the day, the grass, butterflies and bees dancing in the breeze is very rhythmic. At night, dewdrops appear like pearls, glittering with beautiful light, and mirrored with green grass, It's another beautiful scene. The sudden emergence of duchess in verse 3 takes the reader by surprise. "A Duchess were too common For such a noticing." There was a lady of nobility emerging in the picture, but she did not know how to appreciate the beautiful picture or what was the beauty in the poet's eyes. In the next two sections, the author writes about the postmortem beauty of grass, which is so elegant and peaceful. Dickinson's imagination gave hay a good living space so that it had time to dream about the beauty of the past. The last sentence of the poem is the author's feelings, "I wish I were a Hay" is the embodiment of her true feelings, the love and infinite pursuit of nature, but also the desire for ordinary and free.

### IV. ECOLOGICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

As was mentioned above, this paper is an attempt of ecological discourse analysis, which is based on Systemic Functional Grammars. Generally speaking, linguists who adopt this approach are interested in relating the various kinds of linguistic structure and patterns to the functions that language serves and to the social settings in which it is used. (Liu & Wen, 2006) Following the assumption of that form is the realization of meaning, this paper tries to chiefly analyze the meta-functions of the poem.

According to Halliday (2014), each clause grammatically has three meta- functions namely ideational function, interpersonal function and at the same time textual function, i.e. we use language mainly to describe our experience of the world and to establish and maintain interpersonal relationships and discourse management. Thus, we will analyze the poem *The Grass* from the perspective of three meta-functions and then reveal how the poet expresses her attitude towards nature through language and reveals its ecological outlook.

#### A. Ideational Function

The function in which we conceptualize the world for our own benefit and that of others is called ideational function. (Liu & Wen, 2006). It is consisted of experiential function and logical function. The former refers to the environment, the relationship between the participants and so on, while the latter concerns the information provided by the arrangement relationship between discourse, such as juxtaposition, twist, cause and effect and condition. The grammatical system by which experiential function is achieved is that of transitivity.

The transitivity system construes the world of experience into a manageable set of process types, namely material process, mental process, relational process, behavioral process, verbal process and existential process. Each process has its own participant role. (Halliday, 2014) The material process refers to the “action”, which is the process of doing something and can express the unique behavior of the character vividly. Mental process expresses the psychological activities such as emotion, cognition and feeling, in which the participants are the perceptive sensor and the perceived phenomenon. Behavioral process refers to the process of physical activity, such as coughing, breathing, crying and laughing, in which the participants are the behavers. The relational process refers to the relationship between one object and another object or situation. The participants in attributive class are called the carrier and the attribute, and the participants in the identifying class are the identified and Identifier. The process of existence is the process of expressing the existence of something, and the participants are existent. The verbal process is involved in exchanging information through speech, and the participants are the speaker, the receiver and the content of the speech. Take an example: Those involving physical actions watching, dancing, cooking are called material processes. The ‘doer’ of this type of action is called the *Actor*: any material process has an Actor, even though the Actor may not actually be mentioned in the clause. In many cases, the action may be represented as affecting or ‘being done to’ a second participant: this participant is called the Goal, since the action is, in a sense, directed at this participant. (Thompson, 2001)

Firstly, from the angle of experiential function, there are twenty processes in the poem: nine material processes, three mental processes, four relational processes and four behavioral processes. From the perspective of the relationship between the participants and the process, the human character—I merely participate in one mental process (I wish I were the hay!). Obviously, sensor *I* and phenomena *the hay* are the participants. It means that I appear as an observer, stirring the awe of the grass, and finally producing an exclamation of praise. Relation to another character *the grass*, there are totally eleven process: seven material process(The grass so little has to do/ with only butterflies to brood/ stir all day to pretty tunes/ hold the sunshine in its lap/ bow to everything/ thread the dew all night/ dwell in sovereign barns); two mental process (make itself so fine/ dream the days away) ; four behavioral process (And bees to entertain/ The breezes fetch along/ And even when it dies, to pass/ As lowly spices gone to sleep) and two relational processes (In odors so divine/ Or amulets of pine). In terms of the type of process and the number of times it appears, *I* am just watching the dynamics of the leading role *grass* as a spectator.

From the point of view of the above experience function, we can examine this poem from two aspects from the angle of ecology. First of all, definitely, we can conclude that a typical kind of rhetorical devices—personification is used in this poem.

The bird is endowed with human attributes and is shaped in words as capable of acting like human beings. For instance, “The bird drank a dew from a convenient grass” can remind readers of a man drinking water from a convenient glass. By mental process, the *bird* is also described as having consciousness— “He did not know I saw”. Otherwise, the writer use the personal pronoun “he” instead of “it” to refer to a bird that underlines artistic portrayal of regarding animals as human beings.

As for logical function, what is involved is the semantic relations between two or more clauses. This function can be viewed from two perspectives: interdependent relation and logical semantic relation. interdependent relation can be divided into parataxis and hypotaxis. The former denotes reference, for example, in the sentence “Daniel says ‘My classmates treat me kindly.’”, the clause “My classmates treat me kindly” is projected paratactically by the clause “Daniel says”. Meanwhile, the latter can be comprehended through the example “Daniel says that his classmates treat him kindly.”, the clause “that his classmates treat him kindly” is projected by the clause “Daniel say”, and this clause cannot exist independently of the projective clause. It can be seen that the parataxis and hypotaxis are relative to the traditional direct speech and indirect speech respectively. Logical semantic relationship is expressed by expansion and projection. Halliday(2014) holds that in the form of projection, the function of clause is not the direct expression of non-linguistic experience, but the reformulation of language.

Throughout the poem, the interdependent relation between the other clauses except the last clause “I wish T were the hey” are parataxis and logical semantic relations are expansion. The use of parataxis-expansion mode is driven by meaning, because the theme of the poem is a series of my observation and description of the grass. In addition, the conjunction “and” is used for nine times, and mainly to indicate the connection of a series of the actions of the grass. For example, the use of the four “and” in first two verses is intended to highlight compactness and richness of daily activities of grass described in the first stage of poetry. It is certainly that the rest of the verses are for the same purpose.

### B. Interpersonal Function

The interpersonal function embodies all uses of language to express social and personal relations. This includes the various ways the speaker enters a speech situation and performs a speech act. Because the clause is not confined to the expression of transitivity, there are non-ideational elements in the adult language system. Interpersonal function is

realized by mood and modality. Mood shows what role the speaker selects in the speech situation and what role he assigns to the addressee. If the speaker selects the imperative mood, he assumes the role of one giving commands and puts the addressee in the role of one expected to obey orders. Modality specifies if the speaker is expressing his Judgement or making a prediction. (Hu, 2011)

As far as the particularity of this natural poetry is concerned, we can discuss about interpersonal function of this work in different ways and could examine the relationship between Emily Dickinson-the writer of poetry, and the target reader. First of all, we can learn from the present study that Dickinson hasn't been a well-known poet until she died. At that time, she had a total of more than 1,700 poems, but only seven were published. She's almost isolated from the world. By this way, the relationship between her and the target reader is limited to kinship and friendship, not to the author and reader in the strict sense. From another angle, natural poetry such as this reflects the value, ideology, mode of thinking, attitude to life and living environment of the writer personally. Zhang Dongmei (2007), for example, argues that Emily Dickinson's another poem "A bird came down the walk" is an expression of the author's ecological thinking: "Human beings are only a member of the natural community, coexisting with other creatures in nature." (p.65) Of course, the same is true of this poem, which uses a personified technique to write the noble and free life of the grass, and to give a sigh at the end to express the inner reverence of the grass. The poem also reveals that other creatures in nature also exist as independent individuals, not because we humans can control them.

### C. Textual Function

The textual function refers to the fact that language has mechanisms to make any stretch of spoken or written discourse into a coherent and unified text and make a living passage different from a random list of sentences. Textual functions are mainly embodied by thematic structure (theme and rheme), cohesion (cohesive devices) and coherence. The theme is the starting point of the discourse; the rheme is what is said around the theme, often the core content of the discourse. (Hu, 2011) In Systemic Functional Grammar, theme can be divided into two groups: marked theme and unmarked theme. The theme is called unmarked when it serves as the theme of a small sentence at the same time as the subject of it. For instance, "The prime minister" is an unmarked theme of the sentence "The Prime Minister met with the leaders of other countries yesterday". However, marked theme refer to the condition that the theme does not serve as the subject of the sentence, for example, "what" is the marked theme of "What happened to you?". Cohesion occurs when the meaning of one component in a text depends on the interpretation of another component. There are mainly five cohesive devices, namely reference, ellipsis, substitution, conjunction and lexical cohesion.

This poem is made up of seventeen thematic structures. We can see that the known information-the grass acts as an explicit or probably implicit theme in almost all of the clauses. For instance, the theme of "The grass so little has to do" and "And bow to everything" is certainly "the grass" and "And (the grass)" respectively. While there are still three clauses do not use "the grass" as the theme: "The breezes fetch along", "A duchess were too common" and "I wish I were the hay!" In a word, since most thematic structures are about the grass, the information structure is relatively simple, and the new information is basically about the daily behavior of the grass. Otherwise, the cohesive devices in this poem are reference (such as "the grass"←"itself"), ellipsis (such as "And (the grass) stir all day to pretty tunes") and conjunction (There are totally nine "and" in the poem). Like the other types of discourse, the use of various cohesive devices in this poem serves the coherence of the whole text.

## V. CONCLUSION

According to systemic functional linguistics, the use of language is the result of choice, and the choice is driven by meaning. The reason why a particular text expresses a particular meaning is the result of the choice of speaker or writer. In many cases, the speaker's choice of language form is cautious, purposeful and conscious, because only by choosing the suitable form can the proper meaning be expressed; while in other cases, the speaker's choice of linguistic form is subconscious or even unconscious. However, whether the choice is conscious or not, it is meaningful for discourse analysts and needs to be studied.

This paper analyzes Emily Dickinson's natural poetry *the grass* from the perspective of metafunctions in the framework of ecological discourse analysis and tries to explore how meaning is embodied by language through discourse analysis. The ecological thoughts of the writer and her attitude toward the nature is revealed in the poetry: All things in the world are equal, they all have their own purpose of reproduction, development, prosperity and death. They would exist for themselves rather than regard the welfare of mankind as the ultimate meaning of their existence. (Zhang, 2007) Undoubtedly, Dickinson concerns about the nature sincerely, even though she does not simply call for the protection of nature and ecology as explicitly as environmentalists. We can clearly realize her ecological philosophy and ethic from her observation and description of animals: The human being is only a part of nature. All things in nature are spiritually and closely connected and equal. Therefore, anthropocentrism is counter-ecological and anti-natural. Only when people comprehend the nature, fear the life, love the life and improve the environment can they walk through the course of life peacefully and harmoniously with other life forms in the nature.

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# Phonetics and Phonology Paradox in Levantine Arabic: An Analytical Evaluation of Arabic Gemimates' Hypocrisy

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**Abstract**—This paper explores the phonetic and phonological paradox between two categories of Levantine-Arabic long consonants—known as gemimates by looking closely at the hypocrite Arabic gemimates. Hypocrite gemimates are phonetically long segments in a sequence that are not contrastive. The paper seeks to demonstrate that Arabic gemimates can be classified into two categories—true vs. fake gemimates—based on the phonological process of inseparability and the Obligatory Contour Principle (OCP). Thirty Levantine Arabic speakers have taken part in this case study. Fifteen participants were asked to utter a group of stimuli where the two types of gemimates interact with the surrounding phonological environment. The other fifteen participants were recorded while reading target word lists that contained geminate consonants and medial singleton preceded by short and long consonants and engaging in naturalistic conversations. Auditory and acoustic analyses of long consonants were made. Results from the word lists indicated that while Arabic true gemimates embrace the phonological process of inseparability, Arabic fake gemimates do not. The case study also shows that the OCP seems to bridge the contradiction between these two categories of Arabic gemimates.

**Index Terms**—Arabic gemimates, epenthesis, inseparability, obligatory contour principle, CV phonology

## I. INTRODUCTION

Germination refers to a phenomenon in which two identical sounds co-occur at word boundaries or in one word. Germination is a term that has been defined differently by various scholars. According to Crystal (2011), germination is a term used in phonology and phonetics for a sequence of identical adjacent segments of a sound in a single morpheme. Mahendra et al. (2014, p. 1) define germination as “the attempt of the single tooth bud to divide with the resultant information of the tooth with a bifid crown and usually a common root and root canal”.

Germination and assimilation have received a significant attention in Levantine Arabic. According to Ladefoged and Maddieson (1996), gemimates as reported in various languages globally have been the critical source of debate regarding their phonological representation, phonetic implementation and the way to account for their specific behavior. A geminate within CV phonology is represented as a single melodic unit associated with two prosodic positions (Ball & Rahilly, 1999). Such representations which critically relies on the theory that syllabicity is embodied on a different tier from the melodic one has also received geminate consonant analysis including post-lexical gemimates.

Previous research on germination has focused mainly on word-medial germination, rather than word-initial and word-final germination, simply because word-medial germination is more common (Thurgood, 1993). Gemimates are usually found between two vowels, although some languages do allow word-initial gemimates, followed by a vowel, and word-final gemimates, preceded by a vowel (Davis, 2011). The rarest type of germination occurs with gemimates surrounded by consonants (Davis, 2011). Phonological analysis has focused on how gemimates are represented phonologically and how they can be distinguished from their singleton counterparts. Singletons are consonants surrounded by silence, diphthongs or vowels. This discussion has mainly revolved around autosegmental tiers and the linking of gemimates to various representations in these tiers, which represent different kinds of syllable structure (Davis, 2011).

Our argument here grounds itself on Kenstowicz and Pyle's (1973) argument of the notion of inseparability. We have adopted this notion here to reinforce the hypotheses listed below and to bridge the gap between those conflicting points of views of geminate representation in the light of CV phonology and the Obligatory Contour Principle. Kenstowicz and Pyle (1973) contend that there seems to be two fundamental and exotic characteristics of geminate sounds; one of which is that these sounds tend to resist vowel epenthesis, known as anaptyxis (Arvaniti & Tserdanelis, 2000). Their argument here advocates for the notion that geminate sounds compose some sort of tiers within the long sound itself, and breaking this union through an alien vowel seems resistible by the nature of these sounds per se. This actually brings us the contention of the representation of gemimates, particularly in Levantine Arabic. In other words, should these sounds be represented with the feature [+ long], or should they be represented as a cluster of two sounds whose internal fundamental segments are represented as a cluster of [- long] [-long]. Clusters are two or more

juxtaposed/contiguous consonants in the same syllable.

We also adopt Kiefer & Sterkenburg's (2012) assumption of inseparability of phonology that all phonetic processes essentially depend on morphological and syntactic structure (Kiefer & Sterkenburg, 2012, p. 970). By adopting this assumption, we respect the autonomy of phonology. Syntax and morphology play a critical role in specifying the character and range of certain sound changes.

In this regard, we have adopted the notion of inseparability to bridge the gap between such contentious views in Levantine Arabic geminates and to help us test the hypotheses listed below:

1. Arabic seems to have two kinds of long sounds/consonants (true geminates and fake geminates). While these sounds are articulatorily and orthographically perceived the same, they behave phonologically in a completely different manner. Arabic orthographies are the spelling and writing system of Arabic language. While auditory phonetics, as well as the orthographic form of the word, does not help Levantine Arabic speakers see through the actual identity of the geminate sound, Arabic phonology rules and Arabic phonology-morphology interaction provide the clues to those speakers to discern this difference between these two sub-categories of Arabic geminates.
2. While true Arabic geminates respect the notion of inseparability (integrity of the quality of the sound that cannot be negotiated and/or manipulated with epenthesis), fake Arabic geminates do not respect that in the sense that they are vulnerable to anaptyctic vowels.
3. When epenthesis transpires, the lexical meaning is maintained in fake-geminate Arabic words whilst this meaning is completely lost in true-geminate Arabic words.
4. In the light of the Obligatory Contour Principle, fake Levantine Arabic geminates tend to be represented as a cluster of [-long] [-long] while their true counterparts tend to be represented as a unit of sound that has the feature [+long].

## II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

One of the first studies investigating the gemination in Levantine Arabic is Obrecht (1965), which investigates the perception of gemination in Arabic. Obrecht (1965) focused on the contrasts between /b/ and /bb/ (in /'xabar/ "news" and /'xabbar/ "he informed") (32); between /n/ and /nn/ (in /'bana/ "he built" and /'banna/ "mason") (34); and between /s/ and /ss/ (in /'šabij/ "boy" and /'ššabij/ "the boy") (37). Obrecht (1965) manipulated the stop closure duration of each consonant with the pattern playback synthesizer, creating multiple versions of each consonant ranging in 20 ms intervals, which he then presented to native Arabic speakers in a forced choice task. Participants were primarily from the Levant who listened to the sibilant contrast. Obrecht (1965) found that the crossover point in identification differed between the different phonemes; the crossover points for the /b/-/bb/ and /s/-/ss/ contrasts occurred in the 140-160 ms range, while that for /n/-/nn/ occurred around 90-110 ms, which suggests that there is a duration distinction between obstruent and sonorant geminates, obstruent geminates perhaps being longer because of the greater difficulty in identifying them (39). Overall, Obrecht's (1965) study demonstrated that stop closure duration is a robust acoustic correlate of gemination that listeners can easily attend to, as perception of singleton-geminate contrasts was categorical, replicating earlier results from studies with stop closure duration by Lisker (1958) and Pickett & Decker (1960), Obrecht (1965), Lahiri & Hankamer (1988).

A few years later, Delattre (1971) investigated "the meaningful perceptual doubling of a consonant phoneme," mainly across word boundaries, but also within them (his main example of the latter being /r/ in French and Spanish) (31). Such a notion of gemination does not fit the accepted definition of gemination (as at the beginning of this section), but the phenomenon of gemination due to proximity is closely related to the issue of "fake" geminates that we are detailing in this paper. (None of these languages, in fact, is generally held to contain a singleton-geminate distinction). Delattre (1971)'s study is large, looking at English, German, Spanish, and French /n/, /l/, and /s/ and including radiographic measurements of articulatory movements; the acoustic characteristics he measured included 1) singleton and geminate consonant duration; 2) overall intensity (loudness) of singletons and geminates; and 3) the duration of the vowel preceding both singleton and geminate consonants. In English, "geminate" consonants are 1.4 times longer than singleton consonants, while German "geminate" consonants are 1.5 times longer than singletons (Delattre, 1971, p. 34). Spanish and French geminates are 1.8 and 1.9 times longer, respectively, than singleton consonants (Delattre, 1971, p. 36). These duration measures are comparable to those found by Ladefoged & Maddieson (1996), who reported, in their study of geminates from languages around the world, that "true" geminates are 1.5-3 times longer than singleton consonants in careful speech (92). Intensity measurements indicated that there was a difference in loudness between singleton and geminate consonants, /nn/ being somewhat lower in intensity compared to /n/, while /ll/ and /ss/ had greater intensity (Delattre, 1971). The vowels preceding geminates were not appreciably different from the vowels preceding singleton consonants; there were no length distinctions (Delattre, 1971). Delattre's (1971) study is important because it first demonstrated that there is a length distinction between singleton and "fake" geminate consonants.

Lahiri & Hankamer (1988) provide additional evidence for the importance of stop closure duration in identifying geminate consonants and, crucially, they demonstrate that there is no acoustic difference between geminates that occur tautomorphemically or by concatenation or total assimilation. So-called "fake" geminates, then, are acoustically identical to "true" geminates. Lahiri & Hankamer (1988) investigated acoustic differences between Turkish "true"

geminate voiceless stops /t/ and /tt/ and /k/ and /kk/ in order to determine the acoustic correlates of gemination, measuring 1) the duration of the preceding vowel, which Maddieson (1985) claims may be shorter before geminates than before singleton consonants; 2) the stop closure duration; and 3) the voice onset time (VOT) from the consonant burst to the beginning of a following vowel. Garcia-Sierra, Diehl, & Champlin define VOT as “the time interval between the release of the articulatory occlusion and the onset of vocal-fold vibration” (Garcia-Sierra, Diehl, & Champlin, 2009, p. 370). Results showed that vowel length was essentially identical before singleton and geminate consonants but stop closure duration proved to be a readily identifiable cue for gemination: Geminate consonants were, on average, 2.9 times longer than singleton consonants (Lahiri & Hankamer, 1988). These results were repeated with perception; Lahiri & Hankamer (1988) cross-spliced geminate stop closures onto singleton consonants, and Turkish listeners identified these 96% of the time as geminates (333). VOT was significant, overall, but cross-splicing stimuli with the opposite VOTs did not change identification of singletons versus geminate consonants. The average VOT difference was around 11 ms, so, while VOT did contribute to the identification of a stop as a singleton or geminate consonant, stop closure duration was the better acoustic cue (Lahiri & Hankamer, 1988, p. 331).

In order to investigate whether different acoustics were associated with geminates with different origins (whether they were tautomorphemic, heteromorphemic, or the result of assimilation), Lahiri & Hankamer (1988) recorded Bengali speakers pronouncing each of the three kinds of geminates, which exist plentifully in Bengali, and non-geminates. Like with the Turkish data, they found a significant difference between singleton /t, k/ and geminate /tt, kk/ stop closure durations, finding that Bengali geminates were roughly twice as long as singleton consonants (Lahiri & Hankamer, 1988). Differences in preceding vowel length were significant overall for singleton versus geminate consonants, but not for all speakers, as was the case with VOT in Turkish; VOT was not significant in Bengali (Lahiri & Hankamer, 1988). Importantly, there were no acoustic differences between geminates of different types, demonstrating that, despite their phonological origins, different types of geminates are acoustically identical (Lahiri & Hankamer 1988).

All of the previous studies have referred to word-medial gemination, whether “true” gemination or “fake” gemination, with the exception of Obrecht (1965), who included the word-initial geminate /ʃʃ/. The first experimental study investigating word-final gemination in Arabic is Al-Tamimi, Abu-Abbas, & Tarawnah (2010), which investigated word-final gemination in Urban Jordanian Arabic using spectrographic and videofluoroscopic evidence. They note that previous non-experimental research on word-final gemination in Arabic has been conflicting, with some linguists, such as El Saaran (1951) and Mitchell (1990), arguing for word-final distinctiveness, and other linguists, such as Ghalib (1984), arguing that gemination is non-distinctive word-finally (Al-Tamimi et al., 2010).

Al-Tamimi et al. (2010) recorded eighteen Levantine Arabic speakers from the city of Irbid saying the words /sad/ “water dam,” /sadd/ “closed,” /man/ “who,” /mann/ “did someone a favor,” /lam/ “never,” and /lamm/ “collected” three times in a carrier sentence, /ihki...ihki/ “say..., say...” (p. 115). Two separate judgment groups determined the familiarity of the words in the word list and the naturalness of the elicitations (Al-Tamimi et al., 2010). Al-Tamimi et al. (2010) measured preceding vowel duration and stop closure duration for the oral stops /d/ and /dd/ and preceding vowel duration and nasal murmur for the nasal stops /n/, /nn/, /m/, and /mm/. They found that vowels preceding singleton consonants were 1.4 times longer than vowels preceding geminates and that geminate consonants were 1.5 times longer than singleton consonants (Al-Tamimi et al., 2010). Videofluoroscopic evidence showed differences in muscular tension, with geminates being “produced with wider laryngo- and oropharynx, more elevated hyoid bone, narrower vertical distance between the uppermost point of tongue body and the roof of the mouth, more raised soft palate, and tighter and larger contact extents in comparison to the singleton consonants” (Al-Tamimi et al., 2010, p. 118). Al-Tamimi et al. (2010) theorize that a “temporal compensation” relationship exists between the shortened preceding vowel and the following longer stop closure duration of geminate consonants (121). The greater cue to gemination is the longer stop closure duration, but the shorter preceding vowel also contributes to the perception of a geminate by emphasizing the greater length of the stop closure duration.

Finally, Oh & Redford (2012) investigated acoustic distinctions between “true” and “fake” geminates in English, noting that conflicting results have been found for “fake” geminates. They point out that Lahiri & Hankamer (1988) did not find preceding vowel length differences between “true” and “fake” geminate consonants or between different types of “fake” geminate consonants in Bengali, whereas Ridouane (2010) did find preceding vowel length distinctions between “true” and “fake” geminates in Tashelhiyt Berber, with shorter preceding vowels before “true” geminates (Oh & Redford, 2012). An important difference between the two studies is that Lahiri & Hankamer (1988) investigated word-internal “fake” geminates caused by suffixation, while Ridouane (2010) investigated “fake” geminates formed from proximity across word boundaries (the same kind of gemination that Delattre (1971) investigated for English, German, Spanish, and French) (Oh & Redford, 2012). Oh & Redford (2012) theorize that the consonant to preceding vowel (C:V1) ratio would distinguish between “true” and “fake” geminates in Ridouane’s (2010) findings. They also argue that word-boundary strengthening effects could cause a difference in the C:V1 ratio between “fake” geminates occurring across word boundaries, where “boundary-adjacent syllable lengthening” would occur, and word-internal “fake” geminates (Oh & Redford 2012, p. 83).

Oh & Redford (2012) also suggest that there may be differences within the category of word-internal “fake” geminates depending on how decomposable the word is. Based on findings which support dual-route models of



processing, they argue that words may be processed holistically or decomposed into their basic parts (Oh & Redford, 2012). What this means for word-internal “fake” geminates is that those “fake” geminates which occur in words which are highly decomposable should pattern with “fake” geminates which occur across word boundaries, while those in words which are not as highly decomposable and should be represented as single consonants (rather than two) (Oh & Redford, 2012).

As the previous review of the acoustics literature on geminates suggests, both the type of gemination and the place of a geminate within the word may have different acoustic effects. Levantine Arabic “fake” geminates with /-t/ are word-internal and concatenated, so they may pattern either with other word-internal “fake” geminates (such as assimilated geminates, like /ʔaʃʃams/ “the sun”) and “true” geminates or with word-boundary geminates. There may or may not be vowel length distinctions before word-internal “fake” geminates, although the literature generally suggests that there will not be.

### III. METHODOLOGY

#### A. Participants

Thirty native speakers of Levantine Arabic have taken part in this experiment as judges of the epenthized words that have been uttered by a native speaker of Jordanian Arabic. Twenty-seven subjects speak Jordanian Arabic. Two subjects speak Syrian Arabic, and one subject speaks Palestinian Arabic. Out of the thirty subjects, four are women. The participants’ ages have ranged between eighteen and thirty years.

#### B. Procedure

The native speaker of Jordanian Arabic has uttered the list of words in Table 4 below. These participants were also audio recorded in a silent room while uttering the word list of long consonants in disyllables with medial VVCCV, VCCV, VVCV, and VCV structure. We digitally made the recordings at a 44.0 KHz 32-bit sampling rate using a Sony microphone voice recorder.

However, we faced a challenge designing near-minimal sets for the four types of syllables because of the low frequency of manifestation of target words with medial VVCCV structure. The subjects rejected certain words with this medial VVCCV structure thus, yielding a fewer tokens compare to other structures. The vowel after V2 and before V1 the target consonant in each case was /aa/ or /a/, although these were sometimes recognized differently by the speakers due to Imāla. All the Levantine long consonants were elicited in their geminate and singleton form; however, this paper results for liquids, nasals and stops: /r, l, n, m, k, d, t, b/. To obtain spontaneous speech, we asked the respondents to recall at least two incidents that brought saddest and happiest moments in their lives. Each of their stories lasted about four minutes.

Except for medial VV1CCV2 structure, we extracted 3 tokens per subject for each of the target long consonants in each syllable type from the wordlists for acoustic and auditory analysis. Durational measurement of V1 in milliseconds (ms), the medial CC or C target and V2 were designed using Praat Manual. Measurement of medial stops involved the closure duration, voice onset time and release burst with not attempt to separate in this case because the primary goal was to assess the overall consonant durations over different types of articulation and to compare them with the durations of the following and preceding vowels.

Table 4: Target words for each of the consonants and syllable types examined. We did not find tokens of /t/ with the medial structure VV1CCV2.

	V1CV2	V1CCV2	VV1CV2	VV1CCV2
r	baram barad harab	barram barrad harrab	baarim beerid heerib	maarra zeerra
l	ʕalam malak ʔalab	ʕallam mallak ʔallab	ʕaalam maalik ʔaalib	ʔaalle meelle feelle
n	bana sʕanaʕ ʔanaʕ	banna sʕannaʕ ʔannaʕ	beene sʕaaniʕ ʔaaniʕ	meenne haanne
m	ʕamal samaʕ hamal	ʕammal sammaʕ hammal	ʕaamil seemah haamil	ʕaamme seemme dʕaamme
k	hakam sakat sakan	hakkam sakkat sakkan	haakam seekit seekin	haakke seekke
d	ʕadad badal ʕadal	ʕaddad baddal ʕaddal	ʕaadid beedal ʕeedal	ʕaadde ʕeedde ʕeedde
t	katab ʔatal fatal	kattab ʔattal fattal	keetib ʔaatil feetil	
b	ʔabadʕ sabaʔ ʔabadʕ	ʔabbadʕ sabbaʔ ʔabbadʕ	ʔaabidʕ seebaʔ ʔaabidʕ	ʔaabbe seebbe ʔeebbe

We extracted comparable targets with nasals, liquids and stops from the unplanned interactions. As we expected, the frequency of occurrence of each syllable type and consonant was variable. The pattern with the highest frequency was medial V1CCV2I structure and the consonants with the highest frequency were laterals and nasals. We noticed only two incidences of disyllables with the medial VV1CCV2 pattern which occurred in an unplanned speech corpus. A total of 200 spontaneous speech tokens and 440 word-list were analyzed.

As the recordings have been done into two stages/periods, the means of word delivery is different in each of these stages. In the first stage, the native speaker has uttered these words while the subjects are sitting face-to-face with the deliverer. This stage, which has been done in two locations in Jordan, has involved twenty-seven subjects judging the delivered words. In the second stage, the deliverer's utterances have been recorded, and three subjects have listened to his utterances. The reason for carrying out the methodology this way is that we have not managed to get thirty speakers in the face-to-face interaction. Also, having carried it out this way has given us the opportunity to involve more speakers of the Levantine Arabic variety—Syrian and Palestinian Arabic speakers—in this stage.

As the notion of inseparability (vowel insertion) has been the focus of this stage, the vowel epenthesis has not been done randomly, but it is based on the Arabic phonology rules, as well as Arabic phonology-morphology interaction rules. More specifically, it has targeted how Arabic forms the plural noun from its singular one when the singular has a geminate sound in it and vice versa. Also, it has targeted how Arabic inflects and conjugates its past verb to refer to the third-person singular masculine when the verb root has a geminate sound in it. As mentioned earlier, we have avoided including any nasal geminate in this stage as our hypotheses regarding Arabic nasal geminates go beyond the scope of the notion of inseparability.

TABLE IV.  
ARABIC WORDS WITH GEMINATES UNDERGOING EPENTHESIS

Word	Word with Epenthesis
/sadda/	/sadada/
/hattaa/	/hatataa/*
/hatta/	/hatata/
/kattama/	/katatama/*
//dʒadda	/dʒadada/?
/dʒaddii/	/dʒuduudi/
/dʒadd/	/dʒuduud/
/dʒaddal/	/dʒadadal/*
/xaddii/	/xududii/
/xadd/	/xuduud/
/madda/	/madada/
/maddan/	/madadan/*
/habba/	/hababa/
/habbah/	/hababah/*
/habbaka/	/hababaka/*
/mutti/	/mutiti/?
/sitti/	/sititi/*
/mattana/	/matatana/*
/xatʔa/	/xatʔatʔa/
/xitʔah /	/xutʔatʔ /
/xatʔatʔa/	/xatʔatʔatʔa/*
/batʔah/	/batʔatʔah/* /batʔatʔ/*
/qitʔah/	/qitʔatʔah/ /qitʔatʔ/
/ruzzah/	/ruzaz/*
/muzzah/	/muzaz/

• The asterisk (\*) indicates that the word is unacceptable.  
• The question mark (?) indicates that word is a position of debate; some subjects agree that it makes sense while others contend that it does not, or it is not part of their lexicon.

We have controlled the independent variables here, which are gemination and epenthesis in relation to the dependent variables, which are the intelligibility of the sound and/or word in question and the underlying identity of the geminate sound: true or false. Based on Arabic native speakers' judgment of the different phonological and morphological environments in which these two types of geminate sounds occur, we have made some predictions regarding our hypotheses above, and we have reached the following results:

### C. Results

Based on Arabic speakers' judgments of the intelligibility of the words in the table above, it seems that there are two kinds of long consonants in Arabic. These two sounds, which some scholars call geminates (Catford, 1977; Mitchell, 1990; Al Tamimi, 2004; Blanc, 1952; Kenstowicz and Pyle, 1973; to name a few), seem to behave differently, therefore, showing a different degree of integrity. One example is the (near)-minimal Arabic pair /qitʔah/ and/or /qetʔah/ (meaning "a cat," and spelled orthographically in Arabic as "قطة") and /betʔah/ and/or /batʔah/ (meaning "a duck," and spelled orthographically in Arabic as "بطة"). All subjects have spelled these two words in Phase 1 with the Arabic gemination diacritic (Ash-shaddah, ّ) over the geminate sounds. When vowel insertion has taken place in these two lexical words to form the plural form, following the Arabic morphological scale, speakers have judged and indicated that /qitʔatʔ/ and/or /qitʔatʔah/ (meaning "cats") are the plural of "cat," but /batʔatʔah/\* and/or /batʔatʔ/\* do not make sense as the plural of /betʔah/ and/or /batʔah/. They have only accepted "/betʔtʔ/ and/or /batʔtʔ/ as the plural of the word /betʔah/ and/or /batʔah/ (meaning, "a duck").

Another example is the minimal Arabic pair /muzzah/ (which is a slang word meaning "beautiful/attractive girl" and/or "chick," and spelled orthographically in Arabic as "مزة") and /ruzzah/ (meaning "one piece of rice," and spelled orthographically in Arabic as "رزّة"). All subjects have spelled these two words in Phase 1 with the Arabic gemination diacritic (Ash-shaddah) over the geminate sounds. When vowel insertion has taken place in these two lexical words to form the plural form, following the Arabic morphological scale, speakers have judged that /muzaz/ (meaning "beautiful girls/chicks") is the plural of "muzzah," but /ruzaz/\* does not make sense as the plural of /ruzzah/. They have only accepted "/ruzz" as the plural of the word /ruzzah/ (meaning "one piece of rice"). This particular example gives as a clear indication that true Arabic geminates, unlike fake ones, are likely to violate the Arabic morphological scale to maintain their internal bonds/ties within the long segment.

Arabic almost depends on the tri-consonantal root of the word to conjugate and form different parts of speech and different conjugations of the same root. Tri-consonantal root is a root that contains a sequence of three consonants. It seems that the geminate sound in the word "ruzzah" has violated the rules of the Arabic morphology scale in forming the plural from the singular—although /ruzzah/ has the same morphological scale and/or syllabic structure as /muzzah/. Based on Arabic morphology, the tri-consonantal root of the word /muzzah/ is /m, z and z/, which is by analogy taken from the tri-consonantal morphological root /f, ʕ, and l/—the form that Arabic speakers are taught in school to depend on when adopting conjugations. The point to be asserted here is that based on the Arabic morphology, a singular form

that corresponds to /fuʕlah/ should be pluralized as /fuʕal/ and vice versa just like /ʕummah/ (meaning “nation”) and its plural form /ʕumam/ (meaning “nations”), /ʕummah/ (meaning “difficulty/unpleasant situation”) and its plural form /ʕumam/, and—as in our example—/muzzah/ and its plural form /muzaz/. This leads us to conclude that /ruzzah/ should be pluralized as /ruzaz/ to comply with the Arabic morphological scale of words of such analogy. However, the word /ruzzah/ has one and only one plural form in Arabic, which is /ruzz/. The geminate sound here has not submitted to the notion of epenthesis as its sister in /muzzah/, an issue that brings the notion that these two sounds have different degrees of integrity on the gemination scale. While the /zz/ in /muzzah/ is a fake one, the /zz/ in /ruzzah/ is a true one.

Another example that supports the hypothesis that Levantine Arabic geminates may actually belong to two classes that behave differently from each other comes from this set of words in Table 5 below.

TABLE V  
ARABIC INTERVOCALIC GEMINATE /TT/ UNDERGOING EPENTHESIS

/fiattaa/	/fiataaa/*
/fiatta/	/fiataa/
/kattama/	/katatama/*
• The asterisk (*) indicates that the word is unacceptable.	

Unlike our previous examples discussed above, which have been dealing with nouns, this set of words deals with verbs and functional words while the phonological position of the geminate is controlled. The Arabic word /fiattaa/ is a functional word with two meanings and functions. It could be a preposition meaning “until,” preceding Arabic nouns, but it could also precede verbs. In the latter, it then becomes an accusative function word. The word /fiatta/ is the Arabic word for (it) “eroded,” and the word /kattama/ means (he) “tried to obfuscate things securely and purposefully.” As we can see, the geminates in all these words are intervocalic. However, when we have attempted to epenthesize the Arabic diacritic al-fatha, which is the accusative marker in Arabic and which is described as a small diacritic over the sound as in ( َ ), subjects have indicated that /fiatta/ is the same as /fiataa/ (meaning (it) “eroded”), but /fiataaa/ does not mean /fiattaa/ (meaning “until”). They have also indicated that /fiataaa/ could be perceived as (it/he) “eroded” although it sounds odd and foreign to a certain extent. Some people might contend that we are looking at classes of words here of different nature, i.e., verbs vs. function words. To respond to this argument, we have attempted to epenthesize the geminate in /kattama/ (meaning (he) “tried to obfuscate things securely and purposefully”) to produce /katatama/ in parallel with /fiatta/ (meaning (it/he) “eroded”). This way, we have controlled the same part of speech and the same phonological environment of the Arabic geminate sound. Subjects have rejected /katatama/ as an Arabic word; they have indicated that it makes no sense. This is actually indicated with an asterisk in Table 4 and table 5 above. The results discussed here are not exhaustive of all the words included in Table 4. For more examples on this phonological discrepancy of Arabic geminates, more examples can be found in Table 4 above.

To test our third hypothesis above, we have attempted to measure the intelligibility of the words examined here using a t-test as follows: we have compared the underlying form of the word with the surface form—assuming that the latter is the one that has undergone epenthesis—in those words we think have fake geminates and those words we think have true geminates. For example, we have compared the intelligibility of the word /muzzah/ with its plural form /muzzaz/, which both have been accepted as lexical words in Arabic and whose geminates are thought to be fake ones under the notion of inseparability. We have designated a hypothetical intelligibility scale of 0–4. Every word in the underlying form has scored 4 on the intelligibility scale. When epenthesis occurs, if the word still makes sense, it has scored 4 on the same scale; if epenthesis has resulted in rejecting the word, the surface form has scored 0 on the same intelligibility scale. We have also controlled this systematicity regarding the underlying and the surface forms in the case of true geminates. For example, we have compared the intelligibility of the word /ruzzah/ with its supposed-to-be plural form /ruzaz/\*—while the former has been accepted as a lexical word in Arabic, the latter has not—whose geminate is thought to be a true one under the notion of inseparability. In parallel with the scale that we have adopted with fake geminates, we have designated a hypothetical scale of 0–4. Every word in the underlying form has scored 4 on the intelligibility scale. When epenthesis occurs, if the word still makes sense, it has scored 4 on the same scale; if epenthesis has resulted in rejecting the word by the subjects, the surface form has scored 0 on the intelligibility scale. Then, we have compared the means of the scores of the surface form in the case of fake geminates with the means of the scores of the surface form in the case of true geminates using the t-test and p-value.

Upon calculating and taking into consideration the means of the measurements in each category above and comparing it to the means of the measurements of the counterpart category and upon running a t-test to test our intelligibility hypothesis above, as well as the null hypothesis, which assumes that there is no difference in the intelligibility between fake epenthesized geminates and its true counterparts, we have obtained the results stated below. In our approach here, we have performed the t-test using paired data. We have also adopted the two-tailed test to see if the means could differ in both directions. In addition to that, we have also assumed that the variances are equal.

While the means of the intelligibility score of fake epenthesized geminates is 3.3 out of 4, the means of the intelligibility score of true epenthesized geminates is 0 out of 4, ( $P < .001$ ). This means that the difference is extremely significant. At the same time, while the standard deviation of the intelligibility score of fake epenthesized geminates is 1.52, the standard deviation of the intelligibility score of true epenthesized geminates is 0. The results of the t-test here support the intelligibility hypothesis here regarding the difference between true and fake geminates in Levantine Arabic.

According to results obtained, the difference is very significant as it is extremely smaller than Alpha. This intelligibility relationship between fake epenthesized Arabic geminates and their true counterparts is plotted in Figure 1 below:

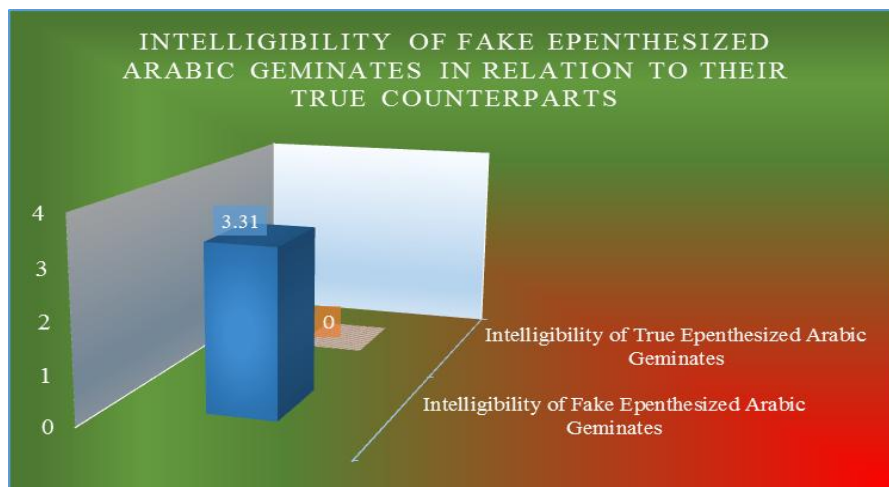


Figure 1. The Intelligibility of Fake Epenthesized Geminates vs. True Geminates in Arabic.

#### IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This stage of this case study has attempted to examine how Arabic geminates seem to behave differently. The data collected here tend to pose a very challenging issue regarding the interaction between phonetics, more specifically auditory phonetics, and CV phonology. Based on the notion of inseparability (vowel epenthesis), it seems to be the case that while Arabic speakers tend to auditorily and orthographically perceive two types of geminate sounds the same, when the CV phonology of Arabic interacts with its Arabic morphology sister, clues are given to native speakers to help them see through the true identity of the geminate sound in question.

Both nouns and verbs seem to be vulnerable to both kinds of geminates. For example—as we have seen—while the geminate sound /zz/ in the word /muzzah/ (meaning “beautiful girl”) has submitted to vowel epenthesis to derive the plural one (/muzzaz/), the geminate sound /zz/ in the word /ruzzah/ (meaning “one piece of rice”) has resisted vowel epenthesis to manufacture a plural form like /ruzaz/\*. Instead, it has maintained its integrity manufacturing the plural form /ruzz/. Both of these words belong to the same part of speech, i.e. nouns. However, the geminate sound in the latter has maintained its true identity and resisted epenthesis.

In fact, another intriguing example has come from Al-Qamuus Al-Muhit<sup>6</sup> by Fairuzabadi (1887), an authority dictionary in Arabic in general and Levantine Standard Arabic in particular. Two intriguing words are listed in the dictionary. Examining these words and how the plural forms are created makes compelling evidence that Arabic geminates tend to belong to two categories of long sounds. The dictionary has the word /dzuθθah/ (meaning “dead body”) and the word /ʕuθθah/ (meaning “moth”) (Brame, 1970). These two words seem to challenge the way the literature has defined geminates. Much of the research that has been done in this regard brings to light that geminates require exaggerated muscular tension done by the active articulators involved in their articulation. In this regard, the articulators are held in a position accompanied by maintaining a longer blockage (occlusion) period for the geminate contoid production (Catford 1977, p. 298). It seems that the literature has been dealing with geminates as stop sounds; however, the pair of words listed above deals with fricative geminates. The argument to be made above is that while Al-Fairozabadi—who compiled the dictionary based on older Arabic dictionaries and based on how early Arabs had talked—listed the plural of /dzuθθah/ as /dzuθaθ/, he listed the plural of /ʕuθθah/ as /ʕaθθ/. Although this pair of words was not within the set of words listed in Table 1, when asked, subjects have agreed that /ʕaθθ/ is in the lexicon of Arabic as the plural of /ʕuθθah/, but the plural of the word /dzuθθah/ is /dzuθaθ/, not /dzaθθ/ in parallel with /ʕaθθ/.

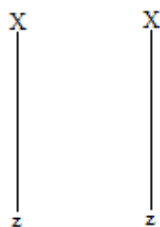
Not only are Arabic nouns vulnerable to both types of geminates (true and fake), but so are Arabic verbs (Kenstowicz, 1994). An example discussed earlier is the verb /fiatta/ that has gone vowel epenthesis resulting in /fiatata/ (meaning (it) “eroded”). However, the geminate sound in the verb /kattama/ (meaning (he) “obfuscated things on purpose”) does not accept epenthesis, resulting in a non-sense Arabic word.

Another example that should be examined is the Jordanian and Palestinian Arabic epenthesis in /mutt/ (meaning “I passed away”) and its variant /mutit/, which has maintained the lexical meaning of /mutt/. In contrast with that, it does not seem that this epenthesis works with /sitt/ (meaning “a lady’s title” and/or “grandmother”). When /sitt/ undergoes this sort of epenthesis, the outcome is a non-sense word (sittit\*). These findings also reinforce Abu-Salim’s (1980). He contends that in Palestinian Arabic /fut-t/ (meaning “I entered”) is vulnerable to epenthesis, resulting in /futit/, which still carries the meaning of /fut-t/, but /sitt/ seems to resist this epenthesis, /sittit/\*. If we are to take /mutt/ and /futt/ as the underlying monomorphemic forms, and if we are to take Arabic singular nouns as the underlying forms of the plural

ones, the findings here seem to contradict what some of the literature has claimed particularly about true geminates; geminates are assumed to be true in monomorphemic words (McCarthy, 1986).

This leads us to conclude that it seems that these sounds have different representation on the phonological CV tiers. According to Broselow (1992), while fake geminates should be interpreted as a re-articulation of the consonant itself, true geminates should be viewed as one and only one sound that maintains its singularity over two timing slots. The following diagrams explain this discrepancy:

a) The phonological tier representation of the fake Arabic geminate in the word /muzzah/:

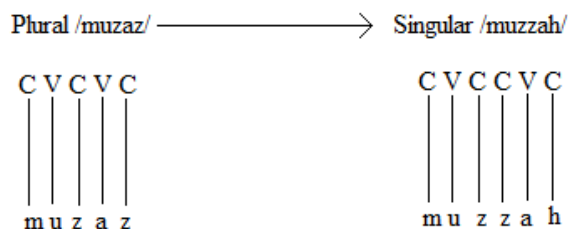


b) The phonological tier representation of the true Arabic geminate in the word /ruzzah/:

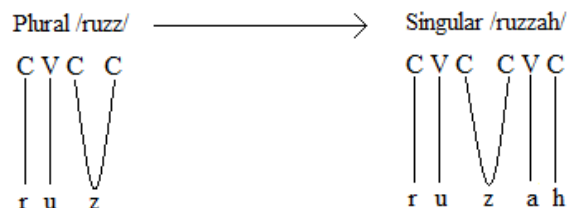


By adopting these phonological tier representations of Arabic geminates, we believe we can bridge the gap between those contentious views of geminate representation in the field. The above geminate representations tend to compromise the different points of views of representing geminates. While the first representation here indicates that geminates of similar nature are fake ones, the second representation indicates that geminates of similar nature are true ones. This representation or distinction between these categories of geminates does not also seem to contradict the Obligatory Contour Principle in the following perspectives. It seems that the plural noun in Arabic is the underlying form of the singular one. For example, /muzaz/ is the underlying form of /muzzah/ and /ruzz/ is the underlying form of /ruzzah/. The Obligatory Contour Principles tends to claim that sequences of identical segments should be precluded. If we encounter a cluster of such segments, it is because the underlying form of such segments has a segment that once has broken this cluster, yet this segment has been deleted in the surface form. If we examine the examples of Arabic nouns we have investigated thus far, we could assume that the singular form has come from the plural one, which had a vowel that once broke this cluster that appears in the surface form, the singular noun.

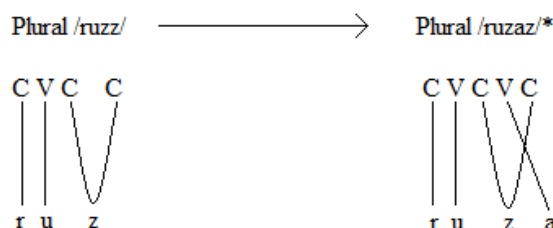
On the other hand, since the Obligatory Contour Principle is relevant to singly-linked adjacent segments, this does not contradict the behavior of true geminates, which are multiply-linked segments as the OCP tends not to question that. This also leads us to contend that fake geminates accept epenthesis because they do not have the capacity to have internal ties that correspond to a single multiply-linked line. At the same time, those geminates that do not accept epenthesis have the capacity to have internal ties that correspond to a single multiply-linked line. These findings also seem to explain the constraint on crossing association lines. That is, while fake geminates accept epenthesis, true ones do not due the ban that results from crossing association lines. The following diagrams explain this:



The CV tier representation of the fake geminate in the Arabic word /muzzah/ and its plural form /muzaz/



The CV tier representation of the true geminate in the Arabic word /ruzzah/ and its plural form /ruzz/

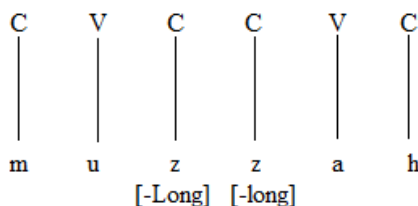


The CV tier representation of the true geminate in the non-sense plural Arabic noun /ruzaz/ and its plural form /ruzz/

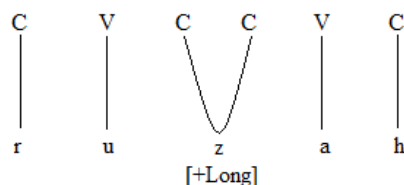
\*The asterisk indicates that the word does not exist in the Arabic lexicon due to the violation of the constraint on crossing lines.

Based on these different representations and in the light of the Obligatory Contour Principle, we could assume that fake Levantine Arabic geminates tend to be represented as a cluster of [-long] [-long] while their true counterparts tend to be represented as a unit of sound that has the feature [+long]. The following CV representations show this discrepancy:

Levantine Arabic Singular /muzzah/



Levantine Arabic Singular /ruzzah/



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# Hybridization in Economic Activities in Samuel Selvon's *The Lonely Londoners* and *Moses Ascending*

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**Abstract**—Samuel Selvon (1923-1994) is a representative writer in Caribbean literature. His Moses trilogy is famous for the preoccupation with issues of identity. My paper employs Homi Bhabha's theory of hybridity to construct the identification of Creoles'. From the perspective of economic, *The Lonely Londoners* and *Moses Ascending* deal with the fractured and disjointed economic activities on the Londoners and Moses' economic life, which cover from general economic life to personal economic behavior. The hybridization of economic activities helps Creoles walk out of the tough period and be able to support themselves. It is an effective way for them to be free from colonization economically.

**Index Terms**—Samuel Selvon, decolonization, economic hybridization

## I. INTRODUCTION

Homi Bhabha put forwards the famous theory of Hybridity in his book *The Location of Culture* (1994). He indicates that "Hybridity is the sign of the productivity of colonial power, its shifting forces and fixities; it is the name for the strategic reversal of the process of domination through disavowal..." (Bhabha, 1994, p.159) Hybridity, as Bhabha defines, is "the name of this displacement of value from symbol to sign that causes the dominant discourse to split along the axis of its power to be representative, authoritative." (Bhabha, 1994, p.159) It is a negotiation to deal with two cultures.

The process of Creoles' economic hybridization can be divided into two phases. The first phase is the phase of attachment. That is to attach to capitalist economy. When the Creoles first settle down in London in the 1950s, they face an extremely severe challenge of living. They have no business, no funds, without any form of finance to support. And all of them face the same dilemma. They can't help each other. They have to stay in the bottom, being engaged in physical work because of their low degree of education and the language barrier. But when they live through the toughest period, their life has improved a lot and they quickly transit into the next stage—the phase of imitation and learning. That is the phase of being hybridized. During this period, they have some funds after their everyday expense. They learn how to consume from the Londoners and some of them begin to own some properties and become the capitalist class, beginning to make money like those capitalist Londoners. Some people of them even realize that culture could bring wealth and move towards the industry of culture, gradually melting in their main stream of economic life.

## II. HYBRIDIZATION IN ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES

### A. Phase of Dependency—*The Lonely Londoners*

The severe economic environment is the major reason for them to be in the phase of attachment. In *The Lonely Londoners*, Selvon says that "every man on his own" (Selvon, 2008, p.21). It is also a substitution of "Londoners" for the Creoles. More importantly, the fear of survival, in the shadow of the real Londoners, is more notable. Money determines everything. When they first come to London, they don't have money. They live in some sort of anxiety. Selvon clearly indicates this anxiety about the welfare office in *The Lonely Londoners*:

A job is all the security a man have... When a man out of work he like a fish out of water grasping for breath. It have some men, if they lose their job it like the world end, and when two-three weeks go by and they still ain't working they get so desperate they would do anything. (Selvon, 2008, p.29)

A job in such circumstances is desperately needed. Therefore, the welfare office plays an indispensable role: it ain't have no place in the world that exactly like a place where a lot of men get together to look for work and draw money from the welfare state while they ain't working. Is a kind of place where hate and disgust and avarice and malice and sympathy and sorrow and pity all mix up... A place where everyone is your enemy and your friend. (Selvon, 2008, p.29)

The British working class has gained a complicated feeling towards these people. They couldn't tolerate that the immigrants may get job before them. There is also a hybrid mixture of sympathy, sorrow, and pity with disgust, avarice, and malice. But the British people are experiencing a tough time with them together. Because of the Second World War, the economy of most capitalist country has been injured. London is during its receding-economy period. There are not

many job vacancies but there are a great many job demands. During this period, the work they have found is at night for that most white people are not willing to be on night duty. They even could not tell the fact they are immigrants before the job interview, or they may not even get the chance to have an interview. These people help each other; they introduce the job opportunity to each other because they have to depend on each other during this tough time. They have also imagined the life when they have money. But they don't seem to have the awareness of spending money like Londoners. Their life is confined in their circle. Moses has once said "I was still ready to go back home. I used to go by them shipping offices and find out what ships leaving for Trinidad, just in case I happen to raise the money ..." (Selvon, 2008, p.129) they don't blend into London society. Even they have lived in here for a long time; they are thinking about making money and leave for home rather than spending money like Londoners.

The second reason for the phase of attachment is that it is not mature for any individual to develop economic activities independently. An individual's power is too small. They have to unite to reinforce their financial basis. So there is a unique character formed naturally in Creole circle—whenever a newcomer comes to London from their hometown, the age-old Creole in London will go to the wharf to pick him up and lead him to adapt to the London life. Moses is a kind of this role. When Galahad first comes to London, he picks him up and does some introduction. He also offers a lot of help to him. When they finish every week's work, the boys come to Moses's place for their Sunday gatherings. It is actually a "retreat ... into the narrow confines of ... home". (McCulloch, 1983, p.127) But Galahad is not a fellow that has the obedience to follow him. He tries very hard to make Moses feel that he is a strong man who can take good care of himself. But after some time he spends in London, he slowly finds it is not easy to live in London. When Galahad first dates a white girl in London, the heavy pressure of sex and money are resolved not in terms of what he feels, but in terms of what he thinks his public expects. Aware of his social status and personal property he has difficulty in his identity. He has to get rid of "shame to bring the girl in that old basement room" (Selvon, 1985, p.76) in that "the boys would never finish giving him tone for spending all that money and not eating". (Selvon, 1985, p.76) Lack of money is the major reason contributing to the form of a community. They have to pay for the rent and food; they have to make a living. All the money they get from work is used up for everyday life. They don't have money to entertain themselves. After work, they can only gather together and have nowhere to go except their living place. When they go into Moses' room, they find a shelter where they can escape from an exhausting world. It becomes its own micro society with its own multiplicity of relations, duties, and possibilities. Here in Moses' room, they find a sense of belonging which they can only find in their own circle because they don't belong to the London society. Even they live in here, they work here and they work for them or with them, they don't get their status in London. They are only attached to the society. Indeed, Samuel Selvon implies that Moses' room plays as a "church", (Selvon, 1985, p.122). In many aspects, the Creoles have been pursuing salvation in their gatherings. They come to unburden themselves, to confess the week's trials. More than anything else, their failure is redeemed and is transformed into another form of positive thing. When they could not satisfy themselves with materials, they can only have mental support. The condition of the shallow space seems to lower the significance of material and property but reinforce their friendship and community. Far away from London society, they find a subtle form of wealth that is based on their individual needs and hopes rather than any kind of wealth. Through that, they feel successful and strengthful and even achieve a measure of personal satisfaction.

#### B. *The Hybridized Economic Activities—Moses Ascending*

After the Creole immigrants experience the toughest period in London, everything begins to turn good. Most of them have some capital and properties and begin to learn how to consume or how to deal with money from those Londoners. They begin to launch a series of hybridized economic activities. "Selvon's satirical look at black home ownership, landlordism, and memoir writing provides his revised—but still politically attuned—1970s view of the London of migrants' everyday lives". (Dyer, 2002, p. 113)

First of all, the hybridized economic activities are reflected in the male immigrants' relationship with females during this period. In London, they have the feeling that "loins are useless". (Gilmore, 1990, p.42) When Bart suffers a variety of humiliations from the girl he loves, he feels that "he has failed at being a man". (Gilmore, 1990, p.42) London is a city where money is the dominant measure of significance and worth, even the sexual relationships. Sexual relationship is built up on money. Without money, they are not able to develop any relationship with women. Evidently, "money dominates even the most intimate relations in the city, making it impossible to form any long-term relationships for any immigrant. Even if they begin, it is rather difficult for them to keep it because the stress is too heavy." (Msiska, 2009, p.18) But when these immigrants have gathered a sum of money, they could not only watch or imagine or just show they have no interests, they begin to build their sexual relationship. But they could afford those London girls. They are more willing to build relationships with the prostitutes especially the white ones. This kind of relationship is in fact a relationship of employment. Only at these moments, they feel that they are not the employee but the employer.

The second typical case during this economic-hybridized period is the shift in economic relationship among these immigrants in *Moses Ascending*. Samuel Selvon chooses Moses as the center role because he lives in London for a long time and seems to adapt to the London society more than his fellows. What's more, he has taken part in a lot of economic activities and changed his pattern of economic behavior. His change for the most part reflects the economic hybridization. The first thing he does is to buy a big house.

Nevertheless Galahad didn't know one arse about houses: it's true some of these terraces in London look like they

might capsize any minute, but united we stand, divided we fall, and knowing Tolroy as I do, it stand to reason that he would not of bought no end-of-terrace house, but one plunk in the middle what would have support on both sides. (Selvon, 2008, p.2)

When Moses shows his interests in the house, his original social status hasn't changed. His personal relationships with his old Creole fellows haven't fallen apart as well. During that period, he still thinks the community of their fellows is important, which affects their survival and living condition in the big city like London. This is the typical colonial economy. They are exploited and squeezed in their local place by the colonial power. They have to depend on themselves. They must combine. And they have no capitals or opportunities to get away from the control and to become independent. Leaving from their poor hometown and living in London gives them this opportunity. They watch and learn as well as gather capitals. Moses is a guy of that pattern. After working hard so many years in London, his efforts have been paid off. His mind begins to change, too. He begins a new pattern of making money like local Londoners.

"If you let out rooms you can make you money back in no time at all. Besides, you will be a landlord and not a tenant." It was this latter point which decided me in the end. After all these years paying rent, I had the ambition to own my own property in London, no matter how ruinous or dilapidated it was. If you are a tenant, you catch your arse forever, but if you are a landlord, it is a horse of a different colour. (Selvon, 2008, p.2)

After that, Moses stops looking for jobs. Ever since, he makes a living by renting rooms. He becomes a landlord. Most of his tenants are immigrants from poor countries. He then has the initiative in economic activities. Therefore, we can foresee that after he gets the initiative, Moses thinks that changes also happen in personal relationships. When he becomes a homeowner and landlord, he becomes preoccupied with his station in life and attempts to enforce a "parting of the ways" between himself and his former fellows. He begins to give up those personal relationships because he thinks they are of no more use to him. Instead, he opts for public affairs. We can define that his awareness of self-consciousness is arising. He realizes that he can depend on himself and gets away from the former small community. Ever since that, he has melted into the economic environment of London society. He begins to get far away from his former circle. They gradually vanish from Moses' life and become part of his memory.

Moses has lost most of his relationship with his former fellows. His relationship with people around him begins to change into some kind of economic relationship. Former friends come to visit him for money not for friendship any more. The first one who comes to him is Galahad. In *Moses Ascending*, he becomes a crazy fan for political and racial movement. He is some kind of leader in this organization. They fight for justice, independent and equality, which Moses doesn't show any interests in. He only cares about how to make money and how to blend into this society quickly. But their political movement is in need of money. They need to find a financial support. So Galahad finds Moses. At this time, their friendship is gone. They haven't talked about any old times. Galahad wants desperately the financial support from Moses. But Moses enjoys this kind of feeling. He achieves great kind of joy and satisfaction from this. Not surprisingly, the only relationship Moses has in his life is economic relationship. However, he enjoys this feeling.

I cannot tell you what joy and satisfaction I had the day I move into these new quarters. Whereas I did have a worm's eye view of life, I now had a bird's eye view. I was Master of the house. I insert my key in the front door lock, I enter, I ascend the stairs, and when the tenants hear my heavy tread they cower and shrink in their rooms, in case I snap my fingers and say OUT to any of them. (Selvon, 2008, p.5)

In this paragraph, Selvon uses a lot of "I" to show that the self-consciousness of Moses begins to sprout after he has economic foundation. His "self-consciousness undermines the masculine assertion". (Schwenger, 1984, p.14) The economic relationship between his tenants and him becomes the most important relationship in his life. From then on, his thoughts shift in financial and social status. He begins to pursue for "public visibility". (Hearn, 1992, p.3)

Thirdly, the economic relationship between the immigrants and the white people has begun to change, which is also important during the economic hybridization. Their economic relationship is not traditional. The whites' monopoly position in economy has broken up. The shifts in economic relationship that occurs in the passage from *The Lonely Londoners* to *Moses Ascending*, are located in the surface shifts in his relation to the ordered economy. Moses makes Bob, his white servant and tenant to serve for him as a way to pay the bill, which facilitates Moses' entry to ordered economy by making him an employer, which also keeps him in the subversive relation to the immigrants including Moses, Galahad and even Brenda. Thus, Moses finds that his greatest comforts by emphasizing the material over the emotional, the public direction over the private motivation, and the global trope over the local circle. Bob doesn't have money to pay the rent. Then things develop in another new direction. Bob takes his girlfriend, Jeannie, another white girl to Moses' house and lives. From these analyses we know that the significant change in the immigrants. Like Moses, or there might be some other immigrants who have broke down the old economic relationship and become the dominant people in an economic relationship. We also find that in London, some white people even live a more tough life than the immigrants. The reason lies in that they are probably illiterate or they are too lazy to work for money. And from Moses and his black companions we believe that once they work hard, they can afford themselves a good life.

There is also a fourth aspect of economic hybridization. That is their step into the cultural industry. Samuel Selvon doesn't write much in this aspect because it is just sprouting and is in its rudiment. From *Moses Ascending*, we are informed of the fact that black people have their own literature. They have powerful writers to write powerful books. Moses is an example. He is fond of writing his Memoirs. At first, he only writes for fun. But then he treats writing as a job and thinks himself as a writer. He begins to live a kind of life he could not expect before. He thinks he is a writer

and that is a job that is exclusive to white people. And of this job, he employs himself. This belongs to another kind of economic relationship. Then he realizes that when he finishes his Memoirs, he can print them to sell. And this has two advantages: first is that they can make the white world notice them, knowing their existence and struggle; second is that he can make money through this. This small step in cultural industry is a big step in economic hybridization. The shortcoming is that they are not well educated before. To develop their own cultural industry, there is still a long way to go.

### III. CONCLUSION

The Trinidadian people in the postcolonial age full of bright hope come to London, “the epic trajectory of Selvon’s London”, (Ingrams, 2001, p.34) trying to find the cohesion between different nations, which is expressed in “exile, Black oppression, British racism, capitalist exploitation and so on”. (Brown, 1996, p.35) The interactive impact finds its extreme expression in aspects of economy as well as in politics. This kind of hybridization may be more notable and direct because economic problems have a close relationship with people’s survival condition. Despite the fact that Selvon describes these people as “a bunch of lazy loafers”, they are actually a group of economic-affairs-obsessed people, constantly concerning about jobs, work conditions and the wage that come with them. Their economic behaviors are gradually hybridized in a subtle way. From *The Lonely Londoners* to *Moses Ascending*, during the period of almost 30 years, their life style has changed remarkably. The hybridization of economic activities is more notable and direct because economic problems have a close relationship with people’s survival condition. And the hybridization of economic activities is more than significant for their struggle for decolonization. The importance of economic hybridization lies in that the economic activities is the most fundamental among all kinds of activities. Their living conditions all depend on them. Once they settle their economic life, they can even start their political life or cultural pursuit.

The hybridization of economic activities has great meanings. First of all, they get used to the London society and London lifestyle, and they begin to make money like the local Londoners. When they first come to London, they have nothing. They have no house to live in. they have no job. They have no money to spend. They have to live in a small community, depending on each other. One single person’s power is too small. They have to be united. But after they have adapted to London society, they begin to learn from them on economic aspects. They learn how to make money through doing business. At the beginning, it is rather difficult for them. Because there are a lot of local people in want of making a living where there are not so many job vacancies compared with them, they are less educated and don’t have any skills. They have to compete with the local people to find a job. They work with the local people. And gradually they have blended in the London society and their economic activities become a part of the whole economic activities. They are, to some extent, fostering the recovery of London economy. They keep doing some kind of low-paid jobs that the local residents are unwilling to do. They do most of the duties on night. They become the essential part of the London labor.

The second aspect is that they begin to have capitals and become capitalists. They begin to have their own industry. Some of them launch a shop, selling something or offering some service; some of them buy a big house and become a landlord; some of them even pay the white people to work for them. These changes show that the old economic relationship between white people and the immigrants has collapsed. The former economic relationship is very single but now it becomes complicated. In the past, the black people are always the employed while the white people are always the employers. The white people are always the ship-owners, landlords, labor contractors while the black people are always clerks, tenants, and workers. The immigrants are not always been employed and the white people are not always the employers. The economic relationship has changed definitely.

The third aspect is that some of the immigrants start to set foot in cultural industry. Black people have the awareness of raising their cultural level. They also have the awareness that culture is a form of wealth, which could bring money. They are no longer confined to the labor work. Writing and selling memoir is only a beginning. From then on, they may emphasize the effects of education more and more. The white people will notice them and pay attention to them. Maybe one day, they will have their own cultural industry. Stepping into the cultural industry is the most important example of economic hybridization, which may never happen in their hometown. They have not even imagined this in the past days in their hometown. The background of London endorses the Creoles this.

The immigrants have made achievement in economic hybridization. They have changed the single economic pattern and made it more complex. They have brought new vigor to the economic atmosphere of London. At the same time, the hybridization of economic activities does well to the immigrants, too. It helps them walk out of the tough period and be able to support themselves. It teaches them to learn new pattern of living. However, they just begin their journey and there is a long way to go.

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# Teaching Chinese Culture in College English Classes in the Context of Outreaching Strategy

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**Abstract**—Although a consensus has been reached internationally on the importance of teaching home culture in foreign language education, this is still debated in China. By ignoring cultural factors, some regard English as simply a tool and believe linguistic skills to be the core of English teaching, especially in teaching English to non-English major students. Most, on the other hand, have recognized the intertwined relationship between language and culture, thus support intercultural language teaching. As Byram (1997) notes that both home culture and target culture are parts of the knowledge an “intercultural speaker” should possess. In spite of the growing emphasis that has been placed on intercultural communication competence (ICC) by policy makers in the context of “Chinese Culture Going Global Strategy”, it is neglected in practice and is still in secondary status. This phenomenon is especially widespread in integrating Chinese culture into college English courses and there are many problems and challenges in its implementing. Therefore, after discussing the rationales of involving Chinese culture in teaching college English, some suggestions are provided.

**Index Terms**—College English teaching, outreaching strategy, intercultural communication

## I. INTRODUCTION

Since the beginning of the new millennium, China has been playing an increasingly important role in the world economy, and more recently, the Chinese government has started to devote more resources to increasing Chinese cultural influence. This can be seen through national policies such as the “Chinese Culture Going Global Strategy” (Yang, 2014). However, the development of “cultural China” has far lagged behind the economic China or political China (X. Wang, 2018, p125). The Chinese government has realized this, and has taken efforts to disseminate Chinese culture and shape the national image for political and economic purposes. The spread of Confucius Institutes around the world serves as a good example. Under the background of Outreaching Strategy to keeping cultural confidence in globalization, English teaching has become a key issue and questions about identity, culture, status of English and course design are raised.

The status of English in China has always been a contested issue (Gil & Adamson, 2011). The fundamental contestation of English teaching in China lies in different objectives of learning a foreign language, notably the two conflicting objectives of learning a foreign language from different perspectives. One is from the utilitarian angle which sees language as a technical tool for communication. Cai (2017, 2018) is a strong advocate of this view. The other views English education as both instrumental and humanistic; therefore, it is more than a language training programme but an indispensable part of General Education. Its purpose is to improve student competence not only in interlingual but also intercultural communication (S. R. Wang, 2011, 2016). Still, there are educators who interpret ELT (English language teaching) from political and sociocultural point of view (Feng, 2009, 2011, 2015), which depict language teaching in a much deeper and broader context.

Based on different understandings of language leaning purposes, educators have developed various theories and proposed diverse English course designs, some of which conflict with each other. Nevertheless, most accept that language is far more than just a tool, as Gadamer (1976) notes language is fundamentally a “social, cultural and historical phenomenon” (cited in Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013, p15). In teaching or learning a language, issues like culture and identity are unavoidable. However, this is not unanimously agreed in China. In spite of the growing importance put on intercultural language teaching by policy makers, it is neglected in practice. Therefore, the focus of this paper is on discussing the rationale of integrating Chinese culture in College English courses and proposing some suggestions of implementation.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Culture and Language

The complex term of culture involves aspects from the “anthropological” view (ways of life, values, beliefs); as well as from humanistic view (arts and media) (King, 1997). However, the dichotomy between practice system and symbol system of culture is not helpful in language teaching and learning as it “divides meaning and action” (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013: 22). Sewell (1999) states that these two systems are not contradictory but complementary. And “to engage in cultural practice means utilizing existing cultural symbols to accomplish some end” (p. 47).

Therefore, in language learning, the understanding of culture as a united system of the two is essential and it requires going beyond a view of culture as a body of static knowledge about any specific society (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013). The relationship between language and culture according to Fishman (cited in C. Baker, 2011: 59) is, on one hand, a langue indexes and symbolizes its culture; on the other hand, culture is partly created from its language. Accordingly, the closely intertwined nature between culture and language, as W. Baker (2012) puts it, makes it hard to “teach language without an acknowledgement of the cultural context in which it is used” (p. 62).

In spite of the close inner connection between culture and language, “it is possible for someone to have high proficiency in two languages but be relatively monocultural” (Baker & Wright, 2017:16), as in some cases of foreign language graduates. This shows it’s relatively easy to master a language linguistically, however, to “act interculturally” is more demanding (Feng, 2009).

W. Baker (2012) argues that effective communication need not only technical skills of a language (English) such as syntax, lexis or phonology, the “ability to make use of linguistic and other communicative resources” in various contexts and relationships are of the same importance (p. 63). He goes on to maintain that no language can be culturally neutral, not even a lingua franca. Since the function of language is for communication, it bounds to include the key elements of “people, place and purpose”. None of these “may exist in a cultural vacuum” (p. 64).

Liddicoat & Scarino (2013) demonstrates the interrelationships between language and culture in communication in a diagram which presents “the language-culture interface as a continuum” (p. 26).

TABLE I.  
INTERCULTURAL LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING LIDDICOAT & SCARINO (2013)

Culture most apparent	←		→	Language most apparent
World knowledge	Spoken/written genres	Pragmatic norms	Norms of interaction	Norms of linguistic form
↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
Culture as context	Culture in general text structure	Culture in the meaning of utterances	Culture in the positioning of units of language	Culture in linguistic and paralinguistic structures

This figure shows the intertwined relationship between language and culture from macroscopic aspect including world knowledge, where culture is the focus, to microscopic aspect of linguistic, where language is the focus, in the continuum. Despite the variety of the appearances, language and culture are both “integrally involved across the continuum” (p. 26).

This depiction of relationship between language and culture demonstrates the essence of teaching and learning a language --- culture exchange, which is some sort of consensus reached among educators (Byram, 1997; Gudykunst, 2004; Holliday, 2009; Feng, 2007, 2009).

### B. Culture, Language and Identity

As to the relationship between language and identity, Baker & Wright (2017) believe in forming the identity of a group, region culture or nation, language is “one of the strongest symbols and boundary markers” (p. 469). In other words, language is “an index, symbol and marker” of identity (p. 66).

Garcia (2009) also believes the function of language is more than just “semiotic or symbolic”; it is also “rhetorical”, “used to discursively construct identity and solidarity” (p. 82). This identity function becomes essential in the encountering of people from different linguistic and cultural background in the process of globalization and in, on a larger scale, language teaching and learning. Postcolonial identity involves not only “sameness” but by extension “otherness” and the development of hybrid identities which involve plural language practices (p. 83).

Liddicoat and Scarino (2013) describe the challenges of identity posed by language learning in two questions: first “who am I when I speak this language?” and second “how am I when I speak this language?” (p. 23) Their intention is to emphasize the complexity of culture and individual’s relationships with culture. When learning a language, an individual is exposed to the encountering of cultural exchanges between home and target culture individually. This is when, in some cases, cultural identity is challenged. For example, will a Chinese learner of English doubt about his/her identity in the intercultural language learning?

Baker & Wright (2017) discuss the intertwined relationships of language, culture and identity in explaining the dynamic of an individual’s identity. They state that the individual’s identity is “not fixed, given or unitary”, because it is socially generated and developed by the using of language and “intentional negotiation of meanings and understandings”, namely, culture (P. 469).

Gudykunst (2004) defines this cultural identity as “our social identities that focus on our membership in our cultures” (p. 66). Thus, this interrelationship among language, culture and identity makes learning a new language and culture more complex than just add more linguistic and cultural resources to an individual’s repertoire. Though this knowledge may generate new possibilities and broaden the learners’ vision, it also “creates a need for mediation between languages and cultures and the identities that they frame” (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013: 23). This mediation of the relationships among the three makes intercultural communication competence essential in language teaching and learning.

Based on the dynamic and interactive relationships among language, cultural and identity, language teaching and learning is more than just linguistic and communicative skills, but as Byram (1997) notes to be sociolinguistic, critical cultural and political issues. Its purpose is to cultivate competent “intercultural speakers” (Byram, 2008:57) who are

able to “enunciate his/her identity of origin rather than trying to be someone else with a different identity” (Feng, 2009:286). After reviewing three notions of multicultural, bicultural and intercultural speaker Feng concludes that, in Chinese context, where strong emphasis is put on national identity, “intercultural speaker” is the realistic objective in our bilingual education (p. 292).

### C. ICC in Language Teaching and Learning

The concept of ICC (intercultural communication competence) origins from Hymes’ (1972) Communicative Competence which emphasizes on the sociolinguistic competence of using language appropriately. Though Byram (1997) criticizes it as misleading in transferring the description of first language acquisition and communication into that of foreign language teaching and learning, the concept of sociolinguistic competence sheds light on putting FLT into a broader context, because it groups linguistic competence as one kind of cultural competence. Van Ek (1986) develops this concept into his “framework for comprehensive foreign language learning objectives” (cited in Byram, 1997:9), the six competences of which focus on not just linguistic and communication skills but the personal and social development of a learner as an individual in general education. This emphasis on sociocultural competence sets the stage for the development of future FLT models.

By downgrading the importance of linguistic competence and national difference, Gudykunst (2004) focuses on effective communication with strangers in intergroup encounters. He stresses the importance of understanding cultural differences and developing relationships with strangers. From psychological factors of communication, he presents the three components of perceived competence, namely, “motivation, knowledge and skills” (p. 233). This novel perspective of seeing intercultural communication is enlightening, though not comprehensive.

Based on the models of Van Ek and Gudykunst, Byram (1997) develops his understanding of ICC, describing in chart as “Factors in Intercultural Communication” (p. 34). In this mode, the political education and critical, cultural awareness is its core, supported by attitudes and knowledge emphasis on both home and target culture as well as skills of interpreting, relating, discovery and interaction (p. 34). This model presents comprehensively the factors involving foreign language learning and teaching from sociolinguistic, sociocultural, psychological and political aspects. It is quite illuminable especially in recognizing the importance of home culture, albeit being a framework without much description in details.

As is discussed above, in teaching and learning a foreign language, intercultural competence enjoys an essential status among other competences. And home culture is of the same importance as the target culture, if not more. There are even some scholars who maintain that there is no absolute difference when we communicate interculturally and intraculturally to stress the importance of home culture (Gudykunst, 2004). In addition, intercultural foreign language teaching is widely regarded as a fundamental part of general education. However, these well accepted ideas are contested in China, some of which are contested vehemently, which is represented by, for example, the debate on the status of English and course design of College English.

## III. DISCUSSION

### A. Contest on Teaching Chinese Culture in College English Classes

Though there is some sort of consensus reached internationally on the importance of intercultural communication in foreign language education, and it is well accepted that both the home culture and the target culture are part of the knowledge an intercultural speaker should possess (W. Baker, 2012; Byram, 1997), intercultural communication in English education in China is debated and in practice mostly ignored, not to mention the teaching of Chinese culture.

The core of the debate is on what being the fundamental objectives of college English teaching and its course system, namely, English for General Purpose (EGP) or English for Specific Purposes (ESP). As one strong advocate of ESP, Cai (2017) claims that the most important goal of English teaching in university should be cultivating students who are both professionally competent and are fairly fluent in English communication (ESP). He also believes that College English education should not belittle the instrumental role of English, because “the most significant function of a language is a tool of communication” (P. 3). He even regards the choice of an ESP course over a course like Chinese Culture as “wise”, when class hours of college English is reduced to a limited 180 in two academic years (Cai, 2018).

S.R. Wang (2011), on the other hand, believes ESP, together with EGP and English for General Education (EGE), is one part of College English teaching (p. 3). He disagrees with Cai that ESP is the only way to the future development of college English teaching in all colleges and universities (Cai, 2018). S.R. Wang (2011) also states that College English teaching should help students understand Western civilization (including ways of thinking and living habits), look at Western culture and core values with a critical eye, be familiar with Chinese and foreign cultural differences, and cultivate intercultural communication skills. That’s the reason why *Requirements on College English Teaching* (2007) define the nature of college English as “both instrumental and humanistic” (p. 3). In his “Interpretation of *Guidelines on College English Teaching* (2017)”, S.R. Wang (2016) reiterates humanistic quality of English teaching and emphasizes on its intercultural communication, whose importance has begun to be accepted by many policy makers and shareholders (The Guideline, 2017; Zhang, 2012; Gu, 2016; S.R. Wang, 2016; Sun, 2016).



Despite the growing recognition of ICC in English teaching in China, there are still many problems in practice. The most prominent two, according to Zhang (2012), are firstly; cultural teaching is an accessory to language teaching thus it is not systematic. Secondly, the unclear objectives and incomplete teaching content have long been a troubling issue.

### B. *The Rationale of Involving Chinese Culture in CET*

#### 1. The requirement of the new era

The “Chinese Culture Going Global strategy” was first put forward at The Fifth Plenary Session of the 15th Central Committee of the CPC, in 2000 (Yang, 2014). Sun Jiazheng, the then Minister of Culture, interpreted it in 2002 as:

disseminating contemporary Chinese culture by penetrating into the mainstream international society and the mainstream media, ... to establish a brand-new image of contemporary China, and build our country into an international cultural center based on Asia-Pacific and facing the whole world.

This ambitious target of “international cultural center” means well in promoting the status of Chinese culture in the world. Whereas, it is against the nature of ICC development of de-centering thus serves more as a political and ideological concept. Nevertheless, this idea then was gradually improved and developed to be a mature strategy in *the Outline of the National Plan for Cultural Development in the Eleventh Five-Year Plan Period* in 2006. The core of the strategy is to actively participate in international cooperation and competition by making full use of the domestic and international markets and resources so as to form an open culture pattern which may interact with foreign cultures and may promote Chinese culture to the world. The major measures taken in the field of foreign cultural exchanges include expanding foreign cultural exchanges and channels of communication, cultivating export-oriented backbone cultural enterprises, and implementing major outreaching projects.

This emphasis on culture is well acknowledged by policy makers in education, for example, the integration of intercultural communication in college English teaching is written in *The Requirements* (2007). Dai and Wang (2015) also stress the importance of the understanding and mastery of Chinese culture in foreign language teacher training in the context of outreaching strategy. The ultimate goal of foreign language teaching, as Zhang (2012) puts it, is to improve intercultural communication competence of emotion, attitude, knowledge and skills. Only in this way, can foreign language teaching contribute to the development of the society and satisfy individual needs in the process of globalization.

#### 2. To keep cultural confidence

The international culture and language exchange has never been equal. Holliday (2009) believes that in cultural politics, the west “projects concepts of a culturally superior Centre-Western Self and an inferior Other onto the rest of the world” (p. 148). Hannerz (1997) claims that in cultural flow, the periphery is “more the taker than the giver of meaning and meaningful form” (p. 107). Though Chinese culture, with its profound cultural foundation, is not periphery in traditional sense; it is mostly a taker in global cultural hybridization. Liang and Zhang (2018) also express their concern about “more importing than outreaching” in language exchanging (p. 100). To keep our cultural identity in cultural exchange, and to further introduce Chinese language and culture to the world, we need to strengthen traditional Chinese cultural education, especially in intercultural language teaching classes like college English.

#### 3. The nature of language leaning

Language learning, according to Liddicoat and Scarino (2013), is both an act of learning about the other and the self. Because when learning a language other than their mother tongues, the learner unavoidably brings “more than one language and culture to the process of meaning-making and interpretation”. Therefore, “to enter other culture is to re-enter one’s own” (p. 2). In other words, it is impossible to learn a foreign language or culture without taking one’s own language and culture into it. The process of encountering with the other is always involving knowing, assessing, comparing with their own.

Due to the limitation of communicative language teaching, foreign language education has turned to intercultural communicative language teaching and its objective is to improve students’ intercultural communication competence. When defining ICC, Byram (1997) stresses the importance of home culture in all the factors of ICC, namely, attitude, knowledge and skills:

Attitude: curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend belief about other cultures and belief about one’s own. (p.50)  
 Knowledge: of social groups and their products and practices in one’s own and in one’s interlocutor’s country, and the general processes of societal and individual interaction. (p.51)  
 Skills of interpreting and relating: Ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to documents from one’s own. (p.52)

Therefore, incorporating home culture into the curriculum of language teaching, especially college English teaching is not only the requirement of this era in the context of Chinese Cultural Going out Strategy but also the need to keep cultural confidence in unequal international communication. It is also decided by the nature of language learning.

### C. *Challenges and Suggestions*

#### 1. The complexity of teaching culture: what and how to teach?

In their review of culture and language learning, Byram & Feng (2004) conclude that the new emphasis for language teachers and researchers is “cultural teaching and researching as well as ICC in language teaching” (p. 164). The importance of integrating intercultural competence into English learning and teaching has been widely recognized, but one of the challenges remains as “moving from recognition to the development of practice” (Liddicoat & Scarino,

2013:1). In language teaching and learning, culture has been understood as national attributes, societal norms, symbolic systems and practices, which reveal the complexity of teaching culture (p. 17). Therefore, the primary question is “what and how to teach”.

In the context of Outreach Strategy, it becomes popular to involve Chinese culture in language classes to improve students' ICC. However, many teachers mistakenly believe that introducing some cultural knowledge in class is intercultural education (Zhang, 2012). This misconception is common. For example, in my university, teaching Chinese culture for most teachers equals to translation (C-E) of short passages on Chinese customs, foods, places, festivals, traditions, arts and so forth. The enthusiasm stems from the assess requirement in College English Test band 4 and 6 (CET-4&6). Though this test-driven action may help students learn some knowledge of Chinese culture in English, it may not change their attitudes on home and target culture and it may not help them improve the skills to act interculturally.

The effective intercultural language teaching is more than just teaching the knowledge about home and target culture, but as Feng (2009) puts it “bring two or more cultures into relationship” and “mediate among different values, beliefs and behaviours”, finally become “intercultural speakers” (p. 286). For example, when discussing gender inequality in job hunting, teachers may guide students to find gender prejudice in other fields of the society both at home and abroad. The choice of the sub-topics of gender inequality may include: Marriage, economy, politics, entertainment industry, language, workplace, health care and military. Then teachers may encourage students to compare this issue in different regions of China (e.g. north vs. south; city vs. countryside) and in the world (Not necessarily English speaking countries, but other regions and countries like: Europe, India, Middle East, etc.) In this way, critically comparing Chinese culture with other cultures in English is helpful in improving students ICC, because it provides students with the opportunity to deal with the problems or topics relevant to their lives.

However, there is the danger of going to another extreme by focus solely on Chinese culture in English class. Yu and Van (2018) have implemented action research in English reading class by asking students to find different English texts from various media about one topic (e.g. Beijing Opera; Yin and Yang). They believe, by seeing from different perspectives of a cultural issue, the students will “become more cautious in speaking of the Chinese or any other culture for that matter” (p. 369). I know some teacher who is also doing the similar project in teaching mostly Chinese culture in English class. Nevertheless, the benefit of improving students' ICC is limited by discussing a topic solely on one's home culture, despite the great variety of it. That's why Cui (2009) reminds us “the moderate principle” which means we cannot change the nature of English courses. Byram (1997) states that comparative studies are helpful in raising awareness of the complex process of social interactions. This comparison, I believe, refers to international cultures, that is, between home culture and other cultures.

## 2. Should we have textbooks?

Culture seems to be too huge a topic to be organized in a textbook. In addition, as beliefs, meanings and behaviours which are dynamic and individualized, it is also believed impossible to do so. There are also the issues of representativeness of different social groups. All of these are the reasons many scholars do not advocate the compiling of cultural textbooks, which they believe only will make culture static and prejudiced (Byram, 1997). Instead, only framework of guidelines is provided.

However, as a college English teacher myself, I believe it is of vital importance to have intercultural English textbooks for College English teachers in China. And with the reminding of the complexity of culture and suggestions on how to use these textbooks wisely in the preface, it will be quite beneficial to both the teachers and students. The reason lies, firstly, in the disparity of teachers' linguistic levels as well as their cultural awareness in different universities and regions. High quality textbooks which are updated regularly may serve as a valuable training material and reference to the teachers who have limited resources. As is shown in Xu's survey, 63.4% teachers and 74.6% students use textbook as a main source to teach and learn English (2008).

Secondly, it is an efficient way of getting quick information. There are indeed a large amount of resources for intercultural English learning, including written texts, videos, audios, music, multimedia, websites, apps and so forth. But college English teachers in China are usually burdened with heavy teaching tasks of about 14 periods of classes a week on average. It would be too demanding for them to collect information from various media and organize them into their class all by themselves. On the other hand, with a well-organized textbook, it will be far more efficient and time-saving.

Present college English textbooks, whereas, have focused mostly on linguistic skills and introduction of culture of English speaking countries, with little or no introduction of home culture or comparison of the two. The last couple of years have witnessed some progress in involving home culture, but it is far from satisfactory. For example, in the textbook of “New Progressive College English” (Li, 2017), one reading passage about the discussed topic in Chinese context is added at the end of each unit. Nevertheless, there is no guidance or suggestion on how to use this passage in the “Teacher's manual” (Ji, 2017), such as how to organize class activities to compare home and target culture, how to help the students to improve their intercultural awareness and ICC or how to assess students' intercultural learning results. Instead, the suggested teaching plan is all about linguistic skills and the rest parts are language focus and keys to exercises. What's worse, in “Teaching Goals”, home culture or ICC are not mentioned at all. This neglect reveals the textbook compilers' real attitude: the objectives of English teaching are still mainly to achieve linguistic progress. It

shows the complexity and difficulty of involving intercultural communication effectively, even though the importance of which is well recognized.

### 3. Are the teachers ready?

Byram & Manuela (2018) believe language educators should consider their “important role and responsibility” in educating university students ready to “live and thrive in multilingual and multicultural societies, including their own” (p. 141). Gu (2016) also states it is more demanding to language teachers after the shift of EFL to intercultural communicative language teaching (ICLT), because the teachers should not only be interculturally competent themselves, but also be equipped with the methodologies of cultivating students’ ICC.

However, some educators assume that when they teach a language, they automatically teach culture or even intercultural competence (Byram & Manuela, 2018). This misunderstanding is universal. Gu’s nation-wide survey on EFL teachers’ perception and practice of assessment of ICC in China shows they are not ready. In spite of the teachers’ realization of the importance of ICC and willingness of integrate intercultural language teaching in the curriculum, the result of the survey reveals the secondary status of ICC in language learning and the insufficient and even inaccurate understanding of ICC from EFL teachers themselves (2016:263).

It is a pity that the available teacher trainings currently are mostly in fields of linguistic skills, pedagogy and teaching research; few are about intercultural communication competence; still fewer about the critical comparison between home and target culture. Therefore, such ICC training to intercultural language teachers is urgent, and this void of teacher training needs to be filled.

### 4. How to assess?

Assessment is the most conflicting and obscure part of ICC, as Gipps (1994) notes that “Assessment is not an exact science” (p. 167). Although Byram (1997) develops assessment criteria of ICC in five aspects of his model, he admits that all aspects of ICC cannot be “quantified and reduced to a single score” (p. 111). That is the main reason why ICC is not directly included in the assessment of any standard language tests. Therefore, in the context of utilitarian education, if it is not tested, it is not important. Though, the importance of assessment is recognized, for example, Sun (2016) emphasis the necessity of integrating assessment of ICC into the English language evaluation system, he does not elaborate on how.

At present, the only Chinese culture-related test in national level is translation (C-E) in CET-4 & 6, which may stimulate some motivation of involving knowledge of Chinese culture in college English class, but it is not the test of ICC. This assessment of linguistic skills and knowledge of Chinese culture is typical. In the case study of testing college students’ ability to describe Chinese culture in English, Zhang & Zhu (2002) ask students to either write or talk about Chinese food, customs or historical sites. It in essence is similar to the test of translation in CET-4&6; it is not the test of ICC either. Due to the guiding function evaluation system plays in education, this phenomenon is representative. For example, the only assessment of teaching Chinese culture in college English class in our university is also the testing of translation skills and knowledge CET-4&6 requires. Therefore, there leaves much to be expected in assessment system of ICC in college English courses.

## IV. CONCLUSION

English, as a lingua franca, teaching in an additive context in China generally won’t cause serious identity confusion in most cases as some may have worried. However, it’s still necessary to cultivate students with traditional Chinese culture in college English class in the process of global culture hybridisation. This is decided by the nature of language teaching and learning as home culture is an indispensable part of one’s ICC. It is also the requirement of the new era in the context of Outreach Strategy. What’s more, it helps to keep our cultural confidence in intercultural communication. Although there are some opponents who prioritize the linguistic and instrumental value of English, the importance of intercultural language teaching and learning has been recognized by most scholars and policy makers. Nevertheless, in practice, college English teaching is still mostly focusing on linguistic skills and various problems exist in integrating home culture in college English curriculum. All of these prevent the effectiveness of improving students’ ICC, but the difficulties are not invincible. By given the opportunity to compare their home culture with that of the others, students may greatly develop their intercultural awareness and ICC. And that is one of the most important objectives of college English education.

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# Inanimate Subject Sentences in English and Their Translation Strategies\*

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**Abstract**—This paper first clarifies the concept of inanimate subject sentences in English, and points out that inanimate subject sentences refer to sentences that use verbs expressing material or psychological processes as predicates instead of living entities. Then the causes of inanimate tendencies of English subjects are explained from the perspective of Chinese and Western thinking. According to the different attributes of subjects, inanimate subject sentences can be divided into the following six categories: abstract concepts as subjects, nouns expressing psychological feelings as subjects, nouns indicating specific actions and action meanings are used as subjects, natural phenomena as subjects, concrete things as subjects and time and place nouns as subjects. Four examples are listed in each category. Then, the paper elaborates the linguistic effect of English inanimate subject sentences. Finally, according to the six categories of inanimate subject, it explores the translation strategies of English inanimate subject sentences, and defines the exceptional phenomena, with a view to helping readers in their English language learning.

**Index Terms**—inanimate subject, inanimate subject sentence, translation strategy

## I. INTRODUCTION

Most of the studies on inanimate subject sentences are scattered in foreign works on English grammar and vocabulary. The earliest thematic study in China began with Mr. Qian Gechuan. His book "English Difficulties in Detailed Explanation" gives a detailed analysis and solution to 200 English grammar and vocabulary problems. The first one is the discussion of inanimate subject sentences, while the name used is the name of inanimate subject sentences. "The inanimate subject. Although the name was continued to be used later, it was not widely used. Zhang Jin and Chen Yunqing, who first used the name "inanimate subject" in China, have made a thorough study of it in the book Outline of English-Chinese Comparative Grammar.

English sentences with inanimate subjects refer to sentences that use verbs expressing material or psychological processes as predicates with entities (such as objects, abstract concepts and action nouns) that have no meaning of life as subjects (He Mingzhu, 2003). This concept clarifies two essential elements of English inanimate subject: the subject of the sentence is inanimate subject, also known as impersonal subject sentence, and the predicate is animate verb, which is relative to inanimate subject, referring to the action and action of people or social groups, such as See, find, bring, desert, meet, visit, witness, convince, request, compel, deny, prevent, admit, ask, allow, slip, escape, creep, delight, please, strike, amaze, astonish, surprise, worry, trouble, impress, satisfy, deprive, rob, etc. (Lian Shuneng, 2002).

English inanimate subject is a unique linguistic phenomenon in English. It is closely related to the national historical and cultural background and the way of thinking. Inanimate subject sentences are frequently used in formal English, especially in written English. The main reason is that Westerners emphasize object consciousness in their thinking. In order to explore the characteristics of English inanimate subjects and better understand the connotation and meaning of sentences where English inanimate subjects are located and the differences between English inanimate subjects and Chinese in grammatical use, this paper discusses and analyses the definition, characteristics and translation strategies of English inanimate subjects from the perspective of teaching practice and practicality.

## II. CAUSES OF SENTENCES WITH INANIMATE SUBJECTS

The relationship between language and thinking has always been a topic of concern and discussion among linguists. It is generally believed that language is the main form of thinking, and the way of thinking restricts the structure of language. The difference of thinking mode is an important reason for the difference of language. Chinese and English are two carriers of Eastern and Western cultures, belonging to different language families and having different ways of thinking. Oriental traditional philosophical thought emphasizes "the unity of man and nature", "the unity of subject and

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object" and "the whole"; while western traditional philosophical thought emphasizes "the separation of subject and object", "the separation of characters" and "the individual". The two philosophical concepts are reflected in thinking: Chinese people who are accustomed to subjective thinking tend to understand, explain and describe things in the objective world from their own point of view, so that language expression has the characteristics of subjectivity. In Chinese, the idea of human being as the soul of all things always occupies the dominant position, so Chinese is more commonly used in personal subject expression, focusing on "who is what". When the person is self-evident, it refers to the person in general terms of "someone", "people" and "everybody". The subject of animation always occupies an absolute advantage; while the Anglo-American people who are accustomed to the object mode of thinking often put the point of view of observation or narration in line. In English, people often pay attention to "what happens to whom" because of the objectivity of language expression in terms of action, result or recipient. Subject is usually the most concerned and interesting thing, people will undoubtedly use the corresponding inanimate noun as the subject of a sentence. The peculiar Western way of thinking and the characteristics of English language itself lead to the emergence of a large number of inanimate sentences in English expression. The fact that there are many inanimate subjects in English and few inanimate subjects in Chinese reflects the great differences in thinking patterns between English and Chinese.

Regarding the reasons for the ineffectiveness of English subjects, Chen Yu (2008) believes that the main reason is the way of thinking. Chinese people are accustomed to subjective thinking. Traditional ideas such as "man is the soul of all things" and "man is destined to conquer nature" have always been dominant, and thinking determines language. Therefore, more ways of expression in Chinese are "who did (what happened)". There are many sentences with subject, that is to say, the sentences with animate subject in Chinese have absolute advantages.

On the contrary, Westerners are accustomed to object thinking. They often put the viewpoint of observation or narration on the result of actions or actions or the recipient, which makes language expression have the characteristics of objectivity (Chen Yu, 2008). Therefore, the most common way of expression in English is "what happens to whom". They will put the most concerned and important content at the beginning of the sentence as the subject. Obviously, these subjects are "ineffective". In order to describe the specific situation of "happening" on these subjects, the predicate must be "animate". Thus, there are more cases of inactive subject sentences in English.

Most of the rhetorical devices discussed in traditional rhetoric are used in written language to make the language more vivid. Some commonly used rhetoric devices, such as personification, metonymy and synecdoche, make language express vivid images by giving life to inanimate things, or by saying that a thing refers to a thing or a thing, or by substituting part for all. In order to cooperate with the use of these rhetorical devices and achieve the goal of expressing vividly, a large number of inanimate subject sentences have emerged in written English.

With the continuous development of linguistics, people find that traditional rhetoric is confined to the limitations of its formal study. It focuses mainly on the classification and division of figures of speech, lays particular emphasis on the analysis of language forms themselves, and separates language, cognition and society. Therefore, it can not truly reflect the objective world (Xie Zhijun, 2000). Modern linguistic studies have shown that metaphor is not only a skill of using language effectively, but also a basic method of observing and understanding the world. Contemporary

In his book *Metaphors We Live By* (1980), co-authored by G. Lakoff, a cognitive linguist, points out: "Metaphors exist in our daily life, not only in language, but also in our thoughts and actions. The general conceptual system on which we rely for thinking and action is fundamentally metaphorical. The essence of Lakoff's theory of "con-ceptual metaphor" is that there are always two cognitive domains in the process of people's understanding of the world, one of which always maps to another, which is his famous concept mapping.

In addition, some researchers (Sheng Limin, 2015) believe that the phenomenon of English subject inactivation is mainly influenced by Western rational thinking, especially in formal style, inactive subject phenomenon is particularly prominent in order to show its objectivity and impartiality.

### III. TYPES OF SENTENCES WITH INANIMATE SUBJECTS

According to the different attributes of the subject, inanimate subject sentences can be divided into the following six categories:

#### 1) Subjects are abstract concepts

Subjects of this kind of inanimate subject sentences are usually abstract nouns, and the predicate verbs are also personified animated verbs.

Example 1: Modesty helps one go forward, where as conceit makes one lag behind.

Example 2: The stillness consequent on the cessation of the rumbling and laboring of the coach, added to the stillness of the night, made it very quiet indeed. (Charles Dickens: *A Tale of Two Cities*)

Example 3: Her vanity left her heavily in debt.

Example 4: Haste makes waste.

#### 2) Subjects are nouns expressing psychological feeling

Unlike the former one, although subjects in this kind of inanimate subject sentence are not only abstract nouns, but also abstract nouns which express emotional state, such as sadness, loneliness, discontentment, fear, astonishment, excitement, etc. Of course, predicate verbs are usually personified animated verbs, too.

Example 5: While he managed to get up every morning and face the day ahead, a repeated discontentment with his life took a toll, and his depression became integral to his being: the norm.

Example 6: The fear of being labeled and perceived differently kept him from talking about it and from seeking help and treatment.

Example 7: The astonishment robbed me of my power of speech.

Example 8: Excitement deprived me of all power of utterance.

### **3) Subjects are nouns expressing specific actions**

This kind of inanimate noun is usually the noun form of the verb (such as sight, discovery, arrival, etc.) or the noun with verb meaning (idea, thought, etc.). These words usually form the subject of the inanimate subject sentence together with other modifiers, and form a logical subject-predicate or verb-object relationship with the modifiers before and after them. For example, "the teacher's arrival" (subject-predicate relationship), "the implementation of the plan" (verb-object relationship) and so on.

Example 9: A comparison of the two methods will show you their advantages and disadvantages.

Example 10: Seeking help is critical, as depression can lead to thoughts of suicide.

Example 11: This report offers the most specific and accurate description of the problems.

Example 12: Studies have shown that Hartoonian is far from alone.

### **4) Subjects are nouns expressing natural phenomena of weather**

This kind of inanimate noun usually refers to the natural phenomena of weather, such as wind, rain, snowstorm, etc. The predicate in the sentence often uses personification rhetoric.

Example 13: Storms have hitting almost all of Britain recently

Example 14: Hurricane Andrew was last night heading into the Gulf of Mexico.

Example 15: Super Typhoon Mangkhut hit the main island of Luzon in Philippines yesterday.

Example 16: Light rain extends from South Sichuan to central Yunnan.

### **5) Subjects are nouns expressing concrete things**

The subject of this kind of sentence is usually some nouns that express things, such as TV, desk, chair, classroom, etc. The predicate of this kind of inanimate subject sentence is often acted by some animate verbs, which makes the sentence have personification rhetoric effect, makes the language more vivid and gives people a kind of association.

Example 17: The painting immediate reminds me of my childhood in my home.

Example 18: Motherland always draws the heart of overseas Chinese.

Example 19: An American College Health Association report found that 1.5 percent of 16,000 students have attempted suicide.

Example 20: Her name always slips my mind.

### **6) Subjects are nouns of time and places**

This sentence pattern usually takes the noun of time or place as the subject, such as Chicago, Xi-an, 2008, etc. The predicate is usually see, witness, find, tell and other animated verbs. Personification is also used in this kind of sentences.

Example 21: Xi-an witnessed many great historic events.

Example 22: September 2018 found me studying in Los Angeles.

Example 23: 2008 saw the hosting the Olympic Games in Beijing.

Example 24: Chicago takes on Houston in the final.

## **IV. EFFECT OF INACTIVE SUBJECT SENTENCES**

Zhang Zhizhong (2003) believes that abstract nouns as subjects can make the language concise, powerful and vivid; inanimate nouns as subjects can make the language anthropomorphic and appealing. In addition, the use of inanimate subjects can also make the expression more concise and objective. Classical sentences such as "Haste makes waste." and "Her name always slips my mind." can not only express the meaning clearly, but also succinctly, objectively, anthropomorphic and appealing.

## **V. TRANSLATION STRATEGIES OF INANIMATE SUBJECT SENTENCES**

Because of the difference of thinking between English and Chinese, Chinese is accustomed to using the living person as the subject, while English has a large number of sentences with inanimate nouns as the subject. Therefore, when translating English inanimate subjects, we must take into account the expression habit of Chinese and make appropriate adjustments to the subject of the original text so as to make it conform to Chinese thinking.

For the translation of inanimate subject sentences, many researchers have given their own translation methods (He Mingzhu, 2003; Lian Shuneng, 2002; Zhang Zhizhong, 2003; Chen Yu, 2008; Sun Jingfang, 2011). This paper tries to elaborate the strategies of Chinese translation of Inanimate subject sentences in English according to the categories of inanimate subject:

### **1) The abstract concept as the subject**

**Translation strategies:** retain the original inanimate subject, add causative usage, and translate the sentences as "A



使 B....”:

Example 1: 谦虚使人进步, 骄傲使人落后。

Example 2: 由辘辘轮声的突然中断而造成的寂静使原本宁静的夜晚更加幽静无比。

Example 3: 虚荣心使她负债累累。

Exceptions: Example 4 "Haste makes waste" is a very common English proverb. If it is translated into "匆忙使 (人) 浪费" according to the rules, it seems verbose and ambiguous. Therefore, in translating such proverbial inanimate subject sentences, we must be faithful to the original implicature, which can break the traditional sentence structure and translate directly into "欲速则不达".

## 2) Nouns expressing psychological feelings as subjects

In fact, the noun expressing psychological emotion is also an abstract noun. This paper distinguishes it from the first kind of "abstract concept" because there are two ways of translating inanimate subject sentences of psychological emotion.

The first one is to translate directly into causative sentences, the same as Category 1.

Example 5: 尽管他每天早晨尽力起床面对新的一天, 但萦绕心头的对人生的不满却使他付出了严重的代价, 以至于抑郁已经成为他生活中挥之不去的一部分, 成为一种常态。

Example 6: 害怕被视为异类、另眼相看的担忧使他不去谈论它, 也不去寻求帮助和治疗。

Example 7: 惊讶使我丧失了说话的能力。

Example 8: 兴奋使我失去了说话的全部力量。

The second is to change Inanimate subject sentences in English into Chinese inanimate subject sentences when people are referred to as subjects in Chinese translation.

Example 5: 尽管他每天早晨都尽力起床面对新的一天, 但他受到萦绕在自己心头的对人生的不满情绪的严重影响, 以至于抑郁已经成为他生活中挥之不去的一部分, 成为一种常态。

Example 6: 因为他害怕被视为异类、另眼相看, 所以他既不敢谈论, 也不去寻求治疗和帮助。

Example 7: 我惊讶得说不出话来。

Example 8: 我兴奋得说不出话来。

## 3) Subjects are nouns expressing the meanings of specific actions and actions.

Translation strategies: English inanimate subjects are translated directly into Chinese subjects, and personified translation is adopted when necessary.

Example 9: 对这两种方法的比较将显示出它们的优点和缺点。

Example 10: 寻求帮助是十分重要的, 因为抑郁症会导致自杀念头的出现。

Example 11: 该报告对问题进行了最具体、最准确的描述。

Example 12: 研究显示, 哈图年这样的情况绝非个案。

## 4) Natural phenomena as subjects

Translation strategies: There are two ways to translate inanimate subject sentences with natural phenomena as subjects. When translating, we should clarify whether they are active sentences or passive sentences according to the needs of the text. If they are active sentences, they are generally "inanimate subject + personified predicate..." If it is a passive sentence, the inanimate subject in English becomes the agent in the Chinese translation, which is generally translated as ".....遭 (受) 到了.....的.....".

Example 13: 最近几乎整个英国都遭到了暴风雨的侵袭。(被动句)

Example 14: 昨晚, 飓风“安德鲁”进入了墨西哥湾。(主动句)

Example 15: 超级台风山竹昨日袭击了菲律宾吕宋岛的主要岛屿。(主动句)

Exceptions: Weather Forecast

Because of the particularity of weather forecast, this kind of sentence must abandon the inanimate subject, make the sentence lose its "spirituality" and replace the subject and object components in Inanimate subject sentences in English.

Example 16:

Light rain extends from South Sichuan to central Yunnan. This sentence can be translated as “四川南部到云南中部有小雨” That is to say, In the original sentence, "rain" as the subject is translated into the object, while "south Sichuan to central Yunnan" in the original sentence is translated into the subject.

## 5) Specific things as subjects

Translation strategy: English "inanimate subject" is translated literally into Chinese "inanimate subject", and the predicate is translated by personification.

Example 17: 这幅画立刻使我想起了在家乡度过的童年时光。

Example 18: 祖国时刻牵动着海外华人的心。

Example 19: 一份美国大学健康协会的报告显示, 1.6 万名学生中, 有 1.5% 的人曾经尝试过自杀。

Exceptions: English slang

"Her name is always slips my mind." It's a typical English slang sentence. According to the translation strategy above,

it can be translated into “她的名字总是从我心里滑落”. It's only a literal meaning, of course, it means I can't remember her name, which can be translated as “我总是记不住她的名字”.

#### 6) Time and place nouns as subjects

This kind of English inanimate subject sentence is relatively simple to translate into Chinese. Generally, time or place can be translated directly into adverbial in Chinese, sometimes into Chinese subject, and the predicate uses personification rhetoric.

Example 21:

在西安发生了很多重大的历史事件。

As a noun, Xi-an is used as an adverbial in the Chinese version.

西安目睹（见证）了很多重大的历史事件的发生。

In this version, Xi-an is used as a subject in the sentence.

Example 22:

2018年9月，我在洛杉矶学习。

As a noun, September 2018 is used as an adverbial in the Chinese version.

Example 23:

2008年奥运会在北京举办。

In this sentence, 2008 is also used as adverbial.

Exceptions:

Example 24: Chicago takes on Houston in the final.

In this sentence, "Chicago" and "Houston" are apparently place nouns, but in fact they refer to the NBA teams “公牛队” and “火箭队” in the two cities. It is absolutely undesirable to translate them mechanically into adverbials. The correct translation is: 芝加哥（公牛队）在决赛中对阵休斯敦（火箭队）。

## VI. CONCLUSION

To sum up, as a special phenomenon in English written texts, inanimate subject is a common and unique grammatical phenomenon in English. It has the characteristics of diverse sentence patterns, rigorous structure, high vocabulary density and objective and vivid expression. It is different from Chinese in grammatical structure and expression habits. Understanding the characteristics of inanimate subject mentioned above will help learners in the process of English-Chinese translation. Better and more accurate use of English inanimate subjects, so that the translation is smooth, vivid and in line with language expression habits. This paper discusses the concept, causes, categories, effects and translation strategies of Inanimate subject sentences in English. There are many categories of Inanimate subject sentences in English. In actual translation, we must distinguish between specific situations. According to the three principles of "faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance", we must not copy one translation strategy mechanically to cause mistranslation. Sentences with inanimate subject, on the surface, are only a way of sentence making or a type of sentence, and a linguistic phenomenon at the micro level. However, if we want to make a comprehensive, systematic and in-depth study of them, we should deal with lexicology, semantics, pragmatics, rhetoric, stylistics, comparative linguistics, translatology, psycholinguistics, cognitive linguistics, systemic-functional linguistics and corpus. Many disciplines, such as library linguistics, thinking and statistics, are concerned about. Therefore, the study of Inanimate subject sentences in English is of great theoretical and practical value, but also of great challenge. It requires a solid linguistic theoretical basis and perseverance to achieve new research results. Only by constantly expanding research content and innovating research methods and exploring ways of language from one to the other, from small to big, comprehensive and systematic, can we have a bright future for the study of Inanimate subject sentences in English.

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# A Skopos-theoretical Analysis of Political Texts from English into Persian: The Case of Donald Trump's Executive Orders

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**Abstract**—The present study attempted to investigate Schjoldager's (2008) taxonomy of translation microstrategies applied by the translator for translating "Donald Trump's Executive Orders." This led to determine the most/least microstrategies and translation macrostrategy employed by the translator as well as his success in producing the TT and in fulfilling the skopos of the translation. To achieve this, 20 English versions of "Donald Trump's Executive Orders" were chosen as the sample of analysis and compared with their Persian translations. As the results indicated, among Schjoldager's translation microstrategies, the translator employed all 12 strategies. This includes direct transfer, calque, direct translation, oblique translation, explicitation, paraphrase, adaptation, addition, condensation, substitution, deletion, and permutation of which explicitation and direct transfer were the most/least used microstrategies. Based on the findings, TT-oriented strategies have been used more than ST-oriented ones. Thus, under the skopos theoretical approach, the translator was successful in translating "Donald Trump's Executive Orders" and in fulfilling the skopos of the translation. This was because of that translations made by him were easy to understand to all types of TT readers. This study offers some helpful pedagogical implications to translation students and trainees, teachers, and those responsible for teaching students and training translators.

**Index Terms**—translation, cultural terms, and skopos theory

## I. INTRODUCTION

Translation plays the main role in introducing the history of human social life. Mardirosz (2014) stated that through the enlarged thoughts and the application of the outcomes of other fields, it is proved that translation is not just the process of replacing the target language (TL) word with the source language (SL) word, "but a more creative activity that enriches the source text with new ideological and cultural features" (p. 160). It is common that people from different countries do things in different ways and culture is one way to these variations in behavior according to Francesco and Gold (1998). Along with conveying linguistic elements, translation, as Davaninezhad (2016) stated, transfers both social and cultural factors. As a result, a translator needs to know about the culture of other countries to produce high quality translations.

Translation is involved in most communicative activities, such as political and economic activities. In the former, translation can be used to deal with asymmetrical cultural exchanges (Venuti, 1995). In addition, translation, as he noted, plays the significant role in diplomacy and national policy-making. Sch äffner and Bassnett further stated that they are politicians who decide what texts should be translated from and into which languages. They believed that "any human community is determined by interaction and relationships, such as power relationships" (p. 2). It implies the noticeable effect the power relationships have on creating international communication.

Kuhiwczak and Littan (2007) stated that political texts are hybrid texts because they cover various types of texts and genres. They may include "religious, law, advertising, educational, scientific or some other text types" (Abdel, 2015, p. 120). Furthermore, political texts provide all the information needed by a community in the political arena (Sch äffner, 2004). That is why political texts are known as one type of sensitive texts. Cultural gaps are the other important factors that make political texts more sensitive. In this context, Qassem (2014) believed that such cultural gaps "are represented in differences in situations, concepts, ideas and behaviors between the SL and the TL communities" (p. 241).

The task of the translator becomes more difficult when he wants to choose an appropriate translation method as well as translation microstrategies to deal with such texts which have a defined purpose. This task that the translator should handle is well elaborated by Vermeer's (1989/2000) skopos theoretical model. Vermeer explained that the task of the translator is to translate the text according to the commission and to the final translation the extent to which he is the one who defines the exact specified skopos. Therefore, as he mentioned, the translator, as an expert, can decide how to translate the ST and what role should be given to the ST in the translation action. Schjoldager (2008), who developed a practical skopos-theoretical model of analysis, stated that skopos theory is included in the *branch* of translation theory which is known as applied translation studies. In a sense, it not only pays attention to pragmatic aspects of translation, but also appraises the concept of translation itself.

Schjoldager (2008) presented a taxonomy of microstrategies that supplies translators with a set of reliable tools which gives them the opportunity to determine appropriate translation microstrategies. Thus, under her skopos theoretical approach, the overall goal of the present study was to investigate the translation microstrategies used by the translator in the translation of "Donald Trump's Executive Orders" which led to discover the translation macrostrategy applied by him. Furthermore, it is intended to find out the translator's success in producing the TT and in fulfilling the skopos of the translation. In the light of skopos theoretical approach, the researcher answered the following questions:

1. Within the Skopos theoretical model presented by Schjoldager (2008), what microstrategies have been used by the translator in the translation of "Donald Trump's Executive Orders"?
2. To what extent was the translator successful in producing the TT and in fulfilling the skopos of the translation?

## II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

### A. *Translation from Different Points of View*

Translation has been defined by Grant Showerman (1916) as "meddling with inspiration," whereas Harry de Forest Smith (1959) believed that "a translation of a literary work is as tasteless as a stewed strawberry" (cited in Nida, 1964, p. 1). *Translatorship* is a term used by Toury (1977) for translation because translation, in general, should have a social role to accomplish a function accepted by people of that country in such a way that it "is deemed appropriate in its own terms of reference" (p. 198). He further stated that culture should be taken into account as the important factor in each translation. In the socio-cultural situation, translation is defined as "subject to constraints of several types and varying degree" (p. 199).

Forghan-Parast (2008) believed that translation is "a controlled transfer of information—including, but not restricted to meaning—from a source text, producing a target text in another language" (p. 13). Based on the three key notions in his definition, he explained that translation is "a process of transfer, an action and not an object per se" (p. 14). Fischer and Jensen (2012) believed in the presence of power in translation and discussed that power in translation is encountered with limitations from different perspectives, such as hegemony, norms, language, and target group. It does not distinguish between the powerful and the powerless, "but rather makes translation implicitly or explicitly partisan" (p. 11). Thus, translation can be described as

An image of the original, particularly for those who have no access to the reality of the original. This image can undoubtedly be very different from the truth, insofar as the translator can distort and manipulate reality because he is under the pressure of a series of constraints [...] typical of the cultures to which he belongs. (Fischer & Jensen, p. 12)

For Schjoldager (2008) a translation is "a text that expresses what another text has expressed in another language" (p. 19). She somehow pointed to the concept of house's overt and covert translations in which the target reader of the translation may not know something he is reading is a translation. In general, something derived from the above definition may refer to the fact that the concept of translation implies the academic discipline that deals with the problems relating to translations (product) and translating (process) (Munday, 2001).

### B. *Political Texts*

The aim of political text is to exert profound influence on a specific group of people on a political level (Gusman, 2015). He further argued that a political text is heavily dependent on the political and social changes which cause linguistic features of the society to change. Novikova (2001) stated that the most important factors which characterize and define political texts are communicative, informational and political strategies. She believed that a political image of a certain country is expressed by political texts. That is, the phenomena that are objectively determined from the positive or negative point of view, as she argued, can be defined by the author of the text.

In this context, Subbotina (2015) discussed that authors, who make social and political texts, "have their own social status and political bias towards the events, introduce their point of view, personal appraisal and judgments while writing the articles" (p. 51). In this way, the information, as she stated, is subjectively interpreted via the author's point of view. Moreover, the author of the text, as she discussed, can employ different types of strategies, such as lexical, stylistic, and grammatical features to express the pragmatic function of the text. Furthermore, the author can also use "complex syntactic structures and compound sentences, stylistic devices: metaphors, metonymies, oxymoron etc" (Subbotina, p. 51).

Today, one important translation for the community is political translation because of the significant role it plays in international communication (Gusman, 2015). From a practical point of view, "political translation depends on wide knowledge of the translated topic, understand the text, and analyze it" (Arabiyat, 2016, p. 34). These requirements, as he mentioned, enable the translator to be faithful to the transference of the functional meaning, including connotation and contextual aspects, in order to achieve the purpose of the ST writer. To translate political texts, Nord (2005) proposed a model and added some complementary factors to it. According to her, the model needs to be "(a) general enough to be applicable to any text and (b) specific enough to take account of as many generalizable translation problems as possible" (p. 2).

In this regard, Yang (2012) proposed some techniques for translators who should observe in political translation. First of all, the translator is in need of the discourse analysis of translation and of the analysis of the political meanings

through "reading between the lines" (p. 12). Then, methods used by the translator should not be restricted to linguistic forms, especially in the translation of idioms, allusions, myths and fables in political contexts. In such cases, the translator should understand the difference between the cultural connotations and political orientations of two cultures and languages and apply a "mixed translation method" (p. 14). Next, the translator must know inconsistencies in historical cultures, national customs, feelings, and ideologies between the languages. In addition, the translator should be well familiar with foreign policy and make sure about "political correctness" (p. 15). And finally, Yang pointed to the special use of grammatical phenomena and rules. He pointed to the fact that the political text is of very high quality and political sensitivity which is heavily oriented towards policy.

### C. Schjoldager' Skopos Theoretical Model

According to Schjoldager (2008), one advantage of skopos theory is its acknowledgement that the translator is an expert specialist within the field of translation. Thus, it should bear in mind that the translator, as she stated, is an expert who works under market conditions and his task is to accomplish translations for customers. It implies that the task of the translator is to produce translations based on the 'translation briefs', given by the commissioner, a person who paid for translation. Along with the role of the commissioner, there are many other roles in the translation process, namely the initiator, the ST producer, the ST sender, the TT sender and so on. This advantage of skopos theory gives the translator the opportunity to know the role he has in the translation process.

The skopos of the TT is something that the translation action itself needs to be accomplished based on it (Schjoldager, 2008). She explained that by considering the skopos and analyzing both the ST and TT, according to a specific model, it may be possible to find out how a macrostrategy applied by the translator is close to the original ST, which refers to the translator's ST-oriented approach, or to the TT, which points to his TT-oriented approach. When the translator, as she expressed, selects the macrostrategy of the translation, he can choose several microstrategies on the basis of the goal of the translation. Schjoldager proposed taxonomy of macro and microstrategies which the first six were ST-oriented microstrategies and the rest TT-oriented ones. Here, Schjoldager's microstrategies are presented as follows:

- 1- Direct transfer: it as a direct transference of an ST item into the TT without any changes. For example, "Federal" to "فدرال"
- 2- Calque: is the transference or close translation of the structure of an ST element that leads to TT elements which are unidiomatic. For instance, "a registered lobbyist" to "لایبگر ثبت شده"
- 3- Direct translation: is the word-for-word translation of the ST item. It differs from the calque in that direct translation produces the TT element which is idiomatic and correct. For example, "executive order" to "فرمان اجرایی"
- 4- Oblique translation: it is different from Vinay and Darbelnet's oblique translation in that Schjoldager's oblique translation covers the contextual meaning rather than entire meaning, such as linguistic meaning, of a given ST item. For example, "blocked" to "محروم ساخته است"
- 5- Explication: A translator makes implicit information explicit "by explaining something more thoroughly." For example, "prevent taxpayer-funded bailouts" to "از کمک های مالی تامین شده از راه مالیات مالیات دهندگان جلوگیری می کند"
- 6- Paraphrase: is a completely and freely rendering of the meaning of the ST element into the TT in such a way that "it can be difficult to see exactly how they are rendered." For instance, "regulatory Cap for fiscal year 2017" to "تنظیم سقف هزینه ها برای سال مالی 2017"
- 7- Adaptation: reproducing the effect of the ST item. One aspect of the ST item may be covered through this reproduction rather than other aspects. For instance, "regime" to "نظام"
- 8- Addition: adding a unit of meaning to the TT. "The difference between this and explication is-in theory, at least- that this unit of meaning cannot be (directly) inferred from the ST itself". For example, "the Secretary of the Treasury (Secretary) shall immediately..." to "وزیر خزانه داری (که از این پس وزیر خوانده می شود) می باسیت فوری..."
- 9- Condensation: translate as short as possible or "make explicit information implicit." For example, "the authority granted by law to an executive department" to "اختیاراتی قانونی به اداره اجرایی"
- 10- Substitution: is to change the meaning of the ST which leads to the TT with different content. For example, "value to the Nation" to "جایگاه آن برای کشور"
- 11- Deletion: leaves out a unit of meaning. For example, ethics commitments by executive" to "تعهدات اخلاقی کارکنان"
- 12- Permutation: translate in a different place. For instance, "Commissioner of U.S. Customs and Border Protection" to "کمسیونر گمرک و حفاظت مرزی آمریکا"

## III. METHOD

### A. Corpus

The corpus of this study included 20 English versions of "Donald Trump's Executive Orders" as a sample of analysis, and their Persian translations. The aim of these executive orders, which were published in the Federal Register, was to provide the opportunity for officers and agencies of the executive branch to manage the operations within the federal government itself. Executive orders alongside Presidential memoranda, Presidential determinations, Presidential

proclamations, Presidential notices, and Presidential sequestration orders are compiled by the Office of the Federal Register and are printed by the Government Printing Office. They are published daily, except on federal holidays. A free source of these documents is the Federal Register, which contains government agency rules, proposed rules, and public notices.

### B. Procedure

To conduct the study, the following steps were taken. At first, 20 English versions of "Donald Trump's Executive Orders" were selected conveniently from NBC NEWS official website < www.nbcnews.com >, and their Persian translations from the official website of TASNIM NEWS < www.tasnimnews.com>. The rationale behind choosing such texts was that they contained many cultural phenomena, expressions, and also particular purposes which pose dramatic problems for the translator when making an attempt to transfer the meaning and concept of political expressions. In addition, when the translator encounters with such a sensitive text, this opportunity is provided to find out whether his personal opinion about the text affects the translation or commissioner and power relations produce some effects on the final product. Then each text alongside its translation was carefully investigated to extract political expressions and their corresponding equivalents. Finally, Schjoldager's (2008) taxonomy of microstrategies was applied to determine translation strategies employed by the translator to translate the 20 exclusive orders. This led to discover the overall strategy of the translator on macro level. Moreover, the frequencies and percentages of translation strategies employed by the translator illustrated in tabulation forms, and the relation between the microstrategies and the number of them was estimated through Chi Square test ( $\chi^2$ ).

## IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

As Table 1 indicated, the translator employed all Schjoldager's (2008) microstrategies to translate the 20 exclusive orders of which explicitation ( $n = 165$ ) and direct transfer ( $n = 5$ ) were the most/least used strategies respectively.

TABLE 1.  
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF MICROSTRATEGIES USED BY THE TRANSLATOR FOR  
TRANSLATING THE 20 EXCLUSIVE ORDERS

Microstrategies	Frequency	Percentage
Explicitation	165	20.0
Direct translation	155	19.0
Adaptation	105	13.0
Deletion	95	12.0
Permutation	91	11.0
Addition	65	8.0
Calque	50	6.0
Paraphrase	41	5.0
Oblique translation	19	2.0
Condensation	15	2.0
Substitution	12	1.0
Direct transfer	5	.5.0
Total	818	100.0

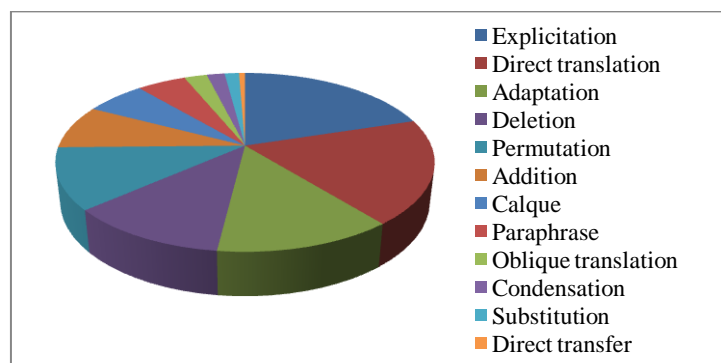


Figure 1. Microstrategies used by the translator for translating the 20 exclusive orders

Table 2 shows the frequent use of both ST- and TT oriented strategies by the translator to translate the 20 exclusive orders.

TABLE II.  
FREQUENCIES OF BOTH ST- AND TT-ORIENTED STRATEGIES USED BY THE TRANSLATOR

ST-Oriented Strategies	Frequency	Percentage	TT-Oriented Strategies	Frequency	Percentage
Direct translation	155	74.0	Explication	165	27.0
Calque	50	24.0	Adaptation	105	17.0
Direct transfer	5	2.0	Deletion	95	16.0
			Permutation	91	15.0
			Addition	65	11.0
			Paraphrase	41	7.0
			Oblique translation	19	3.0
			Condensation	15	2.0
			Substitution	12	2.0
Total	210	100.0	Total	608	100.0

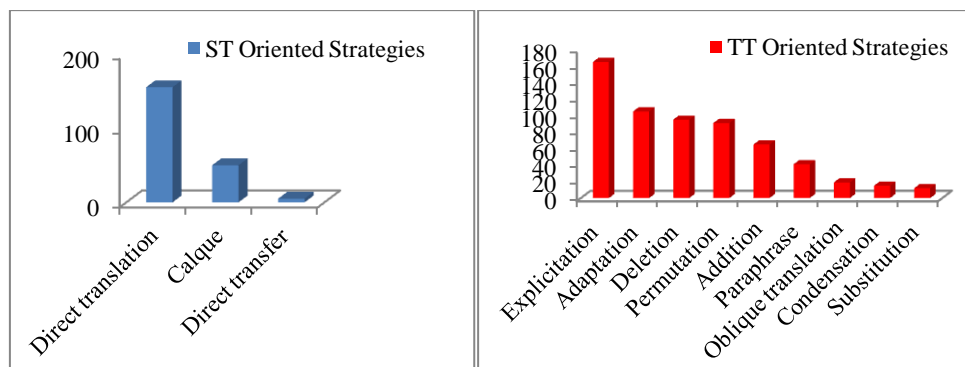


Figure 2. ST- and TT-oriented strategies used by the translator

According to Table 2, the total number of TT-oriented strategies ( $N = 608$ ) was higher than the total number of ST-oriented ones ( $N = 210$ ).

#### A. Chi Square Test

W.Best and V.Kahn (2006) discussed that a chi square ( $X^2$ ) is not used to measure values but to discrete data, counted. They further stated that the  $X^2$  "is not a measure of the degree of relationship"; it is only applied to evaluate the probability that "some factor other than accounts for the apparent relationship" (p. 434). In another word, the probability that the observed relationship derived from the chance, as they noted, is estimated through the  $X^2$ . Thus, the researcher ran the  $X^2$  to see whether the relation between microstrategies and the number of them is significant.

According to the results obtained from  $X^2$ , there is not a significant relationship between microstrategies and the number of them at the 0.05 level of significance ( $p = .645$ ,  $p > .05$ ). Thus, the null hypothesis is not rejected and it is accepted at the .05 level of significance.

#### B. Discussion

In the first rule of Reiss's and Vermeer's (1984, cited in Munday, 2001) skopos theory, the emphasis is strongly on the TT (or Translatum) which is determined by the skopos. It alludes to the fact that the purpose of the TT is the most important factor in choosing translation macro and microstrategies. In this context, Nord (1997) argued that the first step, in her process model, is to analyze and express the translation brief and to establish the skopos of the translation. Thus, this is important to investigate the skopos of the TT if it is intended to answer the last question of the present study which is: to what extent has the translator been successful in producing the TT, and in fulfilling the skopos of the translation?

Based on skopos theory, the translator plays the main role "in a process of intercultural communication and production of the translatum" (Munday, 2001, p. 80). Thus, the translator should make an attempt to translate the ST to the extent that all the TT readers are able to understand the text even if they have limited knowledge about the terminology of that text. In this way, it can be claimed that the skopos of the translation has been accomplished and the translator has been successful in choosing microstrategies and the overall strategy on macro level.

In the case of "Donald Trump's Executive Orders," the success of the translator was heavily dependent on microstrategies he employed to overcome political items and then on the macrostrategy he applied to the whole text. As the results indicated, in order to translate the 20 executive orders, the translator employed all Schjoldager's (2008) microstrategies, including direct transfer, calque, direct translation, oblique translation, explication, paraphrase, condensation, adaptation, addition, substitution, deletion, and permutation. By contrast, in the same study done by Jensen (2009), only 6 strategies out of 17 proposed by Schjoldager have been applied by the translators. This includes direct transfer, calque, direct transfer, oblique translation, explication, and paraphrase.

As the results showed, the first three of Schjoldager's (2008) microstrategies are ST-oriented and the rest TT-oriented ones. That is to say, the frequent use of ST-oriented strategies leads to TT orientation on macro level and vice versa. Do



not buy into the idea that the frequent use of one strategy, for example permutation as a TT-oriented strategy, gives the indication of the translator's TT orientation on macro level. According to the results, the translator's strategy on macro level was TT-oriented and the translations produced by him were understandable to all types of target readers; whereas in Jensen's (2009) study, the overall strategy of the majority of the participants was ST-oriented which implies their faithfulness to the ST structure. In another study conducted by Hansen (2010), the participants applied both ST- and TT-oriented strategies, such as direct translation and oblique translation. This alludes to the fact that the translators' strategy on macro level was a mixt strategy of both ST and TT.

## V. CONCLUSION

As the results indicated, the translator applied TT-oriented strategies for smallest units which led to his TT orientation on macro level. Thus, under the skopos theoretical approach, the researcher concluded that the translator was successful in producing comprehensible translations and in communicating with target readers because the important purpose in translating political texts, such as "Donald Trump's Executive Orders," was, first, to inform target readers about what was going on the word and what decisions were made by other countries; and then to exert considerable influences on the target readers. "Donald Trump's Executive Orders" have important messages, ranging from threats and sanctions to peace and prosperity for the people of the United State and the word, which should be discovered and transferred correctly to the target readers.

The results of the study identified some pedagogical implications which can be helpful to translation students and trainees, teachers, and those responsible for teaching students and training translators. Some of these implications are discussed as follows:

According to the skopos theory, the translator has not been forced to produce the TT with the same functional equivalence as the ST. The function of the translation, as Vermeer (1989/2000) discussed, is determined by the skopos and the brief of the translation. Thus, it is important to pay special attention to these two important factors, and choose microstrategies on the basis of them. It is recommended that translators, translation students and trainees need to obey the brief which is defined by the commissioner or the public and don't act on his own. Universities, where translation courses are held in both undergraduate and postgraduate degrees, as well as translator training institutions are responsible for teaching students and training translators should supply all relevant facilities and employ qualified teachers in the field. Teachers can give the brief to the students and ask them to translate for the brief not for the grade. Furthermore, they should make students and trainees aware of the importance of the brief. It causes them to be familiar with the brief and its importance and to be prepared for translating in this profession.

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