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Contents

REGULAR PAPERS

- Evaluation of the Implementation of the Universal Basic Education Yoruba Language Curriculum in South Western Nigeria 1465
AYODELE Christiana Ayo and OYINLOYE Gabriel Oludele
- Dimensions of Literature and Journalism, History, Ideology and Culture 1474
Mohammed Osman Abdul Wahab, Mohammed Nurul Islam, and Nisar Ahmad Koka
- Teaching and Learning Interactional Patterns in Speaking Subject at Several Higher Educational Institutions 1480
Ngatmini
- Metaphysical or Differential: Fitzgerald's *The Great Gatsby* under Derridean Concept of Love 1486
Muhammad Hussein Oroskhan
- Transforming Traditional Teaching: A Professional Development Program for the College EFL Teachers 1494
Ming Li and Brett D. Jones
- Modelling Undergraduate Student Engagement in China 1501
Zhe Zhang
- The Impact of Using Inverted Classrooms on Promoting Extensive versus Intensive Reading Comprehension among Iranian Upper-intermediate EFL Learners 1513
Leila Neisi, Mehrnoosh Hajjalili, and Ehsan Namaziandost
- Strong and Weak Resultatives in Chinese Resultative Constructions 1524
Xiaowen Zhang
- Automobile Advertising Translation from the Perspective of Newmark's Theory 1535
Ping Yu and Xin Li
- The Impact of Different Output-based Task Repetition Conditions on Producing Speech Acts among Iranian Advanced EFL Learners 1541
Parisa Etemadfar, Ehsan Namaziandost, and Reza Banari
- The Application of Register Analysis into Translation Quality Assessment 1550
Ningwei Yang
- A Comparative Study on the Washback Effects of Teacher Feedback plus Intelligent Feedback versus Teacher Feedback on English Writing Teaching in Higher Vocational College 1555
Jiachun Wang
-

Proposing a Flowchart to Detect English Functional Equivalents for Persian Lexis: A Practical Approach <i>Alireza Bahremand and Mousa Mahmoudzahi</i>	1562
Research on Intelligent Learning APP in Junior English Vocabulary Teaching <i>Ling Wang</i>	1573
A Comparative Analysis of the Cultural Content in <i>Go For It</i> and <i>New Standard English</i> <i>Yujie Shi and Xuebo Cui</i>	1578
The Effect of Synchronous and Asynchronous Language Learning: A Study of Iranian EFL Intermediate Students' Vocabulary Learning <i>Ahmad Reza Lotfi and Sayed Mir Hossein Hosseini Pozveh</i>	1585
A Contrastive Analysis of Chinese Humor and English Humor in Intercultural Communication <i>Sha Zhu</i>	1595
An Analysis on Syntactic Derivation of "Patient + Agent + Ergative Verb" <i>Dan Du and Chunxiang Wu</i>	1600
A Genre-analysis of the Discussion Section of Iranian and English ELT Theses: A Comparative Study <i>Yassaman Hosseini Massoum and Elham Yazdanmehr</i>	1611
A Survey on Self-efficacy of English Majors: Exploring Its Correlation with Time Management and Strategy Use <i>Xiaoli Gan</i>	1624
Non-equivalence in Legal Translation <i>Ling Jiang and Yuyan Zhuang</i>	1630

Evaluation of the Implementation of the Universal Basic Education Yoruba Language Curriculum in South Western Nigeria

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Abstract—The study evaluated the implementation of the Universal Basic Education Yoruba Language Curriculum in South Western States of Nigeria. The purpose is to determine the extent of the coverage of the Curriculum. It is also meant to determine whether the objectives of the Yoruba Language Curriculum are achieved. Also, it is meant to ascertain the attitude of the students towards the learning of Yoruba Language. The study is a descriptive research of the survey design. The population consists of all students and teachers that are teaching Yoruba Language in all upper Basic Schools in South Western Nigeria. A sample of 1500 respondents which consists of 1200 students and 300 teachers that are teaching Yoruba Language in upper Basic Schools was selected through the use of multistage sampling techniques. Three (3) Research questions and (2) Two Hypotheses were used and tested at 0.5 level of significance. Four instruments were used to elicit information. They are, Teachers' Questionnaire on implementation of the Universal Basic Education Yoruba Language Curriculum, Questionnaire on students' attitude towards learning of Yoruba language and Students achievement test. The students' class notes were also used to know the extent of the work done. The data generated were subjected to descriptive analysis and inferential statistics. The findings revealed that, there was a low positive relationship between the Universal Basic Education Yoruba Language Curriculum and its implementation.

Index Terms—evaluation, implementation, Universal basic education, curriculum, Yoruba language

I. INTRODUCTORY DISCOURSE

The fortune of any country depends on the extent of the enlightenment of the citizen and their ability to contribute meaningfully to the development of such country. Education has been recognized as a process of imparting knowledge, skills and attitude with the purpose of ensuring total development of the children. Danmole (2011) explained that education has remained an instrument of change and national development. It is a process of transmitting, refining and preserving the collective values embedded in the society (Oyekan, 2005).

Education is a systematic process through which an individual is introduced to all sphere of life that exist in society such as economic, social, moral, politics, intellectual and a set of behaviour, attitude and values. Investment in human capital has over the years been recognized to be the bedrock of increased productivity and hence economic development (Ayodele, 2005). Education is the utmost tool which an individual needs in order to acquire knowledge and personal experience with which to live comfortably and make a meaningful contribution to the advancement of the community and the nation at large. Thus education can be recognized as a process by which a society reproduces itself by passing on its main characteristics, values and culture to the next generation and keep on improving its quality and modes of life. It is supposed to result in changing the behaviour of the individual for self-realisation and sustainable development.

The aims of education is to equip an individual with knowledge which will assist him or her in the attainment of broad mind, critical thinking, social and individual fulfilment in life. Its purpose is the development of the intelligence in such a way that the experience one gets at one time can be carried over to a subsequent experience and used in solving one's life problem. (Yaaka, 2019). Nigerians attached a considerable importance to the education of their children. The indigenous education in Nigeria emphasised practical arts, health and sanitation, farming, fishing, trading, folktales, buying and selling – entrepreneurship skills, rituals and after knowledge that are related to day to day living in a bid to engage the children in functional education. The antecedent of western education in Nigeria was dated to the missionary days prior to the independence. Education was introduced towards inculcation of norms, value, skills and attitudes inherent in cultural heritage but the system of education was not guided by any uniform policy and of course not coordinated. Umar (2006) stressed that the Nigeria education system then was on academic or cognitive components instead of vocational or technical skills and that there was dearth of highly skilled manpower in agriculture, aviation, engineering, medicine and other specialised area of human endeavour. In the quest for a universal access to education for its citizen, Nigeria has made several efforts through the establishment of some policies such as the introduction of

the Universal Primary Education in 1976 which was short lived. The essence was to assist the country to overcome the challenges facing education and curb mass illiteracy by making sure that all children of primary school age were enrolled. It was also tailored towards the development of the Nigeria child but there was a rapid increase in enrolment and no emphasis on the itemised objective. The program did not achieve the desire goals.

In the quest for a universal and free education, the Universal Basic Education was inaugurated in 1999 to address the problem of access, quality and equity in Nigerian Education system and the total eradication of illiteracy and poverty among present and future generation. It was also in line with universal declaration and Education for All held in Jomiten (1991) of which Nigeria was a signatory. Specifically, the program was meant to enable the citizen to have access to quality education in order to broaden and widen the educational opportunities for all in a bid to eradicate illiteracy, ignorance and poverty among the citizen. Oduolowu (2007) noted that Nigerians Educational Statistics of 1996 showed that only 14.1 million children enrolled in primary schools out of about 21 million children of school age. Apart from this, Oluwatayo (2009), equally noted that the major purpose of the Universal Basic Education is to assist in the development of Nigeria culture, separate from the culture of different nationalities that make up the nation. Basic Education in actual sense can be referred to as all tiers of organised education and training that meets the basic learning needs of learners including literacy, numeracy, general knowledge, skills acquisition and all attitude required for the learners to survive and develop accountability, live and work in dignity. Based on this, the Universal Basic Education accentuated the prominence of language of immediate community, this was in response to the agitation of the people for the teaching of indigenous languages in schools in order to protect, preserve and promote the culture of Nigerians and for the fear of the indigenous language going into extinction. This was also to support the recommendations of the National policy on Education which emphasised that Government appreciate the importance of language as a means of promoting interaction and National cohesion and preservation of culture which further stressed that every child shall learn the language of his/her immediate environment in the interest of national unity (Federal Government of Nigeria 2004). Thus Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba languages were introduced among core subjects in the UBE programme.

II. YORUBA LANGUAGE CURRICULUM

Yoruba language is a language originally spoken by the Yoruba tribe of western part of Nigeria even though the language has spread widely across the nation to international countries. A tribe that has existed for centuries before 1819 (Awoniyi, 2006). Generally the aim of acquiring education in Yoruba traditional system is for the individual to become an Omoluabi that is to develop his personality and character and weave him harmoniously into the school pattern (Awoniyi, 2006). In line with this Fafunwa (2004) view that the aim of teaching Yoruba language is to allow the students to communicate orally and literally in the language. It is also meant to inculcate the Yoruba morals and values into the younger generation and to develop the child physical skill and character. All these are embedded in the 9-year UBE Yoruba language curriculum.

The 9-year UBE Yoruba language curriculum spelt out the objectives as follows

- that the students should be able to develop ability to think critically, read properly, write adequately, speak fluently in Yoruba language.
- to acquire adequate knowledge on the use of Yoruba language putting into consideration the rules guiding the use of speaking and writing of the language.
- to imbibe the culture and tradition in their daily activities.
- to acquire knowledge and development of entrepreneurship skills as practised among the Yoruba people and adequate preparation for secondary school education (NERDC).

In view of this, a curriculum was designed to serve as roadmap which spelt out the contents which the students must complete together with the teachers' input that will assist the teachers to make proper delivery of the lessons towards attaining the academic performance. The curriculum is meant to be a tool to facilitate effective learning. Seweje (2004) presented the curriculum as a plan of the teaching and learning activities involving both the teacher and his pupils adding that curriculum includes all planned programmes of activities that are geared towards the development of the learner physically and spiritually within an education setting with a view of developing the society's culture. In September 2008, the UBE programme was changed to 9 years continuous programme because it was observed that, Nigeria system of education suffers a serious setback in the acquisition of skills, critical thinking and the use of intelligence coupled with good ideas to approach issues for meaningful living to be able to face the challenges in the society. It was also observed that the use of mother tongue is very important to knowledge acquisition.

The Yoruba language curriculum was expanded and modified to lay more emphasis on the acquisition of skills in cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains of learning. More importantly it was modified to accommodate the teaching of intellectual, ethical and moral responsibilities, entrepreneurial skills and ability of the students to build up social acceptance behaviour, treasure and preservation of Yoruba culture. The contents of the curriculum is characterised by the teaching of grammar, culture and oral and written literature. Ajibola (2008) emphasised that the Yoruba language curriculum involved the infusion of indigenous knowledge and technologies such as traditional arts and crafts, traditional food system and medicine, knowledge of the environment and African civilisation, communication skills which is the ability to read Yoruba language text with understanding. NERDC (2008) emphasised that, no topic or aspect of teaching, learning process should be left to chance therefore Teachers should practice the

skills that pose challenges to them very well before they go into the classroom to teach. All these are specified and broken down into learnable units and topics. They are also organised and structured into various sections with specified instructional objectives which the students are to achieve at the end of a particular lesson for easy teaching and learning to take place. Obiama (2008) noted that, learners having successfully passed through nine years basic education should have basic rudiment for creative thinking, high moral and ethical values.

Therefore, in order to appreciate the values of this curriculum, it needs to be implemented accordingly - as a way of getting the plan working. It is the duty of the teachers to interpret the curriculum into a workable blueprint. Eamon Stack (2005) opined that the task of curriculum implementation is complex that involves teachers translating curriculum document into practice, embracing new teaching programmes, and methodologies and providing a broader range of learning experiences for their pupils. The extent to which a curriculum is implemented in the classroom could be associated with the teacher's involvement in the process. Kelly (2018) explained that, teachers hold the key to the curriculum process adding that using a wide variety of techniques, teachers encourage learning by delivering contents in creative and impactful ways. The successful implementation of the Universal Basic Education Yoruba Language curriculum will facilitate effects to reduce illiteracy to the minimum and increase the productive workforce in all the sectors of the economy. Oyekan (2005) stressed that the creative self – relevant UBE graduates shall not be easy preys of ignorance, violence, political enslavement and economic exploitation as they would engage in production of sustainable wealth and efficient service to live descent gainful life. Therefore, in order to implement the curriculum effectively, there must be a flow of knowledge from the teacher to the students. This can be carried out through

- ✓ Effective selection of contents
- ✓ Proper planning of instructional activities and learning experiences
- ✓ Adequate utilisation of instructional materials
- ✓ Proper selection of learning environment
- ✓ Application of what the learners have learnt to new situation and the desire to continue in learning.

• **Selection of Contents.**

The contents of the curriculum contains activities which if adequately executed would develop students intelligence and personality to a reasonable extent. Seweje (2004) noted that attention to the selection of contents is always an important aspect in curriculum consideration. The UBE Yoruba language curriculum contents have been selected, broken down into units and topics and spread across the classes involved to toll the line of facilitating efforts to reduce illiteracy to the minimum and increase the productive workforce in all the sectors of the economy. Oyekan (2005) stressed that the creative self-reliant UBE graduate shall not be easy prey of ignorance, violence, political enslavement and economic exploitation as they would engage in production of sustainable wealth and efficient service to live decent gainful life. Ofoha, Uchegbu, Anyikwa and Nkemdirin (2009) viewed that the curriculum is appropriate in terms of goals and contents. The teachers need to study the document for proper implementation.

• **Planning of instructional activities and learning experience.**

Meader (2018) noted that preparation and planning are critical components of effective teaching. The teachers' preparation must always be in line with the stated objectives in planning instructional activities, one of the essential tool is the lesson plan. The lesson plan is the detailed explanation of the process of instruction which the teacher intended to give the learners. It helps the teacher and the learner to achieve a virile learning objective. Teachers are expected to determine the topic of the lesson from where to generate the lesson objective. They are to organise the contents and make procedure for a successful lesson.

The learning experience is the interaction between the teacher, the learners and the learning environment. This is the experience that the learners have during the course of instruction. It is the duty of a professional teacher to engage teaching in a gradual process. This will enable the learners to have close interaction with the contents for learning to take place in order to achieve the instructional objective. It is highly essential for the teachers to teach the contents sequentially. He is expected to guide the learners through the difficulties encounter in the process of learning.

• **Adequate utilisation of instructional materials.**

Instructional materials are resources that can be used to facilitate learning. Adeniyi (2010) refers to instructional materials as materials used by teachers in enhancing the process of teaching and helping the learners to grasp what he intends to communicate to them clearly. The consistent use of learning resources can provide first-hand information and hold students attention which will invariably lead to meaningful understanding of the contents and enhance permanent learning.

• **Learning outcome.**

This is the extent at which the students exhibit the desired learning needs. It is to be determined by the teacher through assessment which may be by grading or other means. There must be evidence of students' application of what they have learnt to new situation and the desire to continue learning. It is the belief of the curriculum developers that what the learners have learnt in the upper basic will lay the foundation for the desire to continue learning Yoruba language.

However, the researcher observed that the overall knowledge of the graduate of the Basic Education in Yoruba language at the end of their Basic circle of Education is not encouraging. It seems the graduate of Basic Education Yoruba language are not morally, attitudinally and culturally influenced by the curriculum. It appears many of them still

lack basic lifelong skills and they are not functionally literate in the language. It appears the amount of contents being exposed to in Yoruba language has not met the aspiration of the nation to make them to be self-reliant. Thus Osalusi (2011) noted that none of the educational needs of the child has been implemented on a really significant scale.

Obanya (2004) equally noted that there seems to be a mismatch between what is prescribed, what is practised and what is achieved by the curriculum. It seems the appropriate corresponding learning experience to the objectives as earmarked by the curriculum have not been achieved hence a lot of students failed to continue further learning the subject at the higher level. The objectives of the UBE Yoruba language cannot be achieved if the curriculum is not well implemented. It is on this note that this research evaluate the implementation of the Universal Basic Education Yoruba Language Curriculum.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical model for this study is based on Context, Input, Process, Product (CIPP) curriculum evaluation model of Stufflebeam (1971) which is a decision oriented model. It is a model that involves the use of judgement on the extent of the attainment of stated goal. This mode has its route from Tyler (1949) evaluation model. Tyler stressed that, evaluation as process seeks to determine the extent at which the educational objectives of educational programme or a curriculum are actually being attained. Tyler in his view stressed that, the achievement of outcome is very essential and paramount in accordance with the stated goals and objectives in which outcome should be related to the stated goals to determine if there is any discrepancy which could lead to judgement. The CIPP identifies four types of evaluation which are – context evaluation, input evaluation, process evaluation and product evaluation. It can as well explain what needs to be done, how it should be, is it being done? And did it succeed? The main purpose of the theory is to make decision on an educational programme in order to determine the extent of which the objectives have been realised. This is with a view whether to improve on the programme, to terminate it or to proceed. The content is the reason, the basis for the programme. It diagnoses the problems and describes the programme objectives. It compares the actual with the intended. It is a way of setting a particular goal to be achieved using the content of the curriculum.

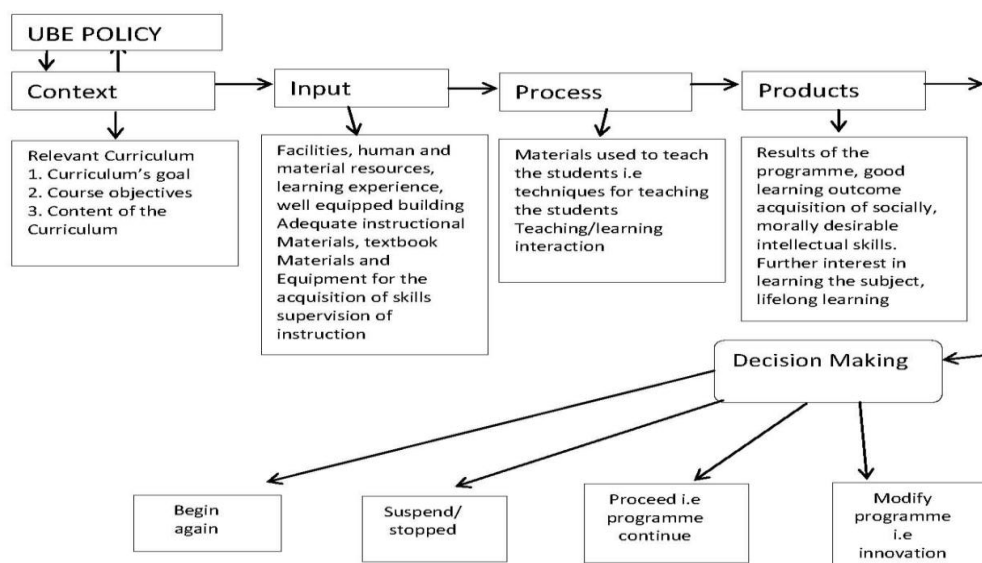
The second stage is input. The inputs are the resources to be used which can bring about achievement of the desired goals. This encompasses the available resources that are provided in order to be sure that objectives are effectively attained. It means using various facilities and methods of teaching to interact with the students.

The next stage is process. This is the interaction of the teachers, the learners and the materials in the classroom. The process is the actual classroom situation where the curriculum is put into operation. It involves assessing to discover various problems that may come up in the course of the programme.

The next is product. Product is the achievement or the output of the programme. This will also determine the quality of the contents of the curriculum in transforming the learners.

The justification for the use of the model is that, it is a comprehensive framework for guiding evaluation programmes, personnel, projects, products, institutions and system. It is to evaluate the effectiveness of a programme to know the extent of achieving the stated objectives. It will also assist in determining the unmet needs, assess the products and take decision to be able to provide feedback for corrective purpose.

The adapted model for this evaluation study can be summarised in the following diagram



Context: the context represents the goals and objectives, provisions of Universal Basic Education Yoruba Language Curriculum as well as the contents of the Curriculum. This is in accordance with the context of the Curriculum in terms of Curriculum goals, course objectives contents of the Curriculum, the context as recommended by the UBE Yorubá

Language Curriculum are for the students to be able to acquire critical thinking, read properly, write adequately and speak fluently in Yorùbá Language to acquire adequate knowledge on the use of Yorùbá Language, putting into consideration the rules guiding the use of speaking and writing of Yorùbá Language. To imbibe the culture and tradition in his daily activities, to enable the students to speak Yorùbá Language fluently without mix up, to develop interest at reading Yorùbá Newspaper, journals and story books, to acquire knowledge in writing stories, to develop interest in the acquisition of traditional Yorùbá skills and vocations, adequate preparation for senior secondary school education.

Input: The inputs represent the facilities, that is, human and material resources. The UBE promise to make provision for human and material resources, facilities. (NERD, 2008). Hence, the inputs in the model represent the facilities and material resources to implement the Yorùbá Language Curriculum as well as the learning experiences of the learners and other environmental conditions.

Process: The process is the interaction of the learners with learning environment and the learning facilities through the effort of the teachers. It represent the process of implementing the programme, material used to teach the students, teaching strategies, techniques for teaching the students.

Product: These are the actual behaviour exhibit by the learners, as a result of being exposed to the course.

It represent the outcome, that is, the expected behaviour, good learning outcome, successful academic achievement, acquisition of socially, morally desirable intellectual skills. Further interest in learning the subject, lifelong learning. Source: UBE Yorùbá Language Curriculum (NERD, 2008).

The system operation represents the UBE programme itself, there is an arrow that shows the linkage between the UBE system operation and the context. Also another arrow shows the interconnectivity between the context to the input and the process, finally link with the product. After the product, the decision will be taken on the programme either to suspend the Curriculum, if it is not beneficial to the learner or to proceed on the programme, if the programme is relevant and of good benefit to the students or to modify it and modification could come in terms of innovation.

IV. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The researcher observed that the performance of the Yoruba language students at the end of their basic circle of education is not encouraging. It is observed that the corresponding appropriate educational experience to the objectives of the UBE Yoruba language curriculum has not been achieved. Also the practicality of the language to teach cultural and traditional occupation is gradually fading away and the rate at which students drop out in Yoruba language kept on increasing. In view of these problems, the evaluation of the Yoruba language UBE programme becomes very germane.

V. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Are the copies of Universal Basic Education Yoruba language curriculum available in schools for teachers teaching Yoruba language to use?
2. Are the contents of the curriculum fully implemented by teachers teaching Yoruba language?
3. What is the outcome of the student's performance in the achievement test?

VI. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the implementation of the universal Basic Education Yoruba language curriculum in public secondary schools in South Western States of Nigeria. This is to ascertain the extent of the coverage of the Curriculum. The study also seek to determine how the objectives of the UBE Yoruba language Curriculum being achieved.

VII. METHODOLOGY

The study adopted a descriptive research of the survey type. The population consisted of all Yoruba language teachers and students in the upper basic public schools in the South Western States of Nigeria. The sample consisted of 300 teachers that are teaching Yoruba language and 1,200 students of Yoruba language in the upper basic schools.

Three instruments were used to elicit information from the respondents. The teachers' questionnaire on the implementation of the Universal Basic Education Yoruba language curriculum, with the reliability of 0.78, secondly, the questionnaire on students' attitudes towards the implementation of the UBE Yoruba language curriculum with the reliability coefficient of 0.76 and the students' achievement test on the implementation of the UBE Yoruba language curriculum.

VIII. RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses were generated to guide this study.

Hypothesis 1

There is no significant relationship between the prescribed contents of the UBE Yorùbá Language Curriculum and its implementation.

Hypothesis 2

There is no significant relationship between students' attitude and acquisition of Yoruba language skills, cultural values and the development of entrepreneurship skills in the implementation of UBE Yoruba language Curriculum.

Results

Question 1 – Are the copies of the Universal Basic Education Yoruba language Curriculum available for the teachers teaching Yoruba language?

TABLE 1
FREQUENCY COUNTS AND PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES ON AVAILABILITY OF UBE YORUBA LANGUAGE CURRICULUM

Items	Agree		Disagree	
	Freq	%	Freq	%
Every Yoruba language teacher has a copy of the UBE Yoruba language curriculum in your school?	28	9.3	272	90.7
Copies of Yoruba language UBE curriculum are not available in schools	240	80.0	60	20.0
Teachers copy the previous year's scheme of work to teach due to non-availability of curriculum in schools	261	87.0	39	13.0

Table 1 shows that only 28 (9.3%) of the teachers has copies each of UBE Yoruba language curriculum while 272 that is (90.7%) did not have. On the other hand, 240 (80%) of the teachers indicated non availability of copies of Yoruba language curriculum while 39 (13%) disagreed on this. However, 261 which is (87%) of the teachers use to copy previous year's scheme work to teach due to non-availability of the UBE curriculum while 39 that is 39% disagreed on this.

Question 2 – Are the contents of the Curriculum fully implemented?

TABLE 2
FREQUENCY COUNTS AND PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES SHOWING THE PROPORTION OF THE CONTENTS OF THE CURRICULUM FULLY IMPLEMENTED

Level of implementation of UBE Yoruba language curriculum	Freq	%
Low 0.00 – 59.00	217	72.3
High 60.00 – 100	83	27.7
Total	300	100

Table 2 showed that 217 which is (72.3%) of teachers indicated low level of implementation of the UBE Yoruba language Curriculum while 83 that is (27.7%) of teachers indicated high level of implementation of the Curriculum.

In addition to this, students Yoruba language class notebooks which comprised the workload of JSS 1-3 were compared with the record of work done. The result is presented in table 3.

TABLE 3
PERCENTAGE SCORE OF THE LEVEL OF THE CONTENTS OF THE YORUBA LANGUAGE CURRICULUM BEING IMPLEMENTED

Class	JSS1	JSS2	JSS3	Total Average
% of coverage of the curriculum	35	28	30	27.66

From the table 3, it was discovered that 27.66% of the whole curriculum contents were covered at the end of the basic circle of education.

Therefore the implementation of the UBE Yoruba language contents is very low. This implies that the contents of the curriculum have not been fully implemented.

Question 3 – What is the outcome of the students' performance in achievement test?

TABLE 4
FREQUENCY COUNT AND PERCENTAGE ANALYSIS SHOWING THE ACHIEVEMENT IN YORUBA LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENT TEST

Score	Grade	Freq	Percentage	Remark
70 above	A	54	4.5	Excellent
60 – 69	B	62	5.1	Good
50 – 59	C	120	10	Average
40 – 49	D	253	21.1	Fair
1 – 39	E	711	59.3	Poor
Total	–	1200	100	

Table 4 showed that 54 which is (4.5%) of the students examined scored 70 and above which is excellent while 62 (5.1%) of the students examined scored 60 – 69 marks which is good. It is further revealed that 120 that is (10%) of the students examined scored 50 – 59 marks which is average. Also 253 that is (21%) of the students examined scored 40 –

49 which is fair while 711 that is (59.3%) of the students examined scored 1 – 39 marks which is poor. This indicated that the performance of the students by the results of the achievement test is very poor. This implies that, the implementation has not been fully achieved.

Testing of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

There is no significant relationship between the prescribed contents of the UBE Yorùbá Language Curriculum and its implementation.

TABLE 5
PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION OF ANALYSIS OF PRESCRIBED CONTENTS OF UBE YORUBA LANGUAGE CURRICULUM AND ITS IMPLEMENTATION

Variables	N	Mean	SD	r cal	r tab
Prescribed contents of UBE Yoruba Language Curriculum	300	152.60	24.54	0.464	0.195
Implementation of UBE Yoruba Language Curriculum	300	58.01	10.33		

Table 5 shows that there exist a moderate positive significant relationship between the prescribed contents of UBE Yoruba Language Curriculum and its implementation ($r = 0.464$, $P < 0.05$). The null hypothesis is rejected. It implies that there is a significant relationship between the prescribed contents of UBE Yoruba Language Curriculum and its implementation.

Hypothesis 2

There is no significant relationship between students' attitude and acquisition of Yoruba Language skills, cultural values and the development of entrepreneurial skills.

TABLE 6
CORRELATION MATRIX OF STUDENTS' ATTITUDE, ACQUISITION OF YORUBA LANGUAGE SKILLS, ACQUISITION OF CULTURAL VALUES AND ACQUISITION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP SKILLS

	Students' attitude	Acquisition of Yoruba language skills	Acquisition of Yoruba cultural values	Acquisition and development of entrepreneurship skills
Students' attitude	1.000	-.086	-.092	-.024
Students' acquisition of Yoruba Language skills		1.000	.352**	.460**
Students' acquisition of cultural values			1.000	.361**
Students' acquisition and development of entrepreneurship skills				1.000

Table 6 shows that, the relationship between students' attitude and acquisition of Yoruba Language skills ($r = -0.086$, $P > 0.05$), acquisition of Yoruba cultural values ($r = -0.092$, $P > 0.05$) acquisition and development of entrepreneurship skills ($r = -0.024$, $P > 0.05$) is low, negative and not significant at 0.05 level of significance. Also students' acquisition of Yoruba language skills had a low and positive relationship with students' acquisition of cultural values ($r = 0.352$, $P < 0.05$) and students' acquisition and development of entrepreneurship skills $r = 0.460$, $P < 0.05$) at level of significance in each case. Similarly, there exist a low positive and significant correlation between students' acquisition of cultural values and acquisition of entrepreneurship skills at 0.05 level of significance $r = 0.361$, $P > 0.05$.

IX. FINDINGS

The findings of this study revealed that the Universal Basic Education Yoruba language curriculum booklets were not available in most schools for teachers to use. Majority of Yoruba teachers were not familiar with the curriculum and so they made use of some other available related scheme. This is in conformity with the observation of Okah (2010) that the implementation of the curriculum has been very sloppy as a result of alienation of the end users. Also Humphreys and Crawford (2014) noted that many schools lack the relevant curriculum document. Okah (2010) also noted that when many teachers were asked in a recent survey, they denied ever coming across copies of the curriculum. This indicate why teachers copied related scheme of work as yearly routine.

The result also revealed that the level of the implementation of the UBE Yoruba language curriculum was low as most of the contents were either not fully taught or not taught at all. This was in line with the view of Oforha et al (2005) that the curriculum is appropriate in terms of goals and objectives but found weak in its method of implementation. This is as a result of accumulated untaught curriculum contents in relation to the amount of teaching done.

The findings also revealed that, only few students passed the achievement test at 40% and above. The achievement

test was to test the ability of the students and the extent of the coverage of the curriculum. The result did not meet the target of UBE Yoruba language curriculum which proposed to achieve 100% in the students' performance. This result correspond with the view of Obanya (2004) that in many cases, there would be gap between the intended curriculum and the learned curriculum. Also Ayeni (2003) opined that, the performance of learners is rated on the memory recall of the teaching contents and the success of the trained is measured in terms of overtly demonstrated skills and that, it is the skill that students are able to exhibit that shows the extent of learning. Odukoya (2010) also revealed that wide disparities in educational standard and learning achievement this is due to the process of implementation.

The findings further showed that, there is a moderate significant relationship between the prescribed contents of the Universal Basic Education Yoruba Language Curriculum and its implementation. This indicates that, so many teachers teach without following the prescribed contents, probably they teach the content at their own pace. This finding correspond with the view of Offorha (2005) that Curriculum implementation entails putting into practice the officially prescribed course of study. It is the teaching of the prescribed contents that can lead to the achievement of the stated goals. The researcher is of the opinion that where scheme of work, preparation of lesson note, statement of behavioural objective is faulty, the Curriculum implementation will also be faulty because these are the processes of the input that lead to the effective implementation of the curriculum. This also agreed with the findings of Ayodele (2008) that the knowledge of the students in the act of culture and tradition is very shallow and called for use of demonstration and videotape mediated instructional method in teaching Yoruba language and culture.

X. CONCLUSION

The UBE Yoruba Language Curriculum involved the development of human capital which can assist in the development of the nation's economy. The findings of the study revealed that the nation's educational policy to attain greatness in poverty eradication and self – reliance in order to improve the standard of living through the provision of the curriculum is a laudable programme.

However, findings of the study revealed that there is a great deficiency in the acquired learning experience and the desire learning outcome. This shows a great deficiency between the intended Curriculum and the one actually practiced by the teachers. The Curriculum itself could not go round the schools therefore many teachers were not able to lay their hands on it. The major part of the Curriculum contents were not fully taught probably this might be due to shortage of numbers of period allotted to the subject on the timetable and partly due to the little understanding and method of teaching employed by the Yoruba language teachers. In view of all these, one can conclude that the UBE Yoruba Language Curriculum has not been implemented.

XI. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings, the following recommendations were made:

- Copies of the UBE Yoruba language curriculum should be made available to all the teachers and to the school libraries in south western Nigeria.
- Teachers should endeavour to teach the contents of the curriculum adequately and relate them to the goals and objectives of the Nigeria education.
- Since the UBE Yoruba Language Curriculum involves development and acquisition of skills, corresponding instructional materials required for learning and acquisition of Skills must be provided.

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Dimensions of Literature and Journalism, History, Ideology and Culture

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Abstract—Literature is a hugely loaded term that brings within its ambit a variety of concerns ranging from philosophy to journalism as there is almost a photo finish between what is construed as journalism and what is commonly and widely presumed literature. Adding interactive or writing multi-platform stories/literature/fiction is quickly becoming a new craft of publishing onto itself and a tool for writers to use. The media field could be very different in coming years---or it could still be just a bunch of promotional tie-ins. The dimensions of literature breach boundaries to conform to the possibilities of generating discourses on issues of humanitarian concerns. Hemingway, Dos Passos, Dickens and Thackeray came to the writing of fiction through journalism. Psychology and Philosophy have given the edges to literature as the likes of James Joyce, Joseph Conrad and Virginia Woolf. Journalism aided the growth of imperial culture and simultaneously provoking a debate between the East and West, between the Fascist and the Liberals and between the Diary of A young Girl and Tin Drum and again between what Bertolt Brecht did in Germany to stave off the last remains of Nazism though diced up in ruins. The difference lies in the manner of treating its shades and colors.

Index Terms—literature and journalism, journalism, definition of journalism, history and ideology, cultural criticism, new media studies, literature overview

I. INTRODUCTION

The dimensions of literature and the objectives of journalism have coalescence of the kind that testifies the close yet marginal distinction between the two. This paper will briefly examine the dimensions of literature and journalism through a comparative analysis between history, ideology and culture. One dimension i.e. history involves the study of coalescence or concussion between the literature and history and ideology. A second dimension involves the study of ideology and its relation with literature and journalism. The third dimension i.e. culture is a broad term and it covers the religion. Language, food and costumes. It also deals with the way the languages are spoken in particular community the way they wear the costumes and the way they cook or serve food. It also encompasses the collective belief or behavior of a community.

II. LITERATURE AND JOURNALISM

Literature in its broadcast sense is any written work, especially those considered of superior or lasting artistic merit. Literature is a hugely loaded term that brings within its ambit a variety of concerns ranging from philosophy to journalism as there is almost a photo finish between what is construed as journalism and what is commonly and widely presumed literature. While defining about the narrative of a literary works. Arendt (2007) says without even committing error of defining it the storytelling defines the meaning. Arendt (2007) Journalism is providing news about the milieu and the rest of the parts of the world to an audience. Journalism on the other hand though is new scentic arguably, but it intrudes unconsciously into the normally considered areas of literature. Academic definitions of both literature vis-à-vis journalism have overlapped time and again to further blur the perceptions that illustrate the profound rupture in the treatment of issues that inadvertently crisscrossed and obviated the traditional hangover of journalism carried forward by those who were primarily journals before switching sides to end up as a m dange of the two.

The dimensions of literature breach boundaries to conform to the possibilities of generating discourses on issues of humanitarian concerns. Reporters and anchors writing pompous prose in a political discourse carries the echoes of literary high faulting jumbled thoughts and the pedantry of expressions importing ideas from the literary streams to add

the punches in the fickle and florid dialogues with polity. Journalism therefore is a divorced mistress of the authoritarian literature.

Dickens and Thackeray came to the writing of fiction through journalism and their writings echoed the erstwhile flair they had evolved while writing on the moods of the British mavericks controlling the humbled and petrified consciousness at a time when literature was ambling up to define what is said in journalism as an afterthought of literature. Hemingway, Dos Passos, Charles Dickens and Thackeray trained their guns on journalism with a shooting mouth to raise alarms in turbulent British and American societies with their razor sharp piercing satirical lamentations on the polity of their time. Thus the dimensions of literature are more apparent than the concealed journalistic babbling and the debate between the two is akin to that of two brothers raising a wall in a courtyard.

III. LITERATURE : OLD ENGLISH LITERATURE AN OVERVIEW

The first epic poem in English literature is Beowulf. It is a story of about 3000 lines. Beowulf is about the king of Danes known as Hrothgar and a brave young man, Beowulf is from Sweden who goes to help the king Hrothgar. By the end of the poem Beowulf becomes the king and has to fight against a fire-breathing creature to defend his country. Although he kills the animal but gets badly wounded and succumbs to his injuries at the end. The poem ends with the tragic description of Beowulf's funeral fire. Following are the few lines of it with the paraphrase:

Alegdon tha tommiddes maerne theodon
 Healeth hiofende leofne
 Ongunnon tha on beorge hael-rec astah
 Sweart ofer swiothole swogende leg
 Wope bewunden

The mourning soldiers laid the body of their chivalrous and brave prince in the middle. The men lit the greatest fire for the great prince on the top of the hill. It was a combination of the noise of fire and the cries of the mournful soldiers on the hill when the wood rose into black smoke in the sky. Some critics don't accept Beowulf as part of English literature since it can't be read or understood by a common English learner. Only those who have made special study of it can paraphrase and understand it. There are many other old English poems. Genesis A and Genesis B are among them.

Caedman and Cynewulf are among the old English poets. Cynewulf, it is said, wrote four poems, Juliana, The Fates of the Apostles, Christ, and Elene. However, it is not certainly known about the poets of the poems Andreas and Guthlac. Critics say these poems were also written by either both of them or by one of them.

The battle of Maldon is also one of the well known old English poems. This poem is about the battle which was fought against Danes in 991 and the poem was written after that. Here are a few lines of it with modern English translation.

Hige sceal the headra heorte the cenre
 Mod seal the mare the ure mae gen lytlath
 Her lith ure te a maeg gnornian
 Se the nu fram this wigplegan wendan thenceth

The mind must be the firmer, the heart must be the braver, the courage must be the greater, as our strength grows less. Here lies our lord all cut to pieces, the good man on the ground. If anyone thinks now to turn away from this war-play, may he be unhappy for ever after.

'Widsith', 'Doer' and 'Beowulf' are referred as pre-Christian age poems or the Anglo-Saxon poems dealing with the pagan age. These poems were compiled some time between the eighth and tenth century. These poems depict the picture of civilized society with barbaric spirit impregnated with moral sense.

According to critics the Old English prose came much later than the verse. King Alfred (849-901) translated a number of Latin books into Old English for his people to read and understand. He also worked to improve the education of his people. Aelfric was also one of the important writers of Old English prose. He wrote religious works like Homilies and Lives of Saints. His prose style is considered to be the best among the old English writers.

Middle English Literature: From Norman Conquest to Chaucer: It is difficult to define the beginning or end of a social age. Only a chronological study of major events of that era can vaguely decide the beginning or end of an era. Chaucer who lived to see the reigns of three kings of England was the first national poet of the country. Many of his poems are filled with romantic idealism. However, the depiction of a pleasure-loving Monk and roguish and greedy Friars and priests depict the shocking state of religion in the age of Chaucer.

Elizabethan Age: Although queen Elizabeth ruled between 1558 to 1603 but according to critics the Elizabethan age of literature started only in 1579. During the Elizabethan age learning to write poetry was a part of a nobleman's education. The poet who introduced the Elizabethan age was Edmund Spenser in 1579. He produced a poem 'The Shepherd's Calendar' in twelve books. The sonnets of Shakespeare were written between 1593 and 1600. The chief literary glory of the great Elizabethan age was drama. Shakespeare's plays Hamlet and Macbeth are considered as some of the best tragedies ever written in the world literature. Even after the passage of hundreds of years the plays still hold our attention. The tragic heroes Hamlet and Macbeth keep our sympathy but the end is certain and unavoidable.

Charles II became king in 1660 and the change in literature was also as great as the change in the government. The tragic drama of this period was mainly based on the heroic plays where men played the role of brave protagonists and

the women were projected as beautiful creatures. The plays were written in heroic couplets and the best example of it is John Dryden's work.

Literature during Second World War: Although the years of Second World War are not considered as distinguished period for literature but T.S. Eliot's Four Quartets, one of the masterpieces of the century, Can't be ignored. Apart from literature the general enthusiasm was towards the performing arts like music, theatre, ballet and painting

IV. DEFINITION OF JOURNALISM

Journalism is basically disseminating information deemed by the disseminator to be in the public interest. A more complex definition of journalism is the act of speaking truth to power. Journalism is considered the fourth pillar of a civil society or a democratic nation. In a society where the affairs of the state are run on taxes collected from the public, there is a need for a group that will hold the government accountable for how that money is spent. This is where journalism and journalists come to the fore.

There is a famous saying, attributed to George Orwell, that "journalism is printing what someone else does not want printed — everything else is public relations." Journalism, plain and simple, means empowering people with relevant information concerning the events of the day, week or year. There is a certain element of immediacy to journalism, especially in the present era of social media. People are immediately informed of what is happening with a certain issue, a certain government, a certain controversy, or a certain scandal.

Journalism is related to history in the sense that historians collate information about things that have happened in the past. Journalism is also sometimes called "literature in a hurry" but this only pertains to the craft of the language, the craft of the written, or the spoken word. There is otherwise no similarity or no comparison between literature and journalism. Journalism is based purely on facts; it is a different matter to acknowledge that journalists sometimes twist facts to suit a given agenda.

On the other hand, literature is often pure fiction though it may have some connection with real events. Literature is essentially created from a writer's imagination.

In the past, journalism was difficult to practice because there were very few outlets for airing thoughts or publishing reports. That is no longer the case because of the arrival of social media along with the technology that has empowered pretty much everybody with a cellphone which has a camera and an Internet connection.

Everybody can be a journalist because he or she is passing on relevant information within his circle or to those who subscribe to their blogs or to their websites or to their podcasts. How committed one is to true journalism depends on the credibility that the person enjoys among his or her circle of followers.

Good journalists, good podcasters, and good bloggers will remain in business because of the credibility they enjoy for having done their job of relaying information truthfully, exactly and, most importantly, without either malice or an agenda.

Journalism is the safety valve in many societies because to be informed is to be empowered and that is what journalism does — it empowers people, with facts and figures, thus enabling them to speak truth to power.

V. HISTORY AND IDEOLOGY

Ideology is the science of ideas. The study of the origin of thoughts and nature. Philosophy is the study of the origin of once belief. Culture has great impact on ideology and philosophy. Ideology and philosophy have direct impact on once personality. Psychology and Philosophy have given the edges to literature as the likes of James Joyce, Joseph Conrad and Virginia Woolf were more inclined to unearth the psychological bases of the human thoughts in times of distress. Journalism too at times trespasses the bounds of propriety to usher in a prosaic yet reverberating phase of intellectual writings. History and sociology too are the wickedly brothers of literature separated by the discovery of domains as separate entities. The ideology confronting literature and journalism are not mooted into fashionable exhibition of phraseology and idioms though again journalism acts as the sister cousin of an arrogant brother.

VI. CULTURAL CRITICISM

Culture is the arts and other manifestations of human intellectual achievement regarded collectively. While teaching the art of literary appreciation of a work of literature we teach students to question them in a meaningful way that changes their perspective. (Beck, McKeown, Hamilton, & Kucan, 1997; Liang & Dole, 2006) Culture is a common pursuit chased by the slogan shouting cultural critics like Edward Said, Gayatri Spivak, Antonio Gramsci, Roland Barthes, Jacques Derrida and Lacan. These critics referred to as cultural critics explored the dynamics of cultural study as an independent research area by exposing the dominant Western political authority in providing a foothold to is rather superficial, jingoistic and ultra nationalist literature that flourished through a long handle of imperial assertions. That apart journalism aided the growth of imperial culture and simultaneously provoking a debate between the East and West, between the Fascist and the Liberals and between the Diary of A young Girl and Tin Drum and again between what Bertolt Brecht did in Germany to stave off the last remains of Nazism though diced up in ruins. Literature,

Journalism both study culture in their own inimitable ways but the modus operandi is rotated to distinguish the domains called by different names with a philosophy as common as the study of civilization and culture.

VII. NEW MEDIA STUDIES

It is a new academic discipline. It is a combination of visual and performing arts, humanities, science and computing. Students are exposed to ideas and insights on media from communication theorists, programmers, educators, and technologists. The need to study new media is grounded in a basic idea: when the media through which we create and communicate shift from primarily analogue forms (print, film, canvas, vinyl) to digital forms and networks, are practices of creating and communicating change along with them.

The field of media studies probes/ investigates into important burning issues and topics:

- Study of Cinema production and digital media
- Studies of topics to produce documentary movies
- Analysis of successful documentary movies
- Media studies
- History, criticism, design and philosophy of media
- Technical management of media
- Keen study of media with special focus on digital media
- Public Interaction and interviews
- Script and screen writing
- Trans Media and Digital Story Telling

Comparative Literature or global Literature deals with the literature of different cultures and languages. It is frequently practiced with masterpieces of different languages. It can also be practiced with works of same language from two different cultures and ethnicities. The field of comparative literature deals with literature as a whole and other parts of human culture, politics, history, science and sometimes even the sociology.

Media is an outlet tool that stores and provides information to its consumers. There are many faces of media like print media, digital media. Photography, advertising, cinema and broadcasting also come under it. The main intent of any media is to pass information to public. A common man when he wakes up in the morning either he looks for a newspaper or switches on the television to know what is happening around him or on the planet. Let's not ignore the existence of the latest form of media which is mobile phones and internet. A large number of consumers, nowadays, rely on internet to get news. Although ophthalmologist are constantly warning people to reduce the usage of mobile phones but still there are millions of people who switch on their mobile phones in the morning to look for the current news.

Print media typically includes newspapers, articles, journals etc. on the other hand, electronic media could be internet, television etc.

Print Media

- Print media is considered more authentic form of information than electronic media.
- Choice of reading – Printed material like newspapers and magazines can be carried easily.
- Its cost is not very high as compared to other kind of media. A daily newspaper is generally available for less than a dollar in most parts of the world.
- It is an handy kind of reference material. People who even work in the field or farms can carry it as a reference.
- In countries like India blue chip companies generally rely on newspapers for ad campaigns

Electronic media

- Although electronic media is a modern and advance form of media but in some countries it has lost its credibility.
- Electronic media has created a lot of jobs for people and it is a more interesting form of media. People can see motion pictures of events and accidents. They can directly hear the opinions of people just in a way as they chit chat in their drawing rooms. Some TV channels even provide the opportunity of calling to their Politicians or showbiz personalities and asking their questions to the audience.
- There are hundreds of channel available. The viewers can watch the channels of their choice.
- For a newspaper you need to wait for it to come next day whereas a TV channel provides the news in minutes. The viewers can get live information of events.

Social networking sites are increasingly becoming important for expression of individual identity. The articulation is not merely narcissistic, but it also supports peer-based sociality. Young people use social networking sites to experiment as well as find political, ethnic, cultural or sexual identity. A research shows that social networking sites can facilitate a sense of connectedness, community and belonging. The opportunity to express one creatively, explore and experiment with identity and the production---as well as consumption---of online content is central to the way that social networking sites strengthens and builds communities.

The second line of argument is even more common to the common imagination that Journalism informs while literature interprets. The basic demarcation perhaps suffices to define the roles assigned to them but the danger of journalism looms large on the literary thought process. The passages written by Joyce, Hemingway and Stephan Crane

remind of the lost journalistic connections between journalism and literature. When a journalist writes, he writes the events of the day and when a litterateur writes, he writes the thought of the day. The dimensions of literature and the objectives of journalism have a coalescence of the kind one is left gasping for breath itself, testifies the close yet marginal distinctions between the two. History records silently the literary complexities of a confused mind and the reports of a journo filed at the end of the day with its own judgment on either of the two as abiding or revolting. Culture is what both the pundits of literature and journalism study. The difference lies in the manner of treating its shades and colors.

VIII. CONCLUSION

The dimensions of literature breach boundaries to conform to the possibilities of generating discourses on issues of humanitarian and social concerns. Psychology and philosophy have given the edges to literature. Literature and journalism both study culture in their own ways. Academic definitions of both literature and journalism have overlapped time and again. Journalism is giving readers the information about what they want to know. Sometimes electronic media steps further ahead and gives information of what their audience even don't want to know. Hence many kinds of journals and newspapers like political journals, journals on movies and soaps, journals on fashion and vogue, journals on agriculture journals on social life, journals on crime and investigation, journals on religious believe and journals on pets. Sometimes we feel surprised about the types of journals but, I think, they produce what is being sold in the market. We can apply the same logic for the journals on pornography. They are being produce because they are being sold in the market. The answer of the producers of such journal to their critics might be 'stop the demand of such journals from market and we will stop producing them.' The logic of demand and supply should be applied here too. The writers of this paper find very difficult to classify the political journal or the journals tacitly owned by political parties. This can also be applied on TV news channels. Many news channels around the world have become the mouthpiece of political parties. In the countries like India, every channel is owned by one or other political party. The minute you switch on the TV you clearly understand the ownership of the channel. However, it cannot be ignored that there are some TV |Channels which are truly involved in objective journalism.

Culture is a common pursuit chased by the slogan shouting cultural critics like Edward Said, Gayatri Spivak, Antonio Gramsci, Roland Barthes, Jacques Derrida and Lacan. The journalism informs while literature interprets hence the danger of journalism looms large on the literary thought process. Journalists pen the events while the writers pen the thoughts. If a journalist does not pen the events honestly or objectively then this might have a lethal impact on society. This may create a chasm between societies. We have find many examples of such kind in the history. The same can be said about the literature. It is the responsibility of a creative writer to produce the true image of the society or point at the problems of the society objectively. History is developed on the basis of the events reported by journalists and on the basis of the events.

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Teaching and Learning Interactional Patterns in Speaking Subject at Several Higher Educational Institutions

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Abstract—This study seeks to find the models applied in interactional pattern of teaching and learning activities on speaking subject in both religious and non-religious universities. In this qualitative study, a realistic ethnographic approach was used. The researchers played a key role as the research instrument. The data are lecturers and students' speech fragments in learning and teaching speaking skills. The instruments were technically obtained through observation using video recording. The data sources are the lecturers and students' spoken transcripts. The result of this study proved that teaching and learning interactional patterns on speaking subject at the religious based universities revealed that they are under the lecturers' control. In religious universities, the lecturers speak more than students (TTT), whereas in non-religious universities students are given more speaking opportunities (STT). Interaction occurs when students construct their experience and knowledge with the received information. Lecturers at both universities were not able to facilitate students developing and expressing their ideas. Both religious and non-religious universities' learning and teaching interactional patterns at the speaking subjects implemented towards constructivism. Through generative learning strategy, some elements reflect each step of the strategies, although at an early stage. It is necessary to develop varied learning models which engage students' active participation. In addition, there should be an understanding towards the concept of classroom interactional competence.

Index Terms—interactional patterns of learning and teaching, speaking, classroom discourse

I. INTRODUCTION

The essence of learning concerns with a process of interaction between educators and learners. In a learning situation, the learners are given their access to the educators' facilities in order that they can experience effectively the learning process. Bearing in mind, the key learning process is on the interaction between participants, educators and learners, and learning in collaboration (Sue et al., 2005). Allwright and Ellis (1991) argue that successful learning is closely related to the success of interactional management. The most influential factor in students' development and coaching is the educators (Kauchak, 2012). Banner and Todd (cited in Frances, 2002) suggest that the way an educator speaks shows the impact on students' learning.

In an interaction of both teaching and learning activities, speaking skills mastery is quite significant. Since speaking is a second language learning method people do as a kind of linguistic acquisition after having learned from listening. Speaking ability can be an effective measurement to understand a language (Bashir et al, 2011). Speaking skill is a typical skill in producing spoken language containing messages to convey others (Nurgiyantoro, 2012; Ahmadi, 1990). Speaking activity according to Florez (cited in Ismail, et al, 2011) is an interactive process in constructing certain meanings that involve the production, acceptance and processing of information. A speaking skill is about spontaneous, open-ended and naturality. Such skills are of pivotal requirement to build information acquired from the existing self-experience or knowledge. In fact, the speaking skills embodiment remains difficult and confronts with a lot of constraints to realize the ideal teaching-learning interaction. This situation may not only occur to Indonesian students. An evidence from Thai as Punthumasen noted that (Buenger, 2013) the Thai learners have low English speaking skills, while in the dominant lecture / explanatory lesson, learners were asked to write down the lesson from the board and memorize them. This situation according to Saengboon and Wongsothorn, et. al. (Buenger, 2013) that English learning in Thailand has too much content in the curriculum, educators, burdens and excessive responsibility, in addition to there are abundant students within a class.

In Indonesian context, Untoro's research (2010) indicated that the Indonesian learners speaking ability is below average, the significant difference lays on the educators' dominant roles within the learning process, consequently learners are not given much opportunity to train their speaking abilities. Similarly, the observations made in classroom activities, the lecturers who control the learning. As noted by Edwards and Wastgate (1994). that in a formal education, the learning as a 'verbal meeting' is arranged by lecturers, the learning takes place in one direction, in such a case, the lecturers take more dominant roles in teaching and learning process.

The teacher's role in shaping class interaction needs to be reconsidered, as is the idea of teaching the whole class. The lecturers may not just to organize the exercises. Indeed, in most parts of the world, if they just "handed in" to students,

lecturers will be criticized for not doing their job or be accused of neglecting responsibility. The lecturer's assumption of being a 'mere facilitator' may be a middle-class, western, and culture-bound perspective (Walsh, 2006). In line with this fact, evidence from the field shows that learning pattern is still dominated by educators, Untoro's (2010) results emphasize the classroom conversation, dominant lecturer's role, consequently leads into the ineffectiveness of students' learning speaking competence since they are not given subsequent opportunity to speak by their own. Similarly, further argued by Liu and Thao (2012) that lecturers' speaking time allocation surpass the students'. The dominant IRF pattern (Initiation Feedback) often time prevails in classroom. The discussed issues in this study centered on how the interactional patterns of teaching and learning speaking courses at the religious and non-religious universities?

Although feedback is called educators as implications (Allright, Bailey, 1991) other researchers instead propose a variable approach to feedback in interactional discourse. Kasper (1986), i.e., explains that specific implication strategies are either preferred or dispreferred based on the lecturers' objectives, as opposed to 'centralized language' with 'central content' improvements. Van Lier (1988) concludes that improvement is "closely related to the context of what is being done", the implication being that improvement, like other aspects of classroom discourse, is fairly good, or should be, related to pedagogic purposes.

Kasper (2001) argues that the IRF sequence often negatively considered in the language classroom, bearing in mind the learners are only traditionally given minimum interactional space. He goes on to suggest how this position is enhanced when teachers offer learners greater participation in addition to involve more central position in interaction. McCarthy (2003) further explains that 'listeners' on IRF exchanges: students' ability to recognize their involvement in discourse even in an interaction despite the fact that they are not the main speakers. Obviously, as McCarthy underlined, such typical language skill closely related to speaking instead of listening. Arguably, this is a skill that teachers can encourage through more careful interaction with learners (Walsh, 2006).

Studies on classroom discourse undertaken by previous researchers among others Smith (1976), Chadia (2011), Husna, et al (2015), Andryani (2011), Kumpul (2012), Xhemaji (2016). The analyses were typically applied to the research subjects ranging from early childhood up to students of various educational levels by using corpus analysis, conversation linguistic, FIACS. However, previous research results limited on both presenting data analysis and measuring the teachers and learners' participation, none of the researchers concern examining the interactional pattern of teaching and learning in universities. In this article, I analyze the conversations took place between lecturers and students in college.

Discourse analysis according to Brown and Yule (1995) "is the analysis of language in use". This restriction is based on functional language, which means discourse analysis examines what language is used. McCarthy (2003) further points out that discourse analysis deals with the study on the relationship between language and context in a language usage. Thakur (Amatari, 2015) defines a class interaction analysis as "an instrument designed to record verbal interaction categories during, or from, recording teaching and learning session. This is a technique to capture qualitative and quantitative dimensions of the teacher's verbal behavioral activities within the classrooms." The analysis is an analysis of discourse in the classroom and behind the classroom'. Class is the main context of the discourse object of study. 'Context' for discourse analysis underlies communication in both within and beyond the classes. Classroom conversation at the beginning will be different from the final conversation. It describes the classroom teaching and learning interactional patterns. Many contexts influencing what things are spoken and interpreted. Everything spoken in a classroom affects the context underlying it.

Learning and teaching interactional patterns is based on personal point of view. In this study, the teaching and learning interactional pattern is conducted especially to cope with problems on the educators and learners' activities, basic learning interactional pattern, in accordance with constructivism through generative learning strategy (Sardjiyo & Pannen, 2005). Teaching and learning interactional patterns in speaking subjects commonly consist of constructed activities from beginning, core, and to the end. In addition to the strategy use is generative learning strategy consisting of four components, namely motivational component, learning process, process of creation and process generation. The general activities pattern consists of the initial, core, and closing activities. The strategy used is generative learning strategy.

II. METHODS

This study was designed with qualitative methodology (Moleong, 1995), (Sugiyono, 2010) and is based on realistic ethnographical approach (Creswell, 2015). Researchers are considered the 'objective' observers since they are observing the record facts, interactional events in classrooms objectively. The research design adopted classroom discourse analysis. The data are obtained from lecturers and students' speaking fragments on the learning and teaching activities of speaking skills at religious and non-religious universities. The instrument of analysis uses observation on recorded videos which are then transcribed. The data sources are lecturers and students' at religious universities such as the Sultan Agung University of Semarang and Muhammadiyah University of Surakarta, while the non-religious universities are the Surakarta State University (UNS) and PGRI University of Semarang. Data analysis implemented Miles and Huberman's interactive model (Creswell, 2015), conducted in four stages, namely data collection, data reduction, data presentation, and the conclusion or verification of the findings.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The teaching and learning interactional pattern of speaking subjects in religious and non-religious universities has led to constructivism which is dominantly controlled by lecturers although the quality of constructivism may be different. The levels of lecturers' control over students in religious universities is higher than that of non-religious universities. However, in religious universities, religious values contributing to character inculcation is higher than the non-religious universities.

The occurring interactional patterns are divided into early activities, the core that includes motivating activities, learning process, creation process, and generation process. The construction established by students have not yet emerged and evolved out of the knowledge understanding or students' personal experiences. Students usually come out with ideas because they are assigned by the lecturers, related telling stories, taking a role as master of ceremony or host, speech delivery, discussion practice, or debate. Therefore, the students' performance has not shown optimal results. This is illustrated by the number of lecturers' inputs to the students for the mistakes made.

Learning in religious colleges is strongly affected by religious values. In Unissula, the Qur'anic values transmission is presented to students as obligatory thing to do by the lecturer(s) in each lecturing time. Even the lecturers ought to follow several stage training programs before carrying out academic tasks. Learning device product as proof of readiness of lecturers to carry out learning in class. In RPS, the lecturers were also incorporating the initial activities of learning in which the letter and verse are written in relation to the lecturing materials. In UMS, students normally perform prayers at the beginning of lecturing time which has been entrenched. However, in non-religious universities, students inclined towards experiencing the learning process. The interactional pattern of teaching and learning subjects in religious and non-religious universities presented in the following table.

TABLE 1.
TEACHING-LEARNING INTERACTIONAL PATTERN OF SPEAKING SUBJECTS IN RELIGIOUS AND NON-RELIGIOUS UNIVERSITIES

Universities Activities	UNISSULA	UMS	UPGRIS	UNS
Initial Processes	Engage lecturer-student	Engage lecturer-student	Engage lecturer-student	Engage lecturer-student
The Core of Learning process	Study lecturer-student	Active student-lecturer-student	Study lecturer-student	Active student-student
The Process of Creation	Active student-lecturer	Study lecturer-student	Active student-student	Active student-student
The Process of Generation	Engage lecturer-student	Active student -lecturer-student	Active student -lecturer-lecturer	Active student-student
End/Closing	Study lecturer-student	Study lecturer-student	Study lecturer-student	Study Lecturer-lecturer
Average Values	73	69	79,8	83,5

Harmer (Prilanita, and Sukirno, 2017) argues that ESA (Engage Study Activate) as a strategical embodiment of an effective learning atmosphere. In table 1, it is presented the learning between lecturers and students, there are four universities as the research samples, they are the Unissula, UMS, UPGRIS, and UNS. ESA may occurs at various learning, in Unissula there occurred ESAES, in UMS there was occurred EASAS, while in UPGRIS occurred ESAAS, and similarly in UNS the EAAAS was occurred.

In Unissula, the learning is described with ESAES, which means students are involved in question and answer (Q&A) learning towards the level of knowledge followed by informational provisions by the lecturers. Students are given the opportunity to practice their speaking skills within a discussion session is controlled by the lecturers. In this case, the students are re-enrolled in interactive lecture learning, one who guides the learning is the lecturer. At the end, the lecturer provides a discussion as a practical realization in lectures form accompanied with Q&A sessions. In contrast to UMS, speaking lessons are described with EASAS. The learning begins with Q&A on some materials to be discussed, practically, students are involved in this learning process and is controlled by the lecturer. The learning followed by students' speaking practice of telling stories in front of the classroom individually along with setting up a discussion by both lecturers and students. At the discussion session, the lecturer further elaborated the related theory. The practical learning of speaking subjects at UMS were developed in vary. There is the learning materials in Q&A modul classified into inter-grouping students. The classes are divided into two groups, namely the questioner group and the answering group. The purpose of such a learning model is to encourage students' active roles. At the Q&A session, lecturers often time found either give their comments with affirmations or appreciation for the good answers. However, the lecturers pay less attention to students asking question activity. Since all students have to set up questions and answers, then there were found some students asking for questions opening the module, in addition to students who answering the questions and searching for the answers according to the module.

Learning activities at UPGRIS and UNS show more students active role because the learnings are in presentation and debate forms. In both of these universities, speaking learning begins with information from lecturers who engaged the students' active roles. The students' next activities is the presentation and debate. In the UPGRIS students' presentation

activity, significant interactive interaction tends to be occurred. The response is realized in referential question form, which was primarily addressed to the presenters. This consequently leads the presenters into having critical thinking to answering for questions. The questions are: *Lah, apakah ada solusi dari Mbak Novita supaya saya tidak panik?* [Trans. Is there any solution from Miss Novita to avoid being panic]. At the presentation session, students delivering questions using the guidance or introductory before the question was asked, the students who were being asked can be explained in complex. This is illustrated by Berns (Prilanita, and Sukirno, 2017) “, *“Experience with peers enable children to acquire a wide range of skills, attitude, and roles that influence their adaptation throughout life”*. Students who are interacting with fellow students as peers, their various skills, attitudes, and roles influencing the adaptation in communication. This opinion is also relevant to what has been elaborated by Chadia (2011), that students who were being asked with an open question, their answers remain longer and quite complex.

The expressed opinions are in a long and complex form of sentences additionally occur in speaking learning at UNS. The method use in UNS applied the debate model. The debates were directed by the students. In the debate, there are pro teams, counter teams, supporters of the pro teams, supporting group of the counter team, and jury teams, however, in this case, the lecturers take a role as observers. The prevailing interactional circumstances in both universities remain different, in UPGRIS the proposed opinions are still limited to the discussed topics, whereas in UNS the typical long argumentation presented, are often time found less relevant to the arguments presented by the opposing team, due to the opposing teams' lack of understanding over the discussed materials.

Teaching and learning interactional patterns in both religious and non-religious universities, it is found they are applying typical learning steps toward constructivism, but early constructivism. This is evidenced in the activities of generative learning steps strategy are found, even though only few found, such as learning process steps are in the activities of students who provide responses, as marked by B6.

Lecturer : *“Kemudian saya ingin memberikan bahasa non verbal yang alatnya adalah tubuh kita sendiri, kalau saudara menyatakan setuju dengan bahasa tubuh kita”*. [Trans. And, I would be giving you non verbal language, by which our body is the only means, if only you are in agreement with our body language]

Students : [nodding].

In the process of creation, students came up with their thoughts and ideas as was shown from C and D 5-6. ?” as explained at below fragment A6.

Lecturer : *“Ada yang punya trik lain nggak? Ini nanti kan kita baca ke bawah. Tapi ada yang punya trik lain bagaimana cara mengatasi grogi?”* [Trans. Anybody has another trick?, this what we shall read downward. But, is there anybody has another trick to overcome getting nervous?]

Students: : *“Ada pak!”* [Yes sir!, we got one]

In undergoing learning-teaching interactions at religious universities, the lecturers frequently took more dominant role. The typical model applied by lecturers in learning is lecturing in addition to provide for questions and answers time. Learning processes which took place in such university shows the lecturers' active roles than students. This is in line with Harmer's suggestion (Harmer, 2001), that a good educator is an educator who maximizes the students' active roles or Student Talking Time (STT) conversely educators who dominantly take over the classroom's conversation is the so called Teacher Talking Time (TTT). However, these two universities share similar significant advantages to be compared to the non-religious universities, where in such universities students are mostly taught about noble characters inculcation. Among the inculcated noble characters are praying, connecting everything learned under the God's Supreme Power. Even in Unissula, teaching preparation (RPS) should include the learning resources which in line with Qur'anic values.

In the non-religious universities, students are given the opportunity to actively perform the learning process. Although the students have not been able to construct the knowledge gained with the knowledge or experience they have. The information conveyed in the learning is, therefore, still limited by certain topics. There is the needs for being facilitated by the lecturers, thus the interactions develop optimally as part of their critical thinking. As referred to Shahi (Husna, 2015). Flanders similarly assumes that the educators share influential authority in the classroom, because lecturer's talk and things being delivered were primarily determined by the students' great reactions.

This may also affect the students' academic achievement. In line with Good and Brophy's opinion (Kauchak, 2012) that the lecturers' verbal behavior in classroom affects students' academic achievement. The above table shows the average value achieved by students. Religious universities among others the Unissula with the average of 73; UMS 69, while non-religious universities are the UPGRIS 79.8 and UNS 83.5. These values illustrated that the religious universities are lower than that the non-religious universities. In religious universities, ranging from the C / B category and non-religious universities are in B category. In religious universities, the interactional pattern is dominantly controlled by lecturers, while in non-religious universities, students' interaction is fairly good, the achievement value is in B category. The achievement value is relevant to Bailey's opinion (cited Ismail, et al, 2011). that speaking skill is more difficult than other skills.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of this research conclude that both teaching and learning interactional pattern of speaking subjects at the

religious universities is mostly controlled by the lecturers. In religious universities lecturers speak more than students (TTT) whereas in non-religious universities both lecturers and students are given a lot of opportunities to speak (STT). It affects student achievement. Both groups of universities have not been able to achieve an A because students have not been able to optimally interact. An interaction occurs at the time students constructing their experience and knowledge with the received information. Lecturers at both universities have not been able to facilitate students with self-development and ideas expressions, both religious and non-religious universities interactional patterns of the learning and teaching speaking subjects towards constructivism. Through generative learning strategy in learning, there were found elements reflecting each step of the strategies, despite at the early stage. It is necessary to develop varied learning models that involve learners' participation. In addition, there should be an understanding of the concept of classroom interactional competence.

The results of this study may significantly contribute the educators' insight into the importance of teaching-learning interaction between educators and learners. The creation of interactional learning is perceived to be a successful achievement of students' learning objectives. In addition, the results of this study can be used as a rationale that all educators determine the learners' learning achievements, such as motivation, the delivery of questions, and the selected learning models.

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Metaphysical or Differential: Fitzgerald's *The Great Gatsby* under Derridean Concept of Love

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Abstract—Jacques Derrida revolutionized the Western Philosophy by reconsidering the previous ideas in a new perspective. In his view, human subjectivity is explained within the system of language and the meaning is conveyed through the concept of *differ*ance. As such, he imparts the notion that nothing ever exists outside the text, yet the text is filled with innumerable meanings not a specific one. The net of his deconstructive thinking cast vast enough to devote close critical attention to any previously regarded metaphysical idea like love. Transcendental or metaphysical love is shorn of meaning in Derridean notion of deconstruction. For Derrida, love as a communicable sign is confined to the rules of iterability which proves the free flow of signifiers. In this regard, Fitzgerald's *The Great Gatsby* as one of the most critically studied work in America is recruited to examine the Derridean deconstructive notion of love. *Gatsby* is exclusively focused on seeking Daisy's transcendental love even at the expense of repeating the past. Nonetheless, the evanescent fluidity of the notion of love totally ruins *Gatsby's* chance of ever achieving Daisy's love. Accordingly, *Gatsby's* ultimate failure is expected for the reason that an "absolute moment" is never devoid of any trace of past or future time. Thus, *The Great Gatsby* attends to why the notion of love defies any metaphysical or transcendental status and instead it has differential and deferral meaning.

Index Terms—*The Great Gatsby*, Love, Deconstruction, Differance, iterability

I. INTRODUCTION

The beginning of twentieth century ushered a circle of changes in American history. F. Scott Fitzgerald (1896-1940) tried to aptly encapsulate these changes in his works. His best attempt succeeds most probably in *The Great Gatsby* (1925) which is "one of two American books loved by both literary critics and a wide, general audience" (Keshmiri, 2016, p.1296). More prominent however, is the way Fitzgerald attempts to dissect the complexities of his time in his masterpiece. With Fitzgerald's critical eye, *The Great Gatsby* becomes a microcosm reflecting the 1920's American society. Fitzgerald's primary aim was to write "something new—something extraordinary and beautiful and simple and intricately patterned" (Fitzgerald, 1978, p.14), yet, the novel describes the shattering American society by revealing certain puzzling features beneath the surface of this society:

The tragedy of *Gatsby* as that of an individual and of a civilization would clearly depict the devastation of the dream (or shall we say the fantasy?) the American man was carrying along since he started building up the New World; the shattered image of success, idealism, and glory in a meretricious life. (Ghasemi and Tiur, 2009, p.35)

Thomas Streissguth in *The Roaring Twenties* (2007) draws critical attention to the underlying reason beyond such sweeping changes in the 1920's American Society by attesting to the fact that it is for the first time in the American History that urban society is shaped with more than half of the population living in cities (xi). Accordingly, Fitzgerald's central puzzle is to portray not specifically the transformation of American society into an urban society but more exquisitely the aftermath of such transformation on individuals' lives. To this end, Fitzgerald recruits all his efforts to study his age through *The Great Gatsby*. In this regard, Cleanth Brooks (1973) asserts that:

Historically, the 1920s were not only an age of disillusionment and frenetic excitement; they were also an age of vital creativity and intellectual development.... But the world in which he [Fitzgerald] did immerse himself he reported as faithfully and came to judge as honestly, as he could. (p.2284)

Fitzgerald's recording of American society in *The Great Gatsby* narrates to us the constitution of a new society which seems to end in failure as none of its end is achieved. Perhaps, "Gatsby and his myth is an emblem of the irony of American history and the corruption of the American dream" (Ghasemi and Tiur, 2009, p.119). Consisted with the narration of America society, Fitzgerald unfolds the unfortunate path of its failure, the dream of not arriving at the desirable society. Hence, a discussion of the failure of American dream is permeated through *The Great Gatsby*. An inevitable consequence of such perspective is that *The Great Gatsby* has become "the embodiment of the fluid polarities of American experience: success and failure, illusion and disillusion, dream and nightmare"(Ghasemi and Tiur, 2009, p.119). Clarification of such woven concepts in *The Great Gatsby* needs a new method of study which can highlight some new aspects of this masterpiece.

The Great Gatsby is a work full of opposite poles and the search for the internal contradictions of a text is one of deconstructionism's main concerns. Deconstructionists may not appease a curious mind in search of some novel ideas, a mind which leads to the discovery of an original subject or an innovative explication that results in new meanings;

nevertheless they may revisit a previously studied subject in a new way so as to provide a different perspective for the reader. As such, instead of trying to clothe a text by a certain ideology, the reader celebrates the existence of different ideologies in the text. In this regard, Catherine Belsey's (2002) explanation justifies the significance of this type of reading:

Analysis reveals that at any given moment the categories and laws of the symbolic order are full of contradictions, ambiguities, and inconsistencies which function as a source of possible change. The role of ideology is to suppress these contradictions in the interests of the preservation of the existing social formation, but their presence ensures that it is always possible, with whatever difficulty, to identify them, to recognize ideology for what it is, and to take an active part in transforming it by producing new meanings. (p.42)

Deconstruction by not focusing on a specific ideology has opened up a new chapter in the realm of theory and criticism. Deconstruction has a tendency to unsettle a language through its rather compulsive "attentiveness" and "disruptive" tendency or, as Derrida calls it, a tendency towards a "de-sedimentation" (Derrida, 1976, p.10). Such unprecedented perspective is indispensable to the novel observation in the field of literature and of the artifacts of the past or the present time. It is through this very "disruptive attentiveness", which is one of the crucial characteristics of deconstruction, that the multifarious features of love in *The Great Gatsby* is studied. Love appears in a free flow of signifiers as opposed to how it is believed to have a transcendental being. As such, a new light is shed upon the nature of love by exploring it within the relationship among Gatsby, Tom and Daisy and it is proved that love has differential and deferral meaning.

II. DECONSTRUCTION

Deconstruction is the word mostly associated with Derrida. He used deconstruction for his way of thinking and dismantling the excessive adherence to one specific idea by learning to consider the aspects of truth that may lie in its opposite sides. It was in 1937 that Derrida published his first major book, *Of Grammatology*. From that time on, "his works have been engaged in the business of transformation and reinvention" (Royle, 2003, p.105). Derrida in *Of Grammatology* constitutes the ardent belief that an author can always be understood to be saying "more, less, or something other than what he [or she] would mean" (1976, p.158). Derrida tries to render all our familiar and preconceived notions, structures and presuppositions unfamiliar by considering it anew.

Accordingly, some points are to be buttressed for while having a deconstructive purpose to provide a brighter view on this issue. First, our reading will not be a form of hermeneutic interpretation of the text's inherent meaning(s). Rather, it reveals that hermeneutic is itself rooted in a metaphysical desire for fixation of meaning which is reductionist in nature despite its whim to attribute an exalted position to the interpreter himself as the generator of meaning; hermeneutics is a quest for meaning, or, at least, it implies the possibility of reaching unified meanings. As we read in Peter Childs' and Roger Fowler's *Routledge Dictionary of Literary Terms* (2006):

(Hermeneutics) comprises the general theory and practice of interpretation ... Much as these hermeneuts differ, they do share an allegiance to universality, and to a common human nature which suggests a measure of co-operation and of shared discourse in the interpretive dialogue. Hermeneutic objects may differ, but they are credited as truths which await illumination. (p.103 and 105)

Unlike hermeneutics, which tries to theorize a system of interpretation, deconstruction emphasizes the illusive nature of any such systems; it reveals the metaphysical structure of the hermeneutic quest for meaning and/or knowledge so as to defy the epistemological universalism which takes the subjectivity of the interpreter as unified and transcendent. Deconstruction reveals that the subject and his perceiving consciousness cannot stand outside the text's boundaries. Andy Mousley (2000) observes:

If language, within structuralism, tends to be regarded as an impersonal system, then language, for many poststructuralists, is the very site of human subjectivity. Language, after all, makes it possible to say 'I', it allows us to locate ourselves as subjects. (p.75)

Being located in language, subjectivity, becomes as unfixed as the meaning of a sign is because language works by difference and by permanent deferral of meaning. As Mousley (2000) maintains, "if language enables or promises subjectivity, then it also postpones it, for we are constantly being dislocated and unsettled by language due to its inherent instability" (p.75). A subject is not outside the text superimposing its presence to the text under his/her observation. On the contrary, it is a part of the totality of the text, it "is an elusive signifier, which is never fully present to itself" (p.100). Eventually, one cannot read more into the text, more than what it contains as some of the hermeneutists allege. Quite the reverse, it is the text that exceeds the reader's/interpreter's power of understanding and overflows his perception .

One may look for the solid structures which lead to fixed meanings in an act of interpretation as do the hermeneutists and in doing so; he/she has to suppress a meaning or some meanings to foreground a specific one. Nonetheless, a deconstructive reader will release the text from the burden of such a suppression/suspension. He/she will reveal the reasons why the text cannot be tamed into an epistemic site of meaning.

It never alerts to the fact that there is no meaning in a text. Quite the reverse, it indicates that the text is a hoard of innumerable meanings. As such, all acts of interpretation find a reductive nature and hence betray the openness of the text itself. That is why Derrida emphasizes that "there is nothing outside the text". All acts of interpretation is like

cropping a part of an image and omitting the other parts which could otherwise offer a more complete picture. Hence, a signifier in order to mean or to have a signified has to be taken off the natural flow of signification.

Meaning comes through the fixation of the signified by arresting the free flow of signification. However, every signified is a signifier to which is attached a number of other signifieds which are themselves more signifiers for more signifieds; the chain goes on and on to the extent that one may admit that there is no signified at all and eventually no meaning in its true sense. The only thing that remains is the signifier which leads to the other signifiers that, in turn, lead to other more signifiers.

Meaning exists as much as a text is verified for the signifier. Nonetheless, since contexts cannot be saturated with meaning, meaning get illusively naturalized through the structure of its context. "No meaning can be determined out of context," argues Nicolas Royle (2003), "but no context permits saturation': this is what Derrida's texts keep affirming, while always affirming it differently" (p.66).

In this regard, Words/signs find meaning only when one arrests meaning by cutting the chain of signification/differentiation. Consequently, the meaning of a sign is always on the move and is yet to come unless we accept the metaphysics of presence, the idea that the meaning of a sign is presented to us through the one-to-one relationship between the signifier and signified and with the interference of interpretation and/or signification to discover this decidable and fixed relationship. In this regard, Catherine Belsey (2002) affirms, "meaning is no longer seizable, a pure intelligibility accessible to our grasp" (p.136). She emphasizes the undecidability of meaning by arguing that:

Deferred, as well as differed, pushed out of reach, meaning becomes undecidable. Thus we can no longer understand the signifier to be preceded by an anterior truth, a meaning, the presence of a signified whose existence ultimately necessitates a transcendental signified (God, nature, reason) to which all truths can be referred. (p.136)

Thus, signifieds and meanings are part of our metaphysical humanism and essentialism, which, as we have already emphasized, are structures in the same symbolic order as language is. Human mind is symbolic and is structured linguistically. As such, Derrida's innovative notion radically "alters the bases on which we might think about thinking, consciousness, presence, being, humanity, animality, divinity, identity, intention, decision, responsibility, justice, friendship, desire, memory, death and language, as well as about so many discourses or practices" (Royle, 2003, p.144)

III. DECONSTRUCTIVE READING OF LOVE

Trying to sketch a status for love can be exhausting as there can always be the question of what love is. The question is always durable and extended in time. There is historicity about question which makes it always temporally aloof from its answers. Therefore, the answer is always in the status of yet to come. R. S. White (2001) does as much to leave the question "what is this thing called love?" White expostulates:

that we find ourselves circling around an absent center of meaning, an evacuation. To the very pertinent and honest question which might be asked of the mature by the young, why do you not offer us reliable advice about love and desire, since our love-choices will affect us for the rest of our lives? The only answer can be 'Because we do not know what they are. (p.5)

This is in accord with the multiplicity of love's appearance in different contexts changing colors like a chameleon. Irving Singer (2009) has listed some kinds of love that we habitually speak of:

Love of self, of mankind, of nature, of God, of mother and father, of children, of tribe and nation, of sweetheart or spouse or sexual idol, of material possession, of food or drink, of action and repose, of sports, of hobbies or engrossing pursuit, of justice, of science, of truth, of beauty, and so on endlessly. Each variety of love, involving its special object, has its own phenomenology, its own special iridescence within the spectrum that delimits human experience (qtd in Nordland, 2007, p.21)

As Singer shows, love is various and refers to range of different human experiences. Plato in his Symposium also refers to the ambiguity concerning the idea of love when Pausanias retorts to Phaedrus's injunction to praise love: "If love were a single being, it would be fine, but as it is, there isn't just one of him. And since there isn't, it would be more correct to say first which particular love we ought to praise" (Cobb, 1993, p.21). Derrida's argument that love is always divided between the love of who and love of what testifies to the divided nature of love's identity. He asserts:

the history of love, the heart of love, is divided between the love of who and the love of what.... I speak of it abstractly, but I think that whoever starts to love, is in love, or stops loving, is caught between this division of the who and the what. One wants to be true to someone-singularly, irreplaceably-and one perceives that this someone isn't x or y. They didn't have the qualities, properties, the images that I thought I loved. So fidelity is threatened by the difference between the who and the what (Youtube.com)

Derrida's unprecedented view of love is based upon his idea of "a decentering of the human subject, a decentering of institutions, and a decentering of the logos" (1973, p.15). Upon closer reading, one can notice the importance of decentering the logos which has indeed become Derrida's primary reason of the whole idea of Deconstruction: "The first step for me, in the approach to what I proposed to call deconstruction, was a putting into question of the authority of linguistics, of logocentrism" (p.65). Julian Wolfreys (1998) summarize the Derridean notion of logocentrism as follows:

Logocentrism ... brings together two ideas: that of the logos, the Greek term for the Word or Truth (as an unquestionable and desired value, i. e., the Word of God); and center, the concept of a central or originary point, a moment of absolute beginning or origin from which everything springs and around which all ideas circulate or to which they refer. (p.198)

Derrida is not following the path of logos as the whole history of Western philosophy did. He is against the changing of logos as each philosopher has done by substituting one originary point with another instead he aims at the free play of meaning. Likewise, the nature of love can be subjected to his radical view. Transcending love beyond time and space sets it in the realm of ideas, in the realm that is eternal and outlives man and his existence. How can love be eternal if it resides in man? It has to precede and exceed man's existence in order to be eternal and unchanging. As such, it should reside in world beyond the material changeability. It resides in the immutable world of immortals. This way of looking at the identity of things or beings, as Barry Stocker (2006) affirms, is rooted in Logocentrism. "Logocentrism in Derrida," he avers, refers to the philosophical tendency to find truth in the presentation of Being, Spirit, Consciousness, History across a philosophical system to any idea, mode of experience, emphasized in a philosophical system" (p.52). Accordingly, Plato, Descartes, Hegel, and J. L. Austin are logocentric:

Plato is logocentric because his dialogues claim to reveal truth with reference to dialectical speech; Descartes is logocentric because he claims to reveal truth in the clear and distinct ideas of our consciousness; Hegel is logocentric because he claims to truth in absolute spirit. A more empirical philosopher like Austin is still logocentric, because the truth of language appears in the immediate situation of the utterance of particular statements. (p.52)

All these philosophers ascribe to a unity for achieving truth and meaning. Their attempts is to command their minds to the influence of this metaphysics of presence which guarantees the accessibility/presence of meaning, to the metaphysical ideal that meaning as presence can be possible because the present time is a fixed totality. Ironically enough, a present time is always marked with past-ness because time is on the move unless we are able to freeze time and take a moment, a frame of time as a moment, out of it. This transiency and motion is the inherent quality of all things regardless whether they are abstract or concrete. As Derrida (1976) argues, "the metaphysics of presence as self-proximity wishes to efface by giving a privileged position to a sort of absolute now, the life of the present, the living present" (p.309). However, the "absolute now", as mentioned earlier, is only possible if one takes the dynamicity off the beings. Everything is organic as much as it is subject to time. That is, we need to freeze time in order to reach meaning. Derrida repudiates the possibility of such total freezing of the moment by proposing the idea of representation and/or mimesis.

To Derrida, reality lies merely in representation, in signification, hence his famous statement declaration in *Of Grammatology* that, "There is no outside (of the) text" (1976, p.155). There is only signification of truth, not the truth itself. Origin is myth and truth is merely a textual construct which he attempts to deconstruct. As Christopher Norris (1989) declares:

As for current post-structuralist theory, a good deal hinges on the crucial ambiguity of Derrida's cryptic statement: there is no outside to the text. On the one hand this can be taken to signify a literary formalism pushed to the extreme, a last-ditch retreat from 'reality' into the solipsistic pleasures of textual free play... If reality is structured through and through by the meanings we conventionally assign to it, then the act of suspending those conventions has a pertinence and force beyond the usual bounds of textual interpretation. (p.109)

Love, therefore, cannot belong to a transcendental consciousness if it only exists as pure, intersubjective, and hence communicable form. If the knowledge of love rests on linguistic ability to communicate "meaning", "memory", and "experience", then it follows and has a medium of expression, a language. Every language is based on a structure which makes it metaphysical because any idea possessing a structure is metaphysical idea. Ideas need to repeat themselves through the structures of their presence, in the in the architectonics of their presence and thus to exist in the network of linguistic communication. "In referring to an architectonic," Barry Stocker (2006) argues, "Derrida also cast doubt on this model of knowledge, which appears in Foucault's earlier work, by pointing out the instability of any structure to which we might try to reduce knowledge" (p.107). Structure cannot be transcendental and unchanging. They are on the move through being subject to the iterability of the sign. Signs have to be repeated in order to signify. All structures are meaningful as long as they are iterable. Derrida (1973) detects the primordially repetitive structure of the sign when he writes:

By reason of the primordially repetitive structure of signs in general, there is every likelihood that "effective" language is just as imaginary as imaginary speech and that imaginary speech is just as effective as effective speech. In both expression and indicative communication the difference between reality and representation, between the vertical and imaginary, and between simple presence and repetition has already begun to wear away. (p.51)

What we know as the so-called love that has been named for us throughout the history (historicity of love) and given that name, that transcendental structure of the name, to anything, to any feeling that resembles that historically repeated idea can never be deemed as a transcendental idea and should be studied through a different perspective by decentering it from its long-standing logos and putting it forward as a dynamic concept with a situational moment.

IV. DECONSTRUCTIVE READING OF THE NOTION OF LOVE IN *THE GREAT GATSBY*

Kemberly Hearne in a short note on *The Great Gatsby* refers to the contradictory nature of American dream. He extrapolates that Fitzgerald has concisely noticed American dream's contradictory inherent features and worked it through in *The Great Gatsby*:

It is through the language itself, and the recurrent romantic imagery, that Fitzgerald offers up his critique and presents the dream for what it truly is: a mirage that entices us to keep moving forward even as we are ceaselessly borne back into the past. (2010, p.189)

Of all the writers of the time, the writer that most clearly explained the ambiguous nature of American dream was Fitzgerald. To this end, he recruited the illusive nature of love into his service of harsh criticism to make everybody see the mirage behind the notion of love. In this regard, of central importance to this novel is the divided notion of love between the characters of this novel. It is worthy of note that love should not be deemed as a transcendental notion that exists by itself. Indeed, deconstructionists actually criticize the mentality that sees the world, the people or systems in it as an oppositional contrast. As such, Derrida poses the idea of *différance*. In last chapter of *Speech and Phenomena*, he defines *différance* as a concept "to be conceived prior to the separation between deferring as delay and differing as the active work of difference" (1973, p.88). Consisted with this view, love is not an originary being; on the contrary, it exists as long as it is differentiated from its others which are the product of oppositional structure of language.

Love in *The Great Gatsby* can hardly be taken as given because as a signifier it has to suspend its evanescent fluidity in order to identify a solid meaning. It is set in an undecidable context of significance implying a plethora of varying and sometimes contradictory meanings such as emotion, affection, passion, self-indulgence, power, honor, pleasure, conjugation, oneness, etc., and quite paradoxically the list can grow infinitely as long as definite meanings are sought. The diversity of meaning is due to the evanescent nature of the signs, or due to *différance* (to use Jacques Derrida's pun). As we read in an essay on Derrida's deconstruction in *Internet Encyclopedia of Philosophy*:

The widespread conviction that the sign literally represents something, which even if not actually present, could be potentially present, is rendered impossible by arch-writing, which insists that signs always refer to yet more signs *ad infinitum*, and that there is no ultimate referent or foundation. (Reynolds, n.d.)

In considering the diverse meaning of love in *The Great Gatsby*, one should refer to the relation among three characters including Gatsby, Tom and Daisy within the novel. The triangular relationship among Gatsby, Tom and Daisy is deemed to show the impossibility of the existence of transcendental love and prove the differential and deferral meaning of love. Daisy's relationship with Tom and Gatsby begins in a sequence. First, Daisy feels in love with Gatsby and decides to devote herself thoroughly to him, however, Gatsby's return from the war is delayed and Daisy is forced to marry someone else. At first, she mounts stiff resistance to this marriage proposal to the extent that in her wedding day, she decides to go back on her decision to marry Tom and ruins everything:

She groped around in a waste-basket she had with her on the bed and pulled out the string of pearls. Take them downstairs and give them back to whoever they belong to. Tell them all Daisy's changed her mine. Say Daisy's changed her mine!'. (Fitzgerald, 1925, p.82)

By any happening, Daisy marries Tom. And after a while, Jordan Baker, Daisy's friend, evokes a memory of Daisy while she was having gone on a trip with Tom:

I saw them in Santa Barbara when they came back and I thought I'd never seen a girl so mad about her husband. If he left the room for a minute she'd look around uneasily and say 'Where's Tom gone?' and wear the most abstracted expression until she saw him coming in the door. (p.83)

Once Daisy used to be in love with Gatsby; now she finds her true love in Tom. Such a radical change in the Daisy's tendency in love denies the possibility of the transcendental love and puts love in the context of difference and away from the singularity of one person. Derrida mentions that the act of loving of someone cannot be solely limited to the singularity of that person whereas the attributes of that person also play a major role in loving him/her. As such, Derrida asserts that "One is attracted because the other is like this or like that inversely, love is disappointed and dies when one comes to realize the other person doesn't merit our love" (Youtube). Hence, Tom's richness plays the difference here in compelling Daisy to love him. Nonetheless, Gatsby's return after five years while he is richer than Tom puts Daisy in another same situation. Expectedly, Daisy switches to Gatsby. This change of view is best shown when Gatsby takes Daisy home to show her his house and properties in it:

He took out a pile of shirts and began throwing them, one by one before us, shirts of sheer linen and thick silk and fine flannel which lost their folds as they fell and covered the table in many-colored disarray. ... Suddenly with a strained sound, Daisy bent her head into the shirts and began to cry stormily. They're such beautiful shirts, she sobbed, her voice muffled in the thick folds. It makes me sad because I've never seen such—such beautiful shirts before. (Fitzgerald, 1925, p.99)

Approaching the novel differently, it appears that the story is based on the failure of language. The origin of failure is the radical failure of language which begins in nothing. Language fails to signify what it wishes to represent, to put in more precisely; the signifiers fail to reach the signified. While Gatsby, Tom, Daisy and others are gathered in a hotel. Daisy remembers her wedding in the middle of June when a man fainted due to the hot weather. Afterwards, Tom begins to introduce the man who fainted in the wedding day as follows: "'A man named Biloxi. 'Blocks' Biloxi, and he made boxes—that's a fact—and he was from Biloxi, Tennessee" (p.136). Suddenly, everybody begins telling something

about Biloxi. Jordan mentions that "'They carried him into my house,' appended Jordan, 'because we lived just two doors from the church. And he stayed three weeks, until Daddy told him he had to get out. The day after he left Daddy died'" (p.136). Then Nick adds "I used to know a Bill Biloxi from Memphis, I remarked" (p.136). Later, Tom continues like this "That was his cousin. I knew his whole family history before he left. He gave me an aluminum putter that I use today" (p.136). And when Tom is confronted by Jordan's question that from where did you know him? He answers; "'Biloxi?' He concentrated with an effort. 'I didn't know him. He was a friend of Daisy's'" (p.136). At last, Daisy responds "He was not, she denied. 'I'd never seen him before'" (p.136). As it is obvious, a number of signifiers are presented without even clarifying the signified at all. Even these signifiers have caused more confusion and bewilderment and it is best displayed when Nick comments about Biloxi in this way, "Tom and I looked at each other blankly. 'BilOxi?'" (p.137).

As it is shown, one signified is becoming the signifier for another signified and even it never ends in a final conclusion whereas the sequence of these signifiers and signified makes the situation more difficult to comprehend. The verification of signifier to settle on a fixed signified due to the free flow of signifiers is impossible. As such, meaning is not sizeable and is permanently deferred. Such disorientation of signifiers is presented by Fitzgerald just before Gatsby's sudden movement towards challenging Tom on Daisy's love. The divided nature of love among Gatsby, Daisy and Tom is the most prominent example of disoriented signifiers without fixing and determining the signified. When Gatsby seems to doubt the possibility of Daisy's unified love toward himself, he raises his doubt to Nick by saying: "Her (Daisy) voice is full of money" (p.128). His doubt is mounted up to the point that he cannot control himself and challenges Tom on Daisy's love:

'Your wife doesn't love you,' said Gatsby. 'She's never loved you. She loves me. 'You must be crazy!' exclaimed Tom automatically. Gatsby sprang to his feet, vivid with excitement. 'She never loved you, do you hear?' he cried. 'She only married you because I was poor and she was tired of waiting for me. It was a terrible mistake, but in her heart she never loved anyone except me!' (p.139)

Afterwards, Gatsby seeks Daisy's feedback to this situation but he is confused by Daisy's response as she tries to evade answering the question of choosing between Tom and Gatsby because in each moment he really loved each of them. Therefore, she responds in this way: "Oh, you want too much!" she cried to Gatsby. "I love you now—isn't that enough? I can't help what's past" (p.141). Derrida believed that a moment in present time is always marked with the trace of past unless one is able to freeze the time and as it is impossible to cut a moment in the train of time, the absolute now will never occur. Regarding the concept of difference, he clarifies this point in this respect:

Difference is what makes the movement of signification possible only if each so-called 'present' element, each element appearing on the scene of presence, is related to something other than itself, thereby keeping within itself the mark of a past element, and already letting itself be vitiated by the mark of its relation to the future element, this trace being related no less to what is called the future than to what is called the past, and constituting what is called the present by means of this very relation to what it is not, to what it absolutely is not: that is, not even to a past or a future as a modified present. (Derrida, 1973, p.142)

Gatsby's central puzzle is his confusing moment about his present time and the past time. He wants to repeat the past in the present time; however, the present time being related with the past and future can never be dragged out and separated from the past time as it always carries with it a trace of past time. At a moment in novel, Gatsby claims to be able to repeat the past: "'Can't repeat the past?" he cried incredulously. 'Why of course you can!'" (Fitzgerald, 1925, p.118). Such bewilderment eludes Gatsby to the end. Though he admits the impossibility of this action, still he cannot believe it and when he is talking to Nick about Daisy's feeling toward Tom, he says: "Of course she might have loved him, just for a minute, when they were first married—and loved me more even then, do you see?" (p.162).

Although the movement of the action of the novel after the love test scene should naturally be toward the signified of the words uttered by Daisy, the actualization is caught in a permanent deferral and difference because Daisy proves to be completely at odd with what she had claimed and was just incapable of concertizing what she really intended by not articulating her true love to Gatsby. This actually conforms to the Derridean idea of arrivant, that the event of love is and will be always on the state of deferral and delay, an arrivant which never completely arrives. "The arrivant", Derrida writes:

Must be absolutely other, an other that expects not to be expecting, that I'm waiting for, whose expectation without what in philosophy is called a horizon of expectation, when a certain knowledge still anticipates and amortizes in advance. If I am sure there is going to be an event, this will not be an event. (Lucy, 2004, p.6)

Gatsby in challenging Tom on Daisy's love foregrounds this deferral relationship by demanding Daisy to express her love. The love test, however, launches a problem that can never be resolved unless the very idea of love is set in a materiality which can defy the metaphysics of presence on the part of language or any system of signification that is employed to present it. This is an impossibility which is the very condition of love's ontological existence. Daisy is an image of idealism, transcendence, and the logocentric truth in the eye of Gatsby. He assumes that he can earn Daisy's ideal love once for all, nonetheless, he can never gain her truly.

Deconstruction is against all generalizations, metaphysical, reductionisms, and aphorisms. It reveals what is hidden, what we naturally tend to overlook in order to communicate; it aims at betraying, in Derrida's words, "the illusion of unity or univocity" (Wolfreys, 1998, p.60). Within the context of deconstructionists, the notion of love also follows the

same role; it can never be expressed as a unified concept toward a singular person whereas it is a divided notion put in the context of difference. Gatsby's imagination has built an imaginary world for him in which he searches for some predetermined truth and reality. He is unaware of the fact that the true nature of reality is a mere construction by which meaning is conventionally construed. Reality indeed is a sort of representation at a moment which cannot be repeated at any other moment. And if one substitutes the usual bonds behind the formation of reality, the reality itself will take another shape and proves its illusive nature. At a moment in the novel, Nick clearly shows Gatsby's notion of reality along these lines:

Each night he added to the pattern of his fancies until drowsiness closed down upon some vivid scene with an oblivious embrace. For a while these reveries provided an outlet for his imagination; they were a satisfactory hint of the unreality of reality, a promise that the rock of the world was founded securely on a fairy's wing. (Fitzgerald, 1925, p.102)

With the help of deconstruction, Gatsby's failure of achieving his true love is best expressed. In this regard, Gatsby's long and careful observation of green light at the end of Daisy's house accords with his belief in transcendental love on which he could never live. Most probably, Nick as the narrator of the novel ends such a way: "Gatsby believed in the green light, the organic future that year by year recedes before us" (p.193). Nick's ending best support the argument of deconstructionist about its anti-centering nature. Everything is organic as much as it is subjected to time. One can never reach an absolute now without freezing the time. Therefore, the concept of truth is just signified and is a mere construction by human mind which Derrida has tried to deconstruct. Derrida has persistently emphasized that "there is nothing outside the text". In this respect, Gatsby's repetitive observation of the green light can never be more than a mere illusion of Daisy's transcendental love. Everything is situated within the text and the meaning of each sign is unfixed and iterable. In our discussion, the iterability of the concept of love examined through Gatsby's relation with Daisy.

V. CONCLUSION

By a brief review of philosophical history, a logical conclusion can be drawn that each philosopher has tried to bring up his notion of thought even if it is at the expense of neglecting the previously established notion of thought. Nevertheless, Derrida is the first one who claims not to discuss a new idea, yet examining the previous ideas in an entirely new perspective. Unlike the previous system of thoughts which aimed at reaching a unified purpose and revealing the metaphysical structure of meaning, deconstructionists defy the concept of unified meaning. In this respect, human subjectivity as a site of meaning is located within the system of language. As such, the meaning of a sign works through the concept of difference. More important, the meaning is always limited to text; in other words, nothing outside the text ever exists or has the ability to determine the meaning, accordingly, the notion of metaphysics is totally rejected by the deconstructionists. Furthermore, the deconstructionists establish the fact that a text is not directed toward one specific meaning whereas it is filled with innumerable meanings and what is commonly implied as a meaning is only a fixation of the free flow of signifiers. Consequently, the meaning is always on the move and not fixed.

In this respect, love as a human experience, is considered by Derrida while being based upon his idea of decentering and anti-metaphysics. Transcending love beyond time and space is not acceptable in Derridean notion of deconstruction. As we are always within the train of time, everything is organic and mutable. In this regard, love as a communicable sign is confined to the rules of iterability and in the case of *The Great Gatsby*; it is presented as a signifier soaked in the evanescent fluidity and extremely far away from the possibility of having fixed meaning. It implies a hoard of contradictory meaning for each person. Approaching the concept of love with this regard shows the reason behind Gatsby's failure in achieving Daisy's love. Gatsby's main concern is to repeat the past and fully gain Daisy's love. Nevertheless, present, past and future times are always interrelated and never exist without the trace of other. Thus, he can never achieve an absolute moment or Daisy's absolute love.

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Transforming Traditional Teaching: A Professional Development Program for the College EFL Teachers*

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Abstract—Researchers have demonstrated the value of teacher professional development programs (PDPs) as an effective strategy to improve teaching. The purpose of our study was to design and test an intervention that could be used as part of a PDP with three English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers at a Chinese university. The primary aim of our intervention was to help the teachers implement teaching strategies that would motivate students to engage in learning, with the ultimate goal of improving student motivation and achievement. The strategies implemented in the classroom intervention included group presentation activities and a grading rubric. Through the use of both quantitative and qualitative research methods, we documented that the intervention had a positive effect on students' motivation and achievement, and changed teachers' attitudes and beliefs about how group activities could affect students' motivation and achievement.

Index Terms—teacher professional development program, group presentation, English as a Foreign Language Teaching, The MUSIC Model of Motivation

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the Opening Up and Reform Policy was initiated in China in 1978, learning the English language has gained considerable importance throughout China (Hu, 2003). English serves as a primary indicator of the nation's development and is considered an essential personal asset (Gao, Li, & Li, 2002; Hu, 2003). As a result, teacher professional development programs (PDPs) are becoming more significant, leading to higher quality education. Teacher training programs emerged in normal universities and colleges in China, along with other types of PDPs. Most short-term PDPs involved workshops, seminars, and conferences, and the content of the PDPs was theoretical and research-orientated rather than involving practical classroom applications. Unfortunately, these types of PDPs were not very effective in improving teachers' instructional capabilities (Meng, Tajaroensuk, & Seepho, 2013; Wen, 1989). For example, in one study, English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers reported that PDPs were impractical and that opportunities to attend PDPs were rare, which led them to suggest the following: (a) PDPs should be administered on campus every semester and should be supported by experts, (b) PDP instructors should be available when the teachers need help, (c) Instructors should work with a teaching team focusing on classroom practice, and (d) Administrators should work with teachers' schedules when organizing PDPs (Meng et al., 2013).

One problem with EFL teaching that we identified was that EFL teachers in China do not necessarily know how to motivate students and engage them in learning. For example, in one study about 97% of Chinese College EFL teachers agreed that teachers should create an active classroom environment for students' learning, yet 62% of the teachers reported spending their time lecturing in their classes Zhou (2005). In other words, most of the EFL teachers showed favorable attitudes toward active learning, but they did not know how to arrange their class effectively to do so. Given the ineffective implementation of PDPs and the fact that many EFL teachers are not implementing motivating, active learning strategies, we believed that there was an opportunity to design a PDP that could be used to motivate students by improving instruction in EFL classes.

II. PURPOSE AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The purpose of our study was to design and test an intervention that could be used as part of a PDP with Chinese EFL teachers. The primary aim of our intervention was to help teachers implement teaching strategies that would motivate

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students to engage in learning, with the ultimate goal of improving student motivation and achievement. Our research questions were as follows: (1) Can a professional development intervention have a positive effect on students' motivation and achievement? (2) Can a professional development intervention change teachers' attitudes and beliefs about how group activities can affect students' motivation and achievement? We did not have any preconceived ideas as to what the intervention would include because we wanted to address the needs of the students and teachers, which was only possible after surveying the students and interviewing the teachers. As we explain in more detail in the *Method* section (*The intervention: Phase 4*), the intervention consisted primarily of implementing student group presentation activities accompanied by a grading rubric. We hypothesized that this type of intervention would address students' lack of motivation for reasons explained in the *Method* section (see *The intervention: Phase 4* for more explanation).

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

A. Teacher PDPs in the United States

In the past two decades, much research related to teacher PDPs has been conducted in the United States (Desimone, 2009). Based on these studies, Desimone concluded that the core features of effective PDPs included: (a) the content focus, (b) the duration, (c) collective participation, (d) active learning, and (e) coherence (Desimone, 2009; Desimone, Smith, & Ueno, 2006; Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman & Yoon, 2001). Furthermore, Desimone recommended a conceptual framework for PDPs that included these five core features because they can contribute to increasing teachers' knowledge and changing their beliefs. Such changes in knowledge and beliefs can then lead to enhanced instruction, which can improve student learning (Desimone et al., 2006; Firestone, Mangin, Martinez, & Polovsky, 2005; Penuel, Fishman, Yamaguchi, & Gallagher, 2007).

We hypothesized that Desimone's (2009) model of effective PDPs could be used as a guide for Chinese EFL teachers' PDPs. The focus on content could interest teachers in the PDP because they could learn practical knowledge and skills that could be applied in their classrooms. Collective participation and active learning could allow teachers to exchange and communicate actively with peers and educators, so that teachers could change their roles from passive listeners to active practitioners. In doing so, teachers' instructional capabilities may improve and their beliefs may change. The coherence between the PDP and school or district policies and reforms could allow teachers to realize the value of the PDP.

B. The MUSIC Model of Motivation

The MUSIC[®] Model of Motivation (MUSIC model; Jones, 2009, 2015) is a research-based model created by Jones (2009) to help instructors design instruction that motivates students to engage in learning. MUSIC is an acronym for strategies related to eMpowerment, Usefulness, Success, Interest, and Caring. Furthermore, using this model allows instructors to identify the problems in their teaching practices and then to redesign their instruction in ways that can motivate their students (Jones, 2009, 2015). The MUSIC model has been used in the United States in elementary schools (Jones & Sigmon, 2016), middle and secondary schools (Parkes, Jones, & Wilkins, 2015), and postsecondary schools (Jones, 2010; Jones, Epler, Mokri, Bryant, & Paretto, 2013; Jones, Ruff, Snyder, Petrich, & Koonce, 2012; Jones & Skaggs, 2016; McGinley & Jones, 2014), in Egypt with undergraduate students (Mohamed, Soliman, & Jones, 2013), and in Iceland with middle school students (Schram, 2015). Because the MUSIC model has been used in other cultures, it is likely that it could also be helpful to teachers in China.

The empowerment component of the MUSIC model refers to teaching strategies that lead students to feel empowered about having the ability to control some aspects of their learning (Jones, 2009, 2015). Instructors can empower students by giving them choices and allowing them to make some decisions about their learning. The strategies related to the usefulness component of the MUSIC model help students understand why the content they are learning is useful for their short- and long-term goals. Instructors can help students understand the usefulness of the course content by explaining how it is useful to their lives and by designing activities that allow students to see the usefulness of the content. The success component of the MUSIC model includes teaching strategies that help students believe they can be successful if they put forth the effort. Instructors can increase students' perceptions of success by matching the difficulty levels of class activities with the abilities of the students and by giving specific feedback to students at regular intervals. The interest component of the MUSIC model includes strategies for interesting students in class activities and making the learning experience enjoyable. Instructors can interest students in course activities by getting them curious about some aspects of the content and by incorporating activities that arouse students' emotions. The caring component of the MUSIC model includes teaching strategies that help the instructor or other students care about students' learning and about them as a person (Jones, 2009, 2015). Teachers can demonstrate that they care for students by being approachable and by respecting students and ensuring that students in the class respect one another. The teaching strategies presented in this section are merely examples; they are not intended to be a comprehensive list of all available strategies to implement the MUSIC model. For many more examples, please see Jones (2009, 2015) and www.theMUSICmodel.com.

IV. METHODOLOGY

In this section, we describe the participants and the intervention that we implemented. The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the authors' university; the participating Chinese university did not require IRB approval.

A. *Teacher Participants*

The first author provided information about this professional development intervention to teachers in the department of College English in a Chinese university. Three EFL teachers, John, Jade, and Luis (pseudonyms), agreed to participate in this intervention voluntarily. We accepted three EFL teachers as participants because (a) they were College English instructors, which was the target population of this study; (b) College English is a prominent course for all freshmen and sophomores in Chinese universities; (c) College English instructors play an important role in EFL teaching on campus; (d) they were available for the duration of the intervention, and (e) they differed with respect to gender (Jade is female, and John and Luis are male), age ($M = 32$, $SD = 2.5$), and teaching experience (Jade had six years of teaching experience, John had four years, and Luis had 10 years).

B. *The Intervention: Phase 1, Two Meetings Concerning Introduction to This Intervention*

The three EFL teachers attended two training meetings with the first author that were held during the first week of a Spring semester. The purpose of the first training was to introduce an outline of the PDP intervention. The Chinese teachers were also introduced to the American researcher (the second author) in order to increase familiarity and trust. We explained the significance of the intervention to the teachers' own development and to the university's mission as a means to explicitly demonstrate the coherence between the intervention and their school policies.

The purpose of the second meeting was to introduce the MUSIC model (Jones, 2009, 2015) and the MUSIC Inventory (Jones, 2016). To assess the validity of the survey that they were going to administer to their students, we shared a Chinese version of the survey which was translated following the process of initial translation, back translation, and a third bilingual translation revision. The survey consisted of the 26-item MUSIC Inventory (see the *User Guide* at Jones, 2016, for a full description of the MUSIC Inventory), a 4-items effort scale (from Jones, 2010; based on Plant & Ryan, 1985), one teacher rating item, and one course rating item. The MUSIC Inventory and effort items were measured on a Likert-format scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 6 (*Strongly agree*). The teacher and course rating items were measured on a Likert-format scale ranging from 1 (*Terrible*) to 6 (*Excellent*). The teachers agreed that these survey items were appropriate for their students. The first author trained the teachers how to administer the paper copy of the inventory to their students and explained what they should do with the surveys after they were collected.

C. *The Intervention: Phase 2, Collected Data from Students and Interviewed Teachers*

Each of the teachers chose one of their classes to participate in this research study and gave students the survey at the beginning of the class in the second week. To allow us to compare the pre-survey and post-survey, the teachers asked the students to write their campus passport number and their last term score (pre-test score) in the bottom right corner of the second page of the survey after they answered all the questions. After collecting the data, the teachers entered the data into a spreadsheet and sent it to the first author. The first author then interviewed each teacher individually via Skype for about 30 minutes. The interview included questions such as Explain any changes in how you viewed yourself as a teacher before this research and how you view yourself as a teacher now. The purpose of the interview was primarily to determine why the teachers wanted to participate in the intervention and what they hoped to gain by participating.

D. *The Intervention: Phase 3, Analyzed Data and Recommend Strategies to the Teachers*

During the third week, we analyzed the data and identified potential areas of improvement, similar to the process described in Jones (2015). Analyzing the quantitative data from the survey and the qualitative data from the interviews, we found that (with respect to the five MUSIC model components) most students were less motivated in their English course with respect to empowerment, success, and interest. The coded themes from the interviews were consistent with the data from the survey and indicated that teachers worked hard to create the lesson plans and lectured about the content knowledge. However, the teachers perceived the class environment to be tedious and the students to be fairly inactive. Based on these findings, we selected strategies consistent with the MUSIC model that focused on four of the MUSIC components (i.e., empowerment, success, interest, and caring) by incorporating student group presentation activities accompanied by grading rubrics. We did not focus specifically on the usefulness MUSIC component in the intervention because the usefulness of learning English was obvious to all students.

E. *The Intervention: Phase 4, Ten Weeks of Group Presentation Activities in Class*

The group presentation activities lasted 10 weeks, from week four to week 13. In week four, the teachers explained the group presentation activities. First, students were randomly assigned to groups of six and were asked to select a group leader. Second, students were given an assignment along with a grading rubric that specified how they would be assessed on it. Third, the assignment involved group member interactions and student-led presentations. The presentation material was based on the course readings. Fourth, the students were asked to outline the text and check the quality of their understanding with their instructor. Part of the assignment was to present the material to their classmates.

Fifth, each group member was required to speak a few sentences during the presentation. The teacher was available to students both inside and outside of the classroom when the students sought help with their presentations.

We hypothesized that allowing students to work in groups would increase their perceptions of *empowerment* because they would have more control over their learning, as opposed to simply listening to the teacher lecture. We reasoned that the grading rubric would provide clear expectations for students, which could increase their perceptions that they could be *successful* (Jones, 2015). We also expected that students would find the group presentation activities more *interesting* than lecture because it was a novel teaching approach to them and it added variety to the traditional lecture class format. It also provided more opportunities for interesting discussion and conversation both between peers and between teachers and students. Finally, we hypothesized that the group activities would improve students' perceptions of *caring* because it showed that the teacher cared enough to try a new approach to help students learn and because both the teachers and other students had an opportunity to help one another during the group activities. In fact, help was available to students both inside and outside of classes.

F. The Intervention: Phase 5, Collected Data from Students' Survey and Teacher Interviews

The teachers conducted the survey of students' perceptions of the group presentation activities in week 13, one week before the final exam week. After the semester ended, the teachers added each student's final exam score (which we have labeled as the "post-test score") to their post-survey. This post-test score represents a student's score on a standardized test that assessed students' English proficiency.

After the teachers sent all the survey data to us, they participated in a second interview in which they were asked to reflect on the strengths and weaknesses of the group presentation activities. We asked them questions about their perceptions of the changes in their classroom environment. For example, two of the questions were as follows: (1) "Explain how participating in this intervention has changed your classroom teaching. Provide examples whenever possible." and (2) "Explain any changes in your students due to the group activities. Provide examples whenever possible."

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Research Question 1: Effects on Students' Motivation and Achievement

Our first research question was: Can a professional development intervention have a positive effect on students' motivation and achievement? We conducted paired *t*-tests on all the quantitative variables, including empowerment, usefulness, success, interest, caring, effort, course rating, teacher rating, and course grade. The findings indicated that there was a significant increase in all variables between the pre-survey and the post-survey scores ($p < .05$; see Table 1) and from the pre-test ($M = 65.7$, $SD = 13.4$) to the post-test ($M = 78.6$, $SD = 7.9$), mean difference = 12.9, $t = 12.41$, $df = 155$, $p < .001$.

TABLE 1
MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND T-TEST RESULTS FOR THE VARIABLES

Variable	Pre-survey <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	Post-survey <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	Mean Difference	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Empowerment	3.99 (0.86)	4.52 (0.72)	0.53	6.77	155	.000
Usefulness	4.69 (0.78)	4.97 (0.73)	0.28	3.46	155	.001
Success	3.87 (0.99)	4.34 (0.87)	0.47	4.42	155	.000
Interest	3.82 (0.80)	4.42 (0.73)	0.60	7.15	155	.000
Caring	4.07 (0.77)	5.06 (0.72)	0.99	12.61	154	.000
Effort	4.02 (0.97)	4.32 (0.89)	0.30	2.97	155	.003
Teacher rating	4.96 (0.96)	5.19 (0.76)	0.23	2.42	155	.017
Course rating	4.31 (1.23)	4.78 (0.86)	0.47	4.01	155	.000

Note. $N = 156$. All items were rated on a 6-point Likert-format scale except course grade, which could range from 0 to 100.

The fact that all five MUSIC components increased from the pre-survey to the post-survey is consistent with our hypothesis that the intervention would increase students' perceptions of empowerment, success, interest, and caring. These findings indicate that the intervention worked as designed to improve students' motivation-related perceptions. Our results do not provide us with information that can be used to determine why students' perceptions increased; however, we hypothesize that they increased for the reasons that we provided previously in *The intervention: Phase 4* section. That is, the group presentation activities were more consistent with teaching strategies derived from the MUSIC model (Jones, 2009, 2015).

Although we did not hypothesize that usefulness would increase, it increased as well. This finding suggests that students perceived the group presentation activities to be more useful to their lives than traditional teaching. And finally, students' test scores increased, possibly because they were more motivated and engaged in their learning, which led them to use more effective learning strategies. Further researchers could examine whether students actually used different strategies or not, and if so, they types of strategies that they used.

The students' responses are consistent with the teachers' responses obtained from the interviews. After collecting the interview data, the first author coded the data twice, first by the key words and second by identifying themes across the data. We identified a few themes related to the changes in the classroom environment. In the traditional lecture class, students were passive receivers of content knowledge. Note taking was the primary means through which students engaged in the class. Teachers were class leaders, major speakers, and important directors. Students in these lecture classes appeared to be bored. In contrast, during the group presentation activities in the intervention, students became active presenters, engaged learners, and problem solving agents in the coursework. Students had more power and felt much more excited. Teachers changed into listeners, commenters, and major managers in the class. Therefore, the class was perceived as fresh and interesting. These changes in the classroom environment indicated that the intervention included effective instructional strategies that motivated students.

B. Research Question 2: Changes in Teachers' Attitudes and Beliefs

Our second research question was: Can a professional development intervention change teachers' attitudes and beliefs about how group activities can affect students' motivation and achievement? Responses to our interview questions revealed that significant changes had taken place in the Chinese teachers' attitudes and beliefs. The following responses from the teachers indicate that through this intervention, they began to realize the advantages of group presentation activities for students' motivation and learning. In the remainder of this section, we provide the teachers' reflections on their new attitudes and beliefs. John reported the following:

Before this program, I had doubts about whether my students could give a good presentation in class. I did not give them enough credit. However, from this intervention, I found that some students really have done an excellent job. Furthermore, their presentations have exceeded my expectation. In fact, at times, I had such an idea about the student-centered teaching style, but I didn't know how to design and put it into practice. From this intervention, I know how to manage a student-centered class.

Before this intervention, I believed that the lecture class was very effective. The teacher was the speaker in class and, I thought, only in this way the students could master the content. From this program, I realize that the teacher should allow the students to be the focus and have the major roles in class. The teacher should hold a less important role in class. At the same time, the teacher should act as a director for a movie, guiding and managing the whole process effectively.

The second teacher, Luis, attended many training programs and accumulated rich teaching experiences. He stated the following during his interview.

Participating in this intervention brought many changes into my class teaching. Before this intervention, it was a typically traditional lecture class. The class ran as follows: the vocabulary, the lead-in activity, brief reading, intensive reading, and the exercises. I believe the lecture class is typical in College English course across China. I have watched many videos of national College English teaching contests. Most of them followed this traditional lecture style. The only differences amongst the winners were their preparation of the contents and the reading materials.

When I participated in this intervention, my class became student-centered. The students' presentations on new vocabulary and intensive reading accounted for most of the class time. After the presentation, I usually commented on their performance. In sum, my role of the teacher has changed. Before this program, I was the main speaker and manager in class. With this program, I became its listener and commenter. Based on this, you can see that my class has changed in terms of the content and form.

Jade had taught College English for six years after she graduated with her Master Degree in Applied linguistics. Before this intervention, she once attended two conferences in Xi'an and Beijing, but she said she was not satisfied with them. She thought the lectures were isolated from classroom practice and they could not solve her teaching problems. She was excited to have heard about the opportunity to participate in this intervention and she stated the following.

This intervention transformed my teaching mode. Before this program, my class was a typical lecture course: I spoke in front of the classroom; the students listened, took notes, and answered my questions. They were relatively passive learners. This program is student-centered. Their group activities are diverse and flexible, and they make up a majority of the class. Thus, the students are more engaged than before. Before this program, I held the traditional teaching strategy: teachers were leaders of the class and should provide lectures. After participating in this program, I realized the teachers should be both guides and participants in the class.

The responses by all of the teachers indicate that they had changed their attitudes and beliefs about how it was possible to motivate students through empowering them with group presentation activities. Their comments demonstrate that after the intervention they saw the value in giving students some control and that their teaching role can change from a lecturer to a facilitator or guide.

C. Limitations and Future Research

Although the quantitative and qualitative data suggest that the professional development intervention was successful at motivating students and changing teachers' attitudes and beliefs, we believe that it is possible to improve upon the intervention and that further research is needed to understand how to effectively implement these types of interventions. In this section, we will highlight some of these possibilities.

During the interviews with the three teachers, they reported that some students were less motivated and seldom performed actively in the group discussions and presentations. This finding showed that it was necessary for teachers to teach students the skills on how to be active learners in group activities, such as collaboration (social support and trust), communication, and problem solving (Christie, Tolmie, Thurston, Howe, & Topping, 2009; Galton, 1990; Kutnick & Manson, 1998). Given that the traditional lecture method is used in schools from elementary to postsecondary schools in China, some of the Chinese students may lack the necessary interpersonal and critical thinking skills needed to participate effectively in class activities involving group activities. In the future, practitioners and researchers could consider what types of social skills training are necessary for students before they are asked to participate in group activities.

Another consideration is the necessity of detailed training for the teachers in how to implement group work. We trained the teachers in the general framework of group activities, such as the random assignment of students, the group task, a group leader, and the presentation grading rubric. We found that these strategies were appropriate for a college EFL class; however, other factors may need to be considered for teachers in other types of classes and content areas, such as training related to class seating arrangements, group size, the number of groups, group stability, and group composition (Blatchford, Kutnick, Baines, & Galton, 2003).

Although the three EFL teachers confirmed that group activities were effective in motivating students, they had some concerns about empowering students. They worried that it would take more time to finish one unit of their teaching plan if students became the presenters in class. Also, in implementing the intervention that allowed for student presentations, it was difficult to follow the syllabus designed by the college. They seemed to lack the confidence needed to implement this type of pedagogy within their college structure. It could be interesting to examine the coherence between the intervention and the school policies and reforms, as suggested by Desimone (2009), to determine how school policies can help or hinder teachers' adoption of different instructional strategies.

VI. CONCLUSION

We documented that it is possible to design an intervention consistent with Desimone's (2009) model of PDPs and Jones' (2009, 2015) MUSIC Model of Motivation in ways that can have a positive effect on students' motivation and achievement. The results showed that when students participated in group presentation activities, they rated their perceptions of empowerment, usefulness, success, interest, caring, effort, teacher rating, and course rating higher than when they received traditional lecture instruction. In addition, their grades at the end of the semester improved over the prior semester. Furthermore, by implementing this intervention as part of a professional development experience, the teachers changed some of their attitudes and beliefs about how group activities could affect students' motivation and achievement. In fact, some of the students exceeded their expectations about what was possible. Future implementations of this type of interventions can build on these initial successes to meet the needs of other teachers in other content areas.

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Modelling Undergraduate Student Engagement in China

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Abstract—Against the background of the international audit culture and the associated higher education league tables, student engagement has become a pervasive indicator for measuring the education quality of institutions. This paper reports findings from a study investigating undergraduate student engagement at a Chinese university. Data were collected through questionnaire survey, individual interview and group interview methods. Survey findings will be the focus of attention of this paper. Five factors emerged from an exploratory factor analysis of the data: *Effective Teaching Practices*, *Personal Development*, *Supportive Campus Environment*, *Collaborative, Reflective & Integrative Learning*, and *Quality of Interactions (Student-Staff)*. Models about students' engagement and experiences (academic and non-academic) were developed on the basis of these factors and two background variables (*School* and *Year*), using a multi-model building strategy. The findings contribute to the dominant paradigm of student engagement by specifying the magnitude of significant indicators mediating different aspects of students' engagement and experiences, and will inform the future policies and practices of institutions.

Index Terms—student engagement, student experience, Chinese university, higher education

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the international audit culture and the associated higher education league tables have led universities to become increasingly aware of research and teaching performance, and student outcomes and engagement as key indicators for measuring excellence. How to attract and retain students, satisfy their development needs and ensure that they become employment-ready when they graduate appears ever more crucial to all universities in the global market. Owing to this consumer orientation and the well-evidenced relations between students' engagement and positive learning outcomes (see below), student engagement has become a buzzword in the past fifteen years in higher education institutions and sectors.

Student engagement has been used in a pervasive way, which perhaps has led to the consequence that as a concept it is not problematised in the literature to the extent that it might warrant, and some researchers argue about whether the literature has been sufficiently critical (e.g., Trowler 2015 vs. Zepke 2014a & Zepke 2014b). For example, it is not uncommon to see in the literature that “student engagement” is mixed up with one of its precursors “student involvement” (Astin 1984) and some researchers use the two terms interchangeably; but, as Wolf-Wendel, Ward and Kinzie (2009) explain, at least in North America, they are distinct constructs¹. Although student engagement has almost become a ubiquitous term “interpreted and applied in a variety of ways across different higher education contexts and sectors” (Solomonides 2013, p. 45), as a construct firmly rooted in cultural and social norms, what it truly means to students in different cultures, and what influences students' engagement preferences, are still not well explored (Ross, Cen, and Shi 2014). As a result, China, which is remarkably different from western countries in terms of social, cultural and political contexts, and currently the largest source country of international students, has been brought into sharp focus. It thus seems worthwhile and necessary to explore perceptions of the more discerning and cost-conscious consumers in China. This paper reports survey findings from two courses (mathematics and Chinese language) at a Chinese university. It focuses on the latent factor structure of students' responses to a survey questionnaire and explores the magnitude of these factors in mediating students' engagement and experiences. It contributes to the dominant paradigm of student engagement by identifying varied combinations of key factors influencing different aspects of students' engagement and experiences.

In the remaining sections, we will firstly review key relevant literature, and then introduce the methodology of the empirical research underpinning this paper. Following this we will present the factoring and modelling results. The last section will discuss the implications of the results, summarise the findings and suggest topics for future research.

II. STUDENT ENGAGEMENT

A. The Dominant Paradigm

¹ According to Wolf-Wendel et al. (2009), “student engagement” represents two components: the first, time and efforts that students invest in learning and other activities, and the second, the institutional efforts to encourage students to participate in and benefit from such activities; while “student involvement” focuses on student efforts only.

Research about student engagement originated in the US over 50 years ago. Earlier concepts such as Merwin's (1969) "time-on-task", Astin's (1984) "student involvement" and Pace's (1980, 1984) "quality of effort" have been important precursors of the construct of student engagement. With the annual administration of the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) in North America and its introduction to a number of other countries (e.g., Australia, South Africa, Ireland, China, and more recently the UK), the NSSE-focused paradigm has obtained a dominant position in the existing literature. In North America alone, approximately six million students from over 1,600 institutions have completed the NSSE survey since 2000 (NSSE 2018). The NSSE model originally had five benchmarks² to calibrate student engagement, which were later updated to the current model consisting of four themes and ten underpinning indicators (NSSE 2018):

Academic Challenge

- High-Order Learning
- Reflective and Integrative Learning
- Learning Strategies
- Quantitative Reasoning

Experiences with Faculty

- Student-Faculty Interaction
- Effective Teaching Practices

Learning with Peers

- Collaborative Learning
- Discussions with Diverse Others

Campus Environment

- Quality of Interactions
- Supportive Environment

Under this paradigm, a large body of literature, as summarised by Trowler & Trowler (2010, pp. 8-9), has identified close links between student engagement and enhancement of various desirable student outcomes, for example, general abilities and critical thinking (Foubert and Grainger 2006; Shulman 2002), practical competence and skills transferability (Kuh 1993, 1995) and improved grades (Indiana University Centre for Postsecondary Research 2002), to name but a few.

In the Chinese context, the concept of student engagement was introduced along with the NSSE survey by a research team at Tsinghua University. After translation and cultural adaptation, the resultant NSSE-China, which was later extended into Chinese College Student Survey (CCSS), has been administered annually since 2009 (Zhang, Hu, and McNamara 2015). Accordingly, there has appeared an increasing amount of concomitant research related to NSSE-China/CCSS. However, although the idea of students' investment of time and effort in learning is not new for Chinese researchers, the concept of student engagement and the measurement of it through large scale surveys (i.e. student behaviour in relation to institutional practices) are new in the Chinese context and need more research (Ross, Cen, and Shi 2014). Moreover, as an imported concept, "student engagement" has more than one translation in Chinese, such as *参与度* (*can yu du*) and *学习性投入* (*xue xi xing tou ru*). The existence of multiple nuanced translations, to a certain degree, indicates an added complexity in the perceptions of this construct in China.

NSSE and its derivative surveys collect data about what students do, and measure it using benchmarks or scales. They have been very powerful in demonstrating the correlations between students' level of engagement and various desirable outcomes, and have enhanced the efficiency of organisations developing strategies and policies. However, there have also emerged critiques and warnings of the NSSE-focused paradigm. While acknowledging the overwhelming support for NSSE and its derivative surveys across the world, Solomonides (2013, p. 48) warns that the survey results need to be viewed with caution "as proxies for quality in learning and teaching". Moreover, "the survey items 'measure' engagement as conceptualised against pre-determined pedagogic practices", much of which is centred on what students do, rather than "how engagement is experienced by students" (ibid.). Thus tensions may arise due to the disparity between student engagement, as a potential proxy for student behaviour and pedagogy, and the measurement of it through NSSE type surveys with built-in norms gauging teaching and learning (Solomonides 2013). Furthermore, over-reliance on outcomes of such surveys in the process of making policies or strategies may increase the risk of institutions using the measurement means as management tools and performance indicators (Bryson 2014) or as educational targets for improvement (Solomonides 2013). As Strathern (1997, p. 308) argues, "when a measure becomes a target, it ceases to be a good measure". When institutions strive for better survey performances, they are putting the cart before the horse and losing their original intention of enhancing students' educational experience. Indeed, student engagement should be improved *through* surveys, but not *for* them. In addition, methodologically, some scholars (e.g., Lanasa et al. 2009; Porter 2011; Hagel et al. 2012) have also challenged the validity and reliability of NSSE type of surveys.

B. Key Indicators for Successful Engagement

Successful engagement does not take place of its own accord; it involves efforts from stakeholders at different levels. As direct participants and ultimate agents of engagement, students' perceptions and choices are apparently of prime importance. Students learn from what they do at university (Pike and Kuh 2005); their engagement is thus a process and product resulting from the synergistic interaction between motivation and active learning (Barkley 2017). Students

² The five benchmarks were: Level of Academic Challenge, Active & Collaborative Learning, Study-Faculty Interaction, Supportive Campus Environment and Enriching Educational Experiences.

“must invest time and effort into academic activities and practices ... that correlate highly with positive educational outcomes” (Bensimon 2009, p. xxiii).

Many researchers have also found that student-staff interaction is closely tied to student engagement (e.g., Tinto 2000; Umbach & Wawrzynski 2005). Hu and Kuh (2002, p. 570) argue that staff “can make concrete links between what students are reading and discussing and other aspects of their lives”. Coates (2005, p. 26) suggests that teaching staff should make themselves “available for consultation outside class time”. Markwell (2007, p. 18) explicitly points to the need for staff engagement in various ways, such as encouraging interactions during class, requiring students to study in groups, using feedback to boost engagement, urging and stimulating students to master the content at a deeper level (i.e., understanding rather than memorising), relating their own research with teaching, participating in and supporting students’ extracurricular activities, and so forth.

Furthermore, Markwell (2007) notes the importance of an inclusive campus environment, in which students of various backgrounds are able to engage on an equal basis, which is consistent with Barnacle & Dall’Alba’s (2017) opinion that the institution should promote students’ engagement by helping them develop a capacity to care about others. Also, Kahu & Nelson (2018) introduce the concept of educational interface through which institution and student efforts combine to boost student engagement. Coates (2005) suggests that institutions provide appropriate resources and opportunities to promote specific kinds of interactions. Moreover, relevant staff should also ensure that “what is enacted is of acceptable quality” (Kuh 2009b, p. 697). According to Kuh (2009a, p. 316), creating an engaging and inviting environment is not only an instrumental but a moral duty, which “behoves faculty and staff to create opportunities for all students to participate in ... high impact practices”, such as “learning communities, student-faculty research, service learning, internships, study abroad, and capstone seminars or other culminating experiences”. Providing an engaging environment is “not just the wise thing to do ... it is also the *right* thing to do (emphasis in original)” (Trowler 2010, p. 40).

III. METHODS

This paper reports part of the findings from a project on undergraduate student engagement, which was carried out at three sites, including a mathematics course in the UK, and a mathematics course and a Chinese language course in China. The two universities were comparable in terms of reputation in their country and other characteristics (e.g., size, urban location, range of subjects). Such a design enabled two key comparisons: the first, between two politically and culturally different countries viewed through the lens of mathematics, a highly internationalised and relatively culture neutral subject; and the second, between two very different courses, one from a science paradigm and one from an arts tradition (mathematics vs Chinese), in the same cultural context. Data were garnered using questionnaire, individual interview and group interview methods. Both students’ and staff’s points of view were sought. The project aimed to illuminate the characteristics of teaching, learning and student development, and, more generally, to contribute to clarifying the construct of student engagement in the higher education sector. The focus of this paper will be the survey findings emerging from the two courses in China. Other findings from the project can be found in Zhang and McNamara (2018).

Questionnaires were administered to all students on the three courses in China and the UK. The purpose was to identify general patterns in students’ responses to the instrument and to spot any atypical aspects of their responses. At the Chinese university, 800 printed copies of the instrument were distributed (400 for each course) through the instructors³ and 476 valid questionnaires were returned, of which 259 were from the mathematics course and 217 were from the Chinese language course, the overall response rate being 59.5%.

The instrument was developed from two widely used questionnaires, the North American NSSE and the UK National Student Survey (NSS). NSS is a well-established national survey extensively administered across UK universities to collect information about teaching and learning. It is categorised as a survey of students’ satisfaction with the quality of their courses; however, despite the scales of the survey (e.g., from definitely agree to definitely disagree), the content of the indicators and the specific items overlap much with those of NSSE. NSSE was utilised as the primary basis; and twenty-two items from NSS were incorporated as a supplement. The instrument was developed first in English and then translated into Chinese. The Chinese version also drew on NSSE-China to ensure the accuracy of translation. Both versions were culturally adapted and piloted. Additionally, as mentioned earlier, there are two frequently used Chinese translations of student engagement, i.e., 参与度 (*can yu du*) and 学习性投入 (*xue xi xing tou ru*). According to an earlier paper of ours (Zhang, Hu, and McNamara 2015), 参与度 (*can yu du*) was found to be a translation more equivalent to the English term, and was thus used in the Chinese version.

Exploratory factor analysis was conducted to scale students’ responses to the questionnaires. We did not run a confirmatory analysis considering that certain original items from NSSE and NSS were deleted in the process of developing and culturally adapting the instrument, and as a result, an a priori model and the number of factors and the items loading on them were not known. The factor analysis was done with the Chinese dataset only, because the response rate from the UK students was not sufficient to garner a dataset of a comparable size. Notwithstanding, we

³ This term may have varied connotations in different higher education systems. At the Chinese university in question, the responsibilities of this role mainly involve supporting students’ non-academic needs and caring for their personal development.

were fairly confident that the “structure” of the UK responses would be similar to those of the Chinese students as both version of the questionnaire instrument were developed primarily on the basis of NSSE, and both were culturally adapted to ensure that they were well received and understood in the two contexts respectively. This confidence was further reinforced when we did some confirmatory analyses with the UK dataset using the factors derived from the dataset in China; the results were positive, reassuring us about the reliability of the factors⁴.

The analysis was first attempted with the two datasets separately to see whether students on the two courses responded differently. Similar factor structures were identified; that is, a five-factor solution was found the most suitable for both datasets. Among the five factors, two of them subsumed exactly the same items; the majority of items loading on the other three factors were also the same. Therefore, we combined the two datasets and reran factor analysis with the whole dataset.

Models were then developed to find out the magnitude of each factor in predicting students’ engagement and experiences (academic and non-academic). We hoped to derive insights into the roles that the five factors played, and, more broadly, to develop a better understanding of the dominant NSSE-focused paradigm. It is a common practice in research studies, particularly in those that are exploratory in nature and involve analysis of many variables, to identify “significant” variables using some statistical techniques and derive a “best fitting” and parsimonious model by including only the significant variables (Hutcheson 2012). However, Hutcheson (2012, p. 14) questions whether “[any] single regression model can adequately describe the relationships in this set of data”; according to him, a single model derived using a certain technique ignores competing models that may have been selected using a slightly different sample or another equally valid procedure, and thus introduces difficulties for the researcher to adequately describe the research findings and generalise them to a larger population (Hutcheson 2012). Therefore, as suggested by Hutcheson, we adopted the strategy of multiple model selection and compared competing models so as to better understand the magnitude of each factor in predicting students’ engagement and experiences. When responding to the questionnaires, students were asked to rate their perceived *extent of engagement*, *academic experience* and *non-academic experience*. To develop models, we used these three items as outcome variables, and the five factors and two background variables, *School* and *Year*, as explanatory variables. In the next section, we will first report students’ ratings of the three outcome variables across the three courses, and then move on to the factoring and modelling results.

IV. RESULTS

A. Students’ Ratings of Their Engagement and Experiences (Academic and Non-academic)

Fig. 1 illustrates the score ranges and means of the three student cohorts. The UK dataset indicated that students’ *extent of engagement* scores ranged from three to nine (on a scale of 1–10), with a mean of 6.26 and a standard deviation (spread of the scores from the mean) of 1.7. The corresponding engagement scores for the mathematics course in China ranged from one to ten with a mean of 7.09 and a standard deviation of 1.54. For the Chinese language course, the mean was at 6.72 and the standard deviation was 1.52. Overall, engagement scores at the Chinese university averaged a mean of 6.92 on a range of one to ten with a standard deviation of 1.54.

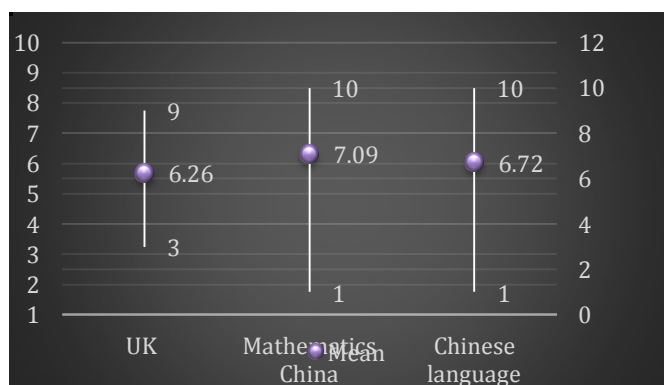


Fig. 1 Ratings of extent of engagement

In respect of students’ *academic experience*, however, the figures were turned. Mathematics students in the UK rated their academic experience highest, with a mean of 3.35 on a four-point scale. This compared to 3.03 on the mathematics course in China and to 2.90 on the Chinese language course. The Chinese language students were more positive when it came to their *non-academic experience*, however, with a mean of 2.91 against the Chinese mathematics course 2.86 and the UK mathematics students 3.10. Fig. 2 and Fig. 3 illustrate the ratings.

⁴ In view of the flaws of the UK dataset, we did not include these results in this paper lest they appeared more robust than they were and misled readers.

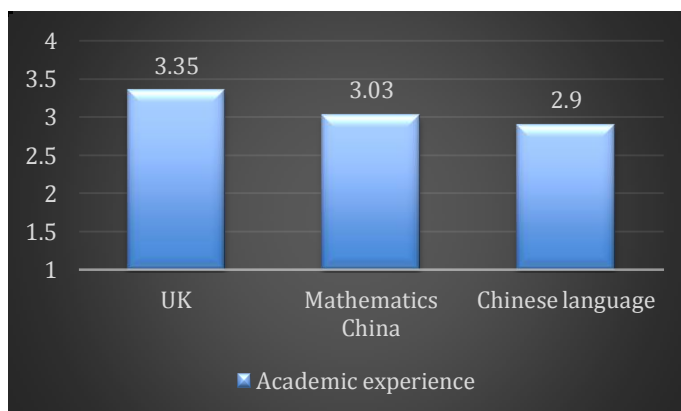


Fig. 2 Ratings of academic experience

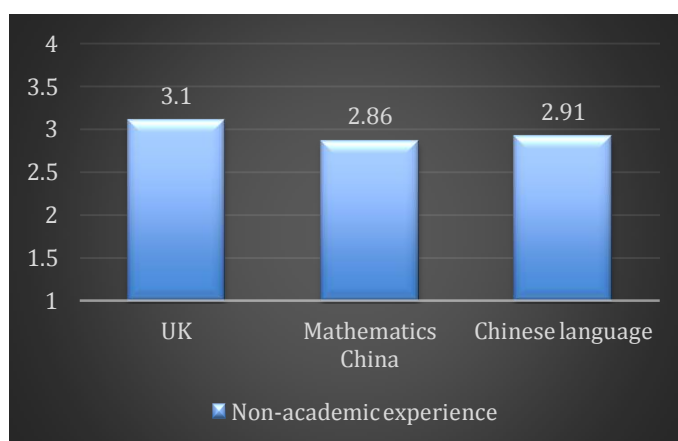


Fig. 3 Ratings of non-academic experience

B. Factor Analysis

An initial principal axis factor analysis was run on 66 items with oblique rotation (direct oblmin). To enhance the validity and stability of factors, a total of 12 items were eliminated during several steps. Both the statistical and the conceptual/practical implications of these items were considered when decisions were made on item deletion. By comparing the item loading tables (after rotation), the one with five factors was found to have the best factor structure (in terms of item loadings and crossloadings and the number of items under each factor). The five factors were named following a process of item inspection and analysis and in conjunction with relevant student engagement literature (Lanasa, Cabrera, and Trangsrud 2009): Factor 1 – *Effective Teaching Practices (ETP)*; Factor 2 – *Personal Development (PD)*; Factor 3 – *Supportive Campus Environment (SCE)*; Factor 4 – *Collaborative, Reflective & Integrative Learning (CRIL)*; and Factor 5 – *Quality of Interactions (Student-Staff) (QI)*. The five factors explained 53% of the variance. All items but three had primary loadings over 0.44; no items except one had crossloadings above 0.3.

C. Modelling Students' Engagement and Experiences

On the basis of the five factors, we developed models against the three outcome variables: *extent of engagement*, *academic experience* and *non-academic experience*. Models about students' *extent of engagement* will be reported in detail for an illustrative purpose; results about the other two outcome variables will be presented briefly.

Extent of engagement

Fig. 4 and Fig. 5 illustrate the subsets of models about students' extent of engagement, which were generated using the R software⁵ and ranked according to two specific criteria, adjr2 (Adjusted R-squared) and bic (Bayesian Information Criterion), which R used in this case to display competing models. The black blocks indicate variables that were included in the models and the white blocks indicate those that were not. The best models were listed on the top of both graphs with the biggest adjr2 score or smallest bic score.

⁵ R is a free software environment for statistical computing and graphics.

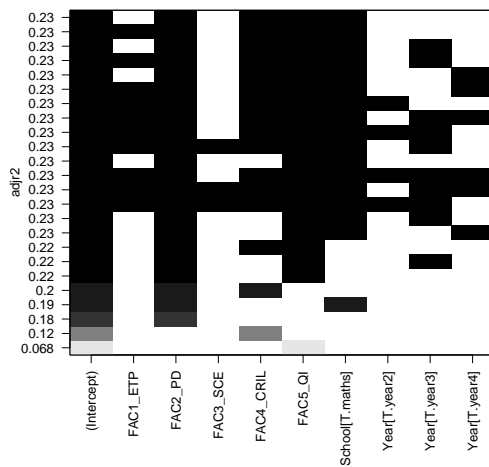


Fig. 4 Competing models (adjr2)

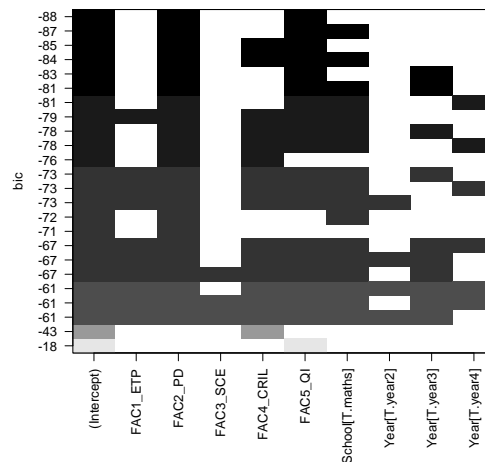


Fig. 5 Competing models (bic)

Although the two graphs look slightly different, they actually provide a consistent picture. Both graphs highlight *Personal Development (PD)* and *Quality of Interactions (QI)*, as they enter into most of the models. *Collaborative, Reflective and Integrative Learning (CRIL)* and *School* may also be significant predictors according to both criteria but may be slightly less important compared with *PD* and *QI*. *Year* and *Supportive Campus Environment (SCE)* seem to be insignificant for predicting students' extent of engagement. This way of assessing the variables provides more convincing evidence of the importance of a certain variable in the population than merely quoting a single model (Hutcheson 2012). In a single model, if a variable is missing, it will be unclear whether it will enter a model if the sample is slightly different or another equally good technique is used to derive the model (Hutcheson 2012). This way is important also because it informs the next step of the analyses that focus on the impacts of the explanatory variables on the outcome variable.

The top three lines on each graph were selected for test⁶. To find out whether the two background variables were mediated by other explanatory variables (i.e., the five factors), a model containing only *School* and *Year* was tested. In each model, Y stands for the outcome variable, α is the intercept, β is the coefficient that represents the rate of change of an explanatory variable.

adjr2

$$(1) Y = \alpha + \beta_1 PD + \beta_2 CRIL + \beta_3 QI + \beta_4 School$$

$$(2) Y = \alpha + \beta_1 ETP + \beta_2 PD + \beta_3 CRIL + \beta_4 QI + \beta_5 School$$

$$(3) Y = \alpha + \beta_1 PD + \beta_2 CRIL + \beta_3 QI + \beta_4 School + \beta_{5-7} Year$$

bic

$$(4) Y = \alpha + \beta_1 PD + \beta_2 QI$$

$$(5) Y = \alpha + \beta_1 PD + \beta_2 QI + \beta_3 School$$

$$(6) Y = \alpha + \beta_1 PD + \beta_2 CRIL + \beta_3 QI$$

D. A Model Containing Only Background Variables (For Reference)

$$(7) Y = \alpha + \beta_1 School + \beta_{2-4} Year$$

Students' extent of engagement was rated on a Likert scale of 1–10, which meant that this outcome variable could be treated as a continuous variable in the regression (Rhemtulla, Brosseau-Liard, and Savalei 2012). Assumptions of multicollinearity⁷, linearity, randomness, homoscedasticity and normality were checked and the Generalised Linear Model (GLM) was run with the selected models. Table 1 illustrates the effects of individual variables by comparing the models. Detailed parameters including t-statistics of each model are presented in Table 2.

⁶ It should be noted that these models were selected and tested for an illustrative purpose and they were not necessarily the only 'best fitting' models.

⁷ Derived from the exploratory factor analysis, the five factors were not expected to correlate strongly to the extent of causing high multicollinearity.

TABLE 1
ASSESSING VARIABLE SIGNIFICANCE BY COMPARING MODEL DEVIANCES (EXTENT OF ENGAGEMENT)

Model	Residual	Deviance	df	F-value	P-value
Determining the effect of model (4) $Y = \alpha$ $Y = \alpha + \beta_1 PD + \beta_2 QI$	970.39 753.54	216.85	2	59.86	0.000
Determining the effect of CRIL (model (4) vs model (6)) $Y = \alpha + \beta_1 PD + \beta_2 QI$ $Y = \alpha + \beta_1 PD + \beta_2 CRIL + \beta_3 QI$	753.54 747.69	5.853	1	3.248	0.072
Determining the effect of School (model (4) vs model (5)) $Y = \alpha + \beta_1 PD + \beta_2 QI$ $Y = \alpha + \beta_1 PD + \beta_2 QI + \beta_3 School$	753.54 745.12	8.416	1	4.687	0.031
Determining the effect of Year (model (1) vs model (3)) $Y = \alpha + \beta_1 PD + \beta_2 CRIL + \beta_3 QI + \beta_4 School$ $Y = \alpha + \beta_1 PD + \beta_2 CRIL + \beta_3 QI + \beta_4 School + \beta_{5,7} Year$	739.27 737.98	1.289	3	0.239	0.869
Determining the effect of ETP (model (1) vs model (2)) $Y = \alpha + \beta_1 PD + \beta_2 CRIL + \beta_3 QI + \beta_4 School$ $Y = \alpha + \beta_1 ETP + \beta_2 PD + \beta_3 CRIL + \beta_4 QI + \beta_5 School$	739.27 737.95	1.326	1	0.742	0.389

TABLE 2
PARAMETERS OF COMPETING MODELS (EXTENT OF ENGAGEMENT)

Model		Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	Sig.
(1)	Intercept	6.781	0.095	71.028	0.000
	PD	0.556	0.083	6.741	0.000
	CRIL	0.159	0.087	1.81	0.071
	QI	0.285	0.077	3.696	0.000
	School (T. mathematics)	0.285	0.131	2.171	0.031
(2)	Intercept	6.789	0.096	70.824	0.000
	ETP	-0.071	0.083	-0.862	0.389
	PD	0.572	0.084	6.768	0.000
	CRIL	0.184	0.092	1.991	0.047
	QI	0.297	0.078	3.789	0.000
(3)	Intercept	6.795	0.133	51.219	0.000
	PD	0.554	0.084	6.581	0.000
	CRIL	0.155	0.088	1.763	0.079
	QI	0.290	0.078	3.723	0.000
	School (T. mathematics)	0.270	0.142	1.894	0.059
	Year (T. Year 2)	0.028	0.170	0.164	0.870
	Year (T. Year 3)	-0.116	0.189	-0.613	0.540
(4)	Intercept	6.931	0.066	105.392	0.000
	PD	0.639	0.070	9.064	0.000
	QI	0.347	0.072	4.789	0.000
	School (T. mathematics)	0.285	0.131	2.165	0.031
(5)	Intercept	6.780	0.096	70.823	0.000
	PD	0.635	0.070	9.058	0.000
	QI	0.333	0.072	4.600	0.000
	School (T. mathematics)	0.285	0.131	2.165	0.031
(6)	Intercept	6.932	0.066	105.689	0.000
	PD	0.559	0.083	6.749	0.000
	CRIL	0.158	0.088	1.802	0.072
	QI	0.298	0.077	3.872	0.000
(7)	Intercept	6.750	0.145	46.650	0.000
	School	0.415	0.157	2.641	0.009
	Year (T. Year 2)	-0.175	0.186	-0.942	0.346
	Year (T. Year 3)	-0.186	0.207	-0.900	0.369
(7)	Year (T. Year 4)	0.198	0.224	0.884	0.377

As is shown in Table 1, Model (4) is significantly better than the model with only an intercept, and *PD* and *QI* enter into all the six selected models, both of which indicate that these two variables play a highly crucial role in predicting the outcome variable; *School* is also significant ($p = 0.031$) so may be another important variable. In contrast, *CRIL*, *Effective Teaching Practices (ETP)* and *Year* seem to be less important judged from their p-values. The t-statistics in Table 2 show a consistent picture. *PD* and *QI* are highly significant across all six models, while *ETP* and *Year* are insignificant in all the models that they enter. *School* is significant in three models and marginally insignificant ($p = 0.059$) in a fourth one; whilst *CRIL* is significant in one model but insignificant in the other three. Additionally, the

different significance values of *School* and *Year* in Model (7) and other models indicate that these two background variables may have been slightly mediated by one or more of the five factors. In a nutshell, both the graphs and statistics indicate that *PD*, *QI* and *School* are powerful predictors of students' extent of engagement.

Academic and non-academic experiences

Models about students' academic and non-academic experiences were developed in a similar way. The two outcome variables were measured on a Likert scale of 1–4, indicating that they were (ordered) categorical data, so either the Proportional Odds Model (when the proportional odds assumption was met) or otherwise the Multinomial Model was utilised.

By comparing the competing models and reviewing the model parameters, it was found that *PD*, *CRIL* and *QI* were highly significant explanatory variables in describing students' academic experience; on the other hand, *ETP*, *SCE* and *School*, which could be categorised as contextual influences, were insignificant in all the models selected for test. Also, the model that contained only *School* and *Year* showed that the former was a significant predictor of students' academic experience, but it was insignificant when appearing together with the factor variables. This indicated that *School* might have been mediated by the factor variables. In fact, according to the qualitative data, students on the two courses did report rather different learning experiences, in aspects such as level of academic challenge and ways of assessment (see Zhang and McNamara (2018) for details). Thus, *School* may be another important predictor along with *PD*, *CRIL* and *QI*, though its magnitude may not be so high as the latter three. As for students' non-academic experience, the graphs and statistics indicated that *PD*, *CRIL*, *QI* and *SCE* were important predictors of the outcome variable, while *ETP* and *School* appeared to be insignificant.

V. DISCUSSION

The statistics indicated that overall students at the Chinese university considered themselves more engaged than their UK counterparts, while the latter enjoyed their academic and non-academic experiences more than the former. This interesting and seemingly contradictory phenomenon reflected, at least in part, the disparity between students' behavioural engagement and their enjoyment in learning. It was found that there were different assessment systems at the two universities. At the Chinese university, students were assessed both academically (90%) and in terms of personal development (10%), and they were ranked according to their total scores. As a result, many students worked very hard but did not necessarily enjoy the learning process; some people selected activities carefully only to maximise their development scores. On the other hand, students at the UK university had more flexibility in choosing modules and had free choices of co-curricular/extracurricular activities according to personal interest and preference, thus more likely to engage at a deeper (e.g., cognitive and psychological) level and enjoy their university experience. The ratings also showed that at the Chinese university, the mathematics students had slightly better engagement and academic experience; whilst the language students were more positive about their non-academic experience. Owing to the sharp difference between the two subjects, students were assessed in dissimilar manners (examinations vs. assignments); and learning on the mathematics course was more challenging and thought-provoking, which significantly reduced students' time for various activities.

The factor structure derived in this paper accords well with the NSSE and NSS structures (NSS 2018; NSSE 2018), with four factors consistent with the NSSE themes, and all five factors in line with the NSS indicators. It can be seen in Table 3 that *Personal Development*, which was found to be highly significant in predicting students' extent of engagement and experiences, is missing in the NSSE structure. Also, as we have presented in Zhang and McNamara (2018), this five-factor structure subsumes 23 indicators emerging from the qualitative data, thus providing an overarching perspective to understand students' engagement and experiences.

TABLE 3
THE FIVE-FACTOR STRUCTURE VS. NSSE & NSS STRUCTURES

This research	NSSE (US)	NSS (UK)
Collaborative, Reflective & Integrative Learning	<u>ACADEMIC CHALLENGE</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> High-Order Learning Reflective & Integrative Learning Learning Strategies Quantitative Reasoning <u>LEARNING WITH PEERS</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Collaborative Learning Discussions with Diverse Others 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Learning opportunities Learning community
Effective Teaching Practices	<u>EXPERIENCES WITH FACULTY</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Student-Faculty Interaction Effective Teaching Practices 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Teaching of My Course Assessment and Feedback
Quality of Interactions Supportive Campus Environment	<u>CAMPUS ENVIRONMENT</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quality of Interactions Supportive Environment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Academic Support Learning Resources Organisation and Management
Personal Development		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Personal Development

Moreover, the model statistics inform us about which factors are of magnitude in describing students' perceived extent of engagement, academic experience and non-academic experience. Table 4 summarises the significant factors that we identified in the modelling process. It is evident that *PD* and *QI* are of paramount importance, indicating that students were well aware of how well they had developed in various aspects and related it directly with the quality of their personal engagement and experiences. One of the contributing reasons might be the aforementioned assessment system, which took personal development scores into account and in turn raised students' awareness of all-round development. Also, as the interview data indicated, students' interaction with staff could considerably promote their engagement with learning and other activities. This could explain why *QI* was another highly significant predictor. The collocation of the three factors that significantly influence students' academic experience (*PD*, *CRIL* and *QI*) makes sense considering that all of them involve students as the direct agent. By engaging with academic activities and interacting with course tutors and peers, students might achieve development in various aspects (such as critical thinking and communication); and how much they enjoyed this process might to a large extent affect their rating of personal academic experience. It was also interesting that *CRIL* was found to influence students' non-academic experience. According to the qualitative interview data, many students, particularly those on the mathematics course had to spend much time out of class digesting the lecture content and did not have many opportunities to socialise or participate in extracurricular activities. With respect to the background variable *School*, due to the contrasting difference between the two subjects and the dissimilar teaching and assessment practices on the two courses, it was comprehensible that *School* played a significant role in mediating students' engagement and academic experience. For instance, closed-book examinations were the predominant form of assessment on the mathematics course and exerted much pressure on students, especially those who wanted to achieve good results; contrastingly, students on the Chinese language course were mainly assessed through assignments and were more likely to have flexibility in learning and enjoy the process (see Zhang and McNamara (2018) for details).

TABLE 4
A SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT FACTORS IN THE MODELS

	Extent of Engagement	Academic experience	Non-academic experience
Personal Development (PD)	✓	✓	✓
Quality of Interactions (QI)	✓	✓	✓
Collaborative, Reflective and Integrative Learning (CRIL)		✓	✓
Supportive Campus Environment (SCE)			✓
School	✓	✓	

These findings are consistent with a number of studies in the literature. For example, to benefit from engagement, students need to be motivated and actively invest time and energy into activities related to their course (Bensimon 2009; Barkley 2017) and interact with peers in challenging and productive learning activities (Coates 2005) (cf. Factor *Collaborative, Reflective & Integrative Learning*). Engagement is also connected with development in aspects such as organising, communicative and reflective skills (Coates 2005) (cf. Factor *Personal Development*); high-quality student-staff interaction was found to link closely with student engagement (e.g., Tinto 2000; Umbach & Wawrzynski 2005) (cf. *Quality of Interactions*). Institutions should perform their function fully in the educational interface (Kahu and Nelson 2018); this could include providing students with appropriate resources, opportunities and support services (Coates 2005), deploying these resources and organise the opportunities and services in a proper way (Kuh 2007) (e.g. sufficient space for students to work collaboratively (Coates 2005) and student-staff research (Kuh 2009b), and creating an inclusive and engaging environment (Markwell 2007), in order to enhance students' engagement and experiences at university (cf. factors *Supportive Campus Environment* and *Quality of Interactions*). Some scholars (e.g., Kuh 2009a, 697) argue that courses, particularly teaching practices, that are of 'high impact', should be ensured to have the desired effects. Surprisingly, *Effective Teaching Practices* was found to have a lower order of magnitude and did not emerge in the models as a significant predictor of students' engagement nor their experiences. Given the empirical data that we have collected, we think a possible reason might be that lectures on the two courses were generally teacher-centred and there was little student-course tutor interaction during and after class; nevertheless, it would be interesting to further explore this phenomenon in the future. Finally, to illustrate the magnitude of these factors and the multi-layer influences that they exerted on students' engagement and experiences, we generated a diagram (Fig. 6), which consisted of multiple ovals; and the closer a factor is to the core oval, the stronger impacts it may have.

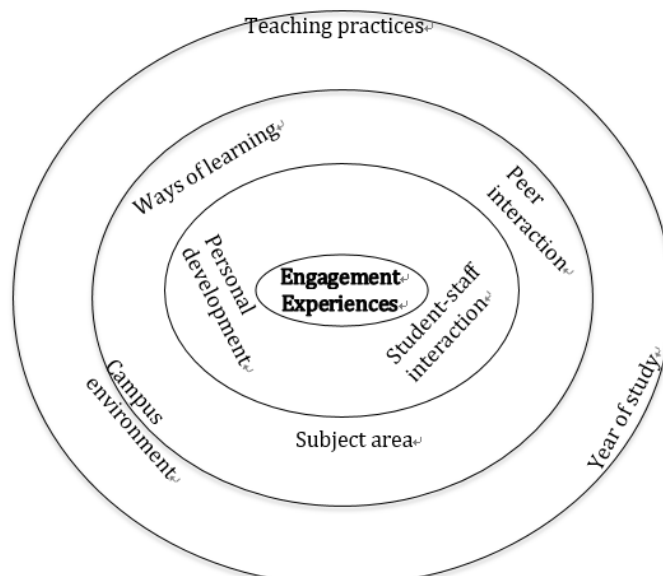


Fig. 6 Magnitude of the factors in relation to students' engagement and experiences

VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper we focused on students' engagement and experiences on two courses (mathematics and Chinese language) at a Chinese university. Students' ratings indicated that those on the mathematics course were slightly more engaged and had marginally better academic experience; whilst those on the language course were more satisfied about their non-academic experience. Five factors emerged from the exploratory factor analysis: *Effective Teaching Practices*, *Personal Development*, *Supportive Campus Environment*, *Collaborative, Reflective & Integrative Learning* and *Quality of Interactions (Student-Staff)*. Models developed on the basis of the five factors and the two background variables (*School* and *Year*) informed us about the magnitude of each factor in explaining students' engagement and experiences (academic and non-academic), which is missing in both the NSSE and the NSS structures, and thus added interpretative power to understanding the mechanism of how the factors function together to influence students' engagement and experiences. Specifically, *Personal Development* and *Quality of Interactions (Student-Staff)* were found to be the foremost factors influencing student engagement and experiences; subject area was key to students' engagement and academic experience; *Collaborative, Reflective & Integrative Learning* was crucial for students' academic and non-academic experiences; and *Supportive Campus Environment* was essential for their non-academic experience. *Effective Teaching Practices* was found to be an insignificant explanatory variable.

Informed by these findings, future attention could be focused on the core influences (as is shown in Fig. 6) so that students could have better quality engagement and experiences at university. For instance, interactions between students and staff could be strengthened to enhance the dynamics between the two groups. Course tutors could take such measures as finishing the lecture with questions that trigger discussion, incorporating student response systems in the lecture (e.g., clickers), introducing group projects, presentations or task-based learning to the lecture (Allen & Tanner 2005 drawn on in Gasiewski et al. 2012), and providing guidance (face-to-face or online) out of normal teaching hours and in response to students' individual needs (Kuh and Hu 2001). Instructors, who are responsible for supporting students' non-academic needs and caring for their personal development (see Footnote 3), could have more effective and frequent meetings with students to guide, monitor and support their progress in learning, and provide them with necessary pastoral care. In addition, various types of interesting, engaging activities, either co-curricular or extracurricular, could be initiated and peer interaction should be encouraged in order to help students develop transferrable skills (e.g., critical thinking, communicative, time management) that they could apply in academic learning and other aspects of their life. Also, considering that subject area may have an impact on students' engagement and academic experience, ways of teaching and assessment within each school could be adjusted to promote students' engagement with the course and allow them to enjoy the process of learning. After all, to what extent they enjoy the four years at university is equally important as (if not more important than) what they do there.

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The Impact of Using Inverted Classrooms on Promoting Extensive versus Intensive Reading Comprehension among Iranian Upper-intermediate EFL Learners

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Abstract—This study aimed to investigate the impact of inverted classrooms on promoting Iranian EFL learners' extensive and intensive reading comprehension. To fulfil, 60 Iranian upper-intermediate EFL students out of 90 were chosen based on an Oxford Quick Placement Test. The selected participants were randomly divided into two experimental groups; intensive reading group (n=20) and extensive reading group (n=20), and a control group (n=20). Then, the three groups were pretested. After that, the researcher put the participants of both experimental groups in two inverted classrooms. Each inverted classroom was equipped with Internet, computer and projector and participants in this classroom were allowed to bring their Smartphones to the classroom and use them during learning. On the other hand, the control group receive no treatment and were taught in traditional instruction. The results of paired samples t-test and one-way ANOVA revealed that both experimental groups had better performance on their post-test compared to their pre-test. The results showed that there was not a significant difference between the performances of the experimental groups on the post-test. Finally, implications arising from the findings and suggestions for further research were explained.

Index Terms—inverted classrooms, extensive reading, intensive reading

I. INTRODUCTION

As inverted or flipped models have turned out to be progressively common in the instructional writing and more extensively actualized by experts in the course of recent years (Moranski and Kim, 2016), the need to research the impacts of flipped study halls on language learning is critically significant. The flipped study hall is an academic system that switches the conventional homeroom process by conveying the instructional substance as a rule, however not constantly, online before class and after that drawing in students in intuitive gathering learning or potentially basic critical thinking exercises that are completed under the educators' direction during class (Herreid & Schiller, 2013).

Flipped classroom are accepted to be helpful for educating and learning. Some instructive advantages of the flipped study hall were dictated by certain analysts. These advantages incorporate (1) understudies and teachers' certain impression of the dynamic learning condition (e.g., Namaziandost & Nasri, 2019; Gilboy, Heinerichs, & Pazzaglia, 2015), (2) increasingly dynamic commitment during class (e.g., Namaziandost, Nasri, & Rahimi Esfahani, 2019), and (3) predominant accomplishment on developmental/summative evaluations (e.g., Amresh, Carberry, & Femiani, 2013). For instance, when Love, Hodge, Grandgenett, and Swift (2014) executed a flipped straight polynomial math course, most of understudies announced that the methodology helped them build up a more profound comprehension of the substance. Amresh et al. (2013) detailed that understudies in a flipped early on PC programming course performed fundamentally superior to did understudies in a practically identical conventional course plan on assignments and tests.

The instructive significance of the flipped study hall is upheld by a scope of understudy focused learning speculations in the field of instructive brain research (Bishop and Verleger, 2013), including helpful learning (Namaziandost, Ahmadi, & Keshmirshekan, 2019), collaborative learning (Nasri, Biria, & Karimi, 2018), peer tutoring (Namaziandost & Ahmadi, 2019), peer assisted learning (Nasri & Biria, 2017), problem-based learning (Azadi, Biria, & Nasri, 2018), and active learning (Michael, 2006; Abedi, Keshmirshekan, & Namaziandost, 2019).

As of late, the improvement of instructive innovation has permitted flipped study halls to be effectively embraced in advanced education settings (Hosseini, Nasri, & Afghari, 2017). This learning condition can be described as understudy

focused—understudies are required to come to class having just picked up the information important to effectively participate in critical thinking exercises with their friends. All through the cycle of guidance, they keep up a functioning job at the focal point of learning. The training depends on the presumptions that important collaboration among companions supports information building and that instructors can give all the more auspicious and customized direction and input during in-class exercises (Kim, Park, Jang, & Nam, 2017; Namaziandost, Rahimi Esfahani, Nasri, & Mirshekaran, 2018).

Extensive reading contrasts from concentrated reading. In serious reading, understudies regularly work with short messages with close direction from the educator. The point of concentrated reading is to enable understudies to acquire definite significance from the content, to create reading aptitudes, for example, distinguishing fundamental thoughts and perceiving content connectors—and to improve jargon and sentence structure learning. Note that these two ways to deal with showing reading—concentrated and broad reading—ought not be viewed as being in resistance, as both fill diverse yet correlative needs (Carrell & Carson 1997; Namaziandost, Abedi, & Nasri, 2019). Be that as it may, serious reading is by all accounts the overwhelming method of showing reading in numerous language homerooms. This is in spite of proof that escalated reading alone won't enable students to build up their reading familiarity, a significant expertise that develop readers get simply after rehashed introduction to huge amounts of composed content.

1.1. Research Questions

This study aimed to answer the following research questions:

RQ1. Do inverted classrooms significantly affect Iranian EFL learners' extensive reading comprehension?

RQ2. Do inverted classrooms significantly affect Iranian EFL learners' intensive reading comprehension?

1.1. Research Null Hypotheses

Based on the above-mentioned research questions, the following null hypotheses were tested:

HO1. Inverted classrooms do not significantly affect Iranian EFL learners' extensive reading comprehension.

RQ2. Inverted classrooms do not significantly affect Iranian EFL learners' intensive reading comprehension.

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A. *The Flipped Classroom*

The "flipped classroom" is another catchphrase in training, however it's anything but a totally original thought. Educators frequently allot reading to be done at home, and afterward anticipate that understudies should participate in discussion about the reading in class. This plan could be named a modified study hall (Strayer, 2012). Notwithstanding, a couple of key qualities recognize the flipped study hall from a transformed study hall. In the flipped homeroom, understudies watch video-recorded talks outside of class, therefore expanding time for dynamic learning and practice to happen in class (Namaziandost, Nasri, & Rahimi Esfahani, 2019). While execution of this technique may appear to be somewhat unique for every instructor, basically "the 'flipped' some portion of the flipped study hall implies understudies watch or tune in to exercises at home and get their 'work done' in class" (Fulton, 2012, p. 13).

Web based learning has different definitions. Verifiably, video talks were made to give educational program access to people who lived a long way from school. Educators started acknowledging recordings offered site understudies, yet in addition understudies who were available during talks (Hashemifardnia, Namaziandost, & Sepehri, 2018). Online classes picked up notoriety in the previous decade, particularly at the school level. Nonetheless, understudies usually whined about restricted collaboration and correspondence in absolutely online classes (Gecer & Dag, 2012). Flipping the study hall includes web-based learning through a progression of video addresses, however it is bolstered by up close and personal study hall discourses and individual assistance. In this way, the flipped study hall is not quite the same as conventional internet learning situations.

Customary homeroom addresses frequently pursue a one-pace-fits-all way of thinking. Educators may alter their talks dependent on the understudies' criticism, yet a few understudies will without a doubt discover the pace quick, while others think that its moderate. Video talks gave through the flipped study hall model enable understudies to quick advance through models they as of now comprehend, or delay and rewind to return to subjects which may require all the more handling time (Goodwin & Miller, 2013). Recordings enable talks to be broken into pieces, instead of conventional guidance which regularly contains an enormous volume of substance conveyed at once (Mirshekar, Namaziandost, & Nazari, 2018).

Khan (2012), a generally perceived online instructor, promoted the flipped homeroom through his site, Khan Academy. This site contains more than 4,120 short instructive recordings, most itemizing a particular math idea (Thomas, 2013). Khan chips away at the issues bit by bit on every video. "Khan's thought was that adolescents would watch the recordings at home and work on the issues in class, basically 'flipping' the study hall" (Kronholz, 2012, p. 25). Understudies likewise visit the site to get schoolwork help when they are stuck on the issue. Khan looks to change the manner in which individuals consider instruction, noticing "the old homeroom model just doesn't accommodate our evolving needs" (Khan, 2012, p. 1).

Numerous schools have utilized Khan's recordings to flip the study hall. Greg Green, head at Clintondale Community Schools in Michigan, praised the flipped homeroom for its capacity to help understudies who don't get schoolwork help at home (Finkel, 2012). Understudies presently get direction at home as video addresses, and can legitimately interface with instructors and companions during class time to find solutions to their inquiries. Educators using Khan Academy to

flip their homerooms acknowledge they frequently work more earnestly during the school day as they are continually moving near and interfacing with understudies. It must be noted Khan Academy isn't implied as a fix-all. Math educator Courtney Cadwell remarked Khan "isn't incredible at helping children conceptualize math" (Kronholz, 2012, p. 26). Video talks should be enhanced with exercises which energize exchange and accentuate the application side of science. When flipping the homeroom, instructors should continually communicate with understudies, alter guidance on the fly, and plan exercises which supplement the recordings.

B. Extensive Reading

As indicated by Carrell and Carson (1997), extensive reading... for the most part includes quick reading of enormous amounts of material or longer readings (for example entire books) for general comprehension, with the emphasis for the most part on the importance of what is being perused than on the language. While this definition gives a review of broad reading, Davis (1995) offers a progressively valuable meaning of extensive reading from a study hall execution point of view: "A extensive reading system is a beneficial class library plot, connected to an English course, in which understudies are since time is running short, support, and materials to peruse pleasurably, at their very own level, the same number of books as they can, without the weights of testing or checks" (p. 68). Consequently, understudies are contending just against themselves, and it is dependent upon the instructor to give the inspiration and observing to guarantee that the most extreme number of books is being perused in the time accessible. The watchwords are amount and assortment, as opposed to quality, with the goal that books are chosen for their appeal and significance to the students' lives, as opposed to for scholarly merit (Namaziandost, Nasri, & Keshmirshakan, 2019).

Albeit extensive reading projects go under various names, including Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading (USSR), Drop Everything and Read (DEAR), and Silent Uninterrupted Reading for Fun (SURF), and the Book Flood program (Elley & Mangubhai, 1983; Tahmasbi, Hashemifardnia, & Namaziandost, 2019), they all offer a typical reason: that students read enormous amounts of books and different materials in a domain that supports a deep rooted reading propensity. Moreover, these projects additionally share a typical conviction, that is, the capacity to peruse easily is best accomplished through reading broadly in the language.

C. Intensive Reading

Intensive reading as a philosophy is an educator focused methodology, which means the teacher coordinates the vast majority of what occurs in class, including what to peruse, when to peruse, and what jargon, language structure, content association or perception focuses are to be examined. Contingent upon the educator, a great part of the clarification for these focuses might be done in Japanese. Presumably, understudies are urged to pose inquiries, yet without such interest by understudies, the instructor establishes the tone and picks which parts of the content are to get examination. Second language (L2) proficiency research underpins serious reading as a technique, especially as it applies to jargon improvement (Nation, 1993).

Dark colored (2007) considered escalated reading classes as a spot where base up and top-down handling are utilized intelligently to accomplish reading appreciation. At the end of the day, consideration ought to be given to phoneme, root and word acknowledgment to advance toward significance (base up) just as to the (top-down) procedure of beginning with foundation information and general importance and working from that point to increasingly explicit cognizance. As a major aspect of the top-down procedure, he supported abilities building and familiarity works out, for example, distinguishing the reason for reading, skimming, checking, speculating from setting, semantic mapping, and sort contemplates (Namaziandost, Nasri, Rahimi Esfahani, & Keshmirshakan 2019).

While there are demonstrated advantages to a serious reading philosophy, specialists have additionally referred to certain negatives. The inclination to concentrate on sentence level linguistic structure can turn an ostensible "reading" class into a language class. There is, obviously, not much with showing language, yet it just isn't equivalent to "reading" (Nasri, Namaziandost, & Akbari, 2019; Susser & Robb, 1990). Country (2009) questions whether serious reading educators are picking their writings with the end goal of making consequent writings intelligible. On the off chance that the picked reading entry is loaded with low-recurrence words, at that point the understudy will encounter minimal future profit by the exertion put in to understand it. The inclination to concentrate on interpretation of sentences or entries is another tricky territory. One would need to scan long and hard for a solitary proficiency pro who supporters sentence or entire section interpretation as a proficient utilization of time in an EFL reading class. At last, the concentrated examination of all parts of a solitary, short reading entry—generally one that was not picked by the reader—can make the reading procedure appear to be repetitive and add to the frequently heard understudy abstain that reading in English is troublesome or on the other hand exhausting. Nuttal (1996) depicted the endless loop of the powerless reader," alluding to the procedure of the constrained, slow, worked reading of troublesome entries, prompting reading shirking, with the end goal that little improvement in perception during a course is accomplished.

D. Empirical Background

Some studies have been conducted on flipped classroom to measure its effects. For instance, Johnson and Jeremy Runner (2012) contemplated the impact of the flipped homeroom model on an auxiliary PC applications course: understudy and educator recognitions, questions and understudy accomplishment. The discoveries showed that no advantage to utilizing the flipped study hall guidance in an optional PC application. Robert Overmyer (2014) examined

the flipped study hall model for school variable based math: consequences for understudy accomplishment. The discoveries of this examination demonstrate that there was not a factually huge distinction in the scores of understudies in the two gatherings; nonetheless, understudies in the flipped segments showed improvement over the understudies in the customary areas.

Ching Lin and Chen (2016) expected to check and to comprehend the impacts of flipped study hall on the learning adequacy, while utilizing learning fulfillment as the arbiter. The discoveries demonstrated that: 1) both the educators and understudies of specialized and professional schools (the principal half) accepted that flipped learning positively affects learning fulfillment; while the understudies of the second 50% of specialized a professional universities accepted that flipped learning negatively affects learning fulfillment; 2) both the teachers and understudies of specialized and professional universities (the two parts) accepted that flipped learning has a noteworthy constructive outcome on learning viability; and 3) both the teachers and understudies of specialized and professional universities (the main half) accepted that flipped learning positively affects learning adequacy; while the educators and understudies of the second 50% of specialized and professional schools accepted that flipped learning negatively affects learning viability. Abridging the abovementioned, learning fulfillment has a halfway intervening impact.

Kim, Park, Jan, and Nam (2017) researched the psychological impacts of the flipped study hall approach in a substance based instructional setting by looking at second language students' talk in flipped versus conventional homerooms as far as (1) cooperation rate, (2) substance of remarks, (3) thinking abilities, and (4) interactional examples. Students in two flawless classes took an interest and were educated in either a flipped classroom ($n=26$) or a conventional homeroom ($n=25$). In the flipped class, the students tuned in to an online talk before class and partook in a little bunch exchange in class. Conversely, the students in the conventional class tuned in to an instructor drove address in class and after that promptly took an interest in a little bunch dialog in class. The students' discourses were sound recorded. Quantitative and subjective examinations demonstrated no distinction in cooperation rates; nonetheless, the understudies in the flipped homeroom created progressively intellectual remarks including further data handling and higher-request reason in g abilities and indicated more strong interactional examples than did the understudies in the customary study halls. The outcomes showed that flipped study halls can successfully advance higher-request thinking forms and inside and out, strong talk in the substance based second language.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of this study are 60 upper-intermediate language learners who were selected among 90 EFL learners at a private English language institute in Ahvaz, Iran. The participants' age range was from 19 to 21. They were selected based on non-random sapling. Moreover, they have been studying English as a foreign language for at least five years. Their level of English language proficiency was determined on the basis of their scores on the Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT). The learners were randomly divided into two experimental groups; Intensive Reading Group (IRG) Extensive Reading Group (ERG), and a Control Group (CG). Only males were participated in the current study.

B. Instruments

The first instrument which was used in the present study to homogenize the participants is the OQPT. It helped the researcher to have a greater understanding of what level (i.e., elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate, upper-intermediate, and advanced) his participants were at. According to this test, the learners whose scores were between 38 and 49 (out of 60) were considered as the upper-intermediate learners.

The second instrument was an extensive/intensive reading pre-test. To realize the current participants' reading comprehension level, a researcher-made pre-test was designed based on the students' materials (Interchange 2). It was a reading comprehension test of 40 objective items including short answer and true or false items. The validity of the pre-test was confirmed by two English experts. It was piloted on a similar group from another institute. It should be mentioned that the reliability index of the pre-test was calculated through KR-21 formula as it was $r = .982$.

The third instrument of the current study was two post-tests of extensive/intensive reading. After the treatment, an extensive reading post-test was designed and given to the ERG. It included 40 objective items including short answer and true or false items. Like the pre-test, validity of the post-test was confirmed by two English experts. It will be piloted on a similar group from another institute. The reliability index of this test was computed through KR-21 formula as it was $r = .839$. The other post-test was an intensive reading test which was given to the IRG. It was similar to the post-test mentioned above. It had 40 objective items including short answer and true or false items. Similarly, this post-test was validated by two English experts and it was piloted on a similar group from another institute. The reliability index of this test was computed through KR-21 formula and it was $r = .799$.

C. Data Collection Procedure

To conduct the present study, the researcher gave OQPT to 90 Iranian EFL students to determine their level of English proficiency. The researcher selected 60 upper-intermediate students and divided them randomly into two experimental groups; intensive reading group ($n=20$) and extensive reading group ($n=20$), and a control group ($n=20$). Then, all groups were pretested. After that, the researcher puts the participants of IRG and ERG in two flipped

classrooms. Each flipped classroom was equipped with Internet, computer and projector and participants in this classroom were allowed to bring their Smartphones to the classroom and used them during learning. The students in the flipped classrooms were given 12 reading texts (6 intensive reading texts were given to the IRG and 60 extensive reading texts were given to the ERG) from Interchange 2. Each text was sent to the students via Email, What's App or Telegram to the students. The students were required to read each text before coming the class and discussed it with the classmates. In the class, the teacher could elicit some information from the students, asked them some questions or give them a test. He could also ask them to read a text and say its main idea. The control group receive no treatment and was taught through traditional instruction. The treatment lasts 12 sessions of 60 minutes each under the guidance of the supervisor. In the last session, both groups took the post-tests of extensive/intensive reading.

D. Data Analysis Procedure

In data analysis, firstly, Shapiro-Wilk test was used to check the normality of the gathered data. Then, the descriptive statistics were calculated through using SPSS software, version 25. Finally, paired samples t-test and One-way ANOVA were run to determine the effectiveness of flipped classrooms on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The primary outcomes are introduced and showed dependent on the inquiries of the investigation. The information acquired from the pre-/post-trial of the perusing understanding tests were dissected and translated utilizing the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The outcomes were utilized to respond to the examination questions.

TABLE 1.
SHAPIRO-WILK TEST (GROUPS' PRETESTS AND POST-TESTS)

	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
IRG. Pretest	.843	20	.004
IRG. Posttest	.886	20	.022
ERG. Pretest	.898	20	.037
ERG. Posttest	.896	20	.034
CG. Pretest	.921	20	.103
CG. Posttest	.853	20	.006

Note. IRG (Intensive Reading Group); ERG: Extensive Reading Group, CG: Control Group

The *p* esteems under the Sig. segment in Table 1 decide if the appropriations were typical or not. A *p* esteem more noteworthy than .05 demonstrates a typical dispersion, while a *p* worth lower than .05 shows that the circulation has not been ordinary. Since all the *p* esteems in Table 1 were bigger than .05, it could be presumed that the conveyances of scores for the pretest and posttest acquired from the two gatherings had been typical. It is hence protected to continue with parametric test (for example Combined examples t-tests and single direction ANOVA for this situation) and make further examinations between the taking an interest groups.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS RESULTS COMPARING IRG, ERG, AND CG MEAN SCORES ON THE PRETEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
IRG	20	14.60	1.16	.26	14.05	15.14	13.00	17.50
ERG	20	14.70	.96	.21	14.24	15.15	13.50	16.50
CG	20	14.92	1.04	.23	14.43	15.41	13.00	16.50
Total	60	14.74	1.05	.13	14.47	15.01	13.00	17.50

Table 2 shows the mean scores of the learners in the IRG ($M = 14.60$), ERG ($M = 14.70$), and CG ($M = 14.92$). To find out whether the differences among these three mean scores were statistically significant or not, the researcher had to examine the *p* value under the Sig. column in the ANOVA table. In this table, a *p* value less than .05 would indicate a statistically significant difference among the four groups, while a *p* value larger than .05 indicates a difference which failed to reach statistical significance.

TABLE 3.
RESULTS OF ONE-WAY ANOVA COMPARING THE PRETEST SCORES OF IRG, ERG, AND CG

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.10	2	.55	.49	.61
Within Groups	64.13	57	1.12		
Total	65.24	59			

Based in the information presented in Table 3, there was not a statistically significant difference in the pretest scores for the IRG ($M = 14.60$, $SD = 1.16$), ERG ($M = 14.70$, $SD = .96$), and CG ($M = 14.92$, $SD = 1.04$), $p = .61$ (two-tailed).

This conclusion was made since the p value was larger than the significance level ($p > .05$). Hence, it could be inferred that the learners in the three groups, two groups of experimental and control group, were at the same in pretest.

The main objective of the study was to find out whether using inverted classroom affected the intensive or extensive reading. For this purpose, the posttest reading scores of the IRG, ERG and CG needed to be compared via one-way between-groups ANOVA. The results of the comparison of the three groups on the posttest are displayed in Tables 4., 5., and 6.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS RESULTS COMPARING IRG, ERG, AND CG MEAN SCORES ON THE POSTTEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
IRG	20	17.65	.96	.21	17.20	18.09	16.00	19.00
ERG	20	17.17	1.17	.26	16.62	17.72	15.00	19.00
CG	20	15.07	1.11	.24	14.55	15.59	13.00	16.50
Total	60	16.63	1.55	.20	16.23	17.03	13.00	19.00

The mean scores of the CG ($M = 15.07$), ERG ($M = 17.17$), and IRG ($M = 17.65$) were found to be different from one another on the delayed posttest. To find out whether the differences among these mean scores were of statistical significance or not, one needs to examine the p value under the *Sig.* column in the ANOVA table below (Table 5).

TABLE 5.
RESULTS OF ONE-WAY ANOVA COMPARING THE POSTTEST SCORES OF IRG, ERG, AND CG

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	75.10	2	37.55	31.79	.00
Within Groups	67.32	57	1.18		
Total	142.43	59			

As is could be observed in Table 5, there was a statistically significant difference in the delayed posttest scores for CG ($M = 15.07$, $SD = 1.11$), ERG ($M = 17.17$, $SD = 1.17$), and EG2 ($M = 17.65$, $SD = .96$) on the posttest of reading since the p value under the *Sig.* column was found to be less than the specified level of significance (i.e. $.000 < .05$), meaning that the three groups significantly differed in terms of reading performance. This result could also be clearly noticed in the bar chart that follows (Figure 4.2).

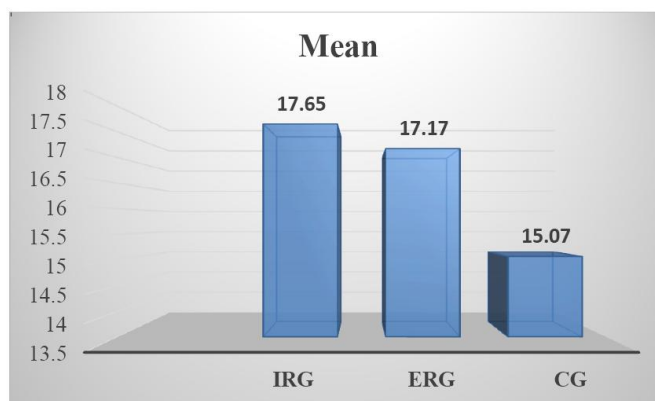


Figure 4.2: The mean scores of CG, ERG, and IRG on the posttest

It is clear that IRG learners managed to get higher scores than did ERG learners, who in turn, could obtain higher scores than the CG learners. Pair-wise comparisons of the groups (in Table 6.) reveals which two groups were significantly different on the posttest.

TABLE 6.
RESULTS OF THE SCHEFFE POST HOC TEST FOR COMPARING CG, ERG, AND IRG MEAN SCORES ON THE POSTTEST

Groups	Groups	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
IRG	ERG	.47	.34	.39	-.38	1.33
	CG	2.57	.34	.00	1.71	3.43
ERG	IRG	-.47	.34	.39	-1.33	.38
	CG	2.10	.34	.00	1.23	2.96
CG	IRG	-2.57	.34	.00	-3.43	-1.71
	ERG	-2.10	.34	.00	-2.96	-1.23

In the top row, the comparison of ERG ($M = 17.17$) and IRG ($M = 17.65$) revealed that the both intensive and extensive reading were affected by using inverted classroom and no significant difference observed due to the fact that the p value corresponding to the comparison of these two experimental groups (i.e. $.39$) exceeded the significance level.

Likewise, CG learners' mean score CG ($M = 15.07$) was significantly lower than that of IRG learners ($M = 17.65$) because of the fact that the p value related to this comparison was .00, which is lower than the significance level. As a result, it could be inferred that the using inverted classroom led to a significant effect on EFL learners' intensive reading.

Finally, it could be seen that the difference between CG ($M = 15.07$) and ERG ($M = 17.17$) was statistically significant since the *Sig.* value corresponding to this comparison ($p = .000$) was less than .05. This means that using inverted classroom could lead to a significant effect on the EFL learners' extensive reading.

To get sure about whether using inverted classroom had significant effects on intensive/extensive reading of upper intermediate Iranian EFL learners. the pretest and posttest scores of the learners in the all groups were compared by means of a paired-samples t test:

TABLE 7.
RESULTS OF THE PAIRED-SAMPLES T TEST COMPARING PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES OF THE IRG, ERG, AND CG

Pair		Paired Differences				t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower				Upper
Pair 1	IRG. Post – IRG. Pre	3.05	1.31	.29	2.43	3.66	10.35	19	.00
Pair 2	ERG. Post – ERG. Pre	2.47	1.68	.37	1.68	3.26	6.58	19	.00
Pair 3	CG. Post – CG. Pre	.15	.28	.06	.01	.28	2.349	19	.06

Table 7 uncovered that there was a measurably noteworthy distinction between the pretest and posttest scores of the IRG students since the p esteem under the Sig, (2-followed) section was littler than the noteworthiness level (for example $.00 < .05$). This demonstrates the treatment (utilizing rearranged homeroom) was compelling so far as the escalated perusing of the Iranian upper middle of the road EFL students were concerned.

Moreover, the difference between the post-test and pre-test of the extensive group is significant since Sig (.00) is less than 0.05. it can be concluded that, like IRG, using inverted classroom improved the extensive reading of the Iranian upper intermediate EFL learners.

Looking at the third pair, it shows the difference between pretest and posttest of control group is not significant since the p value under the Sig, (2-tailed) column was higher than the significance level (i.e. $.06 > .05$).

In summary, after collecting the data, the researcher analyzed them in order to find out the effectiveness of inverted classrooms on the students' intensive and extensive reading comprehension. The findings showed that the students who received instruction through inverted classrooms had better performance compared to those who were trained through traditional classrooms (CG). The results statistically revealed that both intensive and extensive groups significantly did better than the control group ($p < .05$). Therefore, both null hypotheses of the study "inverted classrooms do not significantly affect Iranian EFL learners' extensive and intensive reading comprehension" were rejected. Participants in the inverted classrooms were highly motivated to learn because of the available facilities. Inverted learning is generally found to increase motivation (Bormann, 2014; Keshmirshekan, Namaziandost, & Pournorouz, 2019). Not only did they enjoy learning, but also, they felt satisfied with what they learned. In fact, the experimental groups gained higher scores on their post-test. This may be due to some appealing features the inverted classrooms have. The inverted class can be more interactive than the traditional lecture; it can encourage contacts between students and teachers; it can develop reciprocity and cooperation among students, and it can emphasize time on task. As the researcher observed, in the inverted classroom, during class time, students engaged in discussions, activities, problem solving, and group work. Since students had prior knowledge, they could learn the lesson more easily.

The acquired outcomes are in accordance with Hashemifardnia, Namaziandost, and Shafiee who researched the impact of executing flipped study halls on Iranian middle school understudies' perusing cognizance. To this end, 50 Iranian pre-middle of the road understudies were choosen and arbitrarily relegated into two equivalent gatherings; one test gathering (flipped study hall) and one control gathering (conventional homeroom). From that point forward, the two gatherings were pretested through a perusing appreciation test. At that point, the specialists put the respondents of the trial bunch in a flipped study hall. The flipped study hall was outfitted with Internet, PC and projector. The understudies were required to peruse every content before coming the class and talk about it with their colleagues. Then again, the control gathering was educated in the conventional study hall. Prior to showing every content, the analysts gave foundation learning to the control gathering and subsequent to showing every content, the understudies were required to respond to certain inquiries identified with the content. The entire treatment endured 8 sessions of 50 minutes. In the last session, the post-trial of perusing understanding was regulated. The aftereffects of combined and autonomous examples t-tests demonstrated that there was a noteworthy distinction between the post-trial of the exploratory and the control gatherings. The discoveries uncovered that the test bunch altogether outflanked the control gathering ($p < .05$) on the post-test.

In addition, these discoveries are in accordance with the discoveries of different specialists, for example, Schmidt (1990) contended that consideration and unequivocal educating are vital for learning and Villa (1994) concentrated on the origination of consideration and its impact on the second language advancement.

The fundamental finding of this investigation is that the utilization of the flipped training system without a doubt can possibly assist educators with improving their learning results in the innovation coordination course. This advantage showed measurably noteworthy contrasts in learning results between understudies instructed by flipped and talk based showing methodologies, with the most astounding scores accomplished by understudies in the flipped condition and the least in the talk-based condition. The consequences of the present examination bolster past discoveries delivered with regards to other substance regions and with various populace and give exact proof that approves the flipped instructing methodology to improve understudies' learning results (Sadaghiani, 2012; Sparks, 2013; Walker, 2011).

This noteworthy finding may be because of various reasons. One of the potential clarifications for the watched outcomes is that transformed study halls empower understudies to profit more from homeroom time and possess more energy for communication, learning, evaluation, and investigation (Fulton, 2012 and to Boucher, Robertson, Wainner, and Sanders 2013). The discoveries of the present examination in this regard are as per those of Hung (2015) who found that flipped instructional model in English classes builds up understudies' scholarly exhibition when all is said in done.

V. CONCLUSION

Generally speaking, the results showed that Iranian EFL learners can benefit from attending inverted classrooms. Based on the findings of the present study, it can be concluded that the implementing of inverted classrooms in teaching and learning can produce positive results because they could absorb students in learning English. The positive effects of using inverted classrooms became obvious after the treatment. Here, it can be claimed that receiving instruction through using inverted classrooms can facilitate English learning. Inverted classrooms can make the students independent and help them learn how to study out of the classroom. To wind up self-coordinated students, understudies must figure out how to survey the requests of the assignment, assess their very own insight and abilities, plan their methodology, screen their advancement, and modify their techniques as required. Flipped talk keeps an eye on part aptitude and gives the chances to evaluate, apply and examine recently procured learning. With respect to viability and significance of the flipped homerooms, they are prescribed to be actualized in instructive conditions. In this investigation, flipped study halls had a few advantages for the understudies; these advantages might be owing to the official direction dependent on information mapping that were set up before class through pre-learning.

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Strong and Weak Resultatives in Chinese Resultative Constructions*

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Abstract—Washio (1997) contrasts resultative constructions in English and Japanese in terms of strong and weak resultatives and proposes that both strong and weak resultatives are allowed in English while only weak ones are acceptable in Japanese. When strong and weak resultatives are examined in two types of Chinese resultative constructions: resultative V-A-(NP) compounds and V-DE-(NP)-A constructions, it can be found that both strong and weak resultatives are allowed in resultative V-A-(NP) compounds while only strong ones are acceptable in V-DE-(NP)-A constructions. Why so? It is related to the function of DE and this question can be explained in terms of the syntactic structures of strong and weak resultatives in Chinese based on Folli's three-layer system.

Index Terms—resultative constructions, strong and weak resultatives, Folli's three-layer system

I. INTRODUCTION

Researching on resultative constructions has become a hot topic in linguistic field in recent years, because it plays an important role in illuminating the nature of lexical semantics and its relationship with syntax. Resultative constructions refer to clauses in which, in addition to the main verb (V), there is a secondary predicate known as the result phrase (XP), consisting of an adjective phrase (AP) or preposition phrase (PP) or V (V-V compounds in Japanese and Chinese). This XP refers to the state described by AP or PP holds of the noun phrase as the result of the action denoted by the verb. For example:

- (1) a. John *watered* the tulips *flat*.
b. He *broke* the vase *into pieces*.
c. John *sha-si* le Mary. (Chinese)
John kill-dead ASP Mary
'John killed Mary dead.'

(1a) means that the metal became flat because of John's hammering it, and (1b) means that the vase went to pieces because he broke it. (1c) means that Mary was dead because John killed her. From these sentences, it is observed that they emphasize the description of a state that results from the action rather than simply describe the action typically denoted by the main verb.

The following parts will discuss resultative constructions in English, Japanese and Chinese in details.

A. English Resultative Constructions

English resultative constructions can be syntactically divided into two major classes according to their main verbs: transitive and intransitive. In transitive resultatives, the subject causes the object NP to undergo a change and the word order of this type is S V O AP/PP, where S and O are abbreviations of NP₁ and NP₂, respectively. For example:

- (2) a. He *hammered* the metal *flat*. (Washio 1997, p. 6)
b. The horses *dragged* the logs *smooth*. (Washio 1997, p. 6)

Example (2a) means that the metal became flat because of his hammering it, and (2b) means that the log became smooth because of the horse's dragging it.

There is another special type of transitive resultative constructions in English, in which the postverbal NP is not necessarily the logical object of the main verb. A "dummy object" must be inserted in this construction, so that the word order of this type is superficially the same as transitive ones, i.e. S V O AP/PP, as shown in (3).

- (3) a. Mary *ran* herself *tired*.
b. John *danced* his feet *sore*.
c. She *worked* herself *sick*.

In (3), the adjective specifies the state of the entity described by the object NP as a result of the action described by the main verb. But because main verbs are intransitive in their basic uses, their syntactic objects in these resultatives are not the actual object of the main verb. For example, in (3c), Washio (1997) argues that *she doesn't work 'herself'*. In (3c), the usage of the main verb involves more than the simple activity of working.

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In intransitive resultatives, NP is the subject of the resultative construction and the sentence denotes a change of state, and the word order of this type is NP₁ V AP/PP. For example:

(4) The lake *froze solid*.

In (4), *freeze* is an unaccusative verb. The simplified D-structure of (4) is shown in (5). This sentence states that the lake became solid because of freezing.

(5) *e* froze the lake solid.

In general, there are these three types of resultative constructions in English, but compared with resultative constructions in Chinese and Japanese, it can be found that there are only few resultative V-V compounds in English, which will not be discussed in the paper.

B. Japanese Resultative Constructions

There are two distinct syntactic structures in Japanese resultative constructions based on Washio (1997), as in (6).

(6) a. S O [v V₁-V₂]
b. S O ATP V

In (6), in addition to RVCs, Japanese permits only certain types of transitive resultative constructions, in which the result predicate is an adjective. Here ATP represents ‘adjective-type phrase’, which has the same function with AP in English resultatives, but ATP is not a simple adjective. Some examples are shown in (7).

(7) a. Kare-ga John-o *uti-korosi-ta*.
He-NOM John-ACC shoot-kill-PAST
‘He shot John dead.’

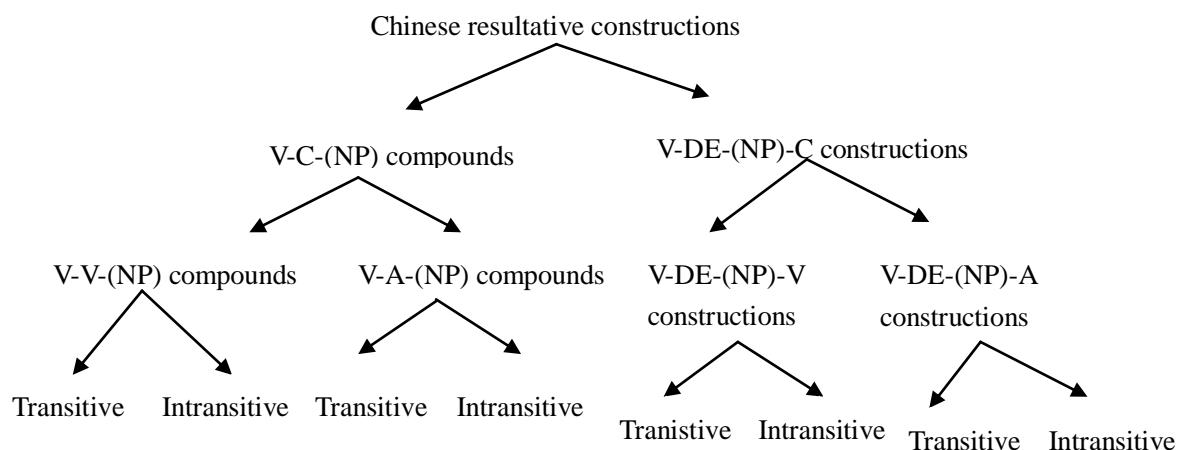
b. Kare-wa kabe-o *siroku nut-ta*.
He-TOP wall-ACC white paint-PAST
‘He painted the wall white.’

(6a) shows a resultative V-V compound, illustrated by (7a). In Japanese, V₂ is the head of the entire verb (see (Kageyama, 1993)), while V₁ describes a simple activity. In (7b), ATP *siroku* is an inflected form of *siroi* ‘white’, a word classified as ‘Adjective’ in Japanese grammar.

C. Chinese Resultative Constructions

There are two types of Chinese resultative constructions discussed in the paper, that is, resultative V-C(NP) compounds and V-DE-(NP)-C constructions. Here, C is the abbreviation of Complement, which can be V or A. Let me use a tree diagram to make clear of the relations between two types of Chinese resultative constructions, as shown in (8).

(8)



The diagram (8) shows the specific division of two types of Chinese resultative constructions, and examples are illustrated in (9).

(9) a. Ta *qi-si* le. (V-V intransitive)
he anger-die ASP
‘He angered himself dead.’
b. Ta *she-si* le laohu. (V-V-NP transitive)
he shoot-die ASP tiger
‘He shot the tiger dead.’
c. Ta *qi-lei* le. (V-A intransitive)
he ride-tired ASP
‘He rode himself tired.’
d. Ta *kan-lan* le nabenshu. (V-A-NP transitive)

- he see-broken ASP that book
 ‘He read that book so frequently that it was broken.’
- e. Mary *qi* de *yaoyaqiechi*. (V-DE-V intransitive)
 Mary anger DE gnash the teeth
 ‘Mary gnashed her teeth with rage.’
- f. Mary *qi* de wo *yaoyaqiechi*. (V-DE-NP-V transitive)
 Mary anger DE me gnash the teeth
 ‘Mary angered me gnashing my teeth.’
- g. Mary *kan* de *hen lei*. (V-DE-A intransitive)
 Mary read DE very tired
 ‘Mary read very tired.’
- h. John *kan* de na ben shu dou *po* le. (V-DE-NP-A transitive)
 John read DE that CL book even broken ASP
 ‘John read that book till that book became broken.’

The resultative V-V-(NP) compound in (9b) is constructed by compounding two verbal morphemes, with V_1 *she* ‘shoot’ indicating a causing event and V_2 *si* ‘dead’ indicating the resulting event. The resultative V-A-(NP) compound in (9d) is constructed by compounding two morphemes: a verbal one and an adjectival one, the verb *kan* ‘see’ indicating a causing event and the adjective *lan* ‘broken’ indicating the resulting event. The V-DE-(NP)-V construction in (9f) is also constructed by two verbal morphemes, with V_1 *qi* ‘anger’ denoting the cause and V_2 *yaoyaqiechi* ‘gnash the teeth’ denoting the result. The V-DE-(NP)-A construction in (9h) is constructed by a verbal morpheme *kan* ‘see’ and an adjectival one *po* ‘broken’. In (9f and h), V_1 and V_2/A are separated by DE and the postverbal object *wo* ‘myself’ and *nabenshu* ‘that book’, whereas without the postverbal object, V_1 and V_2/A are only separated by DE, as in (9e and g).

Chinese resultative constructions are not only divided into two basic types: with DE and without DE, but also the result phrase in these constructions is subdivided into two types: the verb and the adjective. In the paper, the pair of the resultative V-A-(NP) compound and the V-DE-(NP)-A construction is mainly discussed in details by contrasting with Japanese and English ones.

D. Washio’s Strong and Weak Resultative Analysis

Washio (1997) contrasts English and Japanese resultative constructions in terms of the meaning of the main predicate, i.e., strong and weak resultatives and proposes that both strong and weak resultatives are allowed in English while only weak resultatives are acceptable in Japanese.

Strong resultatives refer to those ones in which the meaning of the verb and the meaning of the adjective are independent of each other. In resultatives of this type, it is impossible to predict from the semantics of the verb what kind of state the patient comes to be in as the result of the action named by the verb. For example:

- (10) a. John *hammered* the metal *flat*.
 b. Mary *danced* her feet *sore*.

In (10a), the verb *hammer* doesn’t imply any state of the patient that might result from the action it names. In (10b), the verb *dance* is unergative, so it cannot contain, in its lexical semantics, anything like the notion *sore* denoted by the adjective that is predicated of the ‘fake object’. Thus, examples in (10) are strong resultatives.

Weak resultatives are those ones in which the meaning of the verb entails the meaning of the adjective. In other words, in weak resultatives, if the states of the patients change, verbs imply that they would change in certain fixed directions to reach the final states. For example: (from (Washio, 1997))

- (11) a. John *dyed* the dress *pink*.
 b. I *froze* the ice cream *solid*.
 c. He *painted* the wall *white*.

In (11a), the verb *dye* doesn’t contain the notion *pink*, but it clearly contains the notion ‘color’. Thus, the adjective *pink* is not completely independent of the verb *dye*. In (11b), the notion *solid* is closely related to the meaning of *freeze*. In (11c), the meaning of the verb *paint* entails the change of the *wall*’s color; the adjectival result phrase *white* denotes the result. Thus, examples in (11) are weak resultatives. From examples in (10) and (11), it can be said that both strong and weak resultatives are allowed in English.

Compared with English resultative constructions, only weak resultatives are allowed in Japanese. For example:

- (12) a. *John-ga kinzoku-o *petyanko-ni tatai-ta*.
 John-NOM metal-ACC flat pound-PAST
 ‘John pounded the metal flat.’
- b. *Mary-ga asi-o *itaku odotsu-ta*.
 Mary-NOM foot-ACC sore dance-PAST
 ‘Mary danced her feet sore.’
- c. Mary-ga doresu-o *pinku-ni some-ta*.
 Mary-NOM dress-ACC pink dye-PAST
 ‘Mary dyed the dress pink.’
- d. Watasi-wa aisukurimu-o *katikati-ni koorase-ta*.

- I-TOP the ice cream-ACC solid freeze-PAST
 ‘I froze the ice cream solid.’
 e. Kare-wa kabe-o *siroku* *nu-ta*.
 He-TOP wall-ACC white paint-PAST
 ‘He painted the wall white.’

(12a-b) are strong resultatives, so the corresponding resultative constructions in Japanese are not allowed, since Japanese only permits weak resultatives. (12a) is a transitive resultative, in which the verb *hammer* can be interpreted as the verb *tataku* ‘pound’ in Japanese. The verb *tataku* ‘pound’ doesn’t imply any state of the patient that might result from the action it names. (12b) is an intransitive resultative, in which the verb *dance* is a unergative verb, the object *her feet* is a dummy object. In Japanese, there are no intransitive resultatives. In (12c-d-e), main verbs *dye*, *freeze* and *paint* entail the meaning of the respective result predicates *the color*, *solid* and *white*, so they are weak resultatives. Thus, they are also grammatical in Japanese.

Washio (1997) analyzes the situations of English and Japanese resultatives in terms of strong and weak resultatives, but not touching Chinese resultative constructions. In section 2, strong and weak resultatives are discussed in two types of Chinese resultative constructions by contrasting with English and Japanese resultative constructions.

II. STRONG AND WEAK RESULTATIVES IN CHINESE

In this section, strong and weak resultatives are examined in resultative V-A-(NP) compounds and V-DE-(NP)-A constructions, respectively. Depending on the definitions of strong and weak resultatives, huge examples are found in Chinese to show that both strong and weak ones are allowed in resultative V-A-(NP) compounds while only strong ones are acceptable in V-DE-(NP)-A constructions.

A. Strong and Weak Resultatives in Resultative V-A-(NP) Compounds

Like in English, both strong and weak resultatives are allowed in Chinese resultative V-A-(NP) compounds, as shown in (13).

(13) Strong resultatives in V-A-(NP) compounds

- a. Na tiao gou *fei-xing* le wo baba.
 that CL dog bark-awake ASP my father
 ‘That dog barked my father awake.’
 *So-no inu-wa watasi-no qiqi-o *hoe-okosi-ta*.
 that dog my father bark-awake
 b. Zhangsan *chui-bian* le jinshupian.
 Zhangsan hammer-flat ASP the metal
 ‘Zhangsan hammered the metal flat.’
 *Zhangsan-wa metaru-o *taira-ni* *tatai-ta*.
 Zhangsan metal flat pound-ed

(14) Weak resultatives in V-A-(NP) compounds

- a. Ta *tu-bai-le* qiang.
 He paint-white-ASP wall
 ‘He painted the wall white.’
 Kare-ga kabe-o *siroku* *nut-ta*.
 He wall white paint
 b. John *dong-ying-le* bingqiling.
 John freeze-solid-ASP the ice cream
 ‘John froze the ice cream solid.’
 John-wa aisukurimu-o *katikati-ni* *koorase-ta*.
 John ice cream solid freeze

(13a, b) are strong resultatives, and it can be observed that they are allowed in Chinese resultative V-A-(NP) compounds but not in Japanese. (14a, b) are weak resultatives, and they are allowed both in resultative V-A-(NP) compounds and Japanese. Based on examples in (13-14), it can be said that both strong and weak resultatives are acceptable in Chinese resultative V-A-(NP) compounds.

Moreover, resultative V-A-(NP) compounds are productive in Chinese. Some strong resultatives are grammatical in Chinese, while they are ungrammatical in English, as shown in (15).

- (15) a. Lisi *chi-huai* le duzi.
 Lisi eat-bad ASP stomach
 ‘Lisi has eaten (something bad or too much, as a result he has an) upset stomach.’
 *Lisi ate his stomach bad.
 *Lisi-wa onaka-o *tabe-koware-ta*.
 Lisi stomach eat-bad
 b. John *ti-po* le qiuxie.

John kick-break ASP sneaker
 'John kicked so much that the sneakers were broken.'
 *John kicked his sneakers broken.'
 *John-wa suni-ka-o ke-yabure-ta.
 John sneaker kick-broken

(15a, b) cannot be acceptable in English and Japanese, while they are grammatical in Chinese. In (15b), as Cheng and Huang (1994) points out, *qiuxie* 'sneaker' is not the object of *V ti* 'kick'. What John kicked is a football, not his sneakers. In this case, *V ti* 'kick' functions like an intransitive verb. This indicates that Chinese allows some wider range of strong resultatives, the reason of which still remains a mystery. I leave it open here.

B. V-DE-(NP)-A Constructions Are Strong Resultatives

Now let us consider the situation of V-DE-(NP)-A constructions, based on Washio's strong and weak resultative analysis. Strong resultative readings are allowed in V-DE-(NP)-A constructions, but weak resultative variants are ungrammatical, as shown in (16).

- (16) a. Na tiao gou fei de wo baba xing le.
 That CL dog bark DE my father awake ASP
 'That dog barked my father awake.'
 b. Zhangsan chui de jinshupian bian le.
 Zhangsan hammer DE the metal flat ASP
 'Zhangsan hammered the metal flat.'
 c. *John tu de qiang bai le.
 John painted DE the wall white ASP
 'John painted the wall white.'
 d. *Ta dong de bingqilin ying le.
 He freeze DE the ice cream solid ASP
 'He froze the ice cream solid.'

In (16a, b), the adjective *xing* 'awake' and *bian* 'flat' are not implied by the verb *fei* 'bark' and *chui* 'hammer', namely, they are strong resultatives. (16a, b) indicate that strong resultatives in V-DE-(NP)-A constructions are grammatical. In (16c, d), the adjectives *bai* 'white' and *ying* 'solid' are implied by the verbs *tu* 'paint' and *dong* 'freeze', and the sentences are ungrammatical. Thus, weak resultatives in V-DE-(NP)-A constructions are not allowed. By contrast, both strong and weak resultatives are accepted in Chinese resultative V-A-(NP) compounds, this sharp difference must be noted.

More examples of Chinese ungrammatical weak resultatives in V-DE-(NP)-A constructions are shown in (17).

- (17) a. *Ta ran de qunzi hong le.
 She dyed DE the dress red ASP
 'She dyed the dress red.'
 b. *Mary da de huaping shui le.
 Mary broke DE the vase into piece ASP
 'Mary broke the vase into piece.'
 c. *Ta ca de jinshukuai liangjingjing le.
 She polished DE the metal shiny ASP.
 'She polished the metal shiny.'
 d. *Ta zhu de jidan ying le.
 He boiled DE the egg hard ASP
 'He boiled the egg hard.'

A natural question to ask here is: why weak resultatives in V-DE-(NP)-A constructions are not acceptable. In section 3, I will examine this question depending on Folli's (2001) analysis: the cause, the process and the result, and Lin's (2003) analysis of DE as a process.

III. V-DE-(NP)-A CONSTRUCTION IN CHINESE AS STRONG RESULTATIVES

Not weak but strong resultatives are allowed in Chinese V-DE-(NP)-A constructions. Why so? In weak resultatives, the main verb directly entails the meaning of the result predicate, that is, it seems to be possible that the appearance of DE makes weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions ungrammatical. Thus, it becomes necessary to discuss the function of DE in Chinese resultative constructions at first.

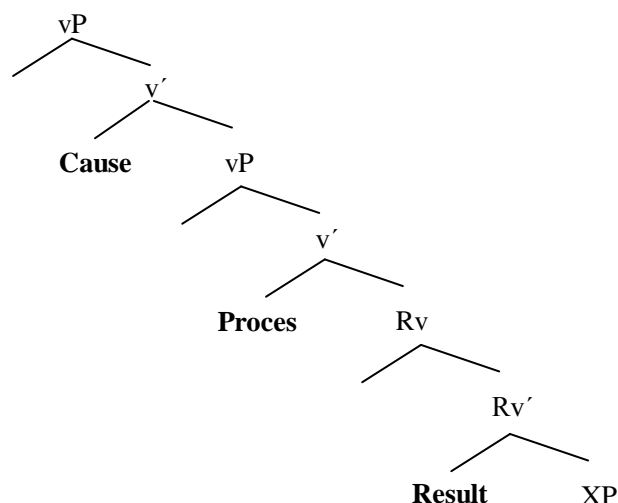
A. The Function of DE in Chinese Resultative Constructions

In Chinese modern linguistics, there are some main explanations of DE in Chinese resultative constructions, such as: Li's (2009) proposal of V-DE as a phonological word; Li's (1998) proposal of DE as a preposition; Dai's (1992) proposal of DE as a derived suffix; Sybesma's (1999) proposal of DE as a degree word, and so on. These explanations, however, have their own shortcomings, for instance, in Chinese V-DE-(NP)-A constructions, when V-DE is a

phonological word, here the main verb *V* must be an intransitive word, which is not suitable for the transitive verbs; when *DE* is a preposition, it never takes a nominal complement but always takes a sentential complement; when *DE* is a derived suffix which can change the argument structure of the matrix verb or the predicate and it adds an additional *XP* complement to the predicate, ungrammatical sentences will be produced, in which the extra *NP* can be inserted between the main verb and *DE*.

As to the function of *DE* in resultative *V-DE-(NP)-A* constructions, in the paper, based on Folli (2001) and Lin (2013), *DE* can be indicated as a Process. Specifically, Folli (2001) claims that in addition to the causing and resultative events, there is an intermediate event denoting a process in resultative constructions. Thus, it can be said that a resultative construction has three semantic layers, that is, the cause, the process and the result, which Folli claims to be reflected in syntactic structure, as shown in the following tree diagram.

(18)



One piece of evidence is provided by Folli that the process should be separated from the cause and the result, exemplified by (19).

(19) He rolled the ball to the wall very fast.

- a. He very *quickly* rolled the ball so that it reaches the wall. (cause)
- b. He pushed the ball so that it rolls to the wall very *fast*. (process)
- c. He pushed the ball to the wall as a result it rolls very *fast*. (result)

In (19), Folli argues the adverbial word (*fast, quickly*) modifies different parts of a complex event. When it modifies the cause, the sentence means that his action of causing the ball to roll was very fast. When it modifies the rolling process, the sentence means that the action of the ball rolling was very fast before reaching the wall. When it modifies the result, the sentence means that his action of rolling the ball to the wall made the ball roll very fast. As Folli (2001) points out, given that the cause, the process, and the result of the action can be modified, it is reasonable to postulate that these three subevents should be separated in the syntactic structure, as in (18).

Lin (2003) adopts Folli's analysis to Chinese resultative constructions and proposes that *DE* is a process head in *V-DE-(NP)-A* constructions. An example from Lin is given to illustrate his own proposal, such as (20).

(20) Wo *qi* de toupǐ *fa* ma.
I angry DE scalp get numb
'I was angry to the point that my scalp got numb.'

In (20), the fact that I was angry to the extent that my scalp became numb. *DE* indicates a process in which anger leads to the physical (scalp-becoming-numb) reaction.

Lin's analysis of *DE* as a process head is reasonable, because Hein & Kuteva (2002) propose that the English verb *get* or *obtain* often grammaticalizes to mean the process of change cross linguistically. *DE* in Chinese actually means 'get' or 'obtain', as in (21).

(21) Zhè cǐ kǎoshì, wǒ de le 100 fēn.
this CL examination, I got ASP 100 marks
'I got 100 marks in this examination.'

Here, I would like to adopt Lin's analysis of *DE* as a process, indicating the change of state, and suggest that it can explain the reason for the lack of weak resultatives in *V-DE-(NP)-A* constructions, which, to my knowledge, passed unnoticed so far.

B. The Lack of Weak Resultatives in *V-DE-(NP)-A* Constructions

Let us consider a pair of examples in Chinese *V-DE-(NP)-A* constructions at first, as in (22).

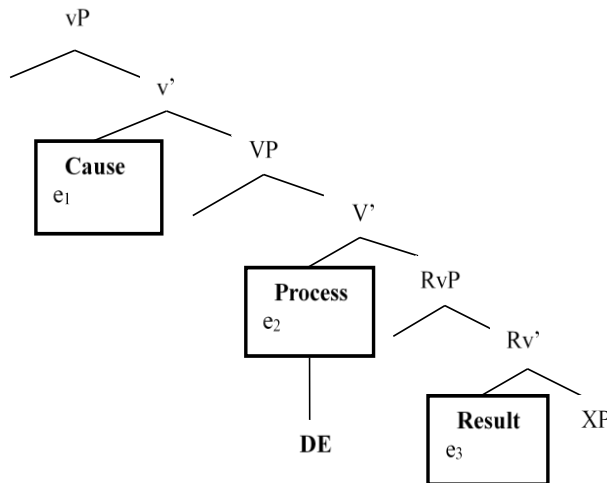
(22) a. Tā kǔ de shǒupá shì-le. (strong)

He cry DE handkerchief wet-ASP
 ‘He cried to an extent as a result that the handkerchief was wet.’
 b. *Ta tu de qiang bai-le.
 He paint DE wall white-ASP (weak)
 ‘He painted the wall white.’

The examples in (22) show that strong resultatives are acceptable in V-DE-(NP)-A constructions, while weak ones are not allowed, as in (22b). Why so? This question is not only related to the function of DE but also to the syntactic structures of V-DE-(NP)-A constructions.

Based on Folli’s (2001) three-layer system, Lin (2003) proposes that DE can be denoted as a process in Chinese resultative constructions. I associate Folli’s system with Lin’s proposal here and illustrate the structural schema of the V-DE-(NP)-A construction in Chinese, as in (23).

(23) The syntactic structure of the V-DE-(NP)-A construction in Chinese

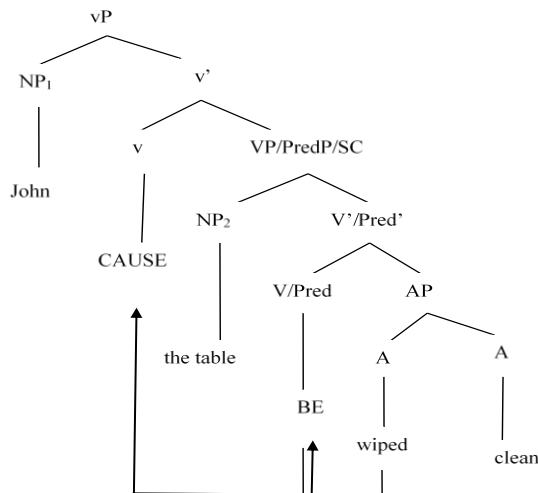


In (23), e_1 refers to a subevent expressing the cause denoted by the head verb V. e_2 represents a process denoted by DE. DE is a process that introduces an additional subevent, which is independent of e_1 . And e_3 is a subevent expressing the result denoted by the result predicate, the adjective (A) in Chinese V-DE-(NP)-A constructions.

1. The Syntactic Structures of Weak Resultatives in Chinese

As to the syntactic structures of weak resultatives in English, Baker’s (2003) proposes that the main verb V and the result predicate AP work together to describe the resulting state of the event, as illustrated in (24).

(24) John *wiped* the table *clean*.



The sentence (24) can be analyzed as [vP John CAUSE [VP the table BE [$wiped$ clean]]]. Baker (2003) claims that the verb *wiped* has an adjectival nature, which makes the verb BE occupy the predicate position of the SC. And then the verb *wipe* rises to the predicate position of the SC, and the adjective *clean* is an adjunct to it. In weak resultatives, the meaning of the verb entails the meaning of the adjective, it thus can be said that the adjective can be incorporated into the verb to form a word. In (24), the verb *wipe* can bound with the adjective *clean* to form the compound *wiped-clean*. It seems that the verb *wiped* has an adjectival nature, but not all verbs in weak resultatives have this property, such as the verb *paint*. And I consider that X may be more suitable for representing the verb *wipe* and here X lacks the categoral nature.

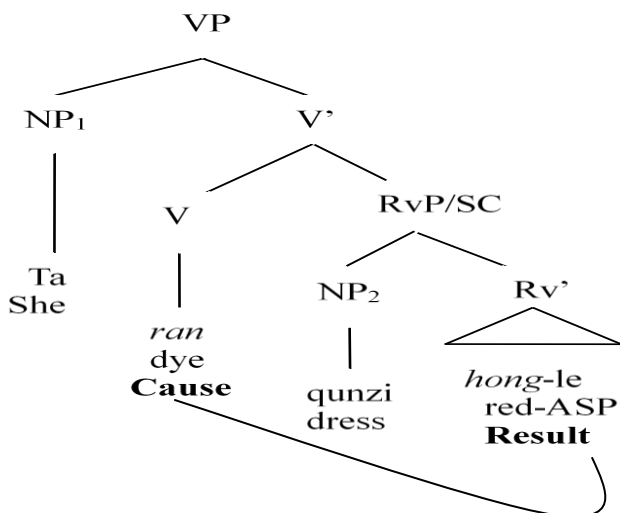
Baker’s proposal, however, shows that the close relationship between the main verb and the result predicate, which gives evidence to the two-layer (Cause, Result) system assumption based on Folli’s three-layer system.

Consider weak resultatives. In them, I repeat, the meaning of V entails the meaning of the result predicate A. Thus, subevent e_1 would entail the meaning of the result of subevent e_3 in (23). If so, subevent e_2 , representing the process, is unnecessary in weak resultative V-DE-(NP)-A constructions, the meaning of V directly entails the meaning of the result phrase A, i.e. the appearance of subevent e_1 directly implies the appearance of subevent e_3 representing the result, without the assistance of DE. For example:

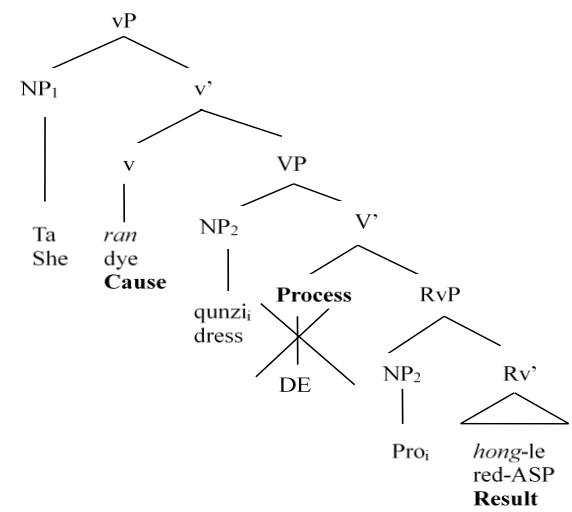
- (25) a. Ta *ran-hong-le* qunzi.
 She dye-red-ASP dress
 ‘She dyed the dress red.’
- b. *Ta *ran* de qunzi *hong-le*.
 She dye DE dress red-ASP
 ‘She dyed the dressed.’

In (25a), subevent e_1 *ran* ‘dye’ can entail the meaning of subevent e_3 *hong* ‘red’, subevent e_1 thus can incorporate with subevent e_3 and form the V-A compound *ran-hong* ‘dye-red’. If DE appears, as in (25b), the sentence becomes ungrammatical. DE blocks the incorporation of subevent e_1 with subevent e_3 in weak resultatives. Thus, I propose that it seems to be only two layers, i.e. Cause and Result allowed in weak resultatives based on Folli’s (2001) three-layer system. The syntactic structures of (25) are shown in (26).

- (26a) Ta *ran-hong-le* qunzi.
 She dye-red-ASP dress



- (26b) * Ta *ran* de qunzi *hong-le*.
 She dye DE dress red-ASP



In (26a), the meaning of the main verb *ran* ‘dye’ entails the meaning of the result predicate *hong* ‘red’, in which the place of the main verb represents Cause e_1 and the place of the result predicate represents Result e_3 , that is, the meaning

of the subevent e_3 has a close relationship with the meaning of the subevent e_1 . In other words, the result predicate *hong* 'red' can be moved to the place of the main verb *ran* 'dye' to form a compound. If so, the additional subevent e_2 DE denoting the process is unnecessary in weak resultatives.

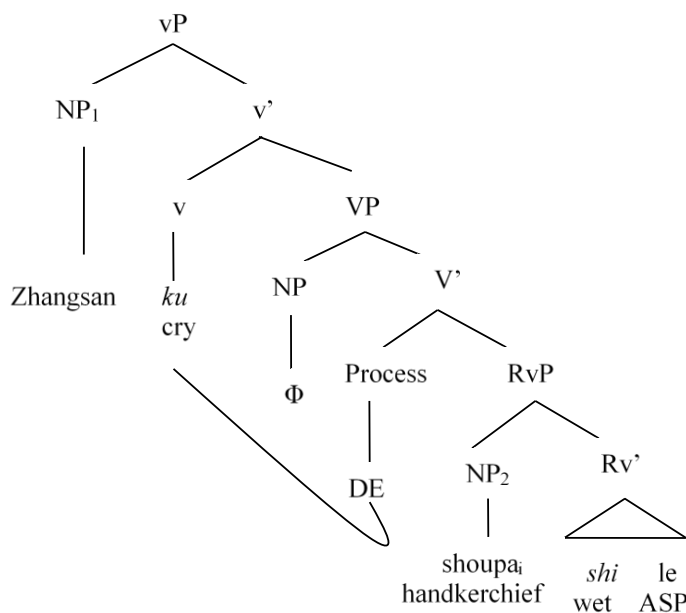
On the other hand, Sybesma (1999) proposes that all elements in the small clause (SC) should be moved out to form a complete sentence, because the SC is not an actual sentence, without tense. In (26a), the result predicate *hong* 'red' is moved to the place of the main verb *ran* 'dye' to compose the V-A compound and the post-verbal NP *qunzi* 'dress' is moved to the place of the object of the main verb to assign a case. Thus, my two-layer proposal is reasonable for the syntactic structures of weak resultative V-A-(NP) compounds.

In (26b), however, the appearance of DE results in the ungrammaticality of the sentence. In weak resultatives, on one hand, the additional subevent e_3 DE is not allowed, because it can block the close relationship between the main verb and the result predicate in their meanings. On the other hand, Sybesma (1999) claims that if DE appears in Chinese resultative constructions, the elements in the SC have no necessity to be moved out, because the post-DE SC is a complement sentence, with tense. And she proposes that the subject of the SC can be represented by a pronoun (Pro) which is referential with the object of the main verb, as in (26b). If so, the result predicate cannot be moved to the place of the main verb and then the close relationship between them will be broken. Therefore, weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions are ungrammatical in Chinese.

2. The Syntactic Structures of Strong Resultatives in Chinese

In V-DE-(NP)-A constructions, DE appears in the position of Process based on the tree diagram (23), assuming that the process DE in e_2 serves to add a subevent, that is, DE serves as the head of an additional and independent subevent when its meaning cannot be implied by the meaning of the main verb V in e_1 . If so, it can be said that DE is the marker of strong resultatives in Chinese, as shown in (28).

- (28) Zhangsan *ku de* shoupa *shi* le.
 Zhangsan cry DE handkerchief wet ASP
 'Zhangsan cried to an extent as a result the handkerchief was wet.'

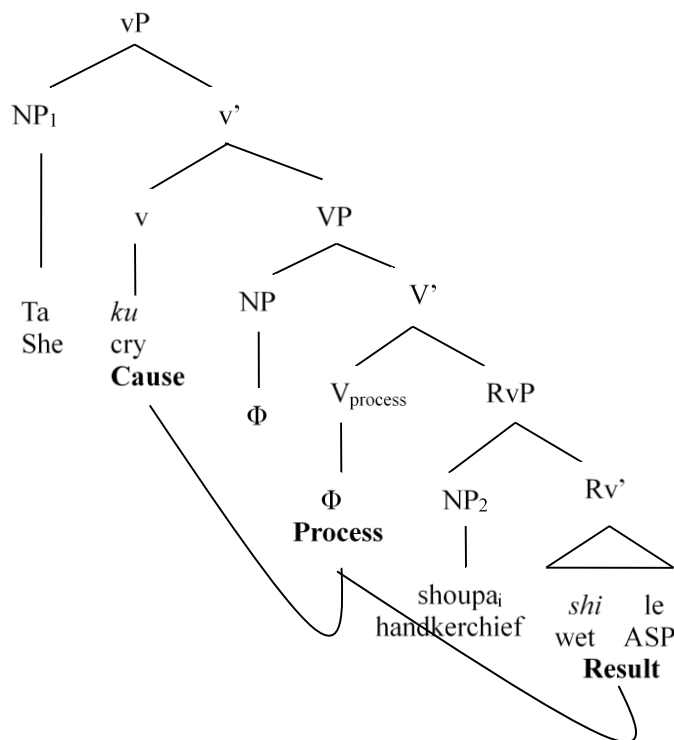


In (28), the main verb V *ku* 'cry' cannot clearly entail the meaning of the result phrase *shi* 'wet', and here it is necessary to demand a function word representing the process to associate the meanings of the subevent e_1 and the subevent e_3 , that is DE in (23). Thus, the appearance of DE is required in strong V-DE-(NP)-A constructions, because it can add a subevent to associate the meaning of e_1 with e_3 . If no DE appears, the sentence (28) will be ungrammatical, as in (29).

- (29) *Zhangsan *ku* shoupa *shi* le.
 Zhangsan cried handkerchief wet ASP
 'Zhangsan cried as a result the handkerchief got wet.'

I have proposed the two-layer system to illustrate the syntactic structure of the weak resultative V-A-(NP) compound in Chinese based on Folli (2001), as in (26a). It is necessary to discuss the syntactic structure of the strong resultative V-A-(NP) compound here, because the definition of strong resultatives is different from weak ones. In strong resultatives, the meaning of the main verb does not entail the meaning of the result predicate, namely, the result predicate cannot be incorporated into the main verb to form a word. I thus assume that there is a covert verb denoting the Process in the syntactic structure of the strong resultative V-A-(NP) compound. For example:

- (30) Ta *ku-shi-le* shoujuan. (strong V-A)
 She cry-wet-ASP handkerchief
 'She cried as a result that the handkerchief got wet.'



In (30), I assume that there is a null verb denoting a Process in strong resultative V-A-(NP) compounds to link the meaning of the result phrase with the meaning of the main verb. And the main verb *ku* 'cry' is an intransitive verb which cannot be followed by an object, the subject of the SC thus is located in its own position. But the result predicate denoting the Result in the SC is moved to the place of the covert $V_{process}$ at first and then together moved to the place of the main verb *ku* 'cry' to form a compound, since the $V_{process}$ is a null verb. Compared (26a) with (30), it can be said that the syntactic structure of the weak resultative V-A-(NP) compound can be analyzed by my proposal of the two-layer system, i.e. Cause and Result, while this two-layer system cannot be suitable for the syntactic structure of the strong one. And the syntactic structure of the strong resultative V-A-(NP) compound must be analyzed based on Folli's three-layer system, that is, Cause, Process and Result, in which Process can associate the meanings of Cause and Result.

Section 3 has accounted for the question why only strong resultatives are allowed in Chinese V-DE-(NP)-A constructions, which is related to the function of DE and the syntactic structures of strong and weak resultatives. In this section, based on Folli (2001) and Lin (2003), the proposal that DE is indicated as a Process is adopted and then according to Folli's three-layer system, the two-layer system is assumed to illustrate the syntactic structures of weak resultatives in Chinese and a covert $V_{process}$ is assumed to illustrate the syntactic structures of strong resultative V-A-(NP) compounds.

IV. CONCLUSION

The paper has introduced types of resultative constructions in English, Japanese and Chinese. Washio (1997) contrasts resultative constructions in English and Japanese in terms of strong and weak resultatives, based on which strong and weak resultatives are examined in two types of Chinese resultative constructions: resultative V-A-(NP) compounds and V-DE-(NP)-A constructions. It can be found that both strong and weak resultatives are allowed in resultative V-A-(NP) compounds while only strong ones are acceptable in V-DE-(NP)-A constructions. The paper analyzes the reason why so from the perspectives of the function of DE and the syntactic structures of strong and weak resultatives in Chinese. As to the function of DE in Chinese resultatives, Lin's (2003) proposal is adopted that DE is indicated as a Process referring to the change of state, based on Folli's (2001) three-layer system. Under the premise of DE as a Process, the two-layer system is suitable for illustrating the syntactic structures of weak resultatives in Chinese, because the meaning of the main verb has a close relationship with the meaning of result predicate in weak ones which implies there is no necessity of DE, indicating a Process. On the other hand, because the meaning of the main verb does not entail the meaning of the result predicate in strong resultatives, which implies DE, indicating a Process, becomes necessary to link the meanings of the main verb and the result predicate. Thus, the syntactic structure of Folli's three-layer system can be adopted to illustrate the syntactic structures of strong resultatives in Chinese. On the occasion of strong resultative V-A-(NP) compounds, because no DE appears, a covert $V_{process}$ is assumed to locate in the position

of DE, indicating a Process, which can link the meanings of the main verb and the result predicate. Owing to the decision of the function of DE in Chinese resultatives and the syntactic structures of strong and weak resultatives, the answer of the question why only strong resultatives are allowed in V-DE-(NP)-A constructions is easy to be understood.

The paper has dealt with the question why V-DE-(NP)-A constructions are strong resultatives in Chinese, but some questions remain unsolved in the paper, such as, the question why strong resultatives are so productive in Chinese, as in (15). In the future study, this question will be focused on.

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Automobile Advertising Translation from the Perspective of Newmark's Theory*

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Abstract—This paper mainly discusses the application of Newmark's theories of communicative and semantic translation in automobile advertisement translation. After analyzing the translation examples of automobile advertisement text, title and trademark, the following conclusions are naturally drawn. The combination of communicative and semantic translation can guide translation practice more effectively. Semantic translation theory is preferred for automobile manual translation, while communicative translation theory is more suitable for automobile brand and slogan translation. Therefore, in order to achieve the intended effect of automobile advertisement, it is better to combine semantic translation with communicative translation in automobile advertisement translation.

Index Terms—semantic translation, communicative translation, automobile advertising translation

I. INTRODUCTION

With the development of economic globalization and the increasingly fierce market competition, countless foreign goods and services are flooding into Chinese markets. And the automobile is on its way of becoming the pillar industry. So the automobile advertisement is becoming more and more important. Behind the competitiveness of automobiles is the competition of advertisement.

In Newmark's theory, Semantic translation is faithful to the original text; communicative translation pays more attention to how to make the readers get the same feeling as the original readers (Newmark, 1977). The essential difference between them is that the former pays more attention to the influence of the original form and the latter emphasizes the true meaning of original content.

By using literature research and case analysis as the major methods, this paper takes some typical automobile advertising translation as research objects, then analyses the automobile advertising translation strategies under the guidance of the semantic translation and communicative translation theory. First the development of advertisements translation and problems in current studies are discussed. Next Newmark's theories of semantic and communicative translation and their similarities and differences are introduced. Then the evolution and the linguistics features of automobile advertising are discussed. And then the application of communicative and semantic translation and some effective strategies are proposed for automobile advertising translation on the basis of detailed analysis of the translated examples of automobile advertising headlines, slogans and trademarks. Through the research, it is naturally concluded that the desired effective method can be out of the combination of communicative and semantic translation.

II. NEWMARK'S THEORY OF COMMUNICATIVE TRANSLATION AND SEMANTIC TRANSLATION

A. *Communicative Translation*

Communicative translation is one of the two translation conceptions proposed by Newmark, its purpose is to make the translation have the same effect on the target language readers as the original text has on the source language readers (Newmark, 1982). That is to say, the key of communicative translation is to transmit information based on the culture, language and pragmatic way of target language, rather than a faithful reproduction of the original text. During the translation process, the translator has more freedom to explain the original text, adjust the form and style, eliminate the ambiguity, even to amend the original mistake. Because the translator tries to achieve a certain communicative purpose and has a specific group of readers, so his translation works will break the limitation of the original context. Communicative translation is usually applied to the translation of news reports, textbooks, public notices and many other non-literary works.

B. *Semantic Translation*

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Semantic translation is a translation conception proposed by Newmark, its purpose is to reproduce the literal meaning of source context accurately under the allowance of structure and semantics of target language (Newmark, 2001). Semantic translation puts emphasis on the original form and the author's original intention, rather than the target language context and its way of expression, not to make the translation correspond to the target cultural condition. Due to the strict translation order and rules, sometimes the translation contexts which conform to semantic translation theory are contradictory, ambiguous or even wrong. Semantic translation is usually applied when translate literature, science and technology literature and other contexts which regard language and content are equally important. However, it is necessary to point out that even Newmark thinks that semantic translation is not a perfect translation model, just like communicative translation model, has its own limitation.

C. Comparisons between Communicative Translation and Semantic Translation

Semantic translation, with the source language as the center, takes advantage of literal translation, foreignization and faithful translation; while communicative translation is on the basis of target language and takes advantage of domestication, free translation (He, 1998). Semantic translation attaches great importance to the original form and the original author's intention, not to the context and expressive way of the target language. On the contrary, communicative translation is based on the target language and tries to convey information, rather than copy the original text.

Generally speaking, communicative translation context is smooth, natural, clear; semantic translation context is more complicated, hard to pronounce because of a foreign accent (Newmark, 2001). As communicative translators are endowed with great freedom, they could modify or refine the original context while the semantic rules must be respected everywhere, so the flexibility is relatively low.

Semantic translation attempts to convey the exact meaning of the original context and pursues the fully equivalence between the meaning of the original text and its translation. In addition to the word, sentence and other language semantic equivalence, translators often need to consider different contextual relationship so as to achieve the equivalence at the discourse level. In practice, many translators tend to adopt communicative translation method, but if the specific language used by the author and the expression of the content are equally important, it is better to adopt semantic translation. In particular, like some authoritative sayings, lively and vivid novel metaphor, is only suitable to use semantic translation; on the contrary, when translating some common used language, communicative translation method is a better choice. Communicative translation attempts to produce an effect on the readers, this effect should be as close as possible to the original has on the reader.

But even so, translators still need to put emphasis on source language text and regard it as the only basis for translation. Semantic translation is based on the culture of the original context, only helps readers to understand the connotation of context, and the condition is that the connotation delivers major information which has a universal significance for all mankind, not only for a minority. A fundamental difference between the two methods is that when the conflict happens, communicative translation must emphasize "effect", rather than on the content of the information.

This is to say, semantic translation pays much attention to the faithfulness, processing just like literal translation. However, communicative translation emphasizes that translation should conform to the target language habits, processing like free translation. But the two are not completely separated, the difference between semantic translation and communicative translation is relative, in the process of translation works, semantic translation and communicative translation often complement each other. This two translation approaches are based on the understanding of translation, must reflect the ideological content of the original, must obey the grammatical structure of target language and certain stylistic features.

III. LINGUISTIC FEATURES OF AUTOMOBILE ADVERTISEMENT

A. Lexical Features

(1) Use of numerals. The use of numerals makes automobile advertising much more authoritative and scientific, so that consumers have a sense of security and the desire to purchase products and services. The car belongs to the luxurious products, so the customers are relatively rational and sensible when they purchase these products, so being authoritative and scientific are most important factors for automobile advertisement, for example:

①动力强劲,百公里加速仅需3秒。(阿斯顿马丁)

From this advertisement, we can know that it just take three seconds to reach a very high speed. Customers will think this is a perfect car of great horsepower. "Three seconds" is concrete and reliable, giving customers a sense of security.

②置身其中,清晰感受空间延展,全局一手掌握。更汇聚高效空间规划,呈现自在驾乘感受——2.6米轴距座舱设置16处储物空间,兼顾繁忙公务与私密生活。(别克凯越)

In this example, the advertise uses two numbers, "2.6" and "16", to show the capacious and comfortable space of this car, which attracts customers who like a car with great space to consume.

(2) Use of verbs. The use of verbs makes automobile advertisements full of life and vitality so that it can help to form a dynamic feeling about the product in the minds of consumers. Advertising language is usually simple and vivid, so the simple verbs which are easy to pronounce and memory are often used in auto advertising. For example:

①放眼未来,值得信赖。(大众捷达)

②Life is a journey, enjoy the ride. (Nissan)

In the above examples, “信赖” “enjoy” are used to make the advertisements energetic and dynamic, attracting customers to make a further comprehension of products.

(3) Use of new words and misspellings. The use of new words and misspellings can make car ads look fashionable and attract consumers' attention (Fatihi, 1991).

①敢享敢为。(海马汽车)

②奇瑞 A5, 赏“芯”悦目。(奇瑞汽车)

This two examples use homophones, replacing “想”、“心” with “享”、“芯”. From this rhetoric method, customers will be impressed and have a feeling of freshness, which promotes the sales of products.

B. Syntactic Features

(1) Use of simple sentences. In order to deeply impress consumers and reduce the cost of advertising, advertising is generally written in short and simple sentence, which conveys the primary products information with the fewest words. Therefore, the car advertisement use simple sentence widely and the complex sentences are rarely used. For example:

①驾驭现代, 成就未来。(现代汽车)

②For the road ahead. (Honda)

(2) Use of affirmative sentences. Affirmative sentences can express positive idea with a complimentary effect, Advertising Copy writing will generally use affirmative sentences in order to leave a good impression on consumers. For example:

①处处为您着想好车有限惊喜无限。(奥拓汽车)

②The relentless pursuit of perfection. (Lexus)

(3) Use of negative sentences. In the automobile adverting language, negative sentences often include two kinds of words: negative words such as not, little, less etc., and derogatory words, like weak, poor and bad. In an automobile advertisement which adopts negative sentences, it usually has the positive answer. So that the advertisement can create a more positive effect through the comparison between positive and negative words. For examples:

①A long drive doesn't have to feel like a journey. (Mercedes-Benz)

②Don't dream it. Drive it. (Jaguar)

IV. APPLICATION OF SEMANTIC TRANSLATION AND COMMUNICATIVE TRANSLATION IN ADVERTISEMENTS TRANSLATION

A complete literal automobile advertisement is usually divided into three parts: brand name, slogan and body copy.

Brand name is a major symbol for customers to identify goods or enterprises. In the advertisement design, it plays an important role in the whole advertisement layout. Because the brand name is the most simple part of an automobile and has an intensive visual effect, which can leave consumers a profound impression.

Slogan is cooperated with brand name and body copy, strengthening the image of automobile. Automobile advertising language must be concise and comprehensive so that customer could remember the product easily and arise their consuming desire.

Body copy is a description of the automobile, introducing the characteristics of product. The purpose of body copy is to help customers to have a general understanding of the product. So the body copy must be accurate and concrete.

A. Translation of Brand Names

Brand name is the symbol of product, which tactfully reflects the content of the product. In form, translation of brand name should be brief and impressive. In content, translation of brand name should reflect characteristics of products. In effect, translation of brand name should be as attractive and interesting as the original advertisement or even better than. And here are some ways to translate brand names under the guidance of Newmark's theory.

First, literal translation. As a major means of translation, literal translation means translate based on literal meaning of source language without modification. The literal translation is to retain the original meaning of source language, and to reproduce the cultural factors behind the language meaning. These brand names are mostly beautiful, elegant and flowery words, their translation versions also express the internal meaning of the original trademark, and have the same promotional effect as the original trademark. For example:

(1) TOYOTA Crown is translated as "皇冠" in Chinese. Both Chinese and English version reflects the car's royal and luxurious style, which promotes consumers to buy it.

(2) GM "Buick Regal" is translated as "别克君威", conveying its original trademark noble feeling. This Chinese version will leave customer an impression that this type of car are made for people with high social status, just like ancient emperor. And this will motivate customer's desire to purchase.

Second, transliteration. Transliteration is to replace English brand name with Chinese characters bearing same or similar pronunciation. Transliteration has been widely used as a way of trademark translation. Either English to Chinese transliteration or vice versa, the translation version of trademark words should achieve a perfect unity of sound, form and meaning. Transliteration is able to retain the original phonetic beauty, with exotic atmosphere, desirable, delivering

cultural meaning of a foreign car brand, and to meet the value orientation of a considerable part of China consumers (Nida, 1993). Because many car brands are named after the inventor's names, many international famous car brands adopt transliteration. For example:

(1) "Lincoln" is a luxury car with a great reputation named after the famous president of the United States Lincoln. As we all know, Lincoln is one of the greatest president in the American history even in the world history, he has a high status in American's mind so that they will be proud if they have a Lincoln car. In some developing countries where national automobile manufacturing technology has not yet reached the international advanced level, local consumers could know Lincoln is imported goods with excellent product quality through its brand name, and this will stimulate their consuming desire.

(2) A Ford crossover SUV "Edge" is translated as "锐界". "Edge" is pronounced similar to the latter part of the sound of "界" and it means cliff and sharp, "锐界" is not only associated with Edge's literal meaning, but also reflects the orientation of the car: the pursuit of freedom, advocating self, not bound by traditional ideas. This translation version guide consumers to make useful associations, deepen the impression of the product.

B. Translation of Slogans

Automobile advertising slogan is of great value to the enterprise propaganda, which could express the brand price. And the marketing performance of a product has a direct relationship with slogan. A well written automobile advertising slogan could knock on the door of the market to a great extent, bringing consumers into a business environment. It also reflects the enterprise's business philosophy and has a great effect, therefore, advertising slogan role cannot be ignored in the research of automobile advertising translation (Reiss, 2004).

First, literal translation. It is very important for automobile enterprise to identify the breakthrough point or the penetrating point when they translate the advertisement. The literal translation is to retain the original sentence structure and rhetoric in the process of translation and to reproduce the form and style of the original text. For example:

(1) Shift the future. (Nissan)
转变未来。(尼桑)

In this example, the Chinese version is directly translated from "Shift the future", advertising language is simple but unique. Although "Shift the future" seems extremely exaggerate, but it shows great boldness. This translation version conforms to the western and eastern language habits and can also express the meaning of the original advertising slogan to a great extent without modification.

(2) Qualities are at the heart of every Mazda. (Mazda)
质量是马自达的核心。(马自达)

In this example, the translator doesn't use too fancy language and literal translation strategy is directly employed. Because the purpose of advertisement is to achieve economic value instead of making people appreciate it. And from this advertisement, customers could rapidly realize that Mazda puts great emphasis on its product quality and this is the ordinary characteristics of Mazda, arousing the customer's desire to buy.

Second, free translation. Due to the great differences between the languages and cultures, sometimes the translator needs to retain the content and abandon its original form, not limited to the literal meaning of original slogan. In addition to keep the original basic information, through the change of form, making the translation more authentic and acceptable from the perspective of consumer. And free translation mainly focus on the practical significance, not paying too much attention to the details of the content. For example:

The Ultimate Driving Machine. (BMW)
登峰造极。(宝马)

In this example, the translator doesn't translate according to the literal meaning of the original advertisement. He/She chooses a Chinese idiom "登峰造极", which means the best and top achievement of this type of car, giving customers a sense of confidence and achievement. The Chinese version impresses the customers that this car is remarkable and perfect.

Third, omission. Omission strategy is to omit some words not essential during the translation process. If it is confined to the original form and not delete some unnecessary words, it will be counterproductive in the publicity, contrary to the expressions of the target language. Automobile advertising translation often has such words, not only weaken the promotion effect, but also lost the original meaning (Zu & Dong, 2015). So the automobile advertising translation should apply omission strategy when it's necessary. For example:

Your key to a better life and a better world. (Buick)
通往美好生活的秘诀。(别克)

In this example, the translator doesn't translate completely according to the literal meaning of English version, instead, it omits the translation of "a better world". Because in Chinese culture, a better life equals to a better world, if translated word for word, it will be a redundant and the customer will be confused about the advertisement.

Fourth, creative translation. Creative translation means not adhere to semantics and phonetics of the source language, making creative translation to achieve equivalence in function or effect both in the target language and the source language. However, a translation is not pure a creation but a expansion in translation based on the source language. The translator should not be confined to the literal meaning and try to dig into the deep meaning, and boldly add up its

individual creation. For example:

- (1) Leadership--Chi in control.(Cadillac)
修身，齐家，治业，行天下。（凯迪拉克）

In this example, it is not difficult to find the idea of this slogan has connection to an ancient saying we often say "cultivate one's moral character and regulate the family and rule the state". This idea comes from the "Da Xue", it means that in order to make an achievement in life, a man should first realize everything by cognitive research and acquire knowledge, then correct thinking and perfect one's character; secondly, he should make a good management of family; finally, he could promote the morality in the world.

With the advancement and development of the times and society, obviously, in people's eyes, a sign of success of is no longer the original rule, but to have a successful career. Therefore, we can see that under the influence of this idea, the advertising language written for Cadillac is "治业，行天下". On the one hand, it implies that Cadillac can be seen as a sign for successful people, on the other hand, the change from "fair world" to "conquer the world" matches with the use of car, taking into account its features of grand and magnificent.

- (2) Keeping ahead through technology. (Audi)
突破科技，启迪未来。（奥迪）

The original advertisements is very specific, concentrating on science and technology, but if directly translated as "突破科技", it will be dull and the customer feel bored about the slogan. "突破科技，启迪未来" corresponds with the Chinese way of expression. Although it is not matching with the original advertisement, it not only emphasizes the importance of "breakthrough of science and technology", but also looks forward to the future development. It means that Audi has a great potentiality. So, it draws customer's attention, arousing their interest.

- (3) For the Road Ahead. (Honda)
康庄大道。（本田）

Honda's advertising slogan is "For the Road Ahead" and the translated version is a Chinese idiom "康庄大道". It means that the road is broad, flat and convenient, people will have a bright future if they go on this way. The translator uses creative translation strategies. Because in this advertisement if the translator uses literal translation strategies and directly translates into "为了未来之路", neither reflect any connotation of culture nor the suitability of culture. On the contrary, "康庄大道" is in accordance with the Chinese culture, so as to achieve the pursuit of its connotation and the purpose of advertisement, and the advertisement language can be easily accepted by the customers.

C. Translation of Body Copy

Body copy usually introduces the characteristics of the car, including a large amount of numbers and professional terms, consumers could have a general understanding of the automobile, so the translation of body copy must be accurate and scientific. It is better to translate body copy under the guidance of semantic translation. For example:

Replacing the simple single hood dashboard layout, the iDrive display screen sits centrally on the dashboard in a second binnacle to deliver navigation information alongside on-board computer information, entertainment, climate control adjustments and Check Control messages. Powering the fifth generation of new BMW 3 Series is a range of engines all married to a standard six-speed manual gearbox (six-speed automatic optional). Topping the range is the BMW 330i featuring a powerful 258bhp Valvetronic six cylinder - the same engine that powers the recently launched 630i Coupe. It may have got bigger but, for many buyers, the new 3 Series still represents the quintessential sports sedan in its class. (BMW)

取代了简单的单罩仪表板布局，iDrive显示屏位于仪表板正中央第二个仪表盘的位置，为驾驶员传递导航信息以及车载电脑、娱乐、空调和检查控制信息。标准六速手动变速箱系列引擎（六速自动选装）为第五代BMW三系提供动力。该系列的顶级车型是搭载 258 马力 V6 发动机的 BMW 330i，最近发布的 630i Coupe 也采用同样的发动机。三系可能与原来相比更为庞大，不过对很多购买者来讲，三系依然代表该级别车型中的经典运动轿车。（宝马）

V. CONCLUSION

The automobile advertising translation is challenging the translation skills are also very diverse, automobile advertising translation faces great challenges and has a large display space either from the aspect of culture or language itself. In the process of advertising translation, the translator should have a deep understanding of the cultural connotation and characteristics of the commercial advertisement, be familiar with the similarities and differences between English and Chinese advertising language, realize the targeting country's traditional culture, consumer psychology and aesthetic taste, pay attention to innovation (Venuti, 2000). The specific requirements of advertising market and the complexity of customers require translator to conform to the linguistic habits and aesthetic values of the target culture. A Good translation ought to cater to consumer psychology, taking into account of the cultural differences between different countries and regions, to meet the psychological needs of consumers to achieve the same promotional value as the original advertisement.

For the translator, the most important thing is whether the translation corresponds to the thinking pattern and mental activity of the target audience (Hatim & Ian, 2001). According to Newmark's translation theory, communicative translation is used to translate non-authoritative texts while semantic translation is often used in translating authoritative

texts. Advertisements are usually regarded as non-authoritative texts. However, communicative and semantic translations are often combined to achieve the goal of advertising. Through the research, we can conclude that the combination of communicative and semantic translation contributes a lot to the automobile advertising translation. It is better to translate bodycopy under the guidance of semantic translation and communicative translation is more suitable for the translation of automobile brand names and slogans.

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The Impact of Different Output-based Task Repetition Conditions on Producing Speech Acts among Iranian Advanced EFL Learners

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Abstract—This examination inspected the effects of different output-based task reiteration conditions with respect to producing EFL students' speech acts. Three groups were incorporated into this investigation: (1) the explicit task-repetition (ETR) group, (2) the implicit task-repetition (ITR) group, and (3) the no-input task repetition (NTR) group. All the three groups occupied with the reiteration of output generation tasks. However, before the second execution of the task, the ETR, ITR, NTR groups received input combined with metapragmatic data, input combined with an awareness raising task, and no information separately. The outcomes demonstrated students' exhibition was factually huge from the pretest to the posttest in the ETR and ITR groups, however not in the NTR group. Besides, the analysis of contrasts over the groups in the posttest uncovered the predominance of the ETR over the ITR and NTR groups. The discoveries suggest that output-based task repetition with input can advance EFL students' speech act production.

Index Terms—output, output-based task repetition, task repetition, speech acts

I. INTRODUCTION

There have been various examinations investigating interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) movements in the earlier these decades. As delineated by Rose (2005), the investigations are put in three arrangements overseeing (1) regardless of whether a specific region of pragmatics is at all open to guidance, (2) whether guidance is more valuable than simple experience, and (3) whether there are differential effects for more than one sort of instructional intervention. Moreover, Rose cases that "examines which fall into the second-rate class are presumably going to yield data that is most appropriate for scholarly purposes" (p. 390). About the second-rate class of ILP look into, the majority of the investigates have considered the productivity of express against verifiable techniques for ILP educating (Taguchi, 2015; Namaziandost, Abedi, & Nasri, 2019; Tahmasbi, Hashemifardnia, & Namaziandost, 2019).

Task reiteration is a famous issue in TBLT. As nearly task arranging, it is portrayed as "emphasis of the identical or to some degree adjusted assignment – paying little respect to whether the whole tasks, or parts of an assignment" (Bygate & Samuda, 2005, p. 43). Task reiteration is made so as to intrigue EFL learners' execution on an assignment (Hashemifardnia, Namaziandost, & Sepehri, 2018; Keshmirshakan, Namaziandost, & Pournorouz, 2019; Sheppard, 2006) and their L2 securing (Ahmadian, 2011; Nasri, Namaziandost, & Akbari, 2019). Worried to Sheppard's (2006) discoveries, Ellis (2009) underlines the significance of criticism and contribution preceding the second execution of a task. Comparing this line of research, the momentum research was planned to respect the effects of output-based task redundancy associated by contribution in addition to metapragmatic information, obviously improved contribution in addition to awareness raising (CR), and no contribution on creating discourse acts among EFL learners (Hashemifardnia, Namaziandost, & Shafiee, 2018; Mirshekaran, Namaziandost, & Nazari, 2018).

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Reiteration has been considered as an unequivocal component in SLA from different perspectives. In conventional type of talking, the behavioristic point of view toward learning has summed up a major job to redundancy. Among using the measures of reiteration, expansion, and backing, the professionals of the attitude toward learning cause exercises and practices that immediate the understudy to L2 propensity arrangement (Abedi, Keshmirshakan, & Namaziandost, 2019; Namaziandost & Nasri, 2019b; Pica, 2011). Besides, redundancy has been talked about in the perspective on language learning as subjective expertise procurement. This attitude toward SLA accept that reiteration recoups automatization (Hosseini, Nasri, & Afghari, 2017; Namaziandost, Nasri, & Keshmirshakan, 2019; Van sanctum

Branden, 2007). By introducing the task-based language instructing, task reiteration is critical in L2 educating. In such manner, Ellis (2005) views task practice or redundancy as a kind of task arranging and expresses that it contains leading an assignment earlier basic execution "with the key execution of the assignment considered as acquisition for the ensuing execution" (p. 3).

Concerning the primary class, the more prominent number of ILP examines bolster the matchless quality of express educating over verifiable instructing (Azadi, Biria, & Nasri, 2018; Namaziandost & Nasri, 2019a; Taguchi, 2015). For instance, the effects of express and certain educating on cutting edge German EFL learners' even minded familiarity was examined by House (1996). House reasoned that both the unequivocal and certain gathering exploited from educating. In any case, the express gathering used a huge assortment of talk markers and procedures in pretends. Besides, in a similar vein, the viability of unequivocal and understood guidance in instructing L2 Japanese down to earth schedules to starting students was looked at by Tateyama (2001). The discoveries demonstrated no huge distinction among the two instructing circumstances.

As to second class (i.e., input-based and yield based guidance), Takimoto (2009) reviewed the effect of three sorts of information-based tasks (i.e., organized info assignments with and with no unequivocal data and critical thinking tasks) in training English well-mannered interest structures to Japanese students of English. The assignments were copied so as to make the information movement increasingly viable. The outcomes demonstrated that the three treatment bunches extensively beat the control bunch on a discourse culmination test, a listening test, and an adequacy judgment test.

Likewise, Li (2012) found the impact of info put together practice with respect to recuperating precise and quick requests in L2 Chinese. 30 middle of the road level students were isolated to a concentrated preparing gathering (IT), a customary preparing gathering (RT), and a control gathering. The IT and the RT groups working on utilizing Chinese interest structures by means of modernized organized information exercises. The IT gathering working on utilizing the interest shapes twice as much as the RT gathering. In spite of the fact that the control gathering didn't get any routine with regards to the interest structures. The outcomes demonstrated that the data-based practice coordinated to the improvement of exactness in an oral discourse finish task and to the progression of speed in a down to business listening judgment task (Nasri & Biria, 2017).

Besides, Tajeddin and Bagherkazemi (2014) checked the effects of individual and community yield on 54 intermediates Iranian EFL students' discourse demonstration generation. There was no control gathering. They reasoned that the two sorts of output affected the students' present moment and long-haul creation of discourse acts. Also, it found that collective yield is more powerful than individual output.

On the third classification (i.e., Task-based Instruction), Tajeddin et al. (2012) tried the impact of TBLT on Iranian middle EFL students' discourse demonstration generation, metapragmatic mindfulness, and sober minded self-evaluation. 75 middle of the road level EFL learners arbitrarily were separated to three groups: two exploratory groups and one control gathering. In the primary test bunch, the members were given even minded focus on discourse acts in pre-task and post-task stages. The members of the second exploratory gathering simply got pragmatolinguistic and sociopragmatic input and framework during task fulfillment (Namaziandost, Nasri, Rahimi Esfahani, & Keshmirshakan 2019; Nasri, Biria, & Karimi, 2018). In spite of the fact that in the control bunch the members were not exposed to a down to business center. As indicated by ends all the three groups demonstrated movements in their discourse demonstration generation with no impressive distinction among. However, metapragmatic mindfulness and practical self-evaluation simply were improved in the two test groups (Namaziandost, Nasri, & Rahimi Esfahani, 2019a).

Quickly, over the latest two decades there has been a speedy expansion of ILP interventional inquiries about. The inquiries about have drawn nearer "ordinary SLA structures of seeing and unequivocal/certain guidance, input handling, and aptitude securing and practice" (Namaziandost, Rahimi Esfahani, Nasri, & Mirshekaran, 2018; Taguchi, 2011). Without considering the abundance of interventional inquiries about in L2 pragmatics, the potential effect of task redundancy on ILP improvement isn't tried agreeably. About as referenced above, Takimoto (2009) exhibited some proof for the effects of information put together task-type reiteration with respect to L2 students' procurement of English interest structures. Moreover, utilizing critical thinking assignments, Takimoto (2012) looked through the effects of undefined task redundancy and a similar task type reiteration on L2 realistic improvement.

Until now, no examines have studied the effect of various output-based task reiteration conditions, as operationalized in this exploration, on creating discourse acts among EFL students. Consequently, the present research was wanted to test the effect of yield put together task redundancy with respect to EFL students' capacity to deliver the discourse demonstrations of saying thanks to, saying 'sorry' and won't. As referenced over, three output-based task reiteration conditions were made, for example, ETR, ITR, and NTR. Thinking about the point of the investigation, the accompanying examination question was figured:

Do different task repetition conditions (ETR, ITR, and NTR) have differential impacts on producing speech act among Iranian advance EFL learners?

III. METHOD

A. *Participants*

The members were local speakers of British English and EFL students as members. The members were all either college learners or college graduates. Ten local speakers of British English (seven guys and three females, age extend

23-35) and ten EFL students (4 guys and 6 females, age run 24-35) added to the development of a WDCT. Nine local speakers of British English (six guys and three females) were selected to finish the WDCT to look at its substance legitimacy. Their age ran from 24 to 83. Three flawless classes of English-real learners ($n = 80$) sat the Oxford Placement Test (OPT, Allen, 2004). The periods of the students went from 19 to 34. None of them had the experience of remaining in an English-speaking nation. Twenty-three of them detailed involvement of learning English in language establishments. The members shaped three groups. Gathering 1 was arbitrarily allotted to the ETR condition ($n = 26$), bunch 2 was relegated to the ITR condition ($n = 28$), and gathering 3 was doled out to NTR condition ($n = 26$). ANOVA results showed that the three groups were homogeneous as far as EFL capability as controlled by their OPT mean scores, $F(2, 77) = .771, p = .466$.

B. Instruments

Two instruments were utilized in the present study: The Oxford Placement Test and a Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT).

Oxford Placement Test: The OPT comprises of tuning in and language areas and incorporates 100 things in each segment. As Allen (2004) keeps up, this test has been aligned against the levels framework given by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEF), significant universal language assessments, for example, IELTS, TOEFL, and TOEIC, and the Cambridge ESOL Examinations. With regards to the legitimacy of the OPT, Birjandi and Siyyari (2010) found a high relationship between the scores of the members in the OPT and their scores in a paper-based TOEFL.

Written Discourse Completion Test: So as to build the WDCT, the scientists arranged a pool of 36 situations (12 situations for every discourse demonstration). Some were taken from the writing (Cheng, 2005; Eisenstein & Bodman, 1986) and some were developed by the scientists themselves. The readied situations were exposed to circumstance probability examination and metapragmatic evaluation. This instrumentation system was done among 20 members (10 EFL students and 10 local speakers of British English). Following Li (2012), for the EFL students, the situations were depicted in their local language to guarantee the lower level students' understanding. In the circumstance probability examination, the 20 members were approached to demonstrate on a 5-point scale the probability that the situations would happen in their everyday life, with 1 being the most outlandish and 5 the doubtlessly. The seven situations with the most elevated probability of event were chosen for every discourse demonstration, and a 21-thing WDCT was built.

The developed WDCT was checked on and amended by a local speaker of British English. To guarantee the substance legitimacy of the WDCT, the scientists steered it with another gathering of local speakers of British English ($n = 9$). The outcomes from the local speakers of English demonstrated that the situations in the WDCT evoked the planned discourse acts. At that point, the WDCT was controlled to the members as the pretest. It took around 40 minutes to finish. The members' reactions were evaluated dependent on a 6-point rating scale created by Taguchi (2006). In light of this rating scale, every reaction got a score from 0 to 5. This scale takes three parts of discourse act creation into thought: logical propriety, linguistic exactness, and discursal felicity.

With respect to between rater dependability of scoring, 30 members' pretest papers were evaluated by one of the specialists and a local speaker educator of British English. There was a high relationship coefficient of .92 between the two arrangements of scores. Concerning the interior consistency unwavering quality of the WDCT, the investigation of 40 members' pretest scores uncovered a Cronbach's coefficient Alpha estimation of .90 demonstrating excellent inside consistency dependability.

C. Procedure

Three classes of English-significant learners partook in the trial period of this examination. Prior to the treatment, the OPT was directed to the three classes to check their homogeneity as far as EFL capability. As noted over, the aftereffect of one-way between-bunches ANOVA uncovered no noteworthy distinction between the OPT mean scores of these three groups, which showed the homogeneity of these groups as far as EFL capability level. The principal gathering ($n = 26$) was arbitrarily doled out to the ETR condition, the subsequent gathering ($n = 28$) was haphazardly doled out to the ITR condition, and the third gathering ($n = 26$) was doled out to the NTR gathering. At that point, the WDCT was directed to the members in all the three groups as the pretest and it took around 40 minutes to finish.

At that point, the three groups got guidance on the discourse demonstrations. The instructional medications were executed for six sessions, each enduring around an hour and a half. Two sessions were given to the guidance of every one of the discourse demonstrations of expressing gratitude toward (sessions 1 and 2), saying 'sorry' (sessions 3 and 4), and won't (sessions 5 and 6). Since the sort of the discourse demonstration (i.e., saying thanks to, saying 'sorry' and cannot) was not a free factor in this examination, the request wherein the three discourse acts were exhibited didn't make a difference.

The guidance for all the three groups was done in Persian and as per the treatment conditions intended for every one of the groups. All the three classes were educated by the primary creator of this investigation who was likewise the teacher of a large portion of the members at college. After the guidance was finished, the WDCT was regulated to the members as the posttest a few days after the last instructional treatment session.

IV. RESULTS

Results of Normality Tests

Before conducting any analyses on the proficiency test, pretest, and posttest, it was necessary to check the normality of the distributions. Thus, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality was run on the data obtained from the above-mentioned tests. The results are shown in Table 1:

TABLE 1
NORMALITY TEST FOR THE SCORES OF THE THREE GROUPS IN PRETEST AND POST-TEST

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
ETR. Pretest	.201	32	.092
ETR. Posttest	.177	32	.112
ITR. Pretest	.172	32	.117
ITR. Posttest	.115	32	.200*
NTR. Pretest	.122	32	.200*
NTR. Posttest	.185	32	.007

Note. ETR = explicit task-repetition group, ITR = implicit task-repetition group, NTR = no-input task-repetition group

The *p* values under the *Sig.* column in Table 1 determine whether the distributions were normal or not. A *p* value greater than .05 shows a normal distribution, while a *p* value lower than .05 indicates that the distribution has not been normal. Since all the *p* values in Table 1 were larger than .05, it could be concluded that the distributions of scores for the proficiency test, pretest, and posttest obtained from three groups had been normal. It is thus safe to proceed with parametric test (i.e. ANOVA in this case) and make further comparisons between the participating groups.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE WDCT PRETEST SCORES

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
ETR	32	58.62	5.08	.89
ITR	32	57.09	4.26	.75
NTR	32	56.37	4.21	.74
Total	96	57.36	4.58	.46

To compare the performance of the three groups on the WDCT pretest, a one-way between-groups ANOVA was performed. Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics of the performance of the three groups on the WDCT pretest. Table 2 indicates that, in the WDCT pretest, all the three groups had almost the same performance. Their mean scores are a testimony for our claim.

TABLE 3
ANOVA RESULTS FOR THE PERFORMANCE OF THE THREE GROUPS ON THE WDCT PRETEST

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	84.52	2	42.26	2.05	.134
Within Groups	1915.71	93	20.59		
Total	2000.24	95			

One-way between groups ANOVA indicated that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met in the pretest, $F = 2.052$, $p = .134$. The results (see Table 3) revealed that there was no statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the pretest scores for the three groups. This suggests that the three groups were homogeneous in terms of speech act production ability at the outset of the study.

The reason behind administering the posttest was to see whether there was a difference in speech act production of the learners in the three experimental groups. To this end, the posttest scores of the ETR, ITR and NTR needed to be compared via one-way between-groups ANOVA. The descriptive results of the comparison of the three groups on the posttest are displayed in Table 4.

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS RESULTS COMPARING ETR, ITR AND NTR MEAN SCORES ON THE POSTTEST

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
ETR	32	71.84	5.75	1.01
ITR	32	59.87	5.65	.99
NTR	32	56.93	4.58	.81
Total	96	62.88	8.37	.85

The mean scores of the ETR ($M = 71.84$), ITR ($M = 59.87$), and NTR ($M = 56.93$) were different from one another on the posttest. To figure out whether the differences among these mean scores were significant or not, one needs to check the p value under the *Sig.* column in the ANOVA table below (Table 5). It should be noted that ANCOVA, using the pretest scores as the covariate, was avoided as the assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes was found to be violated.

TABLE 5
ANOVA RESULTS FOR THE WDCT POSTTEST SCORES

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3990.14	2	1995.07	69.50	.000
Within Groups	2669.59	93	28.70		
Total	6659.74	95			

As is could be observed in Table 4.6, there was a statistically significant difference in the posttest scores for three groups on the posttest of *WDCT* since the p value under the *Sig.* column was found to be less than the specified level of significance (i.e. $.000 < .05$), meaning that the three groups significantly differed in terms of speech act production on the posttest. This result could also be clearly noticed in the bar chart that follows (Figure 1).

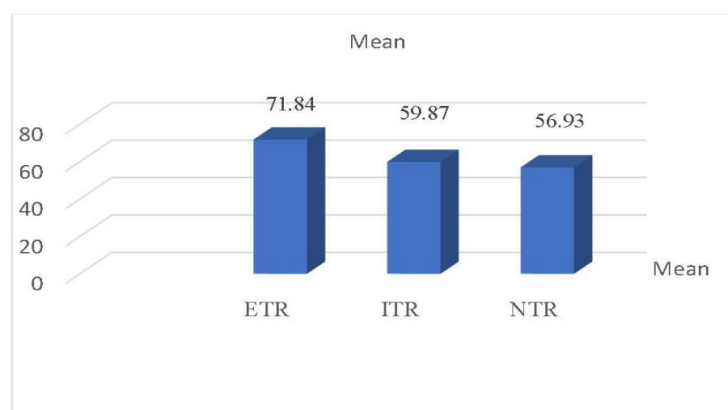


Figure 1: The mean scores of ETR, ITR, and NTR on the posttest

It is clear that ETR learners managed to get higher scores than did ITR learners, who in turn, could obtain higher scores than the NTR learners. Pair-wise comparisons of the groups (in Table 6) reveals which two group/s were significantly different on the posttest.

TABLE 6.
RESULTS OF THE SCHEFFE POST HOC TEST FOR COMPARING THE THREE GROUPS ON THE WDCT POSTTEST

(I) Groups	(J) Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
ETR	ITR	11.96*	1.33	.000
	NTR	14.90*	1.33	.000
ITR	ETR	-11.96*	1.33	.000
	NTR	2.93	1.33	.096
NTR	ETR	-14.90*	1.33	.000
	ITR	-2.93	1.33	.096

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

In the top line, it could be seen that the contrast between ETR ($M = 71.84$) and ITR ($M = 59.87$) was measurably critical since the *Sig.* worth relating to this examination ($p = .000$) was under $.05$. This implies utilizing unequivocal task redundancy could prompt a noteworthy impact on the discourse demonstration creation. In like manner, ETR

students' mean score ($M = 71.84$) was altogether higher than that of NTR students ($M = 56.93$) as a result of the way that the p worth identified with this correlation was .000, which is lower than the essentialness level. At long last, the correlation of ITR ($M = 59.87$) and NTR ($M = 56.93$) uncovered that the two procedures of understood task reiteration and no-input task-redundancy utilized for instructing discourse acts to EFL students didn't contrast altogether because of the way that the p worth relating to the examination of these two groups (for example .096) surpassed the centrality level. To summarize, As showed in Table 6, the consequences of Scheffe test uncovered that the ETR gathering performed altogether superior to anything the ITR and the NTR groups. Be that as it may, there was no factually noteworthy distinction between the ITR and NTR groups.

These outcomes lead to the accompanying response to the examination question of 'Do diverse assignment reiteration conditions (ETR, ITR, and NTR) impactfully affect delivering discourse act among Iranian development EFL students?' The appropriate response is confirmative. The ETR, ITR, and NTR conditions affect EFL students' discourse demonstration creation.

At that point, the student' execution was analyzed as far as contrasts over the two organization of the WDCT. The reason for existing was to check whether there were any measurably critical changes in the students' presentation from the pretest to the posttest. As exhibited in Table 7, the presentation of the ETR gathering improved from the pretest ($M = 58.62$) to the posttest ($M = 71.84$). So also, there was an expansion in the mean score of the ITR bunch from the pretest ($M = 57.09$) to the posttest ($M = 59.87$), though the mean score of the NTR gathering didn't factually transform from the pretest ($M = 56.37$) to the posttest ($M = 56.93$).

TABLE 7
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS (PRE AND POST-TESTS OF THREE GROUPS)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	ETR. Post	71.84	32	5.75	1.01
	ETR. Pre	58.62	32	5.08	.89
Pair 2	ITR. Post	59.87	32	5.65	.99
	ITR. Pre	57.09	32	4.26	.75
Pair 3	NTR. Post	56.93	32	4.58	.81
	NTR. Pre	56.37	32	4.21	.74

Matched sample t-test results uncovered that the ETR gathering made a measurably critical increase from the pretest to the post test. Likewise, in the ITR gathering, the expansion in the mean score from the pretest to the posttest was factually huge. Notwithstanding, in the NTR gathering, the change from the pretest to the posttest was not measurably huge. Table 8 shows the consequences of the t-test investigation. Along these lines, it creates the impression that the ETR and ITR instructional conditions worked effectively in encouraging discourse acts to the EFL students, while the NTR condition didn't prompt a factually critical change in the students' presentation.

TABLE 8
RESULTS OF PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE THREE GROUPS ON PRETEST AND POSTTEST

		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	ETR. Post – ETR. Pre	13.21	7.52	1.32	9.94	31	.000
Pair 2	ITR. Post – ITR. Pre	2.78	5.08	.89	3.09	31	.004
Pair 3	NTR. Post – NTR. Pre	.56	1.83	.32	1.73	31	.092

V. DISCUSSION

The present examination researched the impacts of output-based task reiteration joined by contribution in addition to metapragmatic data, outwardly upgraded contribution in addition to CR, and no contribution on EFL students' discourse demonstration creation. The outcomes showed that the exhibition of ETR and ITR groups, however not that of the NTR gathering, fundamentally improved from the pretest to the posttests. Moreover, the ETR condition was observed to be essentially more viable than the ITR and NTR conditions in upgrading the students' discourse demonstration generation capacity.

The primary point to talk about is the potential utility of task redundancy in L2 (pragmatics) guidance. The aftereffects of the present investigation are perfect with the discoveries of past examinations on assignment reiteration (e.g., Ahmadian, 2011; Bygate and Samuda, 2005), which presumed that redundancies of a similar task can encourage students' L2 execution and obtaining. In such manner, Takimoto (2012), drawing on critical thinking assignments, likewise inferred that indistinguishable task redundancy and task type reiteration groups outflanked the control bunch in his examination. It should be noticed that Takimoto concentrated on the impacts of information handling task reiteration.

In any case, the present investigation showed that output creation task redundancy can be a successful instructional procedure in L2 discourse act guidance on the off chance that it is joined by info combined with metapragmatic data or outwardly improved information combined with CR. This is in accordance with Sheppard's (2006) finding that output age task redundancy can advance L2 improvement on the off chance that it is joined by info or criticism.

The subsequent point to be noted is the job of output. The kind of the task used in this investigation included output age by the students. All together for successful figuring out how to happen, students need to utilize the recently got language in their very own creation (Tahmasbi, Hashemifardnia, & Namaziandost, 2019). As Bygate and Samuda (2005) properly contend "a typical learning and encouraging issue is to get students to incorporate information that is accessible to them into their dynamic language use" (p. 270). The output age assignments utilized in this examination gave an opportunity to the students to apply their recently known down to earth learning in their language creation. Besides, after their first execution of output age assignments, the students in the ETR and ITR conditions were presented to sober minded parts of language through information combined with metapragmatic data and information combined with visual upgrade and CR individually. The second execution of the task gave a chance to the students to work on utilizing this new businesslike learning. Almost certainly, the combination of the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic information into the second execution of the task fundamentally added to the students' businesslike advancement (Shakibaei, Shahamat, & Namaziandost, 2019).

Moreover, the adequacy of output age tasks utilized in this examination can be clarified regarding output speculation and the three elements of output (Swain & Lapkin, 1995): (1) the output may have made the students see the holes in their very own down to earth information, (2) their first output may have empowered the students to create sober minded theories and test them against the info they got before the second execution of the assignment. It should be noticed that this kind of theory testing couldn't happen in the NTR bunches as this gathering didn't get any commonsense contribution after the principal execution of the task, and (3) the third work that Swain alludes to is the utilization of metalanguage. In the present investigation, the students in the ETR, ITR, and NTR groups occupied with metapragmatic discourse before the second execution of the task.

Rose and Ng Kwai-fun (2001) contend that inductive guidance and guided revelation can bring about more disarray than perception. In any case, the consequences of the present investigation uncovered that the ITR condition, rather than the NTR condition, fundamentally prompted L2 down to business improvement from the pretest to the posttest. This might be represented by the operationalization of understood guidance (i.e., students' introduction to outwardly improved info and their commitment in CR tasks) and the output-based task reiteration that the students occupied with. As such, the improvement in the ITR gathering might be ascribed to the joint impacts of output creation, visual upgrade, and CR exercises the students occupied with (Abedi, Namaziandost, & Akbari, 2019).

The present investigation additionally uncovered the benefit of the ETR bunch over the ITR gathering. This is in accordance with the discoveries of most of past examinations that demonstrated the predominance of unequivocal educating over verifiable L2 pragmatics guidance (Rose, 2005; Ziafar & Namaziandost, 2019). Taguchi (2015) found that unequivocal structure centered guidance including metapragmatic data was commonly more successful than its understood partner notwithstanding when the information is made striking through upgrade systems. So also, the aftereffects of the present investigation demonstrated that notwithstanding when understood and express instructional methodologies are coordinated into output-based task redundancy exercises, the verifiable strategy isn't as viable as its certain partner. In spite of the fact that the ETR gathering contrasted from the ITR bunch in that lone the ETR gathering was given metapragmatic data, the predominance of the ETR bunch over the ITR gathering might be credited to the mix of the highlights related with the ETR condition instead of metapragmatic data all alone (Ziafar & Namaziandost, 2019). The arrangement of metapragmatic data, introduction to the plain configuration of writings, structure correlation, and output creation task redundancy, inside and out, might have prompted the students' attention to the discourse demonstration highlights. At the end of the day, the blend of these variables may have empowered the students in ETR gathering to achieve structure work setting mappings and disguise the related sober minded information more adequately than the ITR gathering.

VI. CONCLUSION

This examination meant to research the impacts of output put together task reiteration with respect to EFL students' discourse demonstration generation. The outcomes not just affirm the openness to instruction of discourse act highlights, yet in addition show the utility of output-based assignment reiteration in L2 discourse act guidance. The outcomes uncovered that output-based task redundancy can be viable on the off chance that it is joined by contribution in addition to metapragmatic data or outwardly improved contribution in addition to CR assignments. At the end of the day, reiteration of output age tasks joined by just students' appearance and metatalk, without presenting the students to any information, appears not to be successful in upgrading students' discourse demonstration creation capacity.

As Taguchi (2015) contends, understood ways to deal with L2 pragmatics guidance can be similarly as successful as unequivocal instructing gave that they attract students' regard for structure work setting mappings. In the output-based assignment reiteration exercises used in this investigation, a lot of components appeared to attract the students' regard for structure work setting mappings. The students got situations dependent on which they were required to build writings. Moreover, they occupied with CR tasks and they were allowed to thoroughly analyze their very own output

with the outwardly improved content including the objective even minded highlights. The situations, output, outwardly improved info, CR and structure examination exercises were relied upon to expand the remarkable quality of the down to earth parts of the information the students got in the ITR gathering and to make understood guidance as successful as express educating. Indeed, even with such factors used to upgrade the remarkable quality of the realistic highlights in the information and to advance structure work setting mappings, understood guidance didn't function as successfully as express instructing.

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The Application of Register Analysis into Translation Quality Assessment

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Abstract—Register analysis, an essential part of SFL, is composed of three variables, that is, field, mode and tenor. According to SFL, register forms the interface between the social system and the linguistic system; its elements realize social meanings and are realized in linguistic forms. In the process of translating, translators by and large confront problems not only at the linguistic level but also cultural level. As a powerful tool, register theory is practical and necessary to be introduced into translation studies. This paper tries to explore literary translation from the perspective of SFL and evaluate the version of *Beiyong* by Zhang Peiji respectively from the field, mode and tenor. Based on findings, it is safe to say that register analysis to some degree makes a valuable contribution to translation quality assessment (TQA).

Index Terms—register analysis, translation quality assessment (TQA), *Beiyong*

I. SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS (SFL)

From different starting points, two main approaches—through form and through meaning—have formulated since Saussure initiated the linguistic studies. The most influential version of the approach through form is known as Transformational Generative (TG) approach proposed by Noam Chomsky. TG exclusively focuses on what we call “propositional meaning”—the “content” of the sentence, that is, “meaning” in the narrow sense. In TG a sentence is analyzed in isolation, without considering its context of co-text and context of situation and culture. The other approach through meaning is known as functional grammar which centers on the “choice” of meaning and wording, and it takes linguistics towards sociology. Simply speaking, the form-based approach finds the answer in the way our brains are structured whereas the meaning-based approach finds it in the way our social context is structured (Thompson, 2008). SFL proposed by M.A.K. Halliday develops from Firth’s system-structure theory in the 1930s. Halliday also inherits and promotes context theory put forward by Malinowski and Firth. On one hand, he probes into the influence contextual factors on the language system from the perspective of social semiotics. On the other hand, he proposes register theory and points out its three parameters, three metafunctions and the dialectic relationship between semantic system and its elements. Three important characteristic features of SFL can be summed up. Firstly, SFL centers on the sociological aspects of language; Secondly, the language is regarded as a form of doing rather than knowing. It distinguishes linguistic behaviour potential from actual linguistic behaviour. Thirdly, it gives a relatively high priority to the description of characteristics of particular languages and varieties of languages.

II. THE HALLIDAYAN MODEL OF LANGUAGE AND DISCOURSE

Discourse analysis made its debut in the early 1950s when Zellig Harris published his article entitled *Discourse Analysis*. Since the 1980s it has been on the right track and achieved innumerable results. The linguists such as Austin, Searle, Grice, Levinson, Leech, Hymes, Gumperz, Van Dijk and so on have made a great contribution. In spite of different approaches they adopt, one common decision could be simplified as follows: language should be regarded as a dynamic social interactive phenomenon. Meaning is not conveyed by single or isolated sentences. We should take into consideration not only the people who use the language but also the world in which language is used. The most influential model of discourse analysis is Halliday’s systemic functional model.

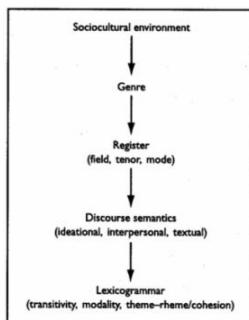


Figure 1. Relation of Genre and Register to Language (Munday, 2001, p.90)

The discourse analysis model proposed by Halliday is to delve into the language in use on the basis of SFL. And it mainly concerns itself with the relationship between language and context. From the figure above, it can be seen that there is a strong interrelation between the surface-level realizations of the linguistic functions and the sociocultural framework. Genre is determined by sociocultural environment, at the same time, genre itself determines three elements or variables of register, that is, field, tenor and mode. Then those three variables are connected with three metafunctions of discourse semantics respectively, that is, ideational, interpersonal and textual. The field is associated with ideational meaning and the tenor interpersonal meaning as well as the mode textual meaning. And the latter three meanings are realized by the transitivity, modality, theme-rheme\cohesion respectively. The overall aspects of translation at different levels and the interrelation among them may be described and explained under this discourse analysis model. However, Halliday's grammar is so complicated that the scholars generally select one part of it or simplify it for their study.

III. REGISTER: A THEORY ON LANGUAGE VARIATION

The purpose of utilizing language is communication. The successful communication on a large scale depends on different language varieties used in different situations. For example, the talk between intimate friends varies from the inauguration speech in public, and the lectures for students in classroom differ from the sermons preached by priests on the need of charity. Briefly speaking, text or discourse, written or spoken, is closely linked with the situation of context. In other words, languages vary according to their functions and they differ from each other in different situations. The name given to a variety of language distinguished according to use is register. The different register has its own characteristics of diction, structure, sentence-making and so on. That is to say, "register are defined in terms of differences in grammar, vocabulary, etc., between two samples of language activity such as a sports commentary and a church service" (Hatim&Mason, 1990, p. 46). In other words, theories of register aim to propose relationships between language function (determined by situational or social factors) and language form.

Every discourse or text grows out of the given context and every discourse has its own register. Halliday(1976) states "the linguistic features which are typically associated with a configuration of situational features—with particular values of the field, mode and tenor—constitute a register.(p.22)" Each of three parameters has its own markers respectively on the phonological level, lexical level, grammatical level and textual level. It is beneficial for translator to analyze and decide the register of ST, hence establish the register equivalence in the TT. Only in this way may the ST turns out to be equivalent to the TT at utmost and reach the goal of functional equivalence on the text level.

IV. THREE VARIABLES AND THE ESTABLISHMENT OF REGISTER EQUIVALENCE

In communication events people are prone to select different language varieties according to the different purposes they want to reach, the different partners they talk with and the different channels they employ. These three factors are manifested as three variables —field, tenor and mode—in the theory of register. In the discourse translation, a translator has to confront two assignments with the aim to accomplishing successful interlingual translation. Firstly, as a reader, it is necessary for the translator to make a close analysis of the field, tenor and mode from the different angles in the ST. And secondly, he needs to figure out the corresponding characteristics of three variables in the TT, especially those different from the ST. The three variables supplement each other and a good command of them is an essential step in translation. Only an overall consideration on them can guarantee the conformability of register between the ST and TT.

Field is also named as "domain" and "province". Some theorists hold the view that field of discourse refers to subject matter. For example, Bell (2001) says "in a very much broader sense, domain refers to ... family, friendship, education and so forth" (p.191), which sounds very much like subject matter. However, someone else argues that the definition is not accurate enough and those two notions are not identical to some degree. John Pearce suggests field of discourse "embraces not only the subject-matter in hand but the whole activity of the speaker or participant in a setting" (Doughty et al., 1972, p.185). It is apparent that the discussion above lays its emphasis on the activity part, that is, what is going on, rather than what is talking about.

Generally speaking, the mode of discourse refers to the medium or channel through which the communication takes place. According to Gregory (1978), the relation of a user to his medium may be seen as the simple one of he is using—speech or writing. In translation, it is not allowed for translator to change the mode of ST. if the original text is colloquial style, the target text is better to be brought into correspondence with it.

The tenor of discourse is a conception accounting for the social relation between author\speaker and reader\listener and the relation (formal relation, imitate relation and casual relation) among the characters in the discourse. The tenor of discourse can be discussed at four overlapped levels: formality, politeness, impersonality and acceptability (Bell, 2001). What actually determines this degree of distance and consequent formality may be social status or the authority that comes with knowledge or something as simple as available space (Fawcett, 1997\2007). The tenor can be decided through the different vocabulary and titles employed in the text. For example, an imitate relation can be represented by simple sentences, the usage of dialect and slang language. Meanwhile, solemn and formal relation can be expressed through complicated syntactic structures, proper nouns and archaic words. As usual, a translator has no right to change the tenor of ST. An imitate conversation can not be translated into a serious sermon. A public speech can not be translated into the colloquialism either. It is necessary for translator to understand what the tenor of ST is and represent

the corresponding relation in the TT. In the process of translating, translators sometimes have to make some changes about tenor because of the different cultural background, hence create a new relationship among participants in the target text. Namy relates how interpreting between American and French trade union officials involves a constant shift of tenor. Whereas the French make deliberate use of an educated formal tenor, their American counterparts conventionally do the opposite, displaying their working-class allegiance with liberal use of colloquialisms, etc. (Hatim & Mason, 1990)

A comprehensive understanding of register theory and a good command of its three parameters are inevitably helpful for translator to select some appropriate approaches and strategies for better translation. Only the equivalence of field, mode and tenor can assure the equivalence between ST and TT which can lead the unity of language forms and its communication situation, communication purposes and the status of involved participants.

V. QUALITY ASSESSMENT OF THE ENGLISH VERSION OF *BEIJING*: A CASE STUDY

A. TQA Based on Field Equivalence

The original text of *Beijing* is a short prose and a majority of sentences employed are not long. It once appeared in the textbook for middle school students, so the vocabulary used in it is not complex. In this part, Wordsmith, a kind of software, is employed to analyze the version by Zhang Peiji (2007) in an attempt to judge whether the TT is equivalent to the ST or not in terms of form.

TABLE I.
THE CORPUS-BASED ANALYSIS OF ZHANG'S VERSION

tokens	types	TTR	Standardised TTR	Mean word length
1139	442	39	39.90	4
sentences	1-letter word	2-letter word	3-letter word	4-letter word
64	73	213	255	178

From the table above, the following four points could be concluded: (1) The number of token 1139, the number of type 442 and the number of sentence 64 suggest that this text is not long; (2) Type-token ratios tells us something about the variety of vocabulary used in a corpus, so TTR 39 and the Standardised TTR 39.90 indicate that the variation of vocabulary is not evident; (3) The sum of 1-letter word, 2-letter word, 3-letter word and 4-letter word is 719 which occupies 63 percent of the whole text. It proves the vocabulary adopted by the translator is not hard or beyond the average reader's capacity; (4) The word "was" with a high frequency shows the main tense is past tense, which is in line with that of original text. After the overall analysis of the whole text, the following part turns to the specific examples.

Example 1

ST: 到徐州见着父亲, 看见满院狼藉的东西, 又想起祖母, 不禁簌簌地流下眼泪。

TT: *When I met father in Xuzhou, the sight of the disorderly mess in his courtyard and the thought of grandma started tears trickling down my cheeks.*

In the original text, the inner logical relation among clauses can be shown as 父亲 (father) + 满院狼藉 (disorderly mess) + 逝去的祖母 (the thought of grandma) → 流泪 (tears). However, the logical relation in the target text is changed into 满院狼藉 (disorderly mess) + 想起祖母 (the thought of grandma) → 流泪 (tears). Evidently, Zhang's version can not fully reproduce the original logical relation in the target text. The author tries to find out a solution which is shown as the following:

Revisited version:

When I arrived in Xuzhou, the meeting with father, the sight of the disorderly mess in our courtyard and the thought of grandma started tears tricking down my cheeks.

Compared with Zhang's version, the subject is made up of three paralleled phrases (the meeting with father, the sight of the disorderly mess in our courtyard and the thought of grandma) which fully reproduce the logical relation in the ST, hence represents the emotion in the original text.

Example 2

ST: 他走了几步, 回过头看见我, 说, "进去吧, 里边没人。" 等他的背影混入来来往往的人里, 再找不着了, 我便进来坐下, 我的眼泪又来了。

TT: *After a few steps, he looked back at me and said, "Go back to your seat. Don't leave your things alone." I, however, did not go back to my seat until his figure was lost among crowds of people hurrying to and fro and no longer visible. My eyes were again wet with tears.*

When deal with "进去吧, 里边没人", there are two choices, that is, word-for-word translation and sense-for-sense translation, which can produce two different versions. Zhang chooses the latter and translates it as "Go back to your seat. Don't leave your things alone." which is not equivalent to "进去吧, 里边没人" in terms of form. However it guarantees the function equivalence. If we translate it as "there is no one in the compartment" which just represents the external meaning, the target readers would have misunderstood the meaning expressed in the original text.

Example 3

ST: 近几年来, 父亲和我都是东奔西走。

TT: *In recent years, both father and I have been living an unsettled life, and the circumstances of our family going from bad to worse.*

In English it is hard for us to find a ready-made phrase which can fully express the meaning of the Chinese idiom *Dong ben xi zou* (东奔西走). Yang Xianyi employs “moving from place to place” to render it. However, it seems not an appropriate answer because “move” means “to go to live or work in a different place, or cause someone to do this” and it can not represent the deeply meaning of *Dong ben xi zou*, that is, having to go in all direction for living. Meanwhile, “living an unsettled life” is not a good solution either because it fails to visualize the image shown by *Dong ben xi zou*, that is, rushing here and there. So in author’s opinion, the Zhang’s version can be polished as the following:

Revisited version: *In recent years, both my father and I have been rushed here and there to stay alive, while the circumstances of our family gone from bad to worse.*

“rush here and there” to some extent reproduces the semantic meaning of *Dong ben xi zou* and the addition “to stay alive” expresses the helplessness of living.

B. TQA Based on Tenor Equivalence

Example 4

ST: 父亲是一个胖子，走过去自然要费事些。

TT: *That would be a strenuous job for father, who was fat.*

“胖子” here is employed to depict the father’s stout figure with the purpose of emphasizing the difficulty he confronts when goes across the railway and stressing the deeply love towards his son. Mr. Zhang renders “胖” as “fat” which is a derogatory word. “Fat” is not apt to describe a father, especially in this context. To avoid crudity, maybe it is a wise idea to translate “胖” as “stout” which is a neutral term.

Example 5

ST: 又嘱托茶房好好照应我。我心里暗笑他的迂；他们只认得钱，托他们简直是白托！而且我这样大年纪的人，难道还不能料理自己么？唉，我现在想想，那时真是太聪明了！

TT: *He also asked the train attendants to take good care of me. I sniggered at father for being so impractical, for it was utterly useless to entrust me to those attendants, who cared for nothing but money. Besides, it was certainly no problem for a person of my age to look after himself. Oh, when I come to think of it, I can see how smartly I was in those days!*

“聪明” in Chinese is for the most part a commendatory word. However, through a closely analysis, it is evident to see in the example above “聪明” is not a commendatory word, but a derogatory one. The author is not inclined to praise himself, but regret for his disrespect for his father. Here, the irony, a kind of figure speech, is employed to satirize the author himself. So “聪明” could not be translated as directly “smart”, “bright”, or “clever”. Based on the closely observation, Mr.Zhang chooses “smart aleck” and “smartly” to render “聪明”. These two words well reproduce the affection expressed in the source text.

Example 6

ST: 于是扑扑衣上的泥土，心里很轻松似的，过一会说，“我走了；到那边来信！”

TT: *he laid all the tangerines on my overcoat, and patting the dirt off his clothes, he looked somewhat relieved and said after a while, “I must be going now. Don’t forget to write me from Beijing”.*

If “我走了” is translated as “I am going now” directly, the father’s emotion of missing and concerning would be weakened to some degree, although the TT is equivalent to the ST in terms of form. If we put a modal verb into this sentence, the emotion of missing from father to his son could be fully manifested because “must go” means “have to go” which suggests that the father is unwillingly to leave. The form is different, but the function is of equivalence.

Example 7

ST: 我说道，“爸爸，你走吧”。

TT: *I said, “Dad, you might leave now.”*

This is a conversation between father and his son. “爸爸，你走吧” is an imperative sentence, but the tone is not ordering or requesting, but suggesting. It is not hard for people in Chinese-speaking regions to figure out it, and the readers naturally understand its connotative meaning. If we translate it as “Dad, you leave now.” which is an evident imperative sentence, the target readers could not understand why the son is so impolite to his father because of the change from suggestion to order. Furthermore, that shift not only spoils the emotion of missing but also ruins the traditional relationship between father and son in the modern China. When translating the short clause “你走吧”, Mr. Zhang just adds a modal verb “might”. With its help, the author’s respect and attachment to his father and the superior status of his father are fully manifested. Zhang’s version turns out acceptable for the target readers because it not only successfully delivers the affection but also softens the tone of toughness existing in the source text.

C. TQA Based on Mode Equivalence

Example 8

ST: 父亲因为事忙，本已说定不送我，叫旅馆里一个熟识的茶房陪同我去。

TT: *Father said he was too busy to go and see me off at the railway station, but would ask a hotel waiter that he*

knew to accompany me there instead.

In most cases “父亲” is employed by author to address his father. In order to make the style or mode of TT conform to that of ST. Mr. Zhang doesn't change it and he renders “父亲” as a formal word “father”.

Example 9

ST: 我说道, “爸爸, 你走吧。”

TT: *I said, “Dad, you might leave now.”*

This is a private conversation and the address form “爸爸” expresses the author's deeply attachment to his father although it is a simple word. In order to conduct the equivalence of mode, translator chooses a colloquial word “Dad” in place of “father”.

Example 10

ST: 他只说, “不要紧, 他们去不好!”

TT: *but he only said, “Never mind! It won't do to trust guys like those hotel boys!”*

Here Mr. Zhang makes a few minor adjustments to the mode of source text. “他们” is decoded as “guys like those hotel boys” instead of “them”, through which the free and easy conversation between the son and father is well represented before readers.

VI. CONCLUSION

Linguistic approaches view translation as a kind of social activity and aim to explore the functions and influences of translation in the target language. However, the linguistic approaches can not solve all problems of translation and they should be seen as just the one, rather than the only one, of accounting for the translation process (Fawcett, 1998/2004). We should understand their contribution in a reasonable way. Someone holds that we can not carry on literature criticism through linguistic theories because the literature is just for appreciation, and not apt to be analyzed, let alone from the linguistic perspective. They compare linguistic theory to “a knife of taking part a beautiful woman”. The author does not approve of that. From the discussion above, we can see that the present studies of prose translation are still in the groping stage. However, an increasing number of linguistic theories have been applied into translation studies, especially literary translation. Among them, context theory and register analysis, two core theories of SFL, have broadened the previous scope of translation studies and served as powerful tools for the analysis of prose translation. Translation scholars must recognize that no approach, however sophisticated, can provide a perfect answer to avoiding subjectivity to the core in the process of TQA because of the assessors' various educational levels and different social and cultural backgrounds. Wolfram Wilss (2001) points out the insights of translation criticism rarely, even never reach the level as accurate as natural science. The application scope of translation criticism is restricted because of the fact that translation is an activity of language use. Considering the complexity of subject matter and the variety of approaches, the practice of making translation criticism absolutely scientific seems not unwise and nonsense.

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A Comparative Study on the Washback Effects of Teacher Feedback plus Intelligent Feedback versus Teacher Feedback on English Writing Teaching in Higher Vocational College

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Abstract—For college students majoring in English, English writing is a relatively difficult project. How to effectively improve the English writing ability of students of English majors in vocational colleges is an important issue that every college teacher needs to pay attention to. As a teaching tool, the intelligent computer automated essay evaluation system can help students improve their English writing ability more objectively, efficiently and accurately. This paper employs the intelligent computer automated essay evaluation system as a teaching tool, taking college students as the research object, and carried out an 18-week online self-writing teaching experiment and traditional writing experiment. This paper conducts a comparative study on the washback effects of teacher feedback plus intelligent feedback versus teacher feedback on English writing teaching in higher vocational college, which provides a prominent research value and research significance for the reform and innovation of English writing teaching in higher vocational colleges.

Index Terms—higher vocational college, English writing ability, intelligent computer automated essay evaluation system, washback effect

I. INTRODUCTION

Language testing is an effective way to evaluate foreign language teaching and an important method to improve the quality of foreign language teaching. Language teaching and language testing are two inseparable factors, which are partners for mutual influence and mutual promotion. Language testing is an important tool for measuring and assessing students' academic performance, and it is also a teaching method and teaching tool. Teachers can get feedback from the language testing to understand the mastery of students' learning, and then regulate and improve their teaching plans. The performance of students in language testing can reflect the effectiveness of teaching to a certain extent (Tang & Wu, 2011). The backwash effect is an important part of language testing that refers to the impact or reaction of the testing on language teaching and learning. It enables the learner to better describe the teaching objectives, and also stimulates the learners to build up self-evaluation and make management strategies in an effective manner (Wang, 2015).

Writing skills are one of the four basic skills of English learning and one of the key points of English teaching. However, at present, higher vocational college teaching have difficulty in timely feedback of teachers' evaluation, and because of the lack of students' motivation, English writing has always been a time-consuming and low-efficient teaching task. With the rapid development of computer technology and corpus linguistics, the intelligent computer automated essay evaluation system has entered the field of writing teaching. Compared with manual evaluation, automatic writing evaluation system is an energy-saving and economical tool in the final writing tests. The foreign language writing intelligent evaluation system originated in the 1960s, but it was introduced to China after decades. However, it has developed rapidly in recent years in China. The domestic intelligent computer automated essay evaluation system plays a prominent role in the formative assessment of English writing and the improvement of students' self-learning ability. The application of the intelligent computer automated essay evaluation system in English writing in higher vocational colleges is conducive to the construction of a combination of intelligent evaluation and teacher review, which helps to the exploration of an innovative efficient English writing teaching (Hou, 2015). This paper conducts a comparative study on the washback effects of teacher feedback plus intelligent feedback versus teacher feedback on English writing teaching in higher vocational college, which provides a prominent research value and research significance for the reform and innovation of English writing teaching in higher vocational colleges.

II. A BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO INTELLIGENT COMPUTER AUTOMATED ESSAY EVALUATION SYSTEM

Intelligent computer automated essay evaluation system originates in the 1960s. Early writing intelligent evaluation system was mainly used in large-scale writing marking. With the development of science and technology, various automatic evaluation systems have emerged. The most representative ones are Project Essay Grader (PEG), Intelligent Essay Assessor (IEA) and E- Rater. The PEG evaluation system mainly focuses on the structure of the article, such as

fluency, grammar, vocabulary and punctuation, while ignores the content of the essay. The IEA evaluation system uses latent semantic analysis to grade the composition. The system not only analyzes the features of the composition, but also takes the structure associated with the composition into consideration. The E-Rater evaluation system grades the composition based on a large number of corpus text data, and adopts the natural language processing technology to evaluate the characteristics of the composition. The quality of the evaluation depends on the samples in the database (Xiong & Wang, 2018).

The above intelligent writing evaluation systems have their own advantages and disadvantages. IEA and E-rater evaluate the composition comprehensively, while PEG mainly evaluates the surface features of the composition. In addition, some scholars in China are also actively exploring the establishment of an automatic writing evaluation system suitable for Chinese English learners. Professor Liang from Beijing Foreign Studies University successfully developed the EFL Essay Evaluator 1.0. This research has greatly contributed to the evaluation of large-scale English composition testing, but it is still necessary to perfect the writing system about writing habits and writing characteristics of language learners at home and abroad (Liang & Wen, 2007).

Pigai.org is a mature online writing automatic evaluation system in recent years. The system not only provides students with independent writing training, but also offers instant feedback to students. The review and evaluation of students' essays is based on comparing students' essays to standard samples. The system can automatically check students' word spelling, vocabulary usage, grammatical context and other errors in quite a short time, and then it will offer suggestions for revision. In addition, the intelligent computer automated essay evaluation system also equipped with the functions of plagiarism detection, peer review, and excellent composition sharing. In a word, pigai.org is a relatively mature automatic composition evaluation system in China. This paper takes advantage of pigai.org as an auxiliary tool for English writing teaching in higher vocational college (He, 2013).

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

Looking back the domestic relevant literature review after 2010, the research on the intelligent computer automated essay evaluation system can be roughly divided into three parts: first one is the research on the reliability of the relevant system as well as the consistency between the system evaluation results and the teacher evaluation; the second one is the research on the influence of domestic intelligent writing evaluation system on college students' writing ability, especially the impact on college students' vocabulary, grammar and syntax in English writing; the third one is based on the application of intelligent writing evaluation system in college English writing teaching, with an aim to construct a new teaching method between intelligent computer automated essay evaluation system and college English writing teaching (Guan, 2018).

A. Reliability Research on Intelligent Computer Automated Essay Evaluation System

There are few literatures on the reliability of the intelligent computer automated essay evaluation system in China. According to the literatures, the intelligent computer automated essay evaluation system is quite reliable. Regarding this aspect, He Xuliang conducts a comparative study between intelligent writing evaluation system and teacher evaluation on 30 compositions. He finds that the pigai.org keeps lines with teacher evaluation, but higher in scores. Zhang Li et al. carries out a comparative study between the intelligent computer automated essay evaluation system and teacher evaluation on ten compositions with two sets of standard of evaluation about CET composition, which shows that both are highly correlated. In terms of the reliability of the "iwrite" system, Li Yanling and Tian Xiachun compared the grades of 645 essays between the "iwrite" system and teacher evaluation. The results manifest that "iwrite" system is so reliable that can be widely used in English teaching. The above research all carried out reliability analysis on the relevant system within a certain range, but the sample amount is not great enough and the types of compositions are not rich, therefore, the universality of the experimental results is not objective. All in all, the reliability analysis of domestic intelligent writing evaluation system under big data will be one of the focuses in the future.

B. Feedback Contents and Effect Research on Intelligent Computer Automated Essay Evaluation System

The research on feedback of pigai.org in China abounds, and the methodology on such topic concerns on quantitative research or qualitative research. Shi Xiaoling conducted an empirical study on the feedback and scores of pigai.org among 161 freshmen with questionnaires and interviews. Jiang Yan and Ma Wulin pointed out the challenges of pigai.org, for instance, it can only judge the writing ability from the language usage, and however, the semantic content cannot be judged. Hence, it cannot identify the errors in the writing content and expressions. He Xuliang concentrated on case study, in which he finds that pigai.org mainly focused on the appropriateness of vocabulary and grammar, but it lacks of the feedback on content, textual structure, rhetoric, logic and coherence. Hou Fen took 105 students from 3 English classes as research objects, and introduced pigai.org into English teaching. She conducted a 14-week teaching experiment and used questionnaires and case studies to explore the effectiveness of pigai.org in improving college students' English writing ability. Hu Xuewen took 45 non-English majors sophomores as the research object, examining the impact of online feedback towards college students. The data derived from the records of pigai.org, which was processed by SPSS 7.0. In summary, the domestic intelligent writing evaluation system pays much attention to the feedback of vocabulary, grammar and suggestion, lacking feedback on contents and coherence. Most students are

satisfied with the intelligent computer automated essay evaluation system, believing it's helpful to improving their writing ability.

C. Research on the Application of Intelligent Computer Automated Essay Evaluation System in English Writing Teaching in College

The domestic intelligent writing evaluation system pays much attention to the feedback of vocabulary, grammar and suggestion, lacking feedback on contents and coherence. Therefore, the college English self-writing teaching mode should emphasize the combination of intelligent writing evaluation system and teacher feedback as well as peer review. Zhang Wenxia and Huang Jing believe that information technology should be highly integrated with English teaching, and adopt a combination of intelligent automatic evaluation, assistant evaluation, teacher evaluation, peer evaluation and self-evaluation. Yang Xiaoqiong and Dai Yuncai took 135 students as research objects to conduct an empirical study on the college English self-writing teaching model based on pigai.org with questionnaires, interviews and experiments. On the basis of combing the concepts, elements and models of learning analysis, and the main analytical tools and methods, Gan Ronghui and He Caishun expounded the application of intelligent techniques in foreign language teaching, that is, pigai.org can promote personalized teaching by case study. They put forward the concept of combining intelligent system with foreign language teaching, analyzing the feasibility of the application of intelligent system in foreign language teaching.

IV. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Research Objective

The English writing course in higher vocational colleges is an important part of the English majors in vocational colleges. The English writing ability directly reflects the students' English comprehensive ability. Improving the writing ability of English majors in vocational colleges is an important task for teachers. The research subject of this paper is sophomores majoring in business English in Jiangxi College of Foreign Studies. This paper aims to explore the effectiveness of teacher evaluation plus intelligent computer automated essay evaluation system and the differences with traditional teacher evaluation. Finally, it tries to explore a new way for English writing teaching in higher vocational college, reforming the traditional teaching method.

B. The Situation of English Writing Ability of English Majors in Higher Vocational Colleges

There are numerous problems in English Writing Ability of English Majors in Higher Vocational Colleges, which will be illustrated below.

- (1) Seriously interfered with the mother language and frequently influenced by Chinglish.
- (2) Regarding vocabulary, it is either too simple or there is a tendency of abuse or misuse.
- (3) As for syntax, prepositions, conjunctions, articles, etc. are mixed together and grammatical errors abound.
- (4) The structure is inconsistent, the sentences and the segments full of incoherence, and the article is too difficult to understand.

C. Research Significance

(1) In recent years, the effectiveness of domestic English teaching has gotten attention from all walks of life. The problems in English writing teaching have gradually emerged. The development of writing ability has become the most difficult part of English teachers and learners in China, especially in recent years, the greatly expansion of colleges has brought a shortage of college English teachers to various universities, which makes the problem of improving English writing ability of college students more serious (Liu, 2003: 257-261). The results of this research will offer guiding suggestions to English majors in higher vocational college.

(2) The "University English Curriculum Teaching Requirements (Trial)" promulgated and implemented in January 2004 clearly stated that in the new era, "English teaching based on computer and network should be promoted". The advantage of artificial intelligence lies in its objective, high efficiency and high accuracy (Jin, 2017: 34-35). For example, the popularity of pigai.org is the best statement of artificial intelligence. Compared with teacher evaluation, the intelligent computer automated essay evaluation system is better in marking quickly, giving out specific feedback, pointing out plagiarism, highlighting the important clauses and phrases. This study attempts to study the intrinsic influence of the evaluation mode of the pigai.org on students' English writing, and how to improve students' English writing ability. It can provide relevant theoretical and research support for the effective usage of the intelligent computer automated essay evaluation system similar to the pigai.org.

D. Research Questions

- (1) What is the difference between teacher feedback plus intelligent computer automated essay evaluation system feedback and traditional teacher feedback on students' English writing?
- (2) What's the effectiveness of intelligent computer automated essay evaluation system plus teacher evaluation in improving English majors' writing ability in higher vocational colleges?

E. Research Subject

The research subject of this paper is sophomores majoring in business English in Jiangxi College of Foreign Studies. The number is 105, among them, the number of students in Business English Class 5 is 52, and the number of Class 8 is 53, the age ranging from 19-21 (see Table 4.5). The 18-week teacher feedback + intelligent feedback teaching method was conducted in the experimental class (Class 5), and the control class (Class 8) received 18 weeks of traditional teacher feedback.

They all major in business English and have the same teacher in writing course; last but not least, they never use pigai.org. Therefore, their objective conditions are basically the same. This paper conducted a writing test at the beginning of the semester to test that if the students in Class 5 and Class 8 are nearly the same in writing ability before the experiment. After five experiments, is there a significant difference between the experimental class and control class in the writing scores?

TABLE 4.5
THE DETAILS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

Subject	Class	Time	Grade	Number	Total
experimental class	5	18 week	sophomore	52	105
control class	8	18 week	sophomore	53	

F. Research Methodology and Tool

The research employs SPSS 16.0 system, and the research methodology used is descriptive statistics and independent sample T-test. For the experimental group, the students' English writing ability was comprehensively evaluated by pigai.org. Based on the comprehensive consideration of the students' English foundation, English learning attitude and learning methods, combined with the relevant data, students' English writing ability was confirmed. Therefore, the positive role of pigai.org plays in improving college students' English writing ability is explored.

In details, through the data comparison and analysis of the writing grades of the experimental class and the control class, we can better confirm the effectiveness and scope of the online English composition evaluation system, and then the advancement and intelligence of the intelligent computer automated essay evaluation system can be explored.

V. EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

A. An Analysis of Pre-test Exam

In the second half of 2018, I took over an integrated course for sophomores in class 5 and class 8. The total number of students is 105. At the beginning of the semester, I asked students to write a composition about the topic "Do you think it is necessary for college students to do a part-time job in summer vacation?" They should finish the writing within 40 minutes and the words of composition is about 120-180 words. This research marked the composition according to the CET-4 writing standards and did an independent sample T-test based on the student's writing scores to ensure that the writing ability of these two classes is nearly the same. Afterwards, the 18-week teacher feedback + intelligent feedback method was conducted in class 5, while the class 8 received an 18-week traditional teacher feedback method (see Table 5.1).

TABLE 5.1
THE INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS OF PRE-TEST EXAM IN CLASS 5 AND CLASS 8

T-Test

[DataSet 1]

Group Statistics

class	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
mark 1	52	74.52	5.889	.817
2	53	73.08	5.757	.791

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper	
mark	Equal variances assumed	.007	.932	1.270	103	.207	1.444	1.137	-0.810	3.698
	Equal variances not assumed			1.270	102.820	.207	1.444	1.137	-0.811	3.699

From table 5.1, we can see that sig. is 0.207 ($p > 0.05$), which shows that there is no difference between class 5 and class 8 in English writing, that is to say, the English writing ability of these two classes are almost the same. Therefore,

we can infer that if the grades between two classes are significantly different after 18-week experiment, we can confirm that different teaching methods and feedback can bring out different results.

B. Experimental Procedures

Firstly, I am familiar with and master the usage of the pigai.org, and this research will instruct students how to use the pigai.org and tell them the precautions of the network platform. Secondly, this experiment will ask the students to finish the first English composition on pigai.org within limited time, and then ask them to complete the online submission according to the relevant requirements. There are five units in the integrated course for business English majors within 18 weeks, which attach five topic-relevant compositions at the end of each unit. Thirdly, this research asks students to finish one argumentative essay, one expository composition and one essay with cartoon, which are similar to the requirements of CET-4. Finally, this experiment will list the writing outline before each task, and students are asked to take the expressions and phrases of each unit into consideration. The experiment takes about 18 weeks, and I will draw conclusions in the end.

Experimental class

The experimental class takes the pigai.org as the teaching tool, and the teaching procedures are shown below (see Chart 5.2.1): teacher gives out the writing task, and then students finish the writing and submit online, finally, students modifies the composition for many times and teacher evaluates their compositions as well as giving out some feedback.

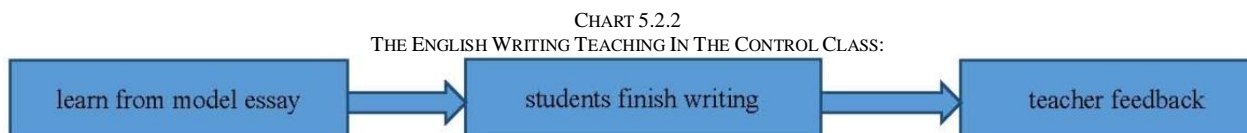
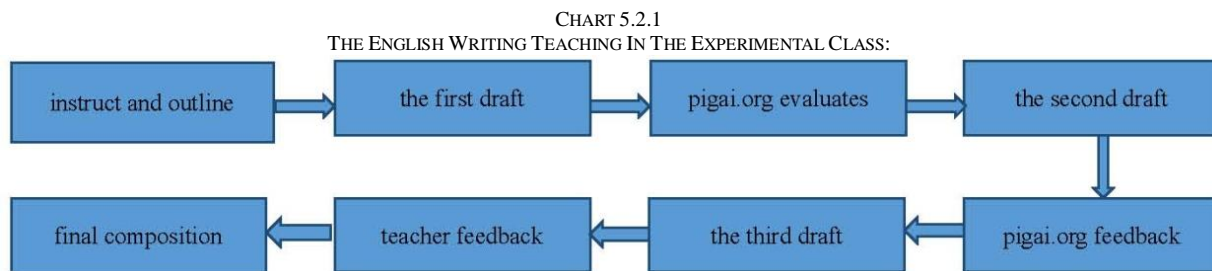
Control class

The control class takes the traditional English writing teaching method (see Chart 5.2.2): teacher assigns English writing task, and then students finish the writing and hand in, finally, teacher evaluate their compositions and gives comments in class.

Final exam:

The final exams of Jiangxi College of Foreign Studies are evaluated by all the teachers in the integrated course. The personal information of the students is hidden in the papers, ensuring the objectivity of the scores. The final part of this final exam is English writing whose the topic is “The importance of hand writing”.

At last, I will compare the writing scores between the pre-test and post-test exams, and the conclusion will be made.



C. Formulate Writing Evaluation Criteria

This research adopts the rating standard of CET-4 to evaluate the compositions in class 5 on pigai.org, so the same in class 8. In order to facilitate the division, this paper transfers the total score into 100 points, keeping in line with the total score of 15 points in CET, and so on. The following table is the evaluation standard of CET-4.

TABLE 5.3
THE EVALUATION STANDARD OF CET-4

score	evaluation standard
13-15	The expression is clear, the text is fluent and coherent, and there are basically no grammar errors. There are only a few small mistakes.
10-12	The expression is clear, the text is coherent, but there are some grammar errors.
7-9	The expression is not clear, and the text is not coherent; there are many errors, some are serious in particular.
4-6	The expression is confused, as well as lacking coherence; there are a lot of grammar errors.
1-3	The words are unclear, ideologically disordered; there are many fragments or most sentences are wrong, and some are serious errors.
0	No answer, or only a few isolated words; or the essays are irrelevant to the subject.

The figure below shows the evaluation of the experimental class by the pigai.org.



VI. RESEARCH RESULT AND DISCUSSION

This paper employs SPSS 16.0 system as the analytical tool, and the results of independent sample T-test is shown below (see table 6.1)

TABLE 6.1
COMPARISON OF POST-TEST SCORES BETWEEN STUDENTS IN EXPERIMENTAL CLASS AND CONTROL CLASS

T-Test

[DataSet 1]

Group Statistics

class	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
mark 1	52	78.63	3.763	.522
mark 2	53	76.49	4.313	.592

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
mark	Equal variances assumed	.755	.387	2.712	103	.008	2.144	.790	.576	3.712
	Equal variances not assumed			2.716	101.619	.008	2.144	.789	.578	3.710

From table 6.1, we can see that sig. is 0.008 ($p < 0.05$), which shows that there is significantly difference between class 5 and class 8 in English writing, that is to say, the English writing ability of class 5 is improved a lot after 18-week experiment, which proves that teacher feedback plus intelligent feedback overwhelms the traditional teacher feedback in English writing teaching.

VII. CONCLUSION

The traditional English composition evaluation method is a teacher feedback method, which has little effect on improving the students' English composition. The student's role is passive in such teaching method. The motivation to modify the composition is not great, and their willingness to self-learning is not strong. As a kind of auxiliary teaching tool, pigai.org avoids the shortages and defects of traditional teacher feedback, helping students in higher vocational college improve their English writing ability more effectively, efficiently and accurately.

The design of this research mainly employs the independent sample t-test, after 18 weeks of writing feedback, analyzing the differences between the English writing ability of the experimental class and the control class from the pre-test and post-test scores of the experiment, thus confirming the effectiveness of teacher feedback + intelligence feedback. The purpose of this experiment is to change the role of students in writing, so that students can independently

modify their compositions repeatedly, improving students' enthusiasm for writing and modifying their compositions, and try to offer a new teaching method for the existing writing evaluation method for English writing teaching in higher vocational colleges.

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Proposing a Flowchart to Detect English Functional Equivalents for Persian Lexis: A Practical Approach

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Abstract—To translator trainers, teaching translation from trainees' native to their foreign or second language is far more demanding than the other way round especially when it comes to detecting functional equivalence for the lexis of the source language. On the other hand, reaching a formulaic roadmap to English functional equivalence for Persian lexis would contribute to machine translation technology inasmuch as it can form the backbone of Persian-to-English digital applications and software. The present study aims at detecting a schematic approach to assist Persian-to-English translation trainees as well as translation software developers in detecting functional equivalents for Persian lexis. To this end, based upon the information gathered through observing an authentic translation process by a professional translator and following an interview with him in order to elucidate unclear points, a short, clear and to-the-point algorithm flowchart made up of two terminals, four decision diamonds and three process boxes was devised. Moreover, different sources such as dictionaries, thesauri, lexicons, and so forth used by the translator in question during the process of translation were introduced, along with a discussion of where, when and how they ought to be used.

Index Terms—flowchart, functional equivalent, Persian lexis, professional translator, translation software, translation training

I. INTRODUCTION

Translation has long been considered a linguistic activity (Way, 2016). Through the process of translation, detecting lexical dynamic equivalence is so delicate a task that demands much tactfulness in visiting minor differences in the sense of lexical items, both in terms of linguistics and pragmatics. However, the challenge would be even more serious if translation is to be made from translators' mother language to their foreign or second language as, apart from linguistic and pragmatic propriety, naturalness of the translation product would gain salience. Also how to translate the localism into authentic English has become a focus of public attention and aroused a heated discussion in the translation circle (Yang-Yan, 2016). Accordingly, there seems to be a roadmap needed for not only Iranian translator trainees, but also computer programmers to yield user-friendly, clear and to-the-point algorithms which would lead to English lexical dynamic equivalents for Persian terms. Such algorithm, besides acquainting translator trainees with a real-world example of how professional translators tackle the problems related to finding foreign language functional equivalents vis-a-vis their mother-tongue lexis, would constitute the backbone of computer-assisted translation software; thus, paving the way for both pedagogical and technological objectives. Besides Translators' individual traits are responsible for their different behavior and hence their success or failure in the translation process. It means translators' traits (i.e., their personality enduring characteristics) affect their decision making process, which leads to dissimilar performances of different translators and, above all, their success or failure in different translation situations, such as translation of various texts (Shaki-Khoshsaligheh, 2017).

A. *Equivalence and Equivalence Effect*

It would be possible to trace the roots and origins of the paradigm of "equivalence" back to the times of ancient Greece, the Roman Empire and figures such as Cicero, but going through all stages and epochs of history in which the principles of "equivalence" had appeared in some form or another, would go beyond (Lottes, 2018). Playing crucial roles in the process of translation, *equivalence* and *equivalent effect* constitute fundamental concepts in translation studies. While in *formal equivalence* the focus of attention is upon the form and the content of the message, *dynamic (functional) equivalence* is based on the principle of *equivalent effect*, that is, when the substantial relation between the translation and its readers is basically the same as the relation between the original work and its receptors in the source language (Nida, 1964). Meanwhile, it is assumed that the knowledge and ability in equivalents are indicatives of translators' competence in translation (Koller, 1979). Koller also differentiated five types of equivalent relations: denotative, connotative, text-normative, pragmatic and formal equivalence (Koller, 1979). From among Koller's five

types of equivalence, pragmatic equivalence is similar to Nida's dynamic equivalence (Munday, 2013). Hence, what Nida (1964) called dynamic or functional, and Koller (1979) named pragmatic equivalence should be the minimum criteria to be met by translators in order to make their translation communicatively acceptable.

B. Linguistic Competence and Performance

In generative transformational grammar, linguistic competence refers to the whole knowledge that a person has acquired or learned from the grammar of a given language. It also includes their ability to comprehend and produce sentences of the language which they have never heard before (Chomsky, 1957). Nowadays linguistic competence is one of the most demanded. It guarantees technical university graduates the possibility of global employment, on the one hand, and the chance of getting cutting edge education in leading training centers of the world, on the other hand (Chistyakova *et al* 2017). On the other hand, linguistic performance refers to the actual application of language in their speech or writing (Chomsky, 1957). However, one's linguistic performance could not always be a true milestone to determine the extent of their competence, because the latter might have been affected by physiological or psychological intrusions such as the context of the utterance, fatigue or the emotional status of the utterer (Fromkin *et al* 2018). Since the realm of the native language competence of an individual is naturally more extended than that of their second language, the Iranian translation trainees, while translating from Persian to English, need to be far more tactful in choosing target language lexical items than the time when they translate the other way around. To put it another way, Iranian students translating from English to Persian can enjoy the fairly trustable gauge of their mother tongue linguistic competence whereas such instrument is not normally at hand when they translate from Persian to English. That should prove the necessity of a road map to guide them on the path to reach lexical dynamic equivalence through English language. Therefore we can say that no progress can be facilitated without translation. Considering the importance of translation in our daily life, and the role of conveying meaning in this regard, it has received scant attention from teachers and learners (Khavari-Ahmadian, 2018).

C. Lexical Adjustment

Mollanazar (2008) regarded lexical adjustment as *change of form*. He classified lexical adjustment into two categories of *redistribution of semantic components* and *change in part of speech* before subcategorizing the first category into "analytical" and "synthetic" processes (Mollanazar, 2008). He considered a process through which a single word in the source language expands to make up a phrase or clause in the target language as "analytical", and the process of reduction of several components in the source language into one item in the target language as a "synthetic" process of redistribution of syntactic components (Mollanazar, 2008). He also considered *change in part of speech* as the second approach to lexical adjustment (Mollanazar, 2008). However, while assuming the process of change in part of speech as "transposition", Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) considered it as a structural change in the process of translation. The fact that lexical adjustment is more or less intertwined with structural adjustment doubles the necessity of a strategy to apply with much tact in choosing lexical equivalents on part of the translator during the process of translation. Beside lexical adjustment there should be also grammatical adjustment which is a kind of changing form. It is the process of adjusting grammatical pattern from source language into target language (Afifah *et al* 2018).

D. Word Formation Processes

It is believed that vocabulary knowledge had a significant relationship with translation performance. However, this relationship could not contribute significantly to the translation performance (Kafipour- Jahansooz, 2017). When it comes to lexical equivalence, a number of processes are used by linguists to describe how different words are formed. Coinage (invention), compounding, blending, clipping (truncation), backformation, conversion, acronyms, derivation, echoism (symbolism), onomatopoeia, folk etymology and reduplication are among word-formation processes assumed by linguists to account for the advent of words into languages (Yule, 2016). Multiple processing could also be applied to form neologisms. Hence, a student seeking to come up with lexical functional equivalence has to choose among different ways to employ the right diction that is the very fact which makes their task even more challenging.

E. Delicacies in the Sense of Words

There is no clear-cut meaning associated with words, but rather there are several layers of meaning communicated even though a term is uttered within the same context. Thus far, several ways have been proposed by linguists to categorize meaning. Leech (1980) classified meaning as: *conceptual, connotative, stylistic, affective, reflected, collocational and topical*. Leech (1980) clarified that conceptual meaning is organized mainly through *distinctive features*. For example, the words *woman* and *boy* are comparable through features: HUMAN, MALE and ADULT:

Woman = + HUMAN, - MALE, + ADULT

Boy = + HUMAN, + MALE, -ADULT

Leech's conceptual meaning is more or less corresponding to the referential meaning proposed by Halliday (1961) should the syntagmatic and paradigmatic axes of De Saussure (1916) be applied to it (Lotfipour-Saedi, 2001). He further maintained that connotative meaning, rather than referring to the mere denotative content of a term, refers to the communicative value of that. He clarified that besides indicating the physical features (+ HUMAN, - MALE, + ADULT), the term "woman" connotes tenderness, making a good cook, wearing dress, and so forth. Lotfipour-Saedi

(2001) elaborated that the degree of formality of the context determines the stylistic meaning of a word. For example, *steed*, *horse*, *nag* and *gee-gee* enjoy the stylistic features of very poetic, neutral, colloquial and childish respectively. According to Lotfipour-Saedi (2001), should the range of linguistic context be further extended, the affections of the utterer will be reflected in the affective meaning.

One of the different conceptual meanings of a word might assume dominance owing to its more familiarity, frequency of use, or capability of mental association on part of the receiver of the utterance. Information that involves prior knowledge is more easily remembered than completely new information and People benefit from integration of the newly acquired information with pre-existing knowledge within the relevant area (Ning X et al., 2018). Lotfipour-Saedi (2001) exemplified *the Comforter* and *the Holy Ghost* as referring to the same concept, whereas the former inspires a desirably sweet effect, but the latter a feeling of terror. He explained that the collocated meaning of a term is determined by its neighboring words or phrases as far as that adjacency would sound natural (Lotfipour-Saedi, 2001). The attributive adjectives *pretty* and *handsome*, while sharing the same conceptual meaning of good-looking, precede different nouns inasmuch as the former collocates with female human beings and the latter with male ones.

As for translation trainees, it seems essential that, while deciding to choose the closest lexical equivalent for a given term, they see into different layers of meaning to spot semantic delicacies which could be achieved through checking different sources and references.

In order to fulfill the above-mentioned aspects of necessity for a clear-cut, strict and user-friendly roadmap to English functional equivalents for Persian lexes available to translator trainees and translation software developers, the present study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. As a professional translator, what process does Mokhtari Ardekani (2018) practically undergo to come up with English functional equivalents for Persian lexes?
2. Based upon the practical process undergone by Mokhtari Ardekani (2018), what schematic model may Iranian translation trainees or equivalent software developers adopt to come up with English lexical equivalence for Persian Lexis?

II. METHODS

The present study employs both *descriptive* and *prescriptive* approaches to research inasmuch as the descriptive part as Williams and Chesterman (2014) asserted deals with “workplace studies” as a subcategory of studies on “translation process”. Williams and Chesterman (2014) further explained that such an approach is to observe a given translator or translators during a defined period in their everyday work, perhaps prior to interviews. Based on this view and upon securing his consent, Mokhtari Ardekani was chosen as the professional translator to be observed during translating *Shazde-Ehtejab*, a work by the Iranian novelist Golshiri (2000) because the novel abounds in culture-specific terms which needs meticulous tact in detecting functional equivalents thereof. The aforementioned translator was chosen to observe due to the fact that apart from being available to the researcher, Mokhtari Ardekani is an experienced university professor, a lexicographer, and an author of 25 books, among which are books on both theories and practice of translation.

The methodology of the descriptive part of the survey is consisted of two parts. During the first part, Mokhtari Ardekani was observed for his translation procedures to be meticulously spotted and jotted down while no interruption was made on part of the researcher in order to keep the everyday natural atmosphere intact so that the translator would feel as if nobody were around to avoid any effects on either the process or the product of translation.

In the second phase, after the process of translation was completed, the translator was inquired for justifications for each of his decisions, so that the very reasons behind the measures taken by him during the process of translation could be elucidated.

Meanwhile, the methodology of the present research is not confined to a descriptive approach, as it also enjoys a prescriptive nature. According to Wollman (2018), a prescriptive or normative study is an applied rather than a theoretical approach trying to come up with an assertion, a solution or a proposal to address a known problem space. With the prescriptive side of the present study, the points acquired during the observation of Mokhtari Ardekani’s authentic translation process were applied to the standard format of algorithm flowchart developing system to form different action symbols such as flow lines, terminals, processes, decisions, and so forth which are used in computer science to provide a schematic view of a given procedure.

Such an approach besides making a user-friendly roadmap for translator trainees, could be adopted to form the backbone of digital translation applications and software which are to be used as computer aided translation (CAT) tools.

Williams and Chesterman (2014) in defining *translation with commentary* as an area in translation research asserted that this commentary (or annotated translation), which is a form of introspective and retrospective research, will include some discussion of the translation assignment, an analysis of the aspects of the source text, and a reasoned justification of the kinds of solutions you arrived at for particular kinds of translation problem. The very recently mentioned function of annotated translation proposed by Williams and Chesterman (2014) strongly supports the idea that prescriptive methods are appropriate to be applied to translation studies. Besides *the prescriptive approach to annotated translation*,

observing and post-observing supplementary interviews with a professional translator constitute the double-faceted theoretical framework of the present study.

III. RESULTS

Once translators find themselves wary of missing the equivalent of a Persian word or term in their mental corpora, an uphill struggle would start on their part to detect one which, apart from collocating with the co-text and context involved, could meet the pragmatic, psychological, sociological, cultural and mythological requirements of the text in order to contribute to the dynamism, functionality and naturalness of translation.

The aim of the present study is to identify a process flowchart that would start with the translators' awareness about the absence of an English functional equivalent of a term in Persian source text, and will end in such an equivalent at hand. To this end, upon monitoring a competent translator during his authentic process of translation, the standard format of flowchart development employed in computer sciences was applied to come up with different symbols such as flow lines, terminals, processes, decisions, and so forth; hence, as the usual format for all algorithms, the flowchart begins with a start terminal as in *Figure 1*:



Figure 1: Start Terminal.

At the outset of the descriptive part of the study, Mokhtari Ardekani was observed trying to come up with functional equivalents for Persian lexes. Meanwhile, he was noted in contemplating as he came across with every Persian terms requiring English functional equivalents for translation. However, the profundity and length of contemplation varied with different cases. As mentioned in the methodology section above, the reason for such behavior of the translator was not to be enquired on the spot in order to keep the translation atmosphere as intact and natural as possible. Yet, through the post-translation interview, when asked for the reason(s) behind the given behavior, the translator answered that he was searching his mind for an English equivalent for the Persian word in question (Author, 2018). Thus, the process practically starts with Decision Diamond 1 (See *Figure 2*).

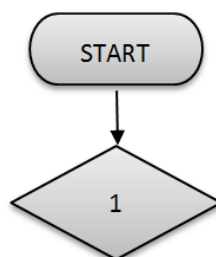


Figure 2: Decision Diamond 1 reads: "Does any tentative English equivalent exist in the translator's mind?"

The three basic requirements for a person to be a translator are: proficiency in both source and target text and familiarity with the subject of the text to be translated. Therefore, a person who wishes to start translation task must make sure that, at the time of deciding to communicate either a concrete or an abstract concept, they can recall at least one term as its signifier. Mokhtari Ardekani further explained that a number of mind training exercises such as doing crossword puzzles can contribute to the formation of behavioral abilities of translator trainees to enable them to improvise English formal equivalents on the spot (Author, 2018).

The answer to Decision Diamond 1 which asks the translator whether any tentative English equivalent exists in their mind is logically either "yes" or "no" (See *Figure 3*).

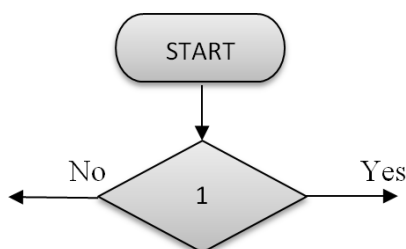


Figure 3: Decision Diamond 1 reads: "Does any tentative English equivalent exist in the translator's mind?"

Provided that the answer be positive, the flowchart would go on through the right-side flow-line to Decision Diamond 2. (See *Figure 4*).

The next behavior of Mokhtari Ardekani after his intellectual strife to detect a tentative English equivalent was the frequent checking of mono-lingual dictionaries. During the post-translation interview, when asked for the reason of such behavior, Mokhtari Ardekani acknowledged that he wanted to ascertain that the term he had subjectively detected was the appropriate one (Author, 2018).

He further commented that even if a corresponding term is triggered as soon as the translator comes across with the source language word, they could never take it for granted since the term has yet to undergo different test plants and be examined against different touchstones (Author, 2018).

Accordingly, the first stage to be taken by the translator is checking the given term in a valid monolingual (in this case an English-to-English) dictionary.

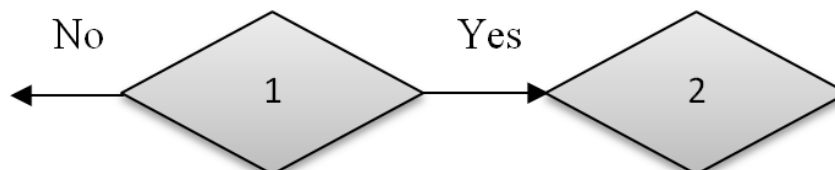


Figure 4: Decision Diamond 1 reads: "Does any tentative English equivalent exist in the translator's mind?"
Decision Diamond 2 reads: "According to monolingual dictionaries, is your choice semantically the right one?"

In fairly rare cases, the observed translator was detected referring to Persian-English dictionaries. When asked for the reason behind this very behavior, Mokhtari Ardekani asserted that he could think of no proper equivalents for the given term (Author, 2018).

Putting Mokhtari Ardekani's remarks in flowchart terms, however, if no English equivalent flashes in the mind of the translator spontaneously or after some interval of contemplating, the answer to Decision Diamond 1 would be "No". In this case the next step through the algorithm would be Process Box 1 (See *Figure 5*).

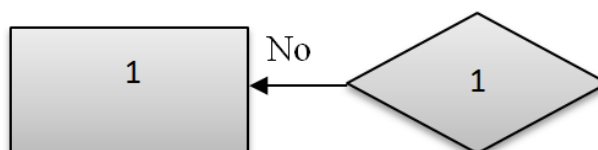


Figure 5: Decision Diamond 1 reads: "Does any tentative English equivalent exist in the translator's mind?"
Process Box 1 reads: "Choose your tentative English equivalent from a good Persian-to-English dictionary."

Through his post-translation interview, Mokhtari Ardekani further explained that after consulting trustworthy Persian-to-English dictionaries and picking up the lexical item which is deemed to be the most suitable, it should be double-checked through a monolingual dictionary (Author, 2018).

Accordingly, the flowchart will continue to look as *Figure 6*.

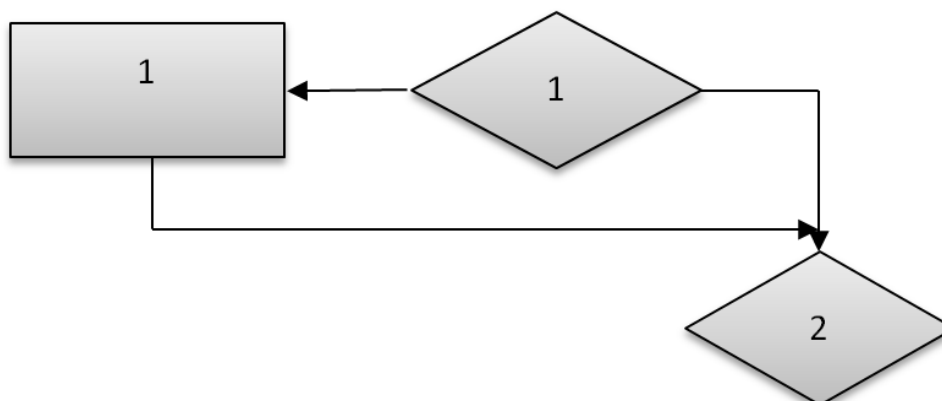


Figure 6: Decision Diamond 1 reads: "Does any tentative English equivalent exist in the translator's mind?"
Decision Diamond 2 reads: "According to monolingual dictionaries, is your choice semantically the right one?"
Process Box 1 reads: "Choose your tentative English equivalent from a good Persian-to-English dictionary."

Through the next step, Mokhtari Ardekani was monitored referring to the *Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English*. After the translation, when asked for the reason, he maintained that when the translator has established that the chosen lexical equivalent is verified by a trustable monolingual dictionary, the next step is to decide its appropriateness as far as pragmatics, psychology, sociology, culture, mythology, and so forth are concerned. Mokhtari Ardekani

contended that the most upright way in doing so is to refer to sources and references such as *Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English* (Author, 2018).

McArthur and McArthur (1981) stipulated that the *Lexicon* provides the translator with the sense of words through fourteen “semantic fields” of a pragmatic and everyday nature. They further maintained that such references, in addition to telling apart the subtle differences among the meanings of the words, which seem to be synonymous at the first glance, elucidate the pragmatic delicacies of each term through providing perspicuous examples typed in italics as well as pictorial illustrations and figures in order to add to the intelligibility of exemplifications (McArthur & McArthur, 1981). Hence, upon referring to the *Lexicon*, the translator would be able to determine the most suitable choice not only in terms of linguistics, but also pragmatics, psychology, sociology, culture, mythology, and so forth; thus, further approaching a more dynamic and functional equivalent.

Accordingly, the proposed flowchart will continue from Decision Diamond 2 to Decision Diamond 3 (See *Figure 7*).

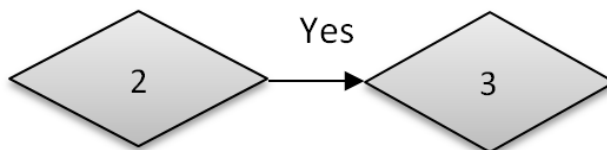


Figure 7: Decision Diamond 2 reads: “According to monolingual dictionaries, is your choice semantically the right one?”. Decision Diamond 3 reads: “Does the Lexicon verify your choice in terms of pragmatics, psychology, sociology, culture, mythology, etc.?”

Upon using the *Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English*, Mokhtari Ardekani was observed checking reference books known as *thesauri*. Mokhtari Ardekani later justified his doing so by stipulating that if according to monolingual dictionaries, the term chosen to fill the gap of the right lexical functional equivalent is not the proper one, the translator must refer to a *thesaurus* (Author, 2018).

Thesauri (the plural form of thesaurus) are references which provide terms with a list of synonyms and antonyms. Through the interview, Mokhtari Ardekani suggested that translators, through using thesaurus, choose a synonym for the word refuted through checking the Lexicon (Author, 2018).

With respect to Mokhtari Ardekani’s suggestion, the no-flow line of Decision Diamond 2 would lead to the Process Box 2 (Figure 8).

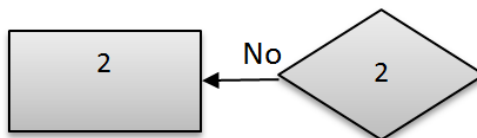


Figure 8: Decision Diamond 2 reads: “According to monolingual dictionaries, is your choice semantically the right one?”. Process Box 2 reads: “Choose a synonym in a dictionary of synonyms and antonyms (Thesaurus).”

The translator trainee must use the refuted word by Decision Diamond 2 as an entry to check the thesaurus. Upon deciding over a synonym derived from using the refuted word applied to Decision Diamond 2 as the entry of the *thesaurus*, the flowchart will loop to the same to check whether the new term is the right semantic equivalent in accordance with monolingual dictionaries (See *Figure 9*).

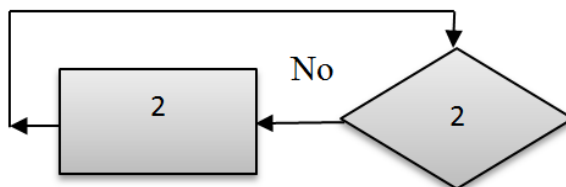


Figure 9: Decision Diamond 2 reads: “According to monolingual dictionaries, is your choice semantically the right one?”. Process Box 2 reads: “Choose a synonym in a dictionary of synonyms and antonyms (Thesaurus).”

Provided that Decision Diamond 3 which checks references like *Lexicon* verifies the choice as the right functional equivalent in terms of pragmatics, sociology, culture, mythology and so forth, the next step would be checking for *collocation*. In this respect, Mokhtari Ardekani used dictionaries of collocation. According to McIntosh, Francis, and Poole (2009), “Collocation is the way words combine in a language to produce natural sounding speech and writing”. They clarified that although both *strong* and *heavy*, for example, are adjectives to intensify nouns, *strong wind* and *heavy rain* constitute more natural (native-like) compounds than when they modify *rain* and *wind* respectively

(McIntosh *et al* 2009). Mokhtari Ardekani asserted that translator trainees can consult a number of dictionaries such as *Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English* to come up with natural-sounding combinations, namely collocations (Author, 2018).

Hence, the flowchart would go on to Decision Diamond 4. (See *Figure 10*)

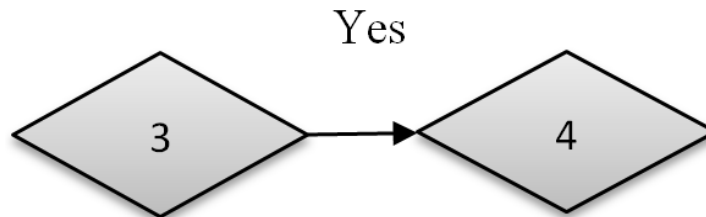


Figure 10: Decision Diamond 3 reads: “Does the Lexicon verify your choice in terms of pragmatics, psychology, sociology, culture, mythology, etc.?”.

Decision Diamond 4 reads: “According to dictionaries of collocation, does your choice collocate with neighboring terms?”.

Still, it was seen in some cases that upon referring to the Lexicon, the translator in question would return to the Thesaurus. Mokhtari Ardekani later accounted for such an attitude by asserting that he had learned through the Lexicon that his provisional term was not the right one in terms of psychology, sociology, culture, mythology, and so forth (Author, 2018). That was the reason why, for the second time, he referred to the Lexicon to choose a synonym from the list provided therein.

Translating Mokhtari Ardekani’s behavior to flowchart algorithm language, the process flowchart would return to Process Box 2 in case the answer to Decision Diamond 3 is negative. Accordingly, the algorithm will continue to look like *Figure:11*.

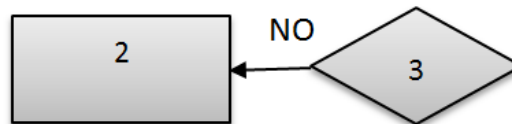


Figure 11: Decision Diamond 3 reads: “Does the Lexicon verify your choice in terms of pragmatics, psychology, sociology, culture, mythology, etc.?”.

Process Box 2 reads: “Choose a synonym in a dictionary of synonyms and antonyms (Thesaurus).”

Provided that the tentative term to be used as the lexical functional equivalent was approved by the *Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English* to collocate with its neighboring words, Mokhtari Ardekani made his mind to use it as his final choice (Author, 2018). Hence, should the term collocate with its co-texts, the translator is allowed to use it in their translation product which would be the last process box in the algorithm; thus, reaching the *END* terminal (See *Figure 12*).

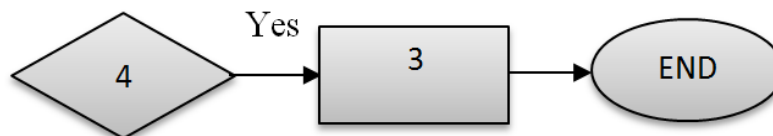


Figure 12: Decision Diamond 4 reads: “According to dictionaries of collocation, does your choice collocate with neighboring terms?”.

Process Box 3 reads: “Use the term.”

However, it was seen occasionally that, after checking the collocation of a word, Mokhtari Ardekani would return to the thesaurus. In his post-translation interview, Mokhtari Ardekani emphasized that if the given word does not collocate with the co-texts, the translator had better modify the neighboring words to collocate with the given term instead (Author, 2018). Should it be impossible to do so, the final resort will be referring to the *Thesaurus* once more to choose another synonym (Author, 2018).

Thereupon, in such case, there will be a further loop from Decision Diamond 4 to Process Box 2 through which the translator must consult the *Thesaurus* to reconsider a synonym which would go through Decision Diamonds 1, 2 and 3 (See *Figure 13*).

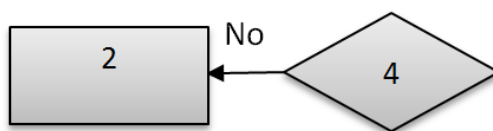


Figure 13: Decision Diamond 4 reads: "According to dictionaries of collocation, does your choice collocate with neighboring terms?".
Process Box 2 reads: "Choose a synonym in a dictionary of synonyms and antonyms (Thesaurus)."

DISCUSSION AND LIMITATIONS

Meticulous inspection of Mokhtari Ardekani's translation process as well as the post-translation interview with him paved the way for would-be-translators who wish to be provided with a strict, clear and to-the-point path, toward coming up with English functional equivalents for Persian non-technical lexes. The devised algorithm flowchart could also form the backbone of CAT (Computer Assisted Translation) tools, applications and software which are intended for the same purpose.

Moreover, 13 distinct figures, each indicating one single stage of the whole process, were introduced. Still, to achieve the goal stated in the research question 2, an integrated whole of the process is required. Thus the integration of the thirteen formerly discussed algorithm commands is manifested through *Figure 14*:

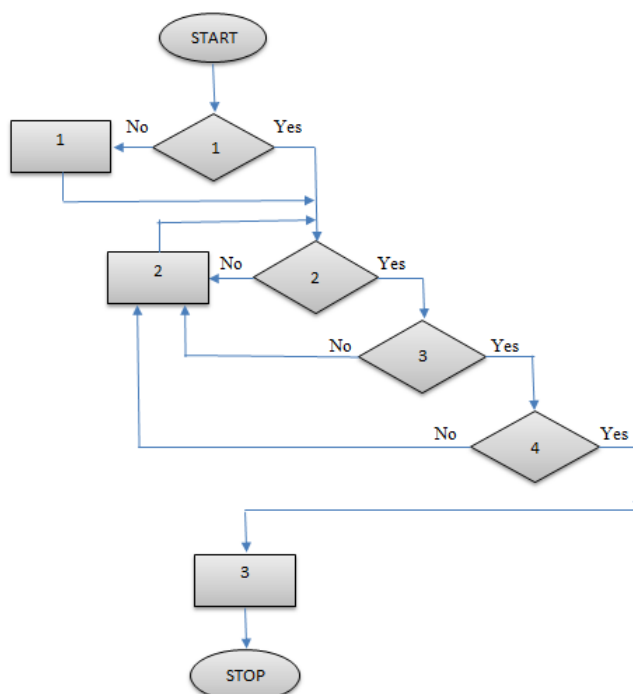


Figure 14: Decision Diamond 1 reads: "Does any tentative English equivalent exist in the translator's mind?".
Decision Diamond 2 reads: "According to monolingual dictionaries, is your choice semantically the right one?".
Decision Diamond 3 reads: "Does the Lexicon verify your choice in terms of pragmatics, psychology, sociology, culture, mythology, etc.?".
Decision Diamond 4 reads: "According to dictionaries of collocation, does your choice collocate with neighboring terms?".
Process Box 1 reads: "Choose your tentative English equivalent from a good Persian-to-English dictionary."
Process Box 2 reads: "Choose a synonym in a dictionary of synonyms and antonyms (Thesaurus)."
Process Box 3 reads: "Use the term."

Applying the whole procedures practiced by Mokhtari Ardekani during detecting English functional equivalents for Persian lexes to algorithm flowchart developing system, it was concluded that such a process starts with Decision Diamond 1. Should the translator assume any terms as the equivalent, the answer would be positive and they have to go on to Decision Diamond 2. However, in case there exists no equivalents in the translator's intuition to be tentatively chosen, the answer to Decision Diamond 1 will be negative. In this case, the next step will be going on to Process Box 1 which is referring to Persian-to-English dictionaries. To Mokhtari Ardekani and many other scholars and professional translators, although there are presently many newly-published copies of Persian-to-English dictionaries available in the market, Haim (1993) should prove to be the best despite the fact that it was first published more than half a century ago (Author, 2018). Mokhtari Ardekani elaborated that *Kimia Persian-English Dictionary* by Emami (2006) is the next reliable source to be used by translator trainees at this stage. Yet, the latter is not so comprehensive as the former one is (Author, 2018).

Once the translator has undergone Process Box 1, the next step would be the same as if there were an equivalent in their mind; thus, according to Decision Diamond 2, they should check the same through a valid monolingual dictionary to make sure that their choice is semantically right.

This way, they can ascertain that the equivalent in question, besides bearing the intended meaning, has not been inspired into the translator's mind owing to linguistic flaw or spoonerism. The more proficient the translator within the target language, the more capable they could be in filling lexical gaps they encounter during translation process. According to Mokhtari Ardekani, however, translators ought not to rely solely on the equivalent which they deem as proper, but they have to double-check their linguistic competence by looking the term up in a valid monolingual dictionary (Author, 2018).

Furthermore, Mokhtari Ardekani warned that looking up the mere definition of the word would not suffice. Rather, the translator might as well check the examples provided after each definition, the part(s) of speech, the usage label(s), and even the right spelling(s) provided by English monolingual dictionaries (Author, 2018). In addition, while checking the part of speech, the translators are recommended not to restrict themselves to the main items such as verb, noun, adjective or adverb, but also look for more specific categories, that is to see whether the given noun is countable or uncountable, the adjective involved is predicative or attributive, or the verb in question is a regular or an irregular one (Author, 2018). Seeing into the verb patterns will also add to the naturalness of the translated text. More importantly, translators must check the usage label of the word they intend to use (Author, 2018). Mokhtari Ardekani further reminded translators that the usage label of a word sheds light on the style or the register of the context which should embed the word (Author, 2018). According to Yorkey (1970), the style of a term determines the degree of its formality which should accord with the context in which it appears. A usage label indicating formal, informal, colloquial, slang, obscene or taboo would reveal the style of the term (Yorkey, 1970). Wardhaugh (2011) defined registers as sets of vocabulary items associated with different occupational or social groups. Yorkey (1970) exemplified surgeons, airline pilots, bank managers, sales clerks, jazz fans who use different vocabularies. Yorkey (1970) recommended using dictionaries that have been recently published or revised, by dissuading using dictionaries which are more than ten or at most fifteen years old. He warned about using pocket-sized dictionaries since they are abridgments of abridgments and copied without changes from older dictionaries (Yorkey, 1970). Mokhtari Ardekani contended that both paper and digital dictionaries released by Oxford, Longman, Webster's, Collins, Random House and American Heritage publications can be advised to the students at the first stage of coming up with lexical functional equivalence (Author, 2018).

The next step in passing through the algorithm starts with the positive answer to Decision Diamond 2. Should it be the case, the algorithm will undergo Decision Diamond 3. Yet, as long as reliable monolingual dictionaries do not approve the tentative equivalent which had formerly been chosen either by the translator or by a Persian-to-English dictionary, the algorithm would reach Process Box 2 which commands checking the term in question through *thesauri*. According to Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (1994), thesauri are of two types: Roget-type and synonym-type. They maintained that while Roget-like thesauri are arranged according to theme, the headwords of the synonym-type thesauri are arranged in alphabetical order (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 1994). Mokhtari Ardekani asserted that upon deciding over a synonym in thesaurus, the chosen word must be checked against the standards of semantics through an English monolingual dictionary (Author, 2018). Accordingly, in flowchart terms, there would be a loop to Decision Diamond 2.

Through the next step, if the answer to Decision Diamond 3 is positive, that is the delicacies of meaning among synonymous words are discovered and the closest equivalent to the source language term is determined, the algorithm would reach Decision Diamond 4 which serves to the naturalness of speech by checking the given term through dictionaries of collocation. Still, provided that the answer to Decision Diamond 3 is not positive, and since the *Lexicon* would not approve the given term pragmatically, the second loop in the flowchart will start with Decision Diamond 3 and end in Process Box 2, which implies that a synonym must be chosen from the thesaurus.

According to Mokhtari Ardekani, the last step in the process of detecting functional equivalent for Persian lexis is to check the term verified by the *Lexicon* through a reliable dictionary of collocations (Author, 2018), that is Decision Diamond 4. In case the answer to the recent question is negative, the translation product will lack naturalness and sound awkward which in turn would diminish the stylistic elegance thereof. Should it be the case, the algorithm flowchart will face the second loop to Process Box 2 through which the thesaurus should help the translator to decide over another synonym to the word failing to collocate with co-texts. On the other hand, provided that the term collocates with neighboring words, the answer to Decision Diamond 4 will be positive, and according to the Process Box 4, the translator can apply the term in their translation product; thus, ending the algorithm flowchart.

IV. CONCLUSION

Translation is not a simple technical, but a socio-cultural, subjective and ideological process. In contrast to the translation turn in other disciplines, however, most qualitative and critical accounting research neglects translation as a methodological and epistemological (Evans, 2018). The results of the present study as well as the analysis provided through the discussion section would yield the answers to the research questions. As for research question 1 which inquires about the process which Mokhtari Ardekani (2018) practically undergoes as a professional translator to come up with English functional equivalents for Persian lexis, the study reveals that Mokhtari Ardekani

(2018) makes use of a number of different sources and references such as monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, thesauri, dictionaries of collocations, and the Lexicon not haphazardly, but in a quite hierarchically rational order. On the other hand, the answer to the second research question which deals with the make-up of the schematic model to be adopted by Iranian translation trainees or equivalent software developers was the process model derived from the systematic study of Mokhtari Ardekani (2018) during his genuine process of detecting English functional equivalents for Persian lexes. Such a flowchart model was proven to consist of four decision diamonds, three process boxes and two terminals which are interrelated through twelve flow lines.

In brief, it is concluded that for the first part, the observed professional translator uses many source references in a quite rational order. Secondly, his procedure can be translated into a brief, clear and to-the-point algorithm flowchart to be adopted by both translator trainees and translation software developers.

Conducting research through observing professional translators while performing their routine task would yield invaluable facts from ups and downs of a genuine translation process. Upon doing so and through a didactic approach toward their study, researchers would find themselves as media between professional translators and the translator trainees who wish to acquire the knacks of translation not only theoretically, but also according to what a skillful and experienced translator practices in real life.

Further research can be conducted on proposing flowcharts which would come up with functional equivalents for technical terms (jargons), although the process seems not to be so demanding as it is for detecting functional equivalents for non-technical lexes. Moreover, developing algorithm flowcharts for detecting functional equivalents for grammatical units is much worthy of investigation since, once put into practice, it can reduce the syntactic flaw often abundantly spotted through the final products of Persian-to-English digital translation software and applications.

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Research on Intelligent Learning APP in Junior English Vocabulary Teaching

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Abstract—Vocabulary, as one of the most difficult problems for students and teachers, is also one of the most important elements in traditional teaching. This thesis is based on the problems existing in traditional vocabulary teaching and under the guidance of the mobile learning theory, the constructivism theory and the humanism theory. This thesis researches the application of intelligent Learning APP in Junior English vocabulary teaching. The research shows that the application of intelligent Learning APP, as one of the products of modern science and technology, is applied in Junior English vocabulary teaching. It effectively combines after-class teaching with in-class teaching, pays attention to students' individuality, improves teachers' teaching quality and reduces teaching pressure. The application of intelligent Learning APP has made up for the shortcomings of traditional teaching, stimulated students' interest in learning and made the teaching process more interesting.

Index Terms— intelligent learning APP, English vocabulary teaching, research

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Significance of the Study

The combination of information technology and education is not only appearing abroad but also developing gradually at home. Information technology lives with our life under the rapid development of information technology. Especially the mobile phone, it can be seen everywhere, like at our home, on the subway, on the road, etc. And everyone is able to use it from students to adult. Because of this mature technology, it will gradually combine with education. The world's trend of modern science and technology in primary and secondary schools in the 20th century has also brought a certain wave to our country. In "the national medium-and long-term education reform and the development plan" (2010-2010), it pointed out that information technology has a revolutionary impact on education development and must be given high attention. Under the instructions issued by the central government, the whole country is making great efforts to reform primary and secondary education by introducing multimedia and Internet into schools. Then, at the Fifth Plenary Session of the 18th Central Committee, it was further proposed to implement the "Internet plus" Plan and the innovation-driven development strategy (Wu Sufang, 2017). Nowadays, mobile phones are not only used for communication and play, but also for learning (Pimanmas & Ninsuwana, 2015). Now many smart learning apps are continuously developed to meet the needs of education and students. The most important thing in the application of smart phone APP is the development of science and technology on English teaching in Junior Middle Schools. Many schools have perfect conditions to have computers; multimedia and wireless networks covering the campus. The second is the development of APP. Mobile phones are no longer limited to making phone calls and sending short messages, but also become your wallets, certificates, navigation, etc. When you go out, you all need is to bring a mobile phone, and you don't have to bring any extra things. Now the mobile phone can also be a learning platform instead of the traditional education (Liviu Constantin Stan, 2014). It doesn't need a fixed time and place that make learning more convenient. At the same time, it also can be used in students' spare time after class.

For students, using smart phone APP also has great benefits. First of all, it is conducive to improving their interest in learning (Gulcin Nagehan Sarica & Nadire Cavus; 2009). Through the use of intelligent learning APP, it brings a kind of freshness to students, and students' ability to accept new things is better. The Box Fish APP contains a large number of animations and pictures, and knowledge is also connected with the latest development of the current network. Students can not only enjoy vivid and rich explanations, but also come into contact with fashionable things during the learning process. Secondly, the individuation of students is satisfied by using intelligent learning APP. When students use Box Fish APP, they can design the difficulty of learning and strengthen the weakness of their knowledge according to their basic abilities. This is different from the traditional teaching, and it also achieves the teaching effect of teaching students according to their individual needs. Then, using intelligent learning APP can strengthen the communication between teachers and students. Intelligent learning APP is based on mobile phone design which naturally includes language communication. Students can timely use the Box Fish APP to reflect their shortcomings to the teachers, and the teachers will give corresponding opinions after receiving the students' questions or reflections. The advances in information technology have led to a major shift in traditional education. In these transformations, the teaching in the information environment will pay more attention to the interaction and communication between teachers and students, students and students, and will focus on the individual differences of students (Lv Wanlu, 2017).

B. Research of Intelligent Learning APP at Home and Abroad

Research on mobile learning around the world has a lot in common, that is, mobile learning can form a ubiquitous learning environment, which is more convenient for the development of mobile learning. And facing adult education, the concept of lifelong education has been further developed. Time for TIGER to ROAR! Technology Informatics Guiding Education Reform (O'Connor Siobhan & Hubner Ursula & Shaw Toria & Blake Rachelle & Ball Marion, 2017), the Technology Informatics Guiding Education Reform was established in 2006 in the United States and it integrates informatics competencies into nursing curricula and life-long learning. Researchers from Stanford University in the United States have studied the impact of mobile device application and teaching. The results show that using mobile phones for small tests is more effective than not using them.

In the contemporary society with rapid development of science and technology, mobile learning will also face some difficulties and challenges. For example, the network infrastructure cannot meet the needs of mobile device development. The development and implementation of the mobile teaching system is still a challenge for educators, and it is still difficult to develop the mobile teaching system, which can be compatible with any equipment because there is no perfect network standard.

In 2000, research on mobile learning began in China. Ding Xingfu translated Desmond Keegan's article, which is the first article on mobile learning in China. Subsequently, more and more researches on mobile learning have been carried out in China, and the researches are becoming more and more abundant. Zhang Jijun and Li Jianzhen (2010) mentioned that according to the characteristics of autonomous learning and mobile learning and the advantages existing in the self-learning mode, mobile learning equipment will help learners to study better in independent learning in the information age. Participation is the most important characteristic of students in interactive teaching. The exchange, sharing and communication of knowledge and experience between teachers and students, and between students and students are the most important. Teachers are no longer the only source of teaching information and the authority of knowledge, and students become masters of learning. Between teachers and students, students can exchange information and emotions through discussions and exchanges, which will give each student the opportunity to express his ideas. But also make the students who did not like to express themselves gradually integrate into this kind of active and interactive classroom atmosphere, which is helpful for students to improve their learning ability and expression ability.

II. RELEVANT THEORIES ABOUT INTELLIGENT LEARNING APP

A. Brief Introduction of Mobile Learning Theory

Mobile learning is based on digital learning and uses mobile devices to learn. Mobile learning is different from traditional learning. Teachers and students are all mobile by using intelligent learning APP. Mobile learning meets this requirement that is light and portable with flexible learning methods. Students can choose their favorite teachers to study in any environment by using mobile devices and downloading learning software. Second, we have the knowledge to keep pace with the times. This is an era of information explosion. Information is rapidly transmitted around us. The traditional teaching method cannot incorporate new knowledge until books are updated. However, book updating is an extremely complicated matter, and books themselves have certain authority and will not be changed at will. What we can learn from the book is limited. In this way, students will lose a lot of background knowledge when they study. Third, mobile learning reduces the costs to a great extent. Software can be installed on smart phones to listen to the lectures. Famous teachers from all over the world can teach through the online class. Students do not need to go to the classroom and site to listen to lectures like traditional teaching. This reduces the distance in space, not only at home but also abroad. Therefore, the use of mobile learning has become the most innovative learning method of the times.

B. Brief Introduction of Constructivism Theory

In constructivism theory, learning is not to transfer knowledge from the outside to memory, but to construct new understanding on the basis of original knowledge through the outside world. Constructivism theory is the basis of people's understanding of things, and its core is taking students as the center. Different from the traditional teacher-centered spoon-feeding learning that teacher only needs to play their own roles in the classroom and shows the knowledge in textbooks to students through blackboard writing or multimedia, ignoring the acceptance of the students. Under the guidance of constructivism theory, teachers, as a guiding part, give students the space in the class, stimulate their learning motivation through various methods, and let the students learn actively. Furthermore, constructivism theory expresses that students use learning materials to acquire knowledge under certain situations, which is consistent with our intelligent learning APP. It provides a certain learning environment for students, enables students to learn autonomously under the guidance of software, and focuses on the needs of students. Students can choose the courses they like and guide students from easy to difficult step by step. And in the process of learning, the new and old knowledge will be linked together to form a coherent learning. In the process of learning, difficulties will be enlarged and repeated, which is helpful for students to understand and digest.

C. Brief Introduction of Humanistic Learning Theory

Maslow, as the founder of humanism, fully affirms human value and dignity and actively advocates the realization of

human potential. Humanism teaching thoughts not only focus on the development of cognition in teaching, but also pay more attention to the development rules of students' emotion, interest and motivation in teaching, and the understanding of students' inner psychological world. The intelligent learning APP conform the differences of students' interests, needs, experiences and personalities, develop students' potential, stimulate the interaction between their cognition and emotion, and pay attention to the restriction of psychological aspects such as creativity, cognition, motivation and emotion on behavior. It continuously confirms the learning status of the students during the learning process. If learning is too difficult, they will rearrange and analyze the difficulties in detail. And in the better place of learning, based on humanistic theory, intelligent learning APP will have corresponding encouragement mechanism, so that students can feel happy in the learning process and pay attention to their personal physical and mental growth.

III. PROBLEMS EXISTING IN ENGLISH VOCABULARY TEACHING IN JUNIOR MIDDLE SCHOOL

A. *Single Teaching Method*

Vocabulary, as the basis of listening, speaking, reading and writing, is also the most important part of English learning (Brooke Dinsmore, 2019). But how to memorize words easily is still a difficult problem for Junior Middle School students. Most teachers only teach the words appearing and not related to students' life in classroom teaching. They should appropriately expand some words that students are interested in, and teach a little extra-curricular related content. In conventional method, it is not easy to arouse students' thirst for knowledge, but also does not reflect the spirit of teaching students in accordance with their aptitude, making students' vocabulary learning boring and monotonous. And in the teacher's subconsciousness, the more words the students learn, the better for the progress of English. In ordinary English teaching classes, there is often no time to help students memorize words, so students have to spend more time to recite them after class. The foundation of students' English ability is very different. The singleness of teaching materials also restricts the expansion of students' knowledge and the input of language information. Language learning is a cumulative process, which requires a large amount of extra-curricular reading to accumulate knowledge. The current English teaching is still stay in the syllabus, resulting in students' English reading is far from enough.

B. *Lack of Good Context*

Learning a new English word is not only the pronunciation and meaning of the word, but also the context in which it is used. Moreover, a word usually has many meanings and parts of speech. It is often difficult for students to notice the part of speech of new words in class, and teachers also ignore the teaching in this aspect. Usually, the best way to learn a word is to learn its usage in the corresponding articles, and to learn how to use it when learning. Teachers should also pay special attention to the connection between words. Learning is to extend new knowledge from old knowledge, and students often cannot think of this aspect, so teachers should give students good guidance in this aspect. For example, two long and similar words do have completely different meanings and two words with the same pronunciation but different spellings. In fact, in many cases we usually use Chinese to translate a word, but some English single words with similar meanings often have great differences in the use of context. Therefore, when teaching words, we can try to explain a word in English at this time. This is the most appropriate method.

C. *Deficiency of Organized Memory*

In traditional teaching, students seldom really like learning English. Most of them are sitting in the classroom without knowing why they study. Therefore, learning English will be more tiring for them. Memorizing words is a long-term process, which requires continuous review. However, junior middle school students lack motivation to learn, and they seldom take the initiative to review without the supervision of parents and teachers. In this way, it is easy for students forget English vocabulary. In addition, it is very difficult for students to memorize words just by spelling words. Students should find a suitable way to spell words by reading and writing phonetic symbols, and associate the phonetic symbols with the spelling of words. This is also something the teacher will not explain in detail in class. Teachers will ignore linking words with real life when teaching words, so students can't naturally associate words when memorizing words, making it not easier for them to remember words.

IV. APPLICATION OF INTELLIGENT LEARNING APP IN ENGLISH VOCABULARY TEACHING

A. *Application of Box Fish APP before Class*

1. *Associative Memory*

The students open the Box Fish APP, choose the course that matches them, and begin to learn new words. In the learning part of the words, Box Fish APP takes the form of both pictures and texts. Next to each word, there is a picture that allows students to combine it with the picture when memorizing words. According to scientific evidence, the right brain of the brain has better memory than the left brain, while the right brain has better memory of images and the left brain has better memory of words. Therefore, this way of memorizing words can make it easier for students to remember words. At the same time, it also makes the process of memorizing words less boring, just like watching their favorite cartoons. For a word, Box Fish APP will not only display the part of speech of the word, but also be equipped

with pictures.

2. Emphasis on Practice

In terms of memorizing words, students have learned new words, and then Box Fish APP has designed the words spelling, the oral practice and the sentence filling. Spelling helps students become familiar with words and remember them again, and at the same time, they can find out the words they have forgotten. Oral practice helps students to master the pronunciation of each word. Through memorizing words with pronunciation, students review the words again. In sentence filling, students can put a word into a sentence after the previous mastery of words. This is a gradual process from shallow to deep, simple to complex, so that students can better learn the words. By using Box Fish APP, students can not only remember and associate the words through pictures, but also deepen their understanding and use of words through the small games designed later. Let students learn more effectively.

B. Application of Box Fish APP during Class

1. Game Design

In class, teachers can use Box Fish for projection teaching, showing the pictures of words that students have memorized again, and students can associate words according to the pictures. And the teacher can design a group competition game here and students make a quick answer. In this way, it can not only help students review new words, but also improve their learning enthusiasm. Then, the students will focus on the words that are difficult to remember. Then the teacher can choose some difficult words from the new words to ask the students to make sentences, and examine the degree of students' mastery of the words, so that the teacher can not only explain the usage of key words, but also help the students create contexts.

2. Cultural Infiltration

Language and culture are inseparable. Without knowing a nation's culture, it is impossible to accurately master and use the nation's language. However, in the classroom, teachers often do not attach importance to the cultural meaning of English vocabulary, and students know little about the culture of British and American countries, resulting in students' little understanding of the learning content. Teachers can also use Box Fish APP to show students relevant cultural background videos, which helps students to understand foreign culture, and the different expresses between foreign and domestic cultures. At the same time, these interesting short videos will also enable students to deepen their understanding of cultural differences and let them feel the cultural atmosphere while studying. It also adds a little interest to the boring learning process.

C. Application of Box Fish APP after Class

1. Scientific Memory

According to the theory of The Ebbinghaus Forgetting Curve, the learned words will be forgotten with the passage of time, and the forgetting process is uneven. At present, teaching time is limited in the class, and the teachers cannot lead the students to review in the class. The students themselves have no clear plan after class, and the review time and method are very casual. According to the conclusion of the forgetting curve, the determination of the review point of the forgetting curve, the memorization method of the forgetting curve and the review process of the forgetting curve can benefit and improve human memory efficiency. The English word learning APP automatically arranges the cycle review according to the Ebbinghaus forgetting curve and the user's familiarity with words, and sets up interesting word memorization games to help the user memorize English words.

2. Efficient Management

After class, teachers can use Box Fish APP to assign homework, according to different learning situations of students, as appropriate. This not only takes care of the students' different basic level, but also achieves a good teaching effect, and at the same time reduces the students' learning burden. The students can finish the homework assigned by the teacher after class and review the words again at the same time. Many students cram for the exam each time and start memorizing words. At the end of the semester, the amount of that word is extremely large, and it is difficult for students to review. However, on the Box Fish APP, the learned words will be reviewed according to people's forgetting rules. In this way, students can make good arrangements to study every day without parental supervision, and at the same time do not have to hurry up and down in the examination, so that students can also spare time to review other subjects. And at the end of one semester, teachers can observe the progress of each student according to the learning records of the students by Box Fish APP, thus rewarding the students. This method can greatly improve the learning enthusiasm of the students.

V. CONCLUSION

The combination of information technology and Junior Middle School English vocabulary teaching can provide a lot of development space for Junior Middle School English teaching which is also conducive to improve the level of Junior Middle School English education. At the same time, the use of information technology can improve students' interest in learning and teachers' teaching level to a certain extent. And the use of Box Fish APP in English vocabulary teaching can make up for some shortcomings in traditional teaching. From the teacher's point of view, the teacher can grasp the students' learning situation in time through the Box Fish APP, so that the class can be planned well in advance. Students

use Box Fish APP to learn before class. Teachers can teach better in class. At the same time, teachers can also pay attention to the development of students' oral pronunciation. For students, the use of intelligent learning APP meets the individual needs of students. Students can not only design teaching according to their own situation, but also make up for their weak foundation for students. And it can help them develop and know more extracurricular culture better. Students will not feel bored when using Box Fish APP, because it is vivid and rich, and enables students to experience learning in happiness. Secondly, the students insist on using Box Fish APP to clock in every day, so that the students form a habit of learning for a long time. Anyway, I believe that with the rapid development of science and technology, the use of smart APP will make the development of education better and better.

With the combination of modern information technology and primary and secondary education, learners can communicate and interact with teachers and students without time and space restrictions by using smart phones to learn. In interactive whiteboard and multimedia slide show, the developing network and software technology provide more and more learning platforms and software for mobile learning. Moreover, the international education community has long proposed to encourage students to bring their own devices, such as smart phones and tablets, into the classroom as early as 2010. Mobile learning based on smart phones started late in our country and has not been widely recognized by society, schools, teachers, parents and students. The corresponding teaching design and teaching software are relatively scarce, and the existing teaching contents are also lack of interest and attraction. All these have become obstacles to the practice of mobile learning based on smart phones. Therefore, the combination of information technology and teaching in our country still has much room for development.

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A Comparative Analysis of the Cultural Content in *Go For It* and *New Standard English*

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Abstract—With the development of globalization, more and more attention has been paid to the cultivation of cross-cultural awareness in English learning. Based on the *English Curriculum Standard for compulsory Education (2011)*, this paper analyzes the cultural content of middle school English materials in “*Go For It*” and “*New Standard English*”. Through the comparison of two sets of materials and the investigation of students, this paper sums up the advantages and improvements of two materials, which can provide a reference for the compilation of cultural content and help English teachers’ cultural teaching to enhance students’ cultural awareness.

Index Terms—middle school, English materials, cultural content

I. INTRODUCTION

By looking up the relevant literature, we find that the analysis of cultural content of English materials is mostly aimed at senior high school and college, and there is little analysis of the cultural content of middle school materials. With the development of globalization, more and more attention has been paid to the cultivation of international perspective in English learning. By comparing the cultural content of the two materials, we can find out advantages and improvements of the two materials, which can be used for reference in the compilation of the cultural contents in materials and also provides for teachers' cultural teaching to cultivate students' cultural awareness.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Definition and Classification of Culture

1. Definition of culture

Culture is an extremely complicated social phenomenon. From ancient to present, many anthropologists have tried to define culture accurately.

The famous English anthropologist Tylor (1871) wrote in “Primitive Culture”, stated that “Culture becomes civilization, in its broad ethnographic sense, including knowledge, faith, art, morality, law”. In Tylor's view, culture is a whole of all fields. According to the definition of culture in the *English Curriculum Standard for compulsory Education (2011)*, it is stated that “Culture refers to the history, geography, local customs, traditional customs, way of life, standard of behavior, literature, art and values of the countries in which they have learned the language.” It is important to note that culture should not only be British and American culture, but also the culture of other countries in the world.

2. Classification of culture

H.Stern divides culture into broad and narrow terms according to the structure and category of culture. Generalized Culture is Capital Culture (Culture with a big C), narrow sense Culture is lowercase Culture (Culture with a small c).

Wang Fei (2010) said that “Culture can be divided into target culture (British and American culture, other English-speaking culture), native culture, comparative culture (comparison between two or more cultures), culture of non-English-speaking countries”. It is suggested that the authors should incorporate different types of cultures into the content of the materials flexibly. According to the classification of Wang Fei, the author analyzed two sets of materials on cultural content.

B. The Importance of Cultural Content in Materials

1. Spread the excellent culture of our country

China has a profound, long history of excellent culture. The reason for the diversity of culture is that different cultures have different characteristics. However, from the cultural content in the materials, we can see that the native culture is obviously less than that of the Western culture, so the contents of the native culture should be written in the materials. It is conducive to develop China's excellent traditional culture and bring prosperity to world culture.

2. Improve communicative competence

“Cross-cultural communication occurs when cultural variations and differences affect the outcome of interpersonal

communication.” says Kari Dode. (cited from Dai Xiaodong, Theory of Intercultural Communication, 2011) Hu Wenzhong (1994) also emphasized that “Intercultural communicative competence refers to the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately with people from different cultural backgrounds”. Therefore, we can conclude that improving communicative competence is the purpose of cultural content in materials.

3. Cultivate cultural awareness

The English Curriculum Standards (2011) also refers to "Cultivating students' sensitivity and adaptability to the English language, learning to understand and respect the cultures of other countries, and developing an open and critical culture of acceptance". Thus, we can stimulate the recognition and love of our society and culture, and really cultivate the comprehensive talents who can adapt to the process of globalization.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Questions

Based on the analysis of the two sets of materials, this study attempts to answer the following two research questions.

(1) Which material is more in line with the requirements on the cultural awareness of the *English Curriculum Standard for compulsory Education (2011)*?

(2) What is the similarities and differences of students' cultural awareness using “*Go for It*” and “*New Standard English*”?

B. Research Subjects

In this paper, five volumes of “*Go for It*” in middle school written by the People Education Press cooperates with Thomson Learning Publishing Group and six volumes “*New Standard English*” in middle school written by Chen Linare cooperates with Ms. Printha Ellis and Ms. Naomi Simmons who are internationally renowned experts in this area.

With regard to participants in the process of questionnaire, 50 students in a middle school from Yanji and 50 students in a middle school from Changchun were investigated by questionnaire.

C. Research Instruments

The methods of literature, comparison and questionnaire are adopted to carry out the research.

Review of literature: By collecting different understandings of culture and the relevant literature of cultural content in the teaching materials.

Comparison: By comparing the cultural contents between two sets of materials, the author finds out the distribution and resources of the cultural content in two sets of materials and sums up the advantages and improvements of the two materials to judge which material is more in line with the requirements on the cultural awareness of the *English Curriculum Standard for compulsory Education (2011)*.

Questionnaire: The questionnaire for students aims to investigate students' cultural awareness. This part contains 9 multiple questions which quoted a questionnaire from an article written by Li Jing “Cultural Teaching Analysis based on the Oxford English material of Shanghai High School (For students)”. The author hands out 55 questionnaires to two different schools, a total of 110 and there are 100 valid answer sheets submitted.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Comparative Analysis of Two Materials

With the aim to know whether or not the cultural content in the two sets of materials meet the requirements of the *English Curriculum Standard for compulsory Education (2011)*, we can analyze it according to *The goal of Cultural awareness grading (level 5)*. The results are shown in Table 2 and Table 3.

According to the Grading Standard of Cultural awareness in the *English Curriculum Standard for compulsory Education (2011)*, we can know the target culture includes eight aspects: 1. Body language (gesture or expression.) 2. Appellations, greetings, farewell words 3. Gender-specific names and affectionate address 4. Eating custom 5. Respond to compliments, requests, apologies 6. Express compliments, requests 7. Geography, climate, history 8. Interpersonal custom; International culture includes two aspects: 9. Culture, amusement and sports activities 10. Holidays and celebrations; Comparative culture includes 11. Similarities and differences; Native culture includes 12. Festivals and typical culture custom.

TABLE 1.
THE GOAL OF CULTURAL AWARENESS GRADING

Level	Description of standard
Level 5	1. Understand the body language commonly used in English communication, such as gestures, expressions, etc.
	2. Make proper use of appellations, greetings and farewell words in English.
	3. Understand and distinguish the common names and affectionate address of different genders in English.
	4. Understand the eating customs of English-speaking countries.
	5. Respond appropriately to the praise, request, apology.
	6. Express praise, request, etc in an appropriate manner.
	7. A preliminary understanding of the geographical location, climate characteristics and history of English-speaking countries.
	8. Understand the interpersonal customs of English-speaking countries.
	9. Learn about the main culture, amusement and sports activities in the world.
	10. Learn about the main holidays and celebrations in the world.
	11. Pay close attention to the similarities and differences of Chinese and foreign cultures, and deepen the understanding of Chinese culture.
	12. Introduce the main festivals and typical cultural customs of the motherland in English.

1. The distribution of cultural content

TABLE 2.
THE DISTRIBUTION OF CULTURAL CONTENT IN "GO FOR IT" AND "NEW STANDARD ENGLISH"
(CALCULATED BY THE FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE IN THE BOOK)

Standard description	"Go for It"		"New Standard English"	
	Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage
1. Body language (gesture or expression.)	120	17.49%	156	20.61%
2. Appellations, greetings and farewell words	199	29%	150	19.82%
3. Gender-specific names, affectionate address	52	7.58%	60	7.93%
4. Eating custom	64	9.33%	86	11.36%
5. Respond to praise, request, apology	36	5.25%	9	1.19%
6. Express praise, request	93	13.56%	20	2.64%
7. Geography, climate, history	19	2.77%	73	9.64%
8. Interpersonal custom	4	0.58%	10	1.32%
9. Amusement and sports activities	63	9.18%	149	19.68%
10. Holidays and celebrations	14	2.04%	18	2.38%
11. Similarities and differences	13	1.90%	18	2.38%
12. Festivals and typical culture customs	9	1.31%	8	1.06%
Total	686	100%	757	100%

As we can see from Table 2, in terms of content distribution, the cultural content of the "New Standard English" is 757, "Go for It" is 686. "New Standard English" involves more cultural content than "Go for It".

We can find that if each item is close to 8%, the distribution can be said to be balanced. But from the results, we can know that the distribution of each cultural content is unbalanced. For example, "Gender-specific names, affectionate address" in "Go for It" with 7.58% and in "New Standard English" with 7.93% are close to 8%, "Eating custom" with 9.33% and "Amusement and sports activities" with 9.18% in "Go for It" are close to 8%, also "Geography, climate, history" with 9.64% are close to 8%. Therefore, it can be said that the distribution of cultural content in the two materials are both very unbalanced. In particular, "Appellations, greetings and farewell words" in "Go for It" account for the largest proportion with 29% of the total cultural content. "Interpersonal custom" in "Go for It" account for the least proportion with 0.58% of the total cultural content.

2. The resource of cultural content

The target culture refers to the culture of the English-speaking country; native culture refers to the Chinese culture; international culture refers to the culture around the world.

TABLE 3.
THE SOURCE OF CULTURAL CONTENT IN "GO FOR IT" AND "NEW STANDARD ENGLISH"

Classification	"Go for It"		"New Standard English"	
	Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage
Target culture	587	85.57%	564	74.50%
International culture	77	11.22%	167	22.06%
Comparative culture	13	1.90%	18	2.38%
Native culture	9	1.31%	8	1.06%
Total	686	100%	757	100%

From the Table 3, it can be concluded that in terms of content resources, the comparative culture and native culture of two sets of materials are similar. However, there is a gap between the content resource of the two materials in the target culture and international culture.

The content of target cultures with 85.57% in "Go for It" is obviously more than that in "New Standard English" with 74.50%. However, the content of international cultures with 11.22% in "Go for It" is obviously less than that in "New Standard English" with 22.06%. With regard to the content of comparative culture, the proportion in "New

Standard English” is slightly higher than that in “*Go for It*”, but there is no significant difference between the two materials in native culture. On the whole, the sources of cultural content in the two materials are not very balanced. In contrast, the source of cultural content in “*New Standard English*” is more balanced than that in “*Go for It*”.

B. Comparison of Students' Cultural Awareness Using “*Go For It*” And “*New Standard English*”

The following questions are divided according to four dimensions.

TABLE 4.
RESULTS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS IN “GO FOR IT” AND “NEW STANDARD ENGLISH”

Dimension	“ <i>Go for It</i> ” Percentage				“ <i>New Standard English</i> ” Percentage			
	A	B	C	D	A	B	C	D
1. Students' knowledge, role and interest in cultural learning (Q1,Q3,Q7)	22	50	20	8	30	52	16	2
	20	48	26	6	24	58	18	0
	36	42	18	4	44	38	14	4
2. The cultural teaching methods adopted by teachers (Q4,Q6)	32	38	26	4	38	40	20	2
	38	24	32	6	44	24	32	2
3. The ways to acquire English cultural knowledge for students (Q5)	44	34	14	8	34	40	14	12
4. Students' attitude towards English classroom culture teaching (Q2,Q8,Q9)	38	42	20	0	42	42	14	2
	12	40	38	10	28	32	36	4
	48	30	20	2	58	30	10	2

According to the Table4 listed above, about the dimension of “Students' knowledge, role and interest in Cultural Learning”, students who use the “*New Standard English*”, having a knowledge of cultural learning with 82%, higher than who use the “*Go for It*” with 72%; students who use the “*New Standard English*”, affirming the importance of cultural awareness with 82%, higher than who use the “*Go for It*” with 68%; students who use the “*New Standard English*”, showing their interest in cultural learning with 82%, higher than who use the “*Go for It*” with 78%.

About the dimension of “The Cultural teaching methods adopted by teachers”, there is no significant difference between the teachers who use the “*Go for It*” and “*New Standard English*”.

About the dimension of “The ways to acquire English cultural knowledge for students”,there is no significant difference between the teachers who use the “*Go for It*” and “*New Standard English*”. Most students acquire English cultural knowledge through English teaching materials and the teacher's explanation. There are 4% more students acquire English cultural knowledge through the communication with foreigners.

About the dimension of “Students' attitude towards English classroom culture teaching”, students who use the “*New Standard English*”, generally having a higher level of cultural awareness than those who use the “*Go for It*”. Students who use the “*New Standard English*”, paying more attention to cultural learning with 84%, Pershing than who use the “*Go for It*” with 80%; Students' satisfaction with current English culture who use the “*New Standard English*” teaching is also 8% higher than those who use the “*Go for It*”. Students' desire for strengthening the teaching of cultural content who use the “*New Standard English*” teaching is also 10% higher than those who use the “*Go for It*”.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper uses comparison to know whether or not the cultural content in the two sets of materials meet the requirements of the *English Curriculum Standard for compulsory Education (2011)*. It was found that the teaching materials of “*New Standard English*” were more in line with the requirements of the curriculum standards than those in the “*Go for It*”.

The study uses the questionnaire to know the similarities and differences of cultural awareness of students using different materials. Through the investigation, it is found that the students who use the “*New Standard English*” pay more attention to the cultural knowledge and teaching than the students who use the “*Go for It*”, and are willing to absorb the British and American culture, therefore students who use the “*New Standard English*”, having higher cultural awareness.

VI. SUGGESTIONS

Teachers should pay more attention to the teaching of cultural content so as to make students interested in cultural knowledge and thus enhance their cultural awareness. At the same time, from the investigation, we also found that teachers seldom talk about the different content between Chinese and foreign cultures in class. Teachers should establish a cross-cultural perspective so as to enhance students' cultural awareness to Chinese and Western cultures through cultural comparison, and help students to understand their own and other cultures.

Students should try their best to learn cultural content in class and extracurricular reading, master cultural knowledge to improve communication ability. And then they should understand the comparison between Chinese and Western countries to spread Chinese excellent culture, and then cultivate cultural awareness.

Authors can introduce less content about “Appellations, greetings and farewell words” in “*Go for It*” which account for the largest proportion with 29% of the total cultural content and more content about “Interpersonal custom” in “*Go for It*” which account for the least proportion with 0.58% of the total cultural content. And then authors can introduce more knowledge of comparative culture and native culture to achieve a balanced distribution of cultural content.

APPENDIX

亲爱的同学们：

你们好！为了更好的了解同学们的跨文化意识以及对于文化意识和文化教学的态度，从而帮助我们更好地完善在英语教材的基础上进行文化教学，特设计此问卷。此次调查的结果仅仅用于学术研究，没有任何商业目的。为尊重您的隐私，此问卷调查采取匿名的方式，希望同学们根据自己的实际情况和个人看法真实作答。请同学们直接把选择的选项进行标记，并且最后按题号填入答案框中。

十分感谢你们的支持与合作！

您使用的教材：人教版，外研版（打钩）

1. 你认为文化意识在英语教学中重要吗？（ ）
 - A. 非常重要，文化意识对英语教学有很大帮助。
 - B. 很重要，但考试涉及不多，所以不够重视。
 - C. 一般，没太大帮助。
 - D. 完全没用。
2. 你重视对英语文化的学习吗？（ ）
 - A. 很重视，我会经常去了解英语国家文化。
 - B. 一般，偶尔会了解一下。
 - C. 不太关心，因为考试涉及得不多。
 - D. 完全不重视，没有必要去学习文化。
3. 你对英语国家的社会历史文化、风俗习惯的了解程度如何？（ ）
 - A. 非常了解。
 - B. 比较了解。
 - C. 了解不多。
 - D. 完全不了解。
4. 你的英语教师会教授英语国家文化吗？（ ）
 - A. 经常，老师经常会普及英语国家文化，很生动实用。
 - B. 有时会教授教材中涉及的文化内容。
 - C. 偶尔会提及，但次数很少。
 - D. 从来没有。
5. 你主要是通过哪些途径了解英语国家文化？（ ）
 - A. 英语教材。
 - B. 老师上课的讲解。
 - C. 通过互联网、课外书籍、影视等等。
 - D. 与外国人的交流。
6. 你的英语教师在渗透文化教学时主要是通过哪些方式？（ ）
 - A. 通过对上课教材内容的讲解。
 - B. 专题讲座。
 - C. 让学生自行课外了解文化。
 - D. 其他_____
7. 你对教材上关于介绍英语国家的文化感兴趣吗？（ ）
 - A. 非常感兴趣。
 - B. 一般。
 - C. 不太感兴趣。
 - D. 完全不感兴趣。
8. 大体来说，你对当前初中英语的文化教学满意吗？（ ）
 - A. 非常满意。
 - B. 比较满意。
 - C. 不太满意。
 - D. 非常不满。
9. 你觉得是否应该加强对文化内容的教学力度？（ ）

- A. 很有必要。
- B. 看老师的安排。
- C. 可以适当增加一些内容，多学习总是好的。
- D. 没有必要。

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The Effect of Synchronous and Asynchronous Language Learning: A Study of Iranian EFL Intermediate Students' Vocabulary Learning

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Abstract—Synchronous learning and asynchronous learning are the two main approaches to teaching available in distance education. The main objective of the study was to determine which approach to vocabulary learning, would facilitate vocabulary learning more for Iranian EFL learners. From among the targeted population of 82 intermediate students of an English institute in Isfahan, Iran, students between the ages of 12 to 18, a sample of 60 students were chosen based on their score on a quick placement test (QPT). The selected participants undertook a vocabulary pre-test and were divided into two groups of 30 who in terms of language proficiency and vocabulary knowledge were homogenized. Both synchronous and asynchronous groups were taught “Advanced Vocabulary and Idiom”, by the same teacher at one particular institute. In the period of 10 sessions of a semester, the synchronous groups were taught the vocabulary items in class synchronously and the asynchronous group was taught via email. After the post-test, the results with the t-test observed, indicated a significance difference between synchronous and asynchronous groups, p-value of .003, gender with the p-value of 0.027 and pre-test and post-test with the p-value of 0.047, but no significance was observed for age with the p-value of 0.127. The post-test results indicated that the synchronous group considerably outperformed the asynchronous group in the vocabulary knowledge they attained.

Index Terms—distance education, synchronous, asynchronous, English as a Foreign Language (EFL), vocabulary learning, social interaction

I. INTRODUCTION

In all methods of instruction that have been used in language teaching, they have all considered synchronous teaching as their base. In recent decades with the invention of computers and the virtual world, teaching has faced a new perspective. Teaching does not have to be done in classroom environments with desks, chairs and blackboards; it can be done in peoples rooms, behind their personal computers millions of miles away. This led to the asynchronous way of teaching, in which there is a time interval between teaching and learning. Though this has also become synchronous with the use of virtual applications that you can use live connections with, that is more like classroom instruction (Bernard et al, 2004, p. 409).

One of the most decisive impediments has been the deficiency of research on these synchronous and asynchronous approaches to teaching school ages in DE. Most research on DE in schools has been done in the United States; meanwhile researchers globally have also gradually shifted towards DE in schools (Barbour & Stewart, 2008). With respect to scheduling, environment of learning and individual concentrated asynchronous DE had more adaptability than synchronous DE (Bernard et al, 2004, p. 408). Specialists presumed that ‘for younger learners, the structure of synchronous DE may be better suited to their academic schedules and their need for spontaneous guidance and feedback’ (p. 409).

The absence of teachers in asynchronous learning networks (ALN) leads to many issues. In the transition of face-to-face instruction to ALN instruction this can cause many obstacles as Harasim et al. (1995) and Ory and Bullock (1997) indicated learners specially mention the non-availability of teachers and classmates physically the essential cause of concern. Kay (2006) in the meantime investigated various researches that undertook the assumption that attending AOD assists the progress of learning in which only one reported a noticeable difference in learning.

In the significance of having more accomplishment and mentality result, Bernard et al (2004) decided learners would function finer in asynchronous situations in contrast to synchronous situations. In spite of the fact that in asynchronous approach degrees of consistency were lower and dropout were significantly higher in contrast to synchronous DE notwithstanding the advantageous impacts. Both synchronous and asynchronous teaching functioned superior with specific approaches, synchronous implemented better altogether with media and teaching method was more excelling with asynchronous DE. Taking everything into account, it was resolved that synchronous DE defined ‘a poorer-quality replication of classroom instruction’ (p. 408)

Advancing vocabulary acquisition can be acquired by having insight into the different effects of synchronous and asynchronous approaches and selecting the relevant approach of instruction. Absence of knowledge in this area could lead to time being wasted on experimenting different approaches and getting dissatisfied results (Wilkins, 1972). Today people are faced with shortage of time and getting dissatisfying outcomes is considered a waste of time for them. To satisfy their needs the products and outcomes of the research would facilitate learners in selecting an appropriate approach.

Flaw in English vocabulary can lead to a great deal of limitations for people who have to live in a society where English is a tool for many tasks and exchanging information. Despite the fact that vocabulary is only one component of English syllabus, having a lack in vocabulary generates serious issues, affecting language learners' performances in other areas such as reading, listening, speaking, and writing (Laufer, 1992; Laufer and Goldstein, 2004; Albrechtsen, Haastrup, and Henriken, 2008). Adequate vocabulary knowledge is also an indispensable component of effective test performance in different areas of language learning. It has been proved that language ability is to a large extent a function of vocabulary, and also results in exceed of listening, writing and reading (Alderson, 2005). In contrast with listening, writing and speaking, vocabulary is more applicable to be taught synchronously and asynchronously. It can be taught in class synchronously and taught through mailing asynchronously to students. Also assessing and rating the effects of learning can easily be computed.

The present study addresses the use of synchronous and asynchronous as an alternative approach on boosting vocabulary achievement of Iranian intermediate learners. The study is of significance as the impact of synchronous and asynchronous approaches on increasing vocabulary achievement has been rarely explored by the researchers and has not investigated in Iran. To put it simply, this study determines whether the asynchronous and synchronous approaches have any significant impact on intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary achievement or not. The findings are of benefit for language teachers to tailor the most effective teaching approaches to improve vocabulary achievement of language learners.

Meanwhile most researches have worked on policies and technologies, in which here we investigate the procedure in applying the approaches. In addition most studies have compared the influence to class practices but this study surveys design and delivery. Many studies pursued the effectiveness of learning technologies but failed to prove in which it is investigated in the current study. As it has also been mentioned, most studies on AOD concentrated on benefits and pitfall in which the present study links AOD with learning. It was asserted that each approach functions more convenient with specific methods but as Iran is a developing country this can vary and is of concern.

The research results can help educators and researchers of distance education understand better the types of instructional design that match with the different modes of distance-learning systems, provide recommendations to system developers on the improvement of the interface design of learning environments, and further the understanding of distance learners' online behaviors. In Iran a small amount of research has focused on this issue. Researchers claim that the structure of synchronous DE is more suitable for young learners as it best applicable for their schedule, guidance and feedback as many have mentioned the physical non-availability of instructors as a concern. School aged students have been investigated in the United States but have not been researched in Iran to find the more convenient approach of instruction. This has made the research a significant and important line to work on. The questions raised here are:

1. To what extent does synchronous teaching help learners improve their vocabulary?
2. To what extent does asynchronous teaching help learners improve their vocabulary?
3. Does synchronous teaching significantly differ from asynchronous teaching in helping learners improve their vocabulary?

II. METHODOLOGY

Participants

The population of this study was of available subjects with the qualities needed in order to carry out the study. The available subjects of the study were Iranian EFL learners with Farsi as their mother tongue in an Isfahan language institute. The institute selected contained learners with the intermediate level, classes with both gender groups and students from the age range of 12 to 18 that were taught by the same instructor.

The total number of participants consisted of 82 intermediate students of both genders that were divided to two gender mixed classes. Class number one included 41 participants of whom 24 were male and 17 were female. The number two class was also comprised of 41 participants, 24 male and 17 female. To be ensured of their language proficiency level a quick placement test (QPT) was taken from all the participants. The result of the QPT indicated that 13 males and nine females in total did not qualify as intermediate and therefor were eliminated from the survey and their findings were not considered though still participated.

The 60 remaining participants in the study included 35 male and 25 female language learners. Specifically in class one, five male students and six female students were eliminated, leaving 19 male and 11 female applicable participants, and in class two, eight male and three female participants were eliminated remaining 16 male and 14 female participants. In total group one included of 30 participants which was randomly selected as the synchronous group and group two included of 30 participants and was assigned as the asynchronous group.

Instruments

In order to convey the study a quick placement test (QPT) (see the appendix), 60 item four point test was attained to establish participants' language proficiency level. For the treatment of the study, 10 parts of "Advance Vocabulary and Idiom" was chosen. The advance level of the book was selected so that the participants would not be familiar with the vocabularies. To evaluate students' knowledge of the vocabulary, a 106 item four point pre-test (see the appendix) from 10 sections of the book was designed. After a pilot study had been carried out on the test, the validity was approved by an expert and the reliability was determined, the test was given to all the participants. In order to teach class one synchronously access to a classroom besides having the book itself was needed. For class two, to teach asynchronously access to the PDF format of the book, internet and email was of need. With regard to evaluating the treatment, a 106 item four point post-test (see the appendix) that was a rearranged form of the pre-test was administered to the participants.

Experimental Treatments

The quasi-experimental research design that was in line with this research was selected and available subjects were used in order for the research to be carried out. A language institute in the city province of Isfahan with the intermediate proficiency level, Iranian ethnicity, Farsi as native language, mixed gender classes, taught by the same instructor and an age range from 12 to 18 was chosen. The language institute consisted of 82 participants that were split into two classes of 41, each seating 24 male and 17 female students. To be ensured of all the participants' language proficiency a QPT consisting of 60 items was taken from all the students. The results of the test indicated that 22, 13 male and nine female students did not qualify as intermediate language proficiency level. These students were eliminated from the study though still participated. From the 35 male and 25 female students left in the study, 19 male and 11 female were class one and 16 male and 14 female were class two. Each class consisted of 30 participant of which class one was selected as the synchronous class and class two was selected as the asynchronous class.

As it has been mentioned by National Reading Panel (2000) explicit teaching of vocabulary is more effective, in this case we taught the vocabulary explicitly. Before starting the research all students of both groups were asked about their knowledge of CALL, synchronous and asynchronous learning. Additionally the students of both synchronous and asynchronous groups were informed about the procedure they were going to be put through and the methodologies used so that they would be familiar with the study and understand the importance of the research (Cunningham, 2001).

Synchronous Class

The synchronous class that was also named class one was taught the book in the classroom. The classes were held two times a week on Saturdays and Tuesdays from six in the afternoon to half past seven in the afternoon. Each session one section of the book was taught to the students which expanded for 10 sessions over the course of five weeks. In the asynchronous class the students were taught the vocabulary, read the scripts and asked their questions at the same time.

Asynchronous Class

The asynchronous class also known as class number two was taught through email with the use of the PDF format of the book. The classes were held two times a week on Saturdays and Tuesdays by the instructor emailing the students each section of the book at five in the afternoon also containing guidance on the section. The students unlike class one had time till the next session to ask their questions on the selected section. This procedure took 10 sessions over the course of five weeks.

Data Collection Procedure

The book selected to teach vocabulary was "Advanced Vocabulary and Idioms". A pre-test of the vocabulary items of the book was designed which was at first handed out as a pilot study in order to establish its validity and reliability. After in the pilot study the validity and the reliability were affirmed, a 106 item four point scale test was designed and given to both classes. The test also included questions about students' names, age, sex, ethnic group and email address.

After teaching of the whole sections was completed, a post-test which was a reorganized form of the pre-test was taken from both classes. The passage of more than a month was considered convenient for students to not remember the questions. Students of both classes were asked to come to the institute on the same day and time which the post-test was handed to them and the results were gained.

Data Analysis Procedure

In analyzing the data, independent t-test averages of both groups was calculated and in case of a significant difference the effectiveness of each procedure was presumed. These differences based on demographic variables (sex, age, group and pre-test) was also calculated and analyzed. To test the variables normality of the study, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk were used. In order to statistically analyze the effect and relation of the independent variables as group, sex, age and pre-test on the post-test, t-tests were used.

III. RESULTS

Descriptive statistics

Initially in order to achieve a quick overview of the results, descriptive statistics of data is observed. Table 4.1 shows the minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation of the QPT, pre-test and post-test in separate groups and also for the entire observation regardless of their group (Total). According to table 4.1, the mean scores obtained in the pre-test score of synchronous group was (35.97) and of asynchronous group was (39.90), the mean post-test score obtained in

synchronous group was (71.47) and in asynchronous group was (59.93). In addition the mean QPT score of synchronous group was (43.58) and in asynchronous group was (43.14). To assess the significance of these differences statistical analysis was used to analyze the data.

TABLE 4.1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Group	Descriptive statistics	QPT	Pre_Test	Post_Test	Age	Difference
SYN	N	30	30	30	30	30
	Minimum	40	10	39	12	4
	Maximum	47	51	106	18	79
	Mean	43.58	35.97	71.47	15.15	35.50
	Std. Deviation	1.78	9.16	19.65	1.21	21.45
ASY	N	30	30	30	30	30
	Minimum	40	24	25	12	-12
	Maximum	47	58	102	18	67
	Mean	43.14	39.90	59.93	15.23	20.03
	Std. Deviation	2.06	10.19	20.69	1.45	18.77
Total	N	60	60	60	60	60
	Minimum	40	10	25	12	-12
	Maximum	47	58	106	18	79
	Mean	43.36	37.94	65.70	15.19	27.76
	Std. Deviation	1.92	9.81	20.84	1.33	21.45

Figure 4.1 shows the trend of the pre-test and post-test scores to illustrate the differentiation of the two groups. Accordingly, as can be observed scores of the synchronous group have had a sharper increase in comparison to the asynchronous group. In simple terms, there has been more change in the pre-test and the post-test scores of the synchronous group.

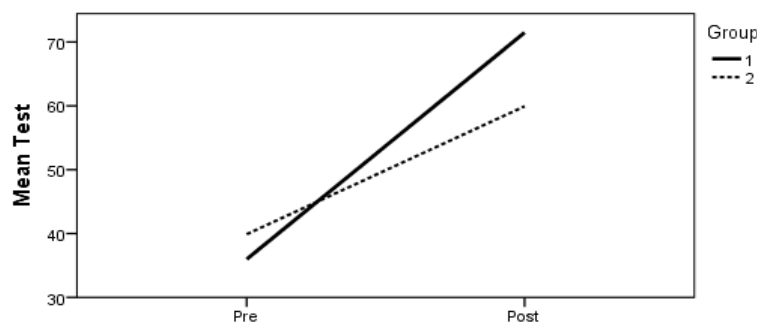


Figure 4.1 Trend of the Pre-Test and Post-Test Scores to Illustrate the Differentiation of the Two Groups
Note. Group 1 is synchronous and group 2 is asynchronous

Table 4.2 illustrates the results of the QPT scores in two groups according to sex. According to the results of table 4.2, the mean scores do not show a considerable difference between the sexes in both groups, they were tested.

TABLE 4.2
QPT DESCRIPTIVE STATISTIC

Group	sex	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
SYN	FEM	11	43	47	44.81	1.08
	MAL	19	40	46	42.87	1.74
	Total	30	40	47	43.58	1.79
ASY	FEM	14	40	46	42.86	1.95
	MAL	16	40	47	43.39	2.18
	Total	30	40	47	43.14	2.06
Total	FEM	25	40	47	43.71	1.88
	MAL	35	40	47	43.11	1.94
	Total	60	40	47	43.36	1.92

Table 4.3 examines the results of the pre-test scores in both groups, and in accordance to gender. In this table, the mean scores of the pre-test in both groups are homogenous for both genders. As a result the mean score obtained in the

synchronous group for females was (36.46 ± 6.54) and for males (35.69 ± 10.54) , also in the asynchronous group for females was (38.79 ± 8.72) and for males (40.87 ± 11.52) . Furthermore the mean pre-test score regardless of group segregation, only encountering gender type, for females was (37.77 ± 7.77) slightly lower than males (38.06 ± 11.14) .

TABLE 4.3
PRE-TEST DESCRIPTIVE STATISTIC

Group	Sex	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
SYN	FEM	11	24	42	36.46	6.54
	MAL	19	10	51	35.69	10.54
	Total	30	10	51	35.97	9.16
ASY	FEM	14	27	55	38.79	8.72
	MAL	16	24	58	40.87	11.52
	Total	30	24	58	39.90	10.19
Total	FEM	25	24	55	37.77	7.77
	MAL	35	10	58	38.06	11.14
	Total	60	10	58	37.94	9.81

Table 4.4 presents the results of the two groups in regard to different genders. Based on the results of this table, the mean post-test score in both synchronous and asynchronous group for females is higher than males.

TABLE 4.4
POST-TEST DESCRIPTIVE STATISTIC

Group	Sex	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
SYN	FEM	11	46	106	77.42	17.82
	MAL	19	39	105	68.02	20.29
	Total	30	39	106	71.47	19.65
ASY	FEM	14	32	102	66.45	21.21
	MAL	16	25	81	54.23	19.09
	Total	30	25	102	59.93	20.70
Total	FEM	25	32	106	71.28	20.17
	MAL	35	25	105	61.72	20.67
	Total	60	25	106	65.70	20.84

In table 4.5 examines the results of the pre-test scores in both groups, and in accordance to age. In this table, the mean scores of the pre-test in asynchronous group show a considerable difference between the genders. As a result the mean score obtained for females was $(50.77 \pm)$ and for males $(41.64 \pm)$. Furthermore the mean pre-test score regardless of group segregation, only encountering gender type, for code females was $(40.03 \pm)$ slightly higher than males $(33.96 \pm)$.

TABLE 4.5
AGE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTIC

Group	Sex	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
SYN	FEM	11	12	16	14.87	1.436
	MAL	19	13	18	15.31	1.073
	Total	30	12	18	15.15	1.213
ASY	FEM	14	14	18	15.66	1.000
	MAL	16	12	17	14.86	1.701
	Total	30	12	18	15.23	1.453
Total	FEM	25	12	18	15.31	1.248
	MAL	35	12	18	15.10	1.392
	Total	60	12	18	15.19	1.327

Table 4.6 examines the results of the pre-test scores in both groups, and in accordance to various genders. In this table, the mean scores of the pre-test in asynchronous group show a considerable difference between the genders. As a result the mean score obtained for females was $(50.77 \pm)$ and for males $(41.64 \pm)$. Furthermore the mean pre-test score regardless of group segregation, only encountering gender type, for code females was $(40.03 \pm)$ slightly higher than males $(33.96 \pm)$.

TABLE 4.6
DIFFERENCE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTIC

Group	sex	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
SYN	FEM	11	5	73	40.97	17.379
	MAL	19	4	79	32.33	23.336
	Total	30	4	79	35.50	21.449
ASY	FEM	14	2	67	27.65	18.978
	MAL	16	-12	46	13.36	16.334
	Total	30	-12	67	20.03	18.768
Total	FEM	25	2	73	33.51	19.142
	MAL	35	-12	79	23.66	22.317
	Total	60	-12	79	27.76	21.449

Statistics analysis

This section shows the relationships between variables with respect to the objectives of the study. Before performing the analysis five three are examined to assume the normality of QPT, the pre-test, post-test, age and difference (the difference of pre-test and post-test) score. The following table shows the test normality for all five variables. According to the results obtained for the p-value, all five variables have a normal distribution and the analysis of these three variables based on parametric tests is continued.

TABLE 4.7
TESTS OF NORMALITY

Variable	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
QPT	.074	60	.200*	.982	60	.500
Pre_Test	.080	60	.200*	.981	60	.484
Post_Test	.064	60	.200*	.979	60	.389
Age	.109	60	.074	.970	60	.147
Difference	.093	60	.200	.974	60	.218

Variable QPT

The first table in this section analyses the relation between QPT and the teaching groups. According to the normality of the QPT results an independent t-test was used to evaluate the relation (Table 4.8). According to p-value=0.378 in this line the assumption of equality of variances for the two groups is accepted. In other words, the teaching groups have not had an impact on the QPT scores.

TABLE 4.8
BETWEEN GROUPS QPT DIFFERENCES IN THE INDEPENDENT T-TEST

	t-test for Equality of Means						
	t	df	p-value	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Equal variances	.889	58	.378	.44208	.49721	-.55320	1.43735

Variable Pre-Test

Table 4.9 used t-test to determine and analyze the relationship between the pre-test and teaching groups. According to the table, there was no significant correlation between these two variables (p-value = 0.122).

TABLE 4.9
BETWEEN GROUPS PRE-TEST DIFFERENCES IN THE INDEPENDENT T-TEST

	T-test for Equality of Means						
	t	df	p-value	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Equal variances	-1.57	58	.122	-3.92733	2.50090	-8.93343	1.07877

Variable Post-Test

In table 4.10 the relationship between test scores and teaching groups was evaluated. In this table there is a significant relationship between the two variables (p -value = 0.031). This means that the post-test score mean difference was 11.5 points more than the asynchronous group and this difference is statistically significant.

TABLE 4.10
BETWEEN GROUPS POST-TEST DIFFERENCES IN THE INDEPENDENT T-TEST

	T-test for Equality of Means						
	t	df	p-value	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Equal variances	2.214	58	.031	11.53839	5.21083	1.10779	21.96900

Variable Age

Table 4.11 elaborates on the relationship between test scores and age. In this table there is no significant relationship between the two variables (p -value = 0.818).

TABLE 4.11
BETWEEN GROUPS AGE DIFFERENCES IN THE INDEPENDENT T-TEST

	T-test for Equality of Means						
	t	df	p-value	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Equal variances	-.231	58	.818	-.080	.345	-.771	.612

Variable Difference

In the last table 4.12 the relationship between test scores and difference was evaluated. In this table there is a significant relationship between the two variables (p -value = 0.004). This means that on average there is 15.46 points more and this difference was statistically significant.

TABLE 4.12
BETWEEN GROUP DIFFERENCE DIFFERENCES IN THE INDEPENDENT T-TEST

	T-test for Equality of Means						
	t	df	p-value	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Equal variances	2.972	58	.004	15.466	5.203	5.050	25.882

The post-test scores

In table 4.13, the relationship between the scores of post-test with gender, group, pre-test and age were evaluated. Also in table 4.13 between post-tests and learning group variable (p -value = 0.003) and also between post-test variable and gender (p -value = 0.027), significant relationship was observed. In relation to the teaching groups and post-test scores synchronous group, on average, is about 15.4 units higher than asynchronous group with adjust or other variable. In addition on gender, the post-test scores for females are on average about 11.3 points higher than males with adjust or other variable.

TABLE 4.13
THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE SCORES OF POST-TEST WITH GENDER, GROUP, AGE AND PRE-TEST

Parameter	B	Std. Error	95% Wald Confidence Interval		p-value
			Lower	Upper	
(Intercept)	-2.236	25.699	-53.737	49.265	.931
SYN	15.417	5.020	5.358	25.477	.003
ASY	0 ^a
FEM	11.302	4.967	1.348	21.257	.027
MAL	0 ^a
Age	1.433	.925	-.421	3.287	.127
Pre_Test	.520	.256	.008	1.033	.047

For the relation between post-test and age, on average it is 1.4 units higher with the p-value of .127, no significant relation, with adjust or other variable. In addition in relation to pretest, post-test is .520 higher with the p-value of .047, which there is a significant relation, with adjust or other variable.

For age the number and positive correlation needed for the increase of a year to the age of the students, 1.43 units are needed. Also there is a positive correlation between pre-test and post-test which means that on average the pre-test score on a pre-test increase of one unit adds .52 to the post-test. Figure 4.2 illustrates the mean scores in comparison to groups.

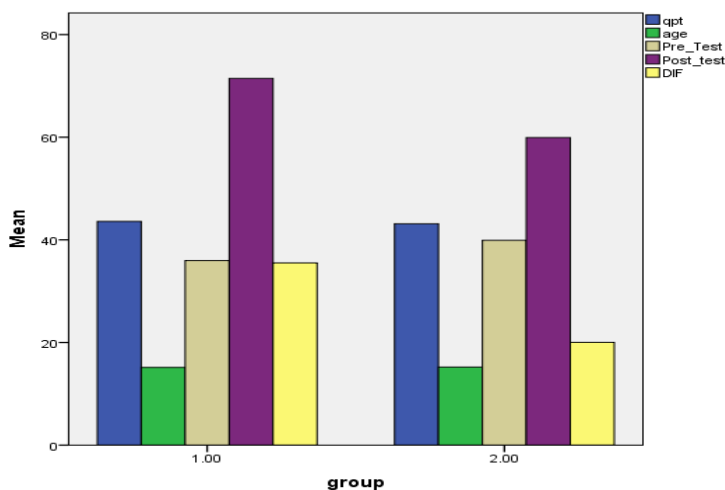


Figure 4.2 Mean Scores in Comparison to Groups
Note. Group 1 is synchronous and Group 2 is asynchronous

IV. DISCUSSION

The first research question investigated the effect of synchronous teaching on the learning of vocabulary in Iranian EFL students. As mentioned before the synchronous group were given a pre-test and after a considerable amount of time after that they were taught the vocabulary items in the period of the semester, a post-test which was a reordered form of the pre-test. According to the results obtained through t-test statistical analyses with p-value of $0.003 < 0.05$, the first null hypothesis was accepted. The results of the statistical analyses proved that teaching vocabulary synchronously improves the vocabulary acquisition of EFL students.

The second research question analyzed the effect of asynchronous method on learning on Iranian EFL students' vocabulary learning. In this process the asynchronous group was also given a pre-test and a rearranged form for the post-test after a semester of which they were taught the vocabulary items. In correspondence with the results that were gathered through t-test statistical analyses with the p-value $0.003 < 0.05$, the second null hypothesis was also accepted. Results attained through statistical analyses approved that teaching vocabulary asynchronously also improves the vocabulary acquisition of EFL students.

The third research question elaborated on the difference of synchronous and asynchronous vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL learners. As mentioned after the pre-test was taken from both groups and the teaching of vocabulary a post-test was taken from them. Through t-test statistical analyses of the results with p-value $0.003 < 0.05$, the third null hypothesis was also accepted in the sense that there was a significance difference between synchronous and asynchronous learning of vocabulary. According to the results the synchronous group improved significantly in comparison to the asynchronous group.

The present research focused on vocabulary acquisition synchronously and asynchronously to investigate the base and most important step in language learning. As it has been affirmed vocabulary plays a vital role in language learning to extent where researchers claim that more knowledge of words has a direct influence on the results of languages and its exams (Laufer 1992; Laufer and Goldstein 2004; Alderson 2005; Albrechtsen, Haastrup, and Henriken 2008).

As Iranian students have been proven to be more dependent learners, the instructional design should focus on customization, not standardization of content to move the learners' attention to its needs (Reigeluth, 1999). The implication of the results of the study is that it enables policy makers understand students more and select the most convenient method that learners' best adapt to. Synchronous and asynchronous methods are methods mainly used in vocabulary teaching of which the results of this research implicate that synchronous method for Iranian EFL learners is the most convenient. It can be appointed by this that Iranians are still dependent and using dependent procedures gets better results from them and also pointing out the needs in making Iranian teen students independent.

The lack and physical non-availability of the instructors in asynchronous teaching for students has been reported to be their main cause of concern (Harasim et al., 1995; Ory & Bullock, 1997). The physical availability of instructor and classmates in the synchronous method is another reason for the more notable results. In the case of gender this could conclude that male students are more dependent in comparison to female students. To overcome this issue, instructional

system designers have to focus on training/learning and decide which technology works more efficiently in certain environments (Him et al., 1999).

The confirmation of the results being that synchronous method had significant outcome as to asynchronous method, affirms that the time spent in classes and on tasks is more efficient (Chun, 1994; Kern, 1995). Applying too can be that for better empowerment, autonomy, equality, and enhancement of critical thinking skills synchronous applies (see Kroonenberg, 1994/1995; Warschauer, Turbee, & Roberts, 1996). Howbeit Cummins and Sayers (1995) pointed out that asynchronous learning can too create opportunities in second language learning. Ironically Abrams (2003) states that in terms of having time to think, asynchronous method in comparison to synchronous method is more convenient by giving students time to think, have access to resources and planning their answers. In spite of this statement the result outcomes of the present study proved differently.

V. CONCLUSION

The Current research elaborated on the synchronous and asynchronous teaching of vocabulary as the main approaches to teaching in the world. Research was conducted on 60 Iranian EFL students between the ages of 12 to 18 with 25 males and 35 females, to evaluate which method would be most beneficial in the learning of vocabulary. The B. J. Thomas's "Advanced Vocabulary and Idiom" book was used to evaluate and teach vocabulary to the students. Two groups of 30 that were chosen were taught for 10 sessions in the period of a semester. The synchronous group was taught in class and the asynchronous group was taught by email. After the process of teaching was done a parallel form of the pretest was taken from both groups. The results of the posttest indicated that there was a considerable difference between both groups. In attaining better results the synchronous group outperformed the asynchronous group in learning vocabulary thus indicating that interaction and collaboration has a key role in the learning process.

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Biria, R., Hosseini, M.*, and Rajabi, B. "Improving Oral Fluency of EFL Students with Different Proficiency Levels through Explicit Instruction of Face Threatening Strategies" English Language Teaching (ELT), Published in TPLS in October 2017.

Hosseini, M. "Improving academic writing: Self-efficacy and collaborative learning" ECER conference, Bolzano, Italy, September 2018

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A Contrastive Analysis of Chinese Humor and English Humor in Intercultural Communication

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Abstract—Humor plays an important role in daily life and also quite useful in interpersonal communication. Nowadays, the cross-cultural communication between the English-speaking countries and China becomes more and more frequent while some humor is difficult to appreciate with diverse cultural backgrounds. Therefore, this paper aims at analyzing the Chinese and English humor from their similarities, like the use of ambiguity and figure of speech, as well as differences, especially in functions, topics and ways of expression. Related causes are further discussed the differences. Hopefully, the findings will help to reduce the obstacles in understanding humor in different culture and promote transcultural communication in a delightful manner.

Index Terms—Chinese humor, English humor, similarities, differences, causes

I. INTRODUCTION

As a significant part of language and culture, humor has penetrated into nearly every aspect of our life and made a profound influence on interpersonal relationship. On one hand, humor can present people's views and attitudes towards life. On the other hand, humor can bring encouragement and consolation in difficult conditions. With the development of globalization, people are more inclined to use some humorous words to promote the cross-cultural communication, a good way to break the ice and establish a relaxed environment between each other. However, if not used appropriately, some humor may even lead to misunderstandings for the two sides.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The word "humor" is derived from the Latin word "humor", which means fluid or damp originally. The word "humor" has not been translated into Chinese until 1930s by Lin Yutang. There are more than one version of humor's definition. To read them through, it can be inferred that humor is something funny or laughable. As for the classifications of humor, scholars hold different points of view. Among the different classifications, according to Bergson, he classified humor into situational humor and linguistic humor. Situational humor is also called situation-dependent humor which takes place in specific conditions and includes laughable behaviors. The representative forms are the pantomime or cartoon. Linguistic humor is mainly expressed with the use of words, e.g., jokes or some humorous stories (Bergson, 1980). Linguistic humor is the focus of this paper.

The scholars abroad mainly concentrate on the humor production mechanism, like the Superiority Theory, Incongruity Theory, Relief Theory, Cooperative Principle and some other linguistic theories. The researchers in China have studied the English humor from the perspective of pragmatics, cognitive linguistics and other discipline. Some researchers also compare the differences between humor in different cultural backgrounds from the perspective of intercultural communication, which is a new direction in the humor study (Qian, 2015).

Hence, in this paper, the Chinese and English humor will be contrasted by analyzing the similarities and differences in the two influencing languages, further the underlying factors will also be discussed to have a better understanding of the two kinds of humor.

III. THE SIMILARITIES OF CHINESE HUMOR AND ENGLISH HUMOR

Since some humor can be appreciated internationally, it is crucial to first discuss the similarities of Chinese humor and English humor, especially in the use of ambiguity and figure of speech.

A. Use of Ambiguity

Ambiguity is widely used as a way to produce a humorous effect both in English and Chinese humor because ambiguity can make a word or sentence understood more than one level of meaning. In this part, two kinds of ambiguity will be analyzed, including phonological ambiguity and lexical ambiguity.

1. Phonological Ambiguity

Phonological ambiguity refers to a phenomenon that two unit words sound the same but have different spellings and meanings, for instance, "whether" and "weather", "not" and "knot". Phonological ambiguity is regarded as an important source of humor. Two examples from English and Chinese humor are presented:

Example 1:

One day, a chemistry teacher asked his students, "What is the chemical formula for water?"

A student answered proudly, "HIJK~O!"

Her teacher felt confused and asked, "What are you talking about?"

The student replied, "Yesterday you said the formula for water is H to O!" (Dong, 1995, p.12)

Analysis: In this English humor, a chemistry teacher asked the students a question about the chemical formula for water. As we all know, the answer is H²O. However, the pronunciation of "two" sounds the same with "to". One of the students considered the answer was just "H to O" and recited the alphabet from H to O, leading to the humorous effect.

Example 2:

有人在路边做问卷调查，问：“你幸福吗？”有的路人说幸福，有的人说不幸福。后来遇见一个农民，调查者问道：“你幸福吗？”农民无辜的说道：“俺姓王。” (Jiang, 2004, p.11)

Analysis: In this Chinese humor, someone makes a survey about whether people are happy with the present life at the roadside. However, a farmer gives an irrelevant answer, which is quite humorous. In Chinese, the expression "I'm happy" and "My surname is Fu" share the same units of pronunciation. Obviously the farmer mishears the question and the unexpected answer tickles the funny bone.

2. Lexical Ambiguity

Lexical ambiguity refers to a phenomenon that the understandings of one word or phrase are not the same in different people's eyes. With the development of the two languages, the meanings of words have changed a lot. The misunderstanding of the new meaning and old meaning can possibly form humor. Here are the examples created by lexical ambiguity from both English and Chinese humor.

Example 3:

Tom: Is your mother engaged?

Jim: Engaged? She has three children, you see! (Dong, 1995, p.16)

Analysis: In English, the word "engaged" means "busy" or "making an agreement to get married". Tom asks Jim whether his mother is busy or not. Obviously, Jim misunderstands what Tom wants to express, which is quite amusing.

Example 4:

妈妈：这么优秀的男孩子你不喜欢，那你要什么样的？

女儿：我要一个与我有着共同语言的。

妈妈：他又不是外国人，你们怎么会没有共同语言？(Jiang, 2004, p.19)

Analysis: In Chinese, "共同语言" originally means sharing the same language, gradually it refers to sharing the same hobbies or view points. In this joke, what the daughter expresses is to get married with a man who has the same interests and values with her. However, her mother pretends to misunderstand it as the original meaning to show her dissatisfaction in a witty way.

B. Use of Figure of Speech

English humor bears another similarity to Chinese humor, that is, the technique of figure of speech applied in some jokes, including metaphor, hyperbole and rhyme and so on. If it is used properly, humor will be far more vivid and thought-provoking. The following part will analyze the employment of figure of speech in English and Chinese humor from three major aspects.

1. Metaphor

Metaphor refers to a figure of speech that implicitly compares two things which are unrelated but have common characteristics in some way. Naturally, metaphor is one main figure of speech employed in both English and Chinese humor. The following two examples are from English and Chinese humor respectively.

Example 5:

Everyone has a photographic memory. Some just don't have film. (Dong, 1995, p.51)

Analysis: In this English humor, human's memory is compared to a camera and the process of memorizing is like taking photos, which cannot be done without rolls of film. Therefore, the writer satirizes those people who are very forgetful and just act like a camera without films.

Example 6:

有些人写的文章就是婆娘的裹脚布，又长又臭。(Jiang, 2004, p.49)

Analysis: In this Chinese joke, the long yet meaningless articles are compared to the cloth which women use to wrap their feet in the old days in China. The use of metaphor vividly mocks those boring articles in a satiric manner.

2. Hyperbole

Hyperbole is a way to use exaggeration to create humorous effect. It can create a deep impression or evoke strong feelings. The following two examples will help to illustrate it clearly.

Example 7:

在世界第一瀑布前，导游对游客说：“如果女士们可以安静一点，我们就能听到瀑布的水声了。”(Jiang, 2004, p.45)

Analysis: In this joke, the guide exaggerates that the women's noise even goes beyond the huge sound of water to indicate that the tourists are very noisy. The use of hyperbole from the guide humorously displays his irritation.

Example 8:

A foreigner boasts to say: In my hometown, the millet grows up as big as the corn. Suddenly, he trips over a watermelon in the field. A farmer says as he laughs: Mind my grape!(Dong, 1995,p.47)

Analysis: In this English joke, the foreigner shows off his country's millet. Similarly, the farmer also exaggerates that his grape is as big as watermelon to satirize the nonnative in an interesting way.

3. Rhyme

Rhyme is a humorous way where the last word in one line has the similar sound as the last word in the next line to make fun. The followings are the two examples from Chinese and English humor.

Example 9:

儿子: 我站似一棵松。

母亲: 看你像根葱。(Jiang, 2004,p.33)

Analysis: In this Chinese humor, the two words “松” and “葱” share the same rhyme “ong”. The son thinks he has stood straightly like a pine while his mother makes fun of him by saying that he looks just like a scallion. The striking contrast makes the humorous effect.

Example 10:

My darling, my lover, my beautiful wife: marrying you has screwed up my life.(Dong, 1995,p.29)

Analysis: In English, the word “wife” sounds like the word “life”. From the seemingly love poem, we can see the husband subtly describes his unhappy marriage within two rhymed parts of sentences.

IV. THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ENGLISH HUMOR AND CHINESE HUMOR

Compared with the similarities, the differences between English and Chinese humor are more obvious, especially in the perspectives of the function, the favored topic, the way of expression. Therefore, in the following section, these three aspects will be illustrated with some examples.

A. Different Functions

“According to the different functions, humor can be divided into the critical humor, which is to satire some negative phenomena in life; the affirmative humor, which is to highlight some positive phenomena in life and the pure humor, only the interesting reflection on some trivial phenomena in life.” (Attardo, 1994,p.46)

Because the westerners are relatively more informal and open than Chinese, there is a large proportion of pure humor in their life. That's to say, they can make humorous jokes almost in any places and for anyone. However, China is influenced by traditional Confucian thought deeply. Chinese people lay emphasis on social education function of humor. It seems that some Chinese humor has a historical and social mission. Many such traditional crosstalks, short sketches and ironic jokes are widespread. One typical example is the short sketches of Zhao Benshan, a once national humorist, the subjects of whose works are selected from villages and peasants. Some of his works mock the unkind rich people, the wrongdoing officers and the poor people without ambition, which also make people laugh, but bitterly.

B. Different Topics

Among many topics, one special but common topic is about sex in English humor. Due to the English-speaking countries' explicit culture, people are not ashamed of talking about sex. This kind of jokes can be easily found in TV. Meanwhile, people from English-speaking countries take an active part in political activities, so the jokes about politics are also popular. Another topic favored by English speakers is about religion. Since Christianity is the major religion in Western countries, the jokes of the Bible and Christianity can be read a lot in English humor. What's more, certain groups of people are often laughed at in western humor. The first group is the ethnic minorities, e.g. British people often mock the Scottish and Irish people, while Americans take the Black and Jews as targets. The second group is some professional people who have respectable jobs, like doctors and lawyers. The next group is those who are prone to fall into fixed images, like the Blonde and the redneck.

Example 11:

A: How do you know when Asians are moving into your neighborhood?

B: When the Mexicans start getting car insurance.

Analysis: This is an ethnic joke. Because in Americans' eyes, Asian people are stereotyped as bad drivers and Mexicans as impoverished. Hence, some stereotypes are often borrowed in such humor.

On the contrary, compared with English-speaking countries, Chinese people don't talk about sex jokes, which is considered immoral in Chinese implicit culture. Chinese people also regard politics as something serious, thus they rarely take politics as a topic of joke, especially in the formal situations. As for the religious jokes, buddhism and Taoism are prevalent in China, so the related gods and ghosts often occur in the jokes. On the other hand, due to the Chinese long agricultural economy, there are a lot of jokes taking the landlords and other rich men as the targets. Moreover, since China is a country with five thousand year, people also like to enjoy some jokes based on renowned

ancient people and famous events.

Example 12:

岳母对着岳飞慈祥地说道：儿啊，为娘想在你背上刺四个字让你不忘娘的教诲，你怕疼吗？岳飞说道：不怕！岳母泪眼婆娑地刺下四个大字：龘龘龘龘。” (Jiang, 2004, p.70)

Analysis: This humorous joke is adapted from an ancient Chinese story of Yue Fei, who is one of China's greatest generals. In the Song dynasty, Yue Fei's mother wanted his son to join the army and serve the country all his life, so she tattooed four Chinese characters “精忠报国” on the back of her son. Obviously, in this joke, the original characters are replaced by another four characters that have many more strokes, which undoubtedly would make Xue Fei feel more painful, producing humorous effect for readers.

C. *Different Ways of Humor Expression*

Chinese and American People adopt quite different verbal communication styles. Americans tend to follow open and direct communication style because they think people should reveal true intentions, wants, opinions with precise words and in a straightforward manner. As a result, in the humor expression, the real events and even sometimes the real names are often used rather than something that are made up. Therefore, some English humor read much sharper and more unfriendly than Chinese humor.

Example 13:

President Clinton sees one of his assistant approaches him anxiously.

The president says "What is it?"

"It's the Abortion Bill, Mr. President. How do you want to deal with it?" the assistant asks.

"Just go ahead and pay it." the President replies. (Lv, 2008,p.8)

Analysis: In this English humor, when the assistant mentioned the Abortion Bill, the president Clinton thought it was the bill for the abortion of his mistress, which is the satire of the sex scandal of this president.

On the contrary, Chinese people don't always state explicitly what they want to say and what they really mean. Instead, they are more likely to imply what they think with ambiguous words, because in Chinese culture, people incline to avoid direct confrontation, they prefer to use the indirect irony of others in humor expression, for instance, they will make fun of the superior's mistake in a mild way. Similarly, a made-up name or plot rather than the real name or event is used to reach the humorous effect.

Example 14:

某人房屋漏雨，屡次请求修缮，无人答复。一日，领导来视察，问及房子的情况，此人答道：还好，平时不会漏雨，只有下雨天才漏。次日，修屋顶的人来了。(Jiang, 2004,p.73)

Analysis: In this joke, Chinese humor's indirectness can be clearly demonstrated from the man's humorous words that his roof only leaked on the rainy days, which satirizes the workers' inefficiency in an indirect way. Besides, no real names are mentioned in the joke.

V. SOME CAUSES OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ENGLISH HUMOR AND CHINESE HUMOR

As discussed before, English humor varies from Chinese humor in more aspects. It is not enough to simply touch on the differences and the underlying causes also need to be analyzed, including a variety of cultural values, history and geography and religious beliefs.

A. *Cultural Value*

Cultural values are learned as rules or principles upon which the society exists. Understanding the different cultural values can help to appreciate the humor differences. In western countries, individualism is the essence of their culture. It holds that a person is supposed to think or judge independently and possesses his goals, needs and desires. They are taught to consider themselves as individuals who have to take responsibilities for themselves. Therefore, English speakers are always assertive in communicating with others and express their views and feelings directly. As a result, the English humor is more direct, and even aggressive, also there are more topics covered in their humor.

Chinese people think highly of collectivism, which is deeply rooted in Chinese culture. It emphasizes the benefit and the need of the group rather than the individual. In such culture, people always express their views and feelings with great caution. Reflected in Chinese humor, indirectness is the primary feature of it, in other words, the humor should target at certain people with an appropriate purpose in a restricted way.

B. *History and Geography*

Different histories shape the distinctive cultures. China is a country with a recorded history of more than 5000 years, so it is common for Chinese to tell some ancient jokes. On the other hand, influenced by the long history, people have great respect for the Emperor and others in high positions, so it's not polite to make fun of them. As for the English-speaking countries, for example, America went through a hard struggle to win its independence, therefore, in their humor, equal relationship is more embodied, even the scandal of the president can be a joke.

As for the geography, Chinese civilization is originated from the Yellow River, where the ancient Chinese made a

living on agriculture, so Chinese are more conservative and mild in their humor expression. On the contrary, most of the English-speaking countries started their journey near the ocean. The long-term adventure at sea makes the people open-minded and active. Consequently, compared with Chinese humor, English humor is more explicit and even violent.

C. Religious Belief

Religion, as an important part of culture, is a system of worship. The religious belief exerts a great effect on people's communication style. It is also the factor leading to humor differences between China and western countries.

Christianity is the major or even the dominant religion in western countries. According to the Bible, people are born with original sin which is inherited from Adam and Eve. It is believed that natural desires are the instincts of human beings. So in English humor, people are not ashamed to tell sexual jokes. Also, Christianity puts a high value on equality and freedom for it holds that all human beings are God's children, which causes the equal joking relation. Christianity and Bible are always become the topics in English humor.

In China, there is no dominant religion like Christianity worshiped by English-speaking countries. There are four parallel religions in Chinese history: Buddhism, Islam, Confucianism and Taoism. Among the four religions, Confucianism is the most influential. The core of Confucianism is humanism and harmony, thus Chinese humor is indirect and the joking relation is strict.

D. Thinking Pattern

Chinese and English speakers have adopted diversified communication styles, which are also reflected in humor expression. Essentially, these differences are also affected by different thinking patterns.

The linear thinking pattern is engraved on English speakers' minds while the spiral one is in Chinese'. Western people think that a cause leads to an effect, however, in Chinese culture, a cause can lead to an effect and it can be an effect as well. Therefore, the conception of wholeness and integration is highlighted in Chinese culture. Consequently, some Chinese humor pursues the pleasure in searching the laughing points step by step, embodied typically in Chinese traditional cross-talks, which hold the audience in suspense from the beginning to the end. That's why patience is needed in enjoying some Chinese humor.

VI. CONCLUSION

As the saying goes, when in Rome, do as the Romans do. Therefore, to appreciate even use the target cultural humor, it is supposed to first try to learn the related culture as much as possible. Thus, a comparative study on Chinese and English is fairly necessary: the similarities of Chinese and English humor lie in the same techniques like ambiguity and figure of speech and the differences include various functions, topics, and ways of expression studied in this paper. To have a deep understanding of the humor differences, the hidden cause is another factor to learn.

Since humor is complicated, the present study is far from adequacy in researching the similarities and differences between the two kinds of humor. The causes are not analyzed profoundly enough, either. More comparative studies can be made in the future.

However, considering the risk of offending others in other culture in the jokes is great, the humor use still needs extremely caution in the cross-cultural communication.

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An Analysis on Syntactic Derivation of “Patient + Agent + Ergative Verb”

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Abstract—“Patient + Agent + Ergative verb”, in fact, it is a kind of absolutive structure, in which word order and case marking contribute to its formation. It assumes that “Patient + Ergative verb” is the basis syntactic structure, which generates “Patient + Agent + Ergative verb”. And it verifies the hypothesis by checking of light verbs, the characteristics of split-ergativity and Case Hierarchy.

Index Terms—patient, agent, ergative, absolutive, word order, case

I. INTRODUCTION

According to Croft (2001), word languages are divided into six types in view of word order called micro-word order: accusative, ergative, unergative, passive, antipassive and inverse. Comparing with the macro-word order such as SVO, SOV, OVS, OSV, VSO and VOS, typological linguists regard these micro-word order as a typological feature of word order, and all these exist in Chinese syntax. Liu Xiaolin (2006, 2008) and Liu Xiaolin & Wang Wenbin (2009, 2010) think that Chinese diverse word orders are closely related with Chinese syntactic category, such as case markers, quantifier system, complement system. The grammatical category in ancient Chinese combines with monosyllabic verbs, which contributes to verbal weakening, semantic self-sufficiency and transitivization.

(1)

- a. 张三吃了饭。(accusative)
zhāngsān chī le fàn
Zhang San eat CS meal
'Zhang San has eaten.'
- b. 张三打碎了杯子。(ergative)
zhāngsān dǎsù le bēizi
Zhang San broke CS cup
'Zhang San broke the cup.'
- c. 张三到了。(unergative)
zhāngsān dào le
Zhang San arrive CS
'Zhang San has arrived.'
- d. 张三吃了。(antipassive)
zhāngsān chī le
Zhang San eat CS
'Zhang San has eaten.'
- e. 饭被吃了。(passive)
fàn bèi chī le
meal done eat CS
'The meal was eaten.'
- f. 饭吃了。(inverse)
fàn chī le
meal eat CS
* 'The meal was eaten'

Based on Chinese syntactic characteristics and semantics in ergative-absolutive system, “Agent + Ergative verb + Patient” can be transformed into “Patient + Ergative verb” (Jin Lixin & Wang Hongwei, 2014). Another micro-order “Patient + Agent + Ergative verb” based on “Patient + Ergative verb” also exists in Chinese syntactic category. And this micro-word order also exists in Chinese existential sentence, resultative complement and “把”bǎ sentence. Shi Yuzhi (2000), Shi Chunhong (2004) and Xu Liejiong & Liu Danqing (1998) call this micro-word order as absolutive topic

sentence. What is the motivation or mechanism of this micro-word order, or is it derived from other word orders? Why does this kind of micro-word order occur in Chinese? Above are research questions in this study.

II. TRANSFORMATION OF SYNTACTIC POSITION IN CHINESE SYNTAX

There is a common problem for absolutive verbs, existential verbs and verbs in “把”bǎ sentence: how to explain the case as the noun component postponing absolutive verbs? In other words, why the patient in the ergative-absolutive syntactic system can be located in the syntactic subject? The real motivation of this syntactic shift is the case theory. Many scholars interpreted that existential verbs and verbs in “把”bǎ sentence transformed into unaccasative verbs were based on the internal argument hypothesis. But this study assumes that these unaccasative verbs all behave split-ergative nature, which will be proved by syntactic transformation as follows.

A. Syntactic Transformation in Resultative Complement

(2)

a. 我吃完饭了。

wǒ chī wán fàn le
1SG eat PFV meal CS
'I have eaten'

b. 饭吃完了。

fàn chī wán le
meal eat PFV CS
'The meal was finished'

(3)

a. 张三喝完了酒。

zhāngsān hē wán le jiǔ
Zhang San drink PFV CS wine
'Zhang San drunk up the wine'

b. 酒喝完了。

jiǔ hē wán le
wine drink PFV CS
'wine has been drunk up'

(4)

a. 我看完了这本书。

wǒ kàn wán le zhè běn shū
1SG read PFV CS this CL book
'I finished reading this book'

b. 这本书看完了。

zhè běn shū kàn wán le
this CL book read PFV CS
'This book was finished'

The above sentences (a) in (1)-(4) belongs to resultative complement structures, which also have syntactic characteristics of ergativity, but not all verbs in resultative complement structure are ergative verbs. It is found that when the semantic of the resultant predicate points to the object and the life degree of the former and the latter argument is different, the verbs are ergative verbs (Wang Zhongxiang & Jin Lixin, 2017). But in the above examples, there are still the following ways of transformation, such as “Agent + Ergative verb + Patient” can be transformed into “Patient + Agent + Ergative verb”, but “Agent + Patient + Ergative verb” is unjustified.

(5) I have eaten the meal.

a. 我吃完了饭。

wǒ chī wán fàn le
1SG eat PFV meal CS

b. 饭我吃完了。

fàn wǒ chī wán le
Meal 1SG eat PFV CS

c. *我饭吃完了。

wǒ fàn chī wán le
1SG meal eat PFV CS

(6) Zhang San drunk up the wine.

a. 张三喝完了酒。

zhāngsān hē wán le jiǔ
Zhang San drink PFV CS wine

b. 酒张三喝完了。
jiǔ zhāngsān hē wán le
wine ZhangSan drink PFV CS

c. *张三酒喝完了。
zhāngsān jiǔ hē wán le
ZhangSan wine drink PFV CS

(7) I finished reading this book.

a. 我看完了这本书。
wǒ kàn wán le zhè běn shū
1SG read PFV CS this CL book

b. 这本书我看完了。
zhè běn shū wǒ kàn wán le
this CL book 1SG read PFV CS

c. *我这本书看完了。
wǒ zhè běn shū kàn wán le
1SG this CL book read PFV CS

But in (6c) and (7c), “Zhang San” and “wine”, “I” and “this book” both have possessive relationship, “Zhang San’s wine have drunk up” and “My book have been finished” are justified. But in the following examples, this kind of transformation is illegal.

(8) The story amuses the child.

a. 故事听乐了孩子。
gùshì tīng lè le háizǐ
story listen happy CS child

b. *孩子听乐了故事。
háizǐ tīng lè le gùshì
child listen happy CS story

c. *故事孩子听乐了。
gùshì háizǐ tīng lè le
story child listen happy CS

(9) The novel moves sister.

a. 小说看哭了姐姐。
xiǎoshuō kàn kū le jiějiě
novel read cry CS sister

b. *姐姐看哭了小说。
jiějiě kàn kū le xiǎoshuō
sister read cry CS novel

c. *小说姐姐看哭了。
xiǎoshuō jiějiě kàn kū le
novel sister read cry CS

(10) Mother is tired of washing clothes

a. 衣服洗累了妈妈。
yīfú xǐ lèi le māmā
clothes wash tired CS mother

b. *妈妈洗累了衣服。
māmā xǐ lèi le yīfú
mother wash tires CS clothes

c. *衣服妈妈洗累了。
yīfú māmā xǐ lèi le
clothes mother wash tired CS

Syntactic structures in (b) are illegal because the semantic components of the former and the latter arguments in resultative complement structure are unbalanced. In “听了”, “看哭” and “洗累”, the former verb can explain the latter verb by the manner and reason, but not the latter item from the view of result and state. What’s more, the syntactic position of the former and the latter in attributive structures cannot be inverse. In (a), the semantics of the former item points to the object, such as “听”, “了”, “看”, “哭”, “洗” and “累” all point to “孩子”, “姐姐” and “妈妈”. In (b), the semantics of the former item does not point to the object because the object cannot be the causative complement of the latter. The latter clause complement and the object cannot form the dominating-dominated relationship, so (b) and (c) both are illegal. According to Wang Zhongxiang & Jin Lixin (2017), ‘ergative resultative complement structure’ refers to the semantic heteronyms of V_1 and V_2 . In other words, V_1 points to the main argument and V_2 points to the object.

And the transformation between “Agent + Ergative verb + Patient” and “Patient + Agent + Ergative verb” can only take place in the ‘ergative resultative complement structure’.

B. Syntactic Transformation in Existential Sentence

Li Yuming (1987) discussed the interchangeability of N_1 and N_2 in existential sentences “ N_1 + existential verb + N_2 ”, which can be transformed into “ N_2 + existential verb + N_1 ”, such as “台上坐着主席团” transforms into “主席团坐在台上”. The condition is that the semantics of N_1 and N_2 are non-commutative and the existential verbs are inversely connected. It mainly depends on the local strength of N_1 and the strength of combination with the existential verbs; on the other hand, it also depends on the types of the locative phrase. However, Li Yuming does not deal with the situation where N_1 and N_2 can be present before the verb at the same time. So “ N_1 + N_2 + existential verb” is justified, while “ N_2 + N_1 + existential verb” is not.

(11) The presidium was sitting on the stage.

- a. 台上坐着主席团。
tái shàng zuò zhe zhǔxítuán
stage on sit CS presidium
- b. 主席团台上坐着。
zhǔxítuán tái shàng zuò zhe
presidium stage on sit CS
- c. *台上主席团坐着
tái shàng zhǔxítuán zuò zhe
stage on presidium sit CS

(12) Three prisoners run from the prison.

- a. 监狱里跑了三个犯人。
jiānyùlǐ pǎo le sān gè fàn rén
prison run CS three CL prisoner
- b. 监狱里三个犯人跑了。
jiānyùlǐ sān gè fàn rén pǎo le
prison three CL prisoner run CS
- c. *三个犯人监狱里跑了。
sān gè fàn rén jiānyùlǐ pǎo le
three CL prisoner prison run CS

But the following examples cannot exchange into “ N_1 + N_2 + existential verb”.

(13) There is a drawing on the wall.

- a. 墙上挂了一幅画。
qiángshàng guà le yì fú huà
wall on hung CS one CL drawing
- b. 一幅画挂在墙上。
yì fú huà guà zài qiángshàng
one CL drawing hung on wall on
- c. *墙上一幅画挂了。
qiángshàng yì fú huà guà le
wall on one CL drawing hung CS

(14) There are several patches on the clothes.

- a. 衣服上补了几个补丁。
yīfú shàng bǔ le jǐ gè bǔdīng
clothes on make up CS several CL patch
- b. 几个补丁补在衣服上。
jǐ gè bǔdīng bǔ zài yīfú shàng
several CL patch make up on clothes on
- c. *衣服上几个补丁补了。
yīfú shàng jǐ gè bǔdīng bǔ le
clothes on several CL patch make up CS

Taking the semantic nature of the main verb, Dixon (1994) divided ‘Subject’ into two kinds, ‘split-S’ and ‘fluid-S’. We have noted that there is a semantic basis to the assignment of ‘Agent’ and ‘Object’ to the semantic roles in a transitive clause. ‘S’, in contrast, simply marks the sole core—NP in an intransitive clause. Since each grammar must include semantically contrastive marking for ‘A’ and ‘O’, this can usefully be applied also to S—those ‘S’ which are semantically similar to A will be ‘Sa’, marked like ‘A’, and those ‘S’ which are semantically similar to ‘O’ will be ‘So’, marked like ‘O’. What’s more, ‘Sa’ verbs refers to an activity that is likely to be controlled, while ‘So’ verbs refer to a non-controlled activity or state (Dixon, 1994, p. 70).

In (13)-(14), there is not semantic relationship like ‘Agent’ and ‘Patient’ in “一幅画” and “墙上”, “几个补丁” and “衣服”. In other words, “一幅画” and “衣服” deal with a prototypical controlled activity, in which activity is done without agent. But in (11)-(12), “主席团” and “三个犯人” describes a prototypically controlled activity, which means that activity can be controlled, and they are also the agent of existential verbs “坐着” and “跑着”. This syntax expresses the split-ergative nature, so ‘S’ can be marked as ‘A’. And “N₁ + existential verb + N₂” can be transformed into “N₂ + N₁ + existential verb”.

C. “把”bǎ Sentence

(15) Wu Song killed the tiger.

a. 武松把老虎打死了。

wǔsōng bǎ lǎohǔ dǎ sǐ le
Wu Song make tiger bit dead CS

b.*武松老虎打死了

wǔsōng lǎohǔ dǎ sǐ le
Wu Song tiger bit dead CS

c. 老虎被武松打死了。

lǎohǔ bèi wǔsōng dǎ sǐ le
tiger make Wu Song bit dead CS

d. 老虎武松打死了。

lǎohǔ wǔsōng dǎ sǐ le
tiger Wu Song bit dead CS

Comparing (a) and (b), the patient “老虎” depends on the case mark strongly, when “老虎” shifts from the objective position without the case mark “把”bǎ, (b) is illegal. Comparing (c) and (d), the agent “武松” can shift from the subjective position without the case mark “被”bèi. It may be due to pragmatic factors, not syntactic factors as “老虎” occupies the topic position. It supposes that the case mark “把”bǎ is obligatory, not “被”bèi.

Most of resultant verbs have intransitive usage, and the object can be used with ergative nature, because the second morpheme can transform transitive verbs into intransitive verbs. Chinese verb-complement structure have gone through a process of separation, that is, “Verb + Object + Complement”, but in modern Chinese this form disappeared and changed into “Object + Verb + Complement” with case markings “把”bǎ, “被”bèi, “将”jiāng, “让”ràng preceding the object. But in modern Chinese, form and word order are both case marking. In the following examples, the objects “菜” and “皮鞋” act as formal subjects in the sentence by changing the syntactic position, that is, the change of word order.

(16)

a. 服务员端来了菜。

fúwùyuán duānlái le cài
waiter carry CS meal
‘The waiter carries the meal’

b. 菜端来了

cài duānlái le
meal carry CS
‘The meal is carrying’

(17)

a. 他擦亮了皮鞋。

tā cāliàng le píxié
He polish CS shoes
‘He polishes the shoes’

b. 皮鞋擦亮了。

píxié cāliàng le
shoes polish CS
‘The shoes were polished’

Zhang Bojiang (2014) demonstrates that the case marking “把”bǎ not only cannot be omitted, but also bears syntactic and semantic functions; semantically, it is more thoroughly affected, and syntactically it is often embodied with perfective aspect. But in the above examples, when the agent disappears, “把”bǎ could still be omitted, such as (16d)-(17d). “把”bǎ is proved to be a syntactic mark of absolutive case (Jin Lixin & Cui Guibo, 2017). We can assume that “把”bǎ occurs in transitive structures in ergative-absolutive system. The tendency in world languages is that word order only occurs when the morphological and lexical markers are missing. This is also the tendency of ergative-absolutive languages. However, the syntactic structures are “Patient + Agent + Ergative verb” and “Patient + Ergative verb”, in which the patient takes up the position of the subject. The agent that precedes ergative verbs and postpones the patient has no syntactic marking. Therefore, when the agent appears before the verb and has no syntactic

marking, it can be judged by word order. For example:

(18)

- a. 服务员把菜端来了。
fúwùyuán bǎ cài duānlái le
waiter make meal carry CS
'The waiter carries the meal'
- b. 菜服务员端来了。
cài fúwùyuán duānlái le
meal waiter carry CS
'The meal is carrying by the waiter'

(19)

- a. 他把皮鞋擦亮了。
tā bǎ píxié cāliàng le
he make shoes polish CS
'He polishes the shoes'
- b. 皮鞋他擦亮了。
píxié tā cāliàng le
shoes he polish CS
'The shoes were polished by him'

III. JUDGEMENT OF THE BASIC WORD ORDER

There is a common problem for absolutive verbs, existential verbs and verbs in “把”bǎ sentences: how to explain the case as the noun component postpones the verbs? In other words, why the patient in the ergative-absolutive syntactic system can be located as the syntactic subject?

Logically, in the structure “Patient + Agent + Ergative verb”, there are four syntactic relationships:

- (i) N_1 is the argument, not N_2 .
(ii) N_2 is the argument, not N_1 .
(iii) N_1 and N_2 are both the arguments.
(iv) N_1 and N_2 are neither the argument.

Linguists generally distinguish arguments by three ways: syntactic consistence, word order, and case marking. In the syntactic configuration, “ N_1 ” and “ N_2 ” have relatively fixed syntactic positions, “ N_1 ” is the agent and “ N_2 ” is the patient. But “ $N_1 + V + N_2$ ” can be transformed to “ $N_2 + N_1 + V$ ”, and the syntactic and semantic structure is “Patient + Agent + Ergative verb”. Therefore, only other syntactic means can be used to distinguish that N_1 and N_2 are both the argument of ‘Ergative verb’.

According to linguistic typology, there are six kinds of word order: SVO, SOV, VSO, VOS, OSV and OVS. SVO, SOV and VSO are the basic word order in most world languages, and subject generally precedes the object. But these three word orders are different in syntactic marking. In SVO word order, the semantic relationship between subject and object can be justified by the syntactic position; while in SOV and VSO word order, subject and object both precede or postpone verbs, it is difficult to justify the semantic relationship between them. Thus, other marked or highly marked patterns can be derived by shifting, adding locative marks, deleting and so on.

That is to say, the principle of derivation between related sentence patterns is to deduce the marked from the unmarked, and to deduce the highly marked from the low marked. Chinese is a typical SVO language with unmarked structure. In terms of language universals, the syntactic configuration of “Subject/Agent + Verb + Object/Patient” is the basic sentence pattern for languages lack inflection. The semantic structure relationship between verb and argument can be judged by syntactic sequence. Because Chinese is a typical isolated language and lacks morphological markers, it chooses word order to distinguish semantic roles of two arguments and verbs. According to Chinese resultant complement structures, existential sentence and “把”bǎ sentence, it is considered that “Patient + Verb” is the basic sentence pattern of these three sentence patterns in ergative-absolutive system. In other words, the unmarked sentence pattern or the less marked sentence pattern, “Patient+ Agent + Ergative verb” is derived by syntactic shift. What is the basic sentence pattern of “Patient + Agent + Ergative verb”? Is “Agent + Ergative verb + Patient” or “Patient + Verb”? That is to say, the derivation principle between the related sentence patterns is to deduce the marked from the unmarked and the high from the low marked. What is the relationship between the three sentence patterns? Which is the basic sentence pattern?

(20)

- a. 酒张三喝完了。
jiǔ zhāngsān zhāngsān
wine Zhang San drink up CS
'Zhang San drinks up the wine'
- b. 张三喝完了。

zhāngsān zhāngsān
Zhang San drink up CS
'Zhang San drinks up'

- c. 酒喝完了。
jiǔ hē wán le
wine drink PFV CS
'Wine has been drunk up'

(21)

- a. 监狱里三个犯人跑了。
jiānyùlǐ sān gè fàn rén pǎo le
prison three CL prisoner run CS
'Three prisoner run away from the prison'
- b. 监狱里跑了三个犯人。
jiānyùlǐ pǎo le sān gè fàn rén
prison run CS three CL prisoner
'Three prisoner run away from the prison'
- c. 三个犯人跑了。
sān gè fàn rén pǎo le
three CL prisoner run CS
'Three prisoner run away'

(22)

- a. 老虎武松打死了。
lǎohǔ wǔsōng dǎ sǐ le
tiger Wu Song bit dead CS
'The tiger was killed by Wu Song'
- b. *武松打死了。
wǔsōng dǎ sǐ le
Wu Song bit dead CS
'Wu Song was killed'
- c. 老虎打死了。
lǎohǔ dǎ sǐ le
tiger bit dead CS
'The tiger was killed'

The patient mentioned above can be used as a topic in the subjective sentence. When the patient is activated in the following paragraphs, it may disappear. The agent is the object of the statement of the whole event and the agent of the action, and when the subject of the agent is activated in the following paragraphs, it may also disappear. Thus it becomes the subjective statement of the patient, such as (c). But comparing (a) with the sentence of ergative subject (b) and the sentence of absolutive subject (c), the patient and agent exist simultaneously, so what is the marking degree of the agent and the patient? Which of the two sentence patterns is more basic? In this paper, it assumes that "Patient + Ergative verb" is the basic sentences of "Agent + Ergative verb + Patient" and "Patient + Agent + Ergative verb", which both are derived from "Patient + Ergative verb" by word order.

Hu Jianhua (2010) holds that Chinese verbs usually enter into syntactic structures as bare verbs, and when the verbal arguments are separated from their case, they can be inert and hidden, or they can be activated by the matching of NP and verbs. When NP is not consistent with verbal features, the verbal arguments will be inert and the bare verbs directly enter into syntactic structures. How to determine the referential feature of nominal components is determined by syntactic environment, so are the verbs. The nominal arguments needs to be activated by nominal elements, otherwise, it will be inert and exist as an invisible argument. So the problem of the release of the topic is the problem of collocation between verbs and nouns in Chinese. "Agent" and "Patient", both or either will be released in different syntactic environment, but when it is activated the most easily, it must be the basic sentence structure.

In Chinese, many ergative verbs are initially intransitive verbs. In ancient Chinese, many intransitive verbs and adjectives have causative semantics, such as '死'(death) can be expressed as '使.....死'(cause somebody to die). In modern Chinese, the causative usage of intransitive verb and adjective have been greatly weakened, but it may remained in modern Chinese, which causes the existence of the objects in some intransitive sentences. In fact, there is still an agent in the syntax, but according to the syntactic context, the agent is not activated and the degree of receptive mark is low. In the ergative-absolutive system, it is usually a verb-complement structure, while the complement usually is an intransitive verb or adjective at the beginning of lexicalization (or a phrase), and the complement becomes intransitive. So its semantics becomes self-sufficient, which will weaken the mobility. In other words, the movement-complement structure is mostly "patient + ergative verb" structure.

In addition, there is a certain degree of freedom in the syntactic position of the agent, and the patient in the ergative-absolutive system. So what causes this syntactic feature? It is proposed that verbs in the traditional sense are divided into the root verb and the light verb. At the same time, the argument role in the sentence is provided by the light verb. Because Chinese light verb is defined not as the lexical structure but as the syntactic structure, and verbs can be combined freely with the light verb. Different light verbs give different argument roles to the relevant components, so that agents and the patient have a certain degree of freedom in the syntactic position. Grimshaw (1990) proposed that the causer takes precedence as the subject. In other words, the causer is involved in the merger, because ‘Cause’ assigns a causer to [spectral CausP], such as:

(23)_{[DoP [Do: [Do] [CausP 酒 [Caus: [Caus] [VP [张三][V 喝完了]]]]]]}

The causer ‘酒’ wine precedes the subject ‘张三’ Zhang San, and they all take up the position in [Spec, CausP], ‘张三’ Zhang San is also the agent. If we select a functional category such as ‘Do’, the components that meet the feature requirements may shift to [EPP, DoP] in order to verify the EPP feature.

(24) _{[DoP 张三 [Do: [Do] 喝完了] [CausP 酒 [Caus: [Caus t 喝完了] [VP [t 张三] [V t 喝完了]]]]}



In (24), according to the light verb, ‘酒’ wine, as a patient, still precedes the agent. Taking into the syntactic context into consideration, when the agent ‘张三’ Zhang San needs to be activated, then it will shift. According to semantic sequence of the subject and the object (Chen Ping, 1994): Agent > Sensitive case > Instrumental case > Related case > Locative case > Object > Patient. The patient has many kinds of archetypal receptive characteristics, so it has a great degree of freedom when it acts as an object. Therefore, the syntactic position is more active. At the same time, the degree of patient marker is lower than that of agent marker, and the former is more basic. For example, in (25), ‘Patient + ergative verb’ is the basic sentence pattern, and the ‘agent’ is constantly activated.

(25) a. [CP 那封信 i [VP 写好了 ti]]

b. [CP 那封信 i [TP pro [VP 写好了 ti]]]

c. [CP 那封信 i [TP 我 [VP 写好了 ti]]]

IV. MOTIVATION OF THE DERIVATION OF “PATIENT + AGENT + ERGATIVE VERB”

In this section, we undertake an analysis of the motivation of the derivation of “Patient + Agent + Ergative verb”.

A. Characteristics of Split-ergativity

‘S’, ‘A’ and ‘O’ are taken as universal syntactic relations, which are applicable at both underlying and derived syntactic levels. And the basic core syntactic relations are ‘S’, ‘A’ and ‘O’, when we have two clauses syntactically linked, each will be either intransitive (with ‘S’) or transitive (with ‘A’ and ‘O’). Thus we have nine basic possibility for the syntactic functions of a common NP in the two clauses—any of ‘S/O/A’ followed by any of ‘S/A/O’. And ‘Pivot’ is a language-particular category with two possibilities: ‘S/A’ and ‘S/O’.

(26)

(a) S1=S2 Bill entered and sat down.

(b) S1=O2 Bill entered and was seen by Fed.

(c) S1=A2 Bill entered and saw Fred.

(d) O1=S2 Bill was seen by Fred and laughed.

(e) A1=S2 Fred saw Bill and laughed.

(f) O1=O2 Bill was kicked by Tom and punched by Bob (or Tom kicked and Bob Punch Bill).

(g) A1=A2 Bill kicked Jim and punched Bill.

(h) O1=A2 Bob was kicked by Tom and punched Bill.

(i) A1=O2 Bob punched Bill and was kicked by Tom.

(j) O1=O2 A1=A2 Fred punched and kicked Bill.

(k) O1=A2 A1=O2 Fred punched Bill and was kicked by him (or Fred punched and was kicked by Bill). (Dixon 1994: 158)

Not all language operate in term of a pivot. For those with a switch-reference system, (a), (c), (e), (g) and (j) would receive the marking for ‘same S/A’ and (b), (d), (f), (h), (i) and (k) would be marked for ‘different S/A’ (this mark generally goes onto the verb of the second clause). The second occurrence of the common NP can then be omitted, and will be retrievable by hearers. But in (a), (c), (e), (g) and (j), there is no mark so long as they have an NP in common, the NP can be in any function in each clause, so it may belongs to ‘S/A’ pivot. While in (b), (d), (f), (h), (i) and (k) need to be marked for ‘different S/A’, when the common NP is ‘O’ function in the clause the the clause may be passivised for NP omission to be followed, so it bears the ‘S/O’ pivot (Dixon, 1994, pp. 158-160).

Taking the syntactic and semantic features of the resultative complement into consideration, existential sentences and “把” bǎ sentences are not in ergative system, either in accusative system, while they bears the feature of the split-ergativity. Zhang Bojiang (2014) thinks that Chinese syntactic pivot is ‘A/S’, not ‘S/O’, while Shi Dingxu (2000),

and Zhang Guoxian & Lu Jianqi (2014) demonstrate that Chinese syntactic pivot is 'S/O'. But based on the above research, it assumes that the above research did not fully take Chinese syntactic system into account. So it puts forward the hypothesis: in the accusative system, the Chinese syntactic drive is A/S, not 'S/O'; and in the case of ergative system, Chinese syntactic drive is 'S/O', not 'A/S', which is more independent than 'A/S'. And it is proved that 'S/O' is the basic word order.

One is that some verbs have poor independence when 'S' precedes verbs and it needs auxiliary marking to make sentences, while S does not need to be followed by verbs. The word order of related clauses can only be 'S/O', not 'A/S', which means that 'S/O' is more basic. Wang Jianjun (2006) defines the subsequent component of existential sentences. There are generally two types: firstly, the descriptive content and the preceding existential sentence form a single sentence and act as syntactic elements, such as “村里有个姑娘叫小芳” (There is a girl called Xiaofang in the village”); and secondly, the description consists of a single sentence or a compound sentence with the preceding existential sentence, such as “桌子上放着一盆鲜花,红红的。” (There is a pot of red flowers on the table). In this study, it mainly refers to the second case. There is a pause between the verb and the verbal complement or phrases. These verbal phrases tend to omit the subject. The subject of these omissions generally acts two syntactic functions, the existential subject and the syntactic object. For example:

(27) 手里拿着许多白哈巴狗_O, ▲_A吱吱地叫着。
shǒulǐ ná zhe xǔduō bái hābāgǒu zhīzhīdì jiào zhe
in hands take CS many white pup squeak CS
'There were many white pups in hands, who are squeaking.'

(28) 上面有块补丁_O, ▲_A补得不好看。
Shàngmiàn yǒu kuài bǔdīng bǔdé bù hǎo kàn
On have CL patch patch NG good look
'There is a patch on it that does not look good.'

(29) 笼屉上果然放着一盒盒饭_O, ▲_A还冒着热气。
Lóngtishàng guǒrán fàngzhe yì hé héfàn hái mào zhe rèqì
steamer on actually put CS one CL box lunch still emit CS steaming
'There actually is a box lunch on the steamer, which still emits steaming.'

In (27)-(29), in the subsequent component, ▲_A and “白哈巴狗”, “补丁”, “饭” all act as the existential subject and the syntactic object, which can be omitted in the following sentences. So in Chinese existential sentences, the pivot is 'S/O' not 'A/S', the syntactic word order is “Patient + Ergative verb”, in which the patient has no mark.

(30) a. 前天早上碰上个骑驴媳妇, ▲_A穿了一身孝.....

Qiántiān zǎoshàng pèngshàng gè qí lú xífù, chuān le yìshēn xiào
the day before yesterday morning meet CL ride donkey woman wear CS one CL mourning dress
'The day before yesterday, I met a woman in the morning who was riding a donkey, dressed in a mourning

dress...'

b. 前天早上我碰上个骑驴媳妇, ▲_A穿了一身孝.....

Qiántiān zǎoshàng pèngshàng gè qí lú xífù, chuān le yìshēn xiào
the day before yesterday morning meet CL ride donkey woman wear CS one CL mourning dress
'The day before yesterday, I met a woman in the morning who was riding a donkey, dressed in a mourning

dress...'

“我” and “骑驴媳妇” both can collocate with “穿了一身孝” in lexical and semantic terms. But in (b), “骑驴媳妇” and “穿了一身孝” are combined to form the syntactic structure—“Patient + Ergative verb”, which is actually related to the 'S/O' pivot in Chinese existential sentence.

B. Case Hierarchy

Lu Bingfu & Jin Lixin think that there are three marking modes in ergative system (2015, p 178):

- (i) The agent is marked, while the patient is not, such as in Dyrbal;
- (ii) The agent and the patient both are marked, such as in Tukang Besi;
- (iii) The patient is marked, while the agent is not, such as in Nias.

Dixon (1994) distinguishes between lexical ergativity and syntactic ergativity, “The so-called lexical ergativity means that the relationship among 'S', 'A' and 'O' is marked by case markings and verbal affixes”(p. 64). While syntactic ergativity prefers to prepositions, postpositions and word order, Chinese bears the feature of syntactic ergativity. So in “Patient + Agent + Ergative verb”, the patient and agent have marks by word order.

Dixon (1994) put up “Case Hierarchy” (p. 57):

Subject/Patient > Object/Agent > Dative > Other oblique case

The subject/patient is more likely to have no markers than the object/agent, and the subject/ patient is more preferentially related to the predicate than the object/agent in which there is a consistent relationship between the predicate and person, gender, and number. According to the syntactic derivation in resultative complement, existential subsequent sentence and “把”bǎ sentence, when the agent and patient both precede the verb, it can judge their semantics

by word order. Based on “Agent + Ergative verb + Patient”, the agent and patient both change their syntactic position. But the patient is more likely to have no mark, and the agent is usually marked by word order. ‘A/S’ acts as the subject in accusative system, while ‘P/S’ acts as the patient in ergative system; they respectively follow the Hierarchy of Identifiability Principle (the agent is higher than the patient) and Semantic Proximity Principle (the patient is closer to the verb than the agent), so the patient precedes the agent in syntactic position.

V. CONCLUSION

“Patient + Agent + Ergative verb”, in fact, it is a kind of patient-verb structure, and word order and case marking contribute to its formation. It assumes that “Patient + Ergative verb” is the basis syntactic structure, which is the derivation of “Patient + Agent + Ergative verb”. In this paper, it verifies the hypothesis through the checking of the light verbs, the stinger system in the ergative languages and Case Hierarchy. In subject-object system, Chinese syntactic pivot is ‘A/S’ not ‘S/O’; while in ergative-absolutive system, Chinese syntactic pivot is ‘S/O’ not ‘A/S’. ‘S/O’ is more independent than ‘A/S’, so ‘S/O’ is the basic word order. What’s more in the ergative-absolutive system, when the verb precedes the subject, it will be marked; while the verb postpones the subject, it needs no marking. On the other hand, in the relative clause, the pivot is ‘S/O’ not ‘A/S’. The ‘Subject/Patient’ is more likely to have no markers than the ‘Object/Agent’, and the ‘Subject/ Patient’ is more preferentially related to the predicate than the ‘Object/Agent’ in which there is a consistent relationship between the predicate and the number, sex, and case. According to the syntactic derivation in resultative complement, existential subsequent sentence and the “把” bǎ sentence, “Patient + Ergative verb” is the basis syntactic structure, which is the derivation of “Patient + Agent + Ergative verb”.

APPENDIX. ABBREVIATIONS

A	Agent
CL	Classifier
CS	Change of state
N	Noun
N ₁	Noun class 1
N ₂	Noun class 2
NP	Noun phrase
PFV	Perfective
O	Object
S	Subject
V	Verb
V ₁	Verb class 1
V ₂	Verb class 2

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A Genre-analysis of the Discussion Section of Iranian and English ELT Theses: A Comparative Study

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Abstract—The present research aimed to conduct a genre analysis of native (English) and non-native (Iranian) English speakers' M.A theses of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) students to find any significant differences in their Discussion section structures according to the constitutive *moves* and *steps*. It also aimed to explore and compare the distribution of obligatory, conventional and optional moves and steps in the two corpora. To this aim, 20 theses were randomly selected from well-known English Speaking Universities (Portland State University, University of Toledo, Ohio State University and University of Birmingham) to compare with 20 theses from Iran. The move analysis model by Yang and Allison (2003) was employed, which was specifically used in Applied Linguistics. Chi-squared test was run to make the comparison. The results revealed statistically significant differences between the genre followed in the Discussion sections of Iranian and non-Iranian TEFL M.A. theses. The most significant divergence was found in *summarizing* the study. English-speaking TEFL thesis writers tended to summarize the study in Discussion section significantly more than Iranian writers. Statistically significant differences were also found in the distribution of obligatory, conventional and optional moves. English-speaking writers indicated *limitations* in the Discussion section significantly more than Iranian writers. This shows Iranian TEFL M.A. writers are more reserved to discuss limitations. These results can be used effectively in M.A. courses of TEFL to raise students' awareness and prevent them from overstating or understating certain constituent parts of the Discussion section in theses.

Index Terms—discussion, TEFL, genre, genre analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

The significance of understanding genre to help language learners to comprehend and master academic, educational or professional discourse has been widely approved in the past two decades (Swales, 2004). Genre is a class of communicative event in which language plays the main role. Genre analysis discovers discourse structures in the wide context of a communicative event and tries to provide the basis for discourse structures in terms of author's purposes and influential settlements (Swales, 1990).

The Discussion section of a thesis/dissertation is presented as a mirror image of the Introduction section (Swales, 1990) and it plays a significant role in research articles in which the author tries to share his or her findings (Basturkmen, 2012). According to Weissberg and Buker (1990), authors attempt to inform readers of the results from specific to more general information and guide them with how findings should be viewed and interpreted. Or as Pojanapunya and Todd (2011) stated, this may be due to writers' need to meet the cognitive claims of Discussion sections and to have the accurate skills for writing in substantial argumentative styles.

Yet, besides the claims of scholars in the fields of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second language (ESL) such as Swales and Feak (2004), it is also commonly understood that the Discussion section is difficult to write for both native and non-native speakers of English (Swales, 1990; Swales & Feak, 2004; Basturkmen, 2012; Weissberg & Buker 1990, Pojanapunya & Todd, 2011; Yang & Allison, 2003).

The reason for this variation may be caused by the exact place in the research report which belongs to the Discussion sub-genre. Swales and Feak (2004) claimed where the Discussion section is placed in the text implicitly indicates that the audience have read and understood all previous sections. According to Rasmeenin (2006), while some writers begin the Discussion section with summarizing results or even emphasizing the main findings, others prefer to answer the research questions. Hence, it is not unexpected that "this section is less uniformly structured than others" (Serebenjapol, 2003, p. 3)

The particular problem Docherty and Smith (1999) noticed was that authors used "rhetoric" to make claims about their findings which "go beyond the data." Swales (1990) also drew attention to the repeated sets in Discussion sections. From this point of view, it seems that moves from specific to general are typically made recurrently on a relatively

small scale as the various aspects of a study are revisited rather than in a single overall development. Repeated cycles in Discussion sections are also a feature of later studies (Holmes, 1997; Posteguillo, 1999).

A. Purpose of the Study

Considering the problems mentioned above, there is a dearth of research on the nature of written text from a genre-analytic perspective. The current study tries to recognize the certain move structure of M.A. theses' Discussion sections and provide pedagogical implications for EFL/ESL students. This study also aims to find, describe and compare the obligatory, conventional, and optional moves in the Discussion subgenre of a set of M.A. theses written by Iranian EFL learners and those of native speaking counterparts.

B. Research Questions

In line with the purpose of study as mentioned, the present research hopes to address the following questions:

RQ1. What is the generic organization of the Discussion sections of Iranian MA theses in Applied Linguistics?

RQ2. What is the generic organization of Discussion sections of Native English Speakers' theses in Applied Linguistics?

RQ3. Are the differences between Iranian and Native English speakers' Discussion sections statistically significant?

RQ4. What are the obligatory, conventional, and optional moves in the Discussion subgenre of a set of M.A. theses written by Iranian ELT learners and those of their NS counterparts?

RQ5. Are the obligatory, optional and conventional moves in the Discussion sections of Iranian and native English discussions different in a statistically significant way?

C. Research Hypotheses

Accordingly, the following hypotheses can be presented:

HO1. There is no statistically significant difference between Iranian and Native English speakers' Discussion sections.

HO2. There is no statistically significant difference between obligatory, optional and conventional moves in the Discussion sections of Iranian and native English discussions.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Swales (1990) drew attention to the repeated sets in Discussion sections. From this perspective, it seems that moves from specific to general are typically made repeatedly on a relatively small scale as various aspects of a study are revisited rather than in a single overall development. Repeated cycles in Discussion sections are a feature of later studies (Holmes, 1997; Posteguillo, 1999). Posteguillo (1999) adopted Swales' eight-move version in his analysis of Discussion and Conclusion sections of a corpus of 30 Computer Science articles. He found some cyclic pattern between the moves and Statement of Results as a key obligatory element. However, the results of Posteguillo's study did not confirm Swales' claim since Swales (1990) considered Statement of results as a quasi-obligatory move and believed that most cyclical patterns begin with this move.

On the other hand, Dudley-Evans (1994) considered a three-part framework for Discussion including *introduction*, *evaluation*, and *conclusion* and proposed nine-move sequences for the Discussion section of an RA: 1) Information move, 2) Statement of result, 3) Finding, 4) (Un)expected outcome, 5) Reference to previous research, 6) Explanation, 7) Claim, 8) Limitation, and 9) Recommendation. Dudley-Evans (1994), in presenting his model, maintained that the main task of Introduction is setting the scene through reaffirming the aim of the study and presenting a summary of the work done, while the main part of the Discussion i.e. evaluation involves the key results and the authors' main assertions. Then, the main results and claims are summarized in the Conclusion. He (1994) added that the main move series are those involving the Statement of results or findings followed by a reference to previous research or a Claim also followed by a Reference to previous studies.

In a corpus-based study, Atai and Falah (2005) conducted some research on Results and Discussion sections of 80 Applied Linguistics research articles written by Iranian and native English authors based on Brett's (1994) model to analyze the Results section and Swales' (1990) model to analyze Discussion sections. They (2005) also investigated the use of Evaluated Entities and Ascribed Values in Discussion sections of Applied Linguistics articles using Thetela's (1997) model.

In another relevant study, Nguyen and Pramoolsook (2015) analyzed the move structure of Results and Discussion sections of 24 TESOL Master theses written by Vietnamese students, based on Chen and Kuo's (2012) framework and also a discourse-based interview with writers and their supervisors. Chen and Kuo (2012) modified Yang and Allison's (2003) model and designed a new framework for the Discussion and Results chapters of M.A. theses in Applied Linguistics. They replaced Move 1, Background Information, from Yang and Allison's (2003) model with 'Introducing the Discussions chapter', and proposed some more details for the steps of Move 1, 2 and 3 but the rest of their framework was exactly the same as Yang and Allison's (2003). Their analysis indicated that only 'Reporting major findings' is obligatory and the first four moves, which demonstrate the rhetorical functions of summarizing, evaluating, and deducing from the reported study of the M.A. thesis Discussion section, occurred more frequently.

Among a body of research that employed Yang and Allison's (2003) move analysis model for investigation, Amnuai and Wannaruk (2013) studied the move structure of 60 English Applied Linguistics article Discussion sections published in Thai and international journals and they found that there was no linear sequencing of the moves in any Discussion section of the corpora. The most frequent move in both data was move 4 (Commenting on results) followed by move 2 (Reporting results). Move 4 was the obligatory move in two sets of the corpora and the other five moves were less frequent and were optional in the two corpora.

In a study similar to the present research, Nadoushan (2012) investigated the move structure of 46 Discussion sections of MA theses written in English by Iranian EFL students and compared its results with a study by Rasmeenin (2006) on the Discussion sections of 9 theses written by non-Iranian EFL students. He also indicated optional and obligatory moves and the frequency of each. According to his study, it was indicated that move 2 (Reporting results) was the most frequent move and move 5 (Summarizing the study) and move 6 (Evaluating the study) were the least frequent moves. However, in Yang and Allison's (2003) study, move 4 was the most frequently used and was considered an obligatory move. In Nadoushan's (2012) study, on the other hand, three moves (moves 2, 4 and 7) were classified as obligatory. The results of this study do not confirm the results of Yang and Allison's (2003) although the author believed that these mismatches were due to different sample sizes of 45 Discussion sections in Nadoushan's study versus 8 Discussion sections in Yang and Allison's).

Zekrati (2015) also conducted some research on 32 Discussion sections of medical articles based on Yang and Allison's (2003) move analysis written by Iranian and non-Iranian nonnative authors. Based on the results of this study it was revealed that move 2 (Reporting the results) was the most frequent move, and the least frequent moves were move 5 (Summarizing the study) and move 3 (Summarizing the results). Mann-Whitney U test results indicated that there is a significant difference between Iranian writers and their non-Iranian counterparts regarding the frequency with which they use moves 1, 3, 5, and 7. There was no significant difference between the two groups in move 2 (Reporting results), move 4 (Commenting on results), and move 6 (Evaluating the study). According to the obtained data, it was revealed that moves 2, 4, 6 were obligatory in all articles written by Iranian and non-Iranian authors. Moves 3 and 7 were considered conventional, and finally, moves 1 and 5 were deemed optional.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Corpus

There were two corpora, from each a sample of 20 these were selected on a random basis. The Foreign sample were taken from 3 sources: Portland State University's website (www.pdx.edu), Ohio's Academic Library Consortium (www.ohiolink.edu) and the University of Birmingham's website (www.birmingham.ac.uk). The Iranian sample was taken from the International University of Imam Reza.

B. Data Collection

The 40 Discussion sections extracted from MA theses in Applied Linguistics written by Iranian ELT students and those of their NS counterparts. All 20 Iranian-written theses belong to M.A. ELT students of International University of Imam Reza who defended their dissertation from 2014 to 2019. The researcher asked students in person and their supervisors to send the PDF version of the theses through E-mail.

For the foreign corpus, the present researcher chose three established state universities in United States of America: *Portland State University* (PSU), *Ohio State University* (OSU), *The University of Toledo* (UT), and the *University of Birmingham* in United Kingdom. The data were selected on a stratified random basis. Five theses in ELT written and defended from 2014-2017 were downloaded from Portland State University's website (www.pdx.edu) which gave an open access for their M.A and Ph.D. dissertations in various majors including English Language Teaching. The researcher randomly selected 5 M.A theses in ELT written and defended from 2011 to 2015 from the University of Birmingham's website (www.birmingham.ac.uk) which also gave an open access for their M.A and Ph.D. dissertations; and the rest of the data (5 from The University of Toledo and 5 from Ohio State University) were downloaded from (www.ohiolink.edu). The theses which belonged to OSU were written and defended from 2010-2017 while TU's defended theses belonged to 2010-2016.

C. Data Analysis

The data were analyzed qualitatively by the author. Each Discussion section of the theses was read and analyzed by the researcher, using Yang and Allison's (2003) specific model designed for the move analysis of Applied Linguistics RAs. This model includes some specific moves and steps defined in *Instrumentation*.

After corpus collection, each Discussion section was given a specific code (e.g., D#1, D#2, D#3 . . . D#40). Then, a frequency count was applied to find the total number of words in each Discussion. The data were also analyzed to find, describe and compare the obligatory, conventional, and optional moves in the 'Discussion' subgenre of a set of M.A. theses. Accordingly, this research followed Amnuai and Wannaruk's (2013) criteria for justifying and classifying each move in genre analysis of articles or dissertations as 'obligatory', 'conventional' or 'optional'. According to Amnuai and Wannaruk's (2013), if the degree of occurrence of a move in each piece of research work is 100%, it is classified as

'obligatory'. If a degree of occurrence of a move is below 60%, it is considered as 'optional' and if it ranges from 60-99%, it can be regarded as 'conventional'.

Accordingly, the frequencies and percentages for each move in each Discussion section was found and the results were used as the data. To find any significant difference in the move frequency of the Discussion sub-genre of MA theses written by Iranian EFL students and their NS counterparts, the perceived move frequencies in the current study were compared and contrasted. A chi-squared test was run to make the comparison possible.

D. Instrumentation

The instrument selected in this study was Yang and Allison's (2003) analytic model of the Discussion section which consists of seven rhetorical moves including some steps:

Move 1: Background information

Move 2: Reporting results

Move 3: Summarizing results

Move 4: Commenting on results

Step 1: Interpreting results

Step 2: Comparing results with literature

Step 3: Accounting for results

Step 4: Evaluating results

Move 5: Summarizing the study

Move 6: Evaluating the study

Step 1: Indicating limitations

Step 2: Indicating significance/advantage

Step 3: Evaluating methodology

Move 7: Deductions from the research

Step 1: Making suggestions

Step 2: Recommending further research

Step 3: Drawing pedagogic implication

IV. RESULTS

A. Answer to RQ1

The first question in this research investigated the genre of Discussion section in Iranian TEFL M.A. theses. There were 7 moves in the model, some followed by certain steps, the distribution of which is summarized in Table 1.

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF DISCUSSION MOVES AND STEPS IN THE IRANIAN CORPUS (N=20)

Move/Step	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Move1	19	95
Move2	20	100
Move3	14	70
Move4	20	100
Step4.1	20	100
Step4.2	17	85
Step4.3	20	100
Step4.4	18	90
Move5	13	65
Move6	17	85
Step6.1	14	70
Step6.2	11	55
Step6.3	15	75
Move7	17	85
Step7.1	16	80
Step7.2	15	75
Step7.3	17	85

As it can be observed in the Table above, the most frequent Moves followed in the Iranian corpus were Move 4 (Commenting on results) and Move 2 (Reporting results) while the least frequent Move was Move 5 (Summarizing the study). The rest fall somewhere in between these Min. and Max. frequencies of range. Among all Steps, the most frequent steps were Steps 1 (Interpreting results) and 3 (Accounting for results) of Move 4 which existed in the whole corpus. The distribution of Moves is also summarized in a pie-chart indicated in Figure 4.1 which helps to compare the prevalence of Moves within the Iranian corpus.

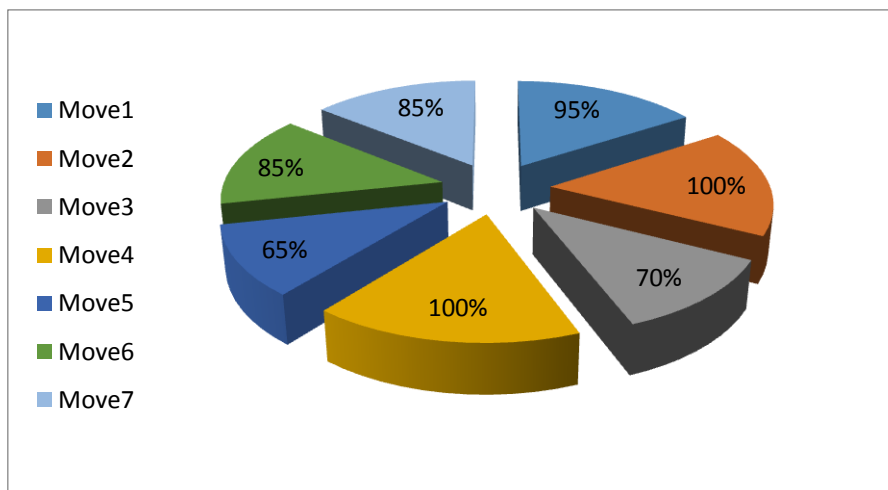


Figure 1. Distribution of discussion moves in the Iranian corpus

As evident in Figure 4.1, the highest percentages among Moves belong to Moves 2 and 4 (100%) and the lowest is that of Move 5 (65%). This is in fact:

Reporting results, Commenting on results > Background information > Evaluating the study, Deducing from research > Summarizing results > Summarizing the stud

B. Answer to RQ2

The second research question in the present study explored the genre of Discussion sections in non-Iranian M.A. theses in TEFL written in English-speaking countries. Table 2 summarizes the distribution of Moves and Steps in the Discussion section of this corpus.

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF DISCUSSION MOVES AND STEPS IN THE NON-IRANIAN CORPUS (N=20)

Move/Step	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Move1	20	100
Move2	19	95
Move3	18	90
Move4	20	100
Step4.1	20	100
Step4.2	18	90
Step4.3	20	100
Step4.4	15	75
Move5	19	95
Move6	19	95
Step6.1	8	40
Step6.2	6	30
Step6.3	18	90
Move7	19	95
Step7.1	19	95
Step7.2	19	95
Step7.3	18	90

As it can be observed in the Table above, the most frequent Moves followed in the non-Iranian corpus were Moves 1 and 4 (Background information and Commenting on results, respectively) (100%). Yet, the least frequent was Move 3 (Summarizing results), though the percentage was high (90%).

Among all Steps, the most frequent were Steps 4.1 and 4.3 (100%). These stood for Interpreting the results and Accounting for results (100%). The least frequent were Steps 6.1 and 6.2 which represented Indicating limitations and Indicating advantages, respectively. Their percentage of occurrence was 40% and 30%. The Steps follow the order below in terms of prevalence in the non-Iranian corpus:

Interpreting results, Accounting for results > Making suggestions, Recommending further research > Comparing results with literature, Evaluating methodology, Recommending further research > Evaluating results > Indicating limitations > Indicating significance/advantage

The distribution of Moves is also summarized in a pie-chart indicated in Figure 2 which helps to compare the prevalence of moves in the non-Iranian corpus.

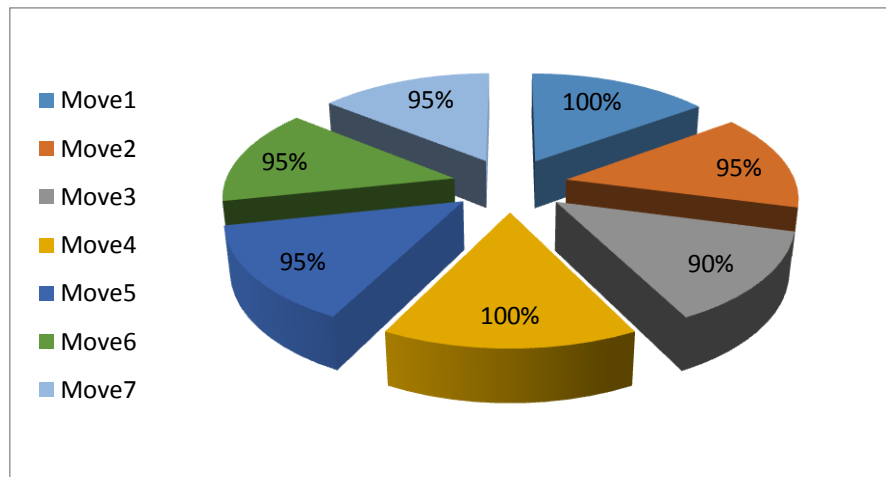


Figure 2. Distribution of discussion moves in the non-Iranian corpus

As evident in Figure 2, the highest percentages among Moves belonged to Move 1 and 4 (100%) and the lowest was that of Move 3 (90%). The Moves are presented in the following order of frequency in the Iranian corpus:

Background information, Commenting on results > Reporting results, Summarizing the study, Evaluating the study, Deductions from the research > Summarizing results

C. Answer to RQ3

The first two research questions explored the genre of Discussion sections in Iranian and non-Iranian TEFL M.A. theses written in English. A null hypothesis was presented for this which stated there is no statistically significant difference between the two corpora in terms of the Moves and Steps followed in Discussion section. Certain differences emerged. Yet, in order to know whether these differences were statistically significant or not, Chi-squared test was run and the results are presented as below.

TABLE 3.
COMPARISON OF GENRES BETWEEN THE TWO CORPUSES

<i>Move1</i>	<i>Iranian corpus</i>	<i>Non-Iranian corpus</i>	χ^2 and sig.
absent	5	.0	.160
present	95	100	Sig. .311
<i>Move2</i>	<i>Iranian corpus</i>	<i>Non-Iranian corpus</i>	χ^2 and sig.
absent	0	5	.160
present	100	95	Sig. .311
<i>Move3</i>	<i>Iranian corpus</i>	<i>Non-Iranian corpus</i>	χ^2 and sig.
absent	30	10	.250
present	70	90	Sig. .114
<i>Move4</i>	<i>Iranian corpus</i>	<i>Non-Iranian corpus</i>	χ^2 and sig.
absent	0	0	--
present	100	100	--
<i>Move5</i>	<i>Iranian corpus</i>	<i>Non-Iranian corpus</i>	χ^2 and sig.
absent	35	5	.375
present	65	95	Sig. .018
<i>Move6</i>	<i>Iranian corpus</i>	<i>Non-Iranian corpus</i>	χ^2 and sig.
absent	15	5	.167
present	85	95	Sig. .292
<i>Move7</i>	<i>Iranian corpus</i>	<i>Non-Iranian corpus</i>	χ^2 and sig.
absent	15	5	.167
present	85	95	Sig. .292

The points of divergence seem to lie in all Moves (except for Move 4), yet not all are statistically significant. As for Move 1 (Background information), the non-Iranian corpus seems to contain this Move more than the Iranian. Exactly the opposite case is true about Move 2 (Reporting results). As for Move 3 (Summarizing results), the non-Iranian corpus seems to follow it more than the Iranian corpus. The two corpora appear to contain Move 4 (Commenting on results) to the same degree. Thus, there is no difference between the two corpora in terms of this Move. Therefore, no chi-squared was estimated for this Move. Yet, for Move 5 (Summarizing the study), the non-Iranian corpus contains this Move more than the Iranian corpus. Moves 6 (Evaluating the study) and 7 (Deductions from research) prevail to the same extent in both corpora.

The statistically significant difference between the two corpora was found only in Move 5 which stood for Summarizing the study. This move was significantly more prevalent in the non-Iranian corpus than the Iranian. In other words, English-speaking M.A. TEFL thesis writers tend to provide a summary of findings much more than Iranian writers, and this divergence between the two is statistically significant. Thus, the null hypothesis can be rejected. A

better comparison can be seen between the two corpora as visually presented in Figure 3. Percentages can be cross-compared.

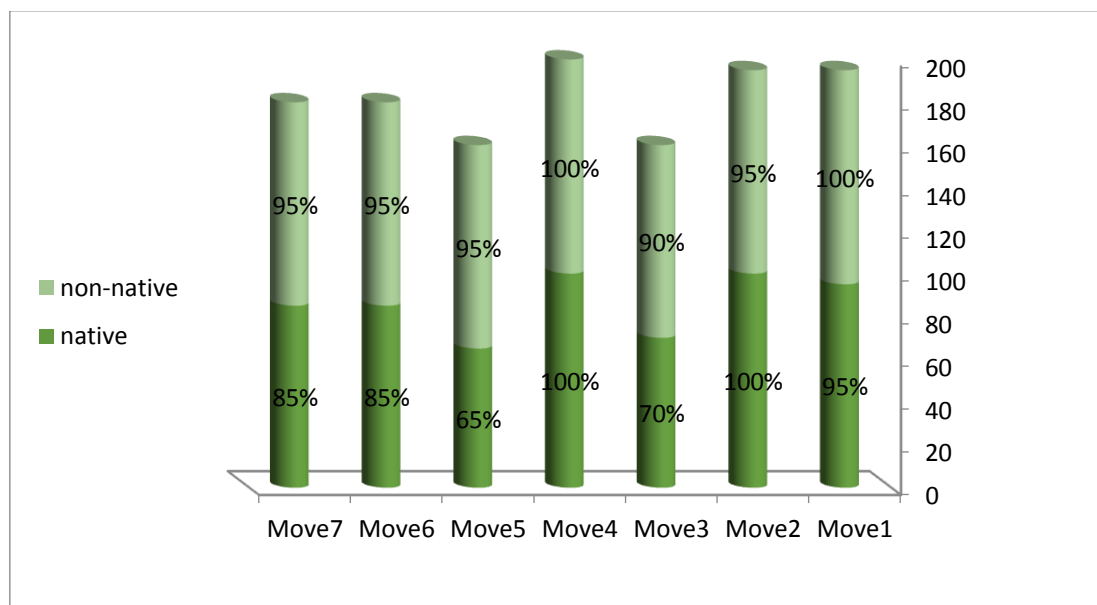


Figure 3. Comparison of genres between the two corpora

As it can be observed, Move 5 contains the sharpest difference between the two corpora whereas Move 4 shows no difference. Besides the Moves, the frequency of Steps was also compared between groups and the chi-squared test was run to find statistically significant differences. Table 4 shows the results of chi-squared test for the constituent Steps of Move 4. These Steps include: Interpreting results (4.1), Comparing results with literature (4.2), Accounting for results (4.3) and Evaluating results (4.4).

TABLE 4.
CHI-SQUARED TEST RESULTS FOR THE STEPS OF MOVE 4 IN TWO CORPORA

Step 4.1	Iranian corpus	Non-Iranian corpus	χ^2 and sig.
absent	0	0	--
present	100	100	--
Step 4.2	Iranian corpus	Non-Iranian corpus	χ^2 and sig.
absent	15	10	.076
present	85	90	Sig. .633
Step 4.3	Iranian corpus	Non-Iranian corpus	χ^2 and sig.
absent	0	0	--
present	100	100	--
Step 4.4	Iranian corpus	Non-Iranian corpus	χ^2 and sig.
absent	10	25	.197
present	90	75	Sig. .212

As it can be observed in the Table above, there is no statistically significant difference between the two corpora (Iranian and non-Iranian) in the four Steps of Move 4. In Table 5, below, the two corpora are compared in terms of all Steps of Move 6. These Steps include Indicating limitations (6.1), Indicating advantage/significance (6.2), Evaluating methodology (6.3).

TABLE 5.
CHI-SQUARED TEST RESULTS FOR THE STEPS OF MOVE 6

Step 6.1	Iranian corpus	Non-Iranian corpus	χ^2 and sig.
absent	30	60	.302
present	70	40	Sig. .057
Step 6.2	Iranian corpus	Non-Iranian corpus	χ^2 and sig.
absent	45	70	.253
present	55	30	Sig. .110
Step 6.3	Iranian corpus	Non-Iranian corpus	χ^2 and sig.
absent	25	10	.197
present	75	90	Sig. .212

Except for Step 6.1 (Indicating limitations), the other Steps do not make any statistically significant difference between the two corpora. Similarly, Table 6 below shows chi-squared test results for the Steps of Move 7. These Steps include: Making suggestions (7.1), Recommending further research (7.2), Drawing pedagogic implications (7.3).

TABLE 6.
CHI-SQUARED TEST RESULTS FOR THE STEPS OF MOVE 7

Step 7.1	Iranian corpus	Non-Iranian corpus	χ^2 and sig.
absent	20	5	.227
present	80	95	Sig. .151
Step 7.2	Iranian corpus	Non-Iranian corpus	χ^2 and sig.
absent	25	5	.280
present	75	95	Sig. .077
Step 7.3	Iranian corpus	Non-Iranian corpus	χ^2 and sig.
absent	15	10	.076
present	85	90	Sig. .633

As it can be seen in the Table above, the differences between the two corpora are not statistically significant in any Step of Move 7 (Sig>.05).

D. Answer to RQ4

The fourth research question in the present study explored which Moves in the Iranian and non-Iranian corpus were obligatory, which were conventional and which were optional. This categorization was proposed by Rasmeein (2006) according to whom, *obligatory* occurs when the Move is observed in 100% of the Discussions, *conventional* occurs when the Move is observed in 66%-99% of the Discussions and *optional* occurs when it is in less than 66% of the Discussions. Table 7 indicates the relevant results with this respect in the Iranian corpus:

TABLE 7
DISTRIBUTION OF OBLIGATORY, CONVENTIONAL AND OPTIONAL MOVES IN THE IRANIAN CORPUS

Move#	Obligatory		Conventional		Optional	
	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%
Move1	19	95	--	--	--	--
Move2	20	100	--	--	--	--
Move3	--	--	14	70	--	--
Move4	20	100	--	--	--	--
Move5	--	--	13	65	--	--
Move6	--	--	17	85	--	--
Move7	--	--	17	85	--	--

The information summarized in the Table above shows that in the Iranian corpus, the highest frequency is that of the Conventional Moves. Obligatory Moves were observed to be Moves 1, 2 and 4. Conventional Moves were mostly observable those in Moves 3, 5, 6 and 7. This information can be better traced visually in Figure 4.

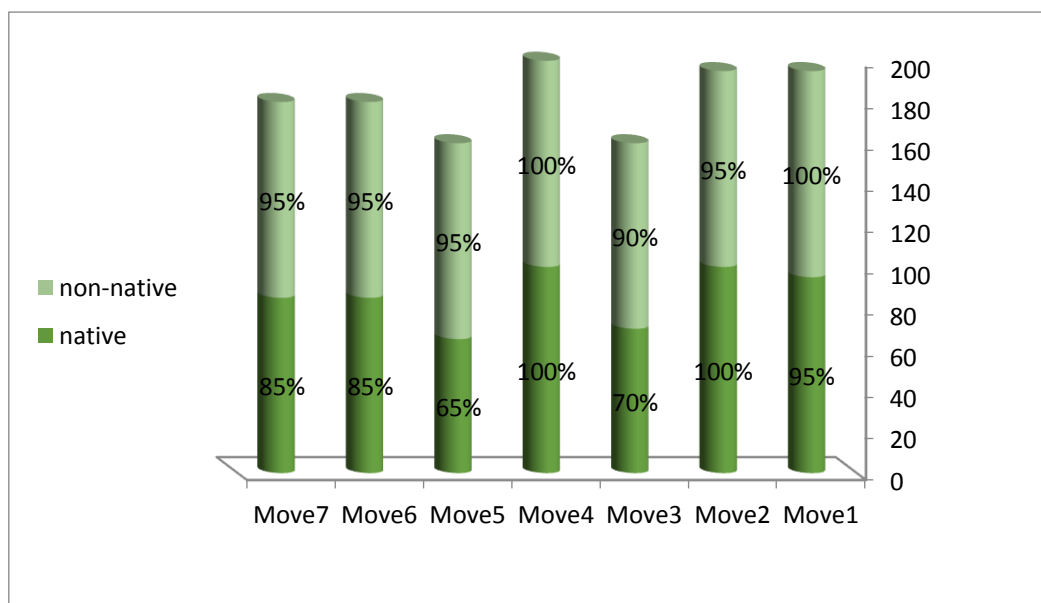


Figure 4.4. Distribution of obligatory, conventional and optional moves in the Iranian corpus

A similar analysis could be done for the Steps of the target Moves in the Iranian corpus. Therefore, the categories of Steps for all Moves are reported as below.

TABLE 8
DISTRIBUTION OF OBLIGATORY, CONVENTIONAL AND OPTIONAL STEPS IN THE IRANIAN CORPUS

Step#.#	Obligatory		Conventional		Optional	
	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%
Step 4.1	20	100	--	--	--	--
Step 4.2	--	--	17	85	--	--
Step 4.3	20	100	--	--	--	--
Step 4.4	--	--	18	90	--	--
Step 6.1	--	--	14	70	--	--
Step 6.2	--	--	--	--	11	55
Step 6.3	--	--	15	75	--	--
Step 7.1	--	--	16	80	--	--
Step 7.2	--	--	15	75	--	--
Step 7.3	--	--	17	85	--	--

Among the constituent Steps of Move 4, Step 4.1 (Interpreting results) was found to be obligatory as it existed in all Discussion sections of the Iranian corpus. Step 4.2 (Comparing to literature) was found to be conventional as it prevailed in 85% of cases. Step 4.3 (Accounting for results) was categorized as obligatory as it appeared in all Discussion sections. Step 4.4 (Evaluating Results) was to be categorized as conventional as it occurred in 90% of the corpus. Among the Steps of Move 6, Step 6.1 (Indicating limitations) was found to be conventional as it occurred in 70% of the Iranian corpus. Step 6.2 (Indicating significance/advantage) was taken as optional since it occurred in 55% of the corpus. Step 6.3 (Evaluating methodology) was categorized as conventional as it comprised 75% of the corpus. There were three Steps within Move 7, all of which (Making suggestions, Recommending further research, Drawing pedagogic implications) showed to belong to the conventional category. A similar procedure of analysis was conducted for the non-Iranian corpus first in terms of the Moves and the results can be observed in Table 9.

TABLE 9
DISTRIBUTION OF OBLIGATORY, CONVENTIONAL AND OPTIONAL MOVES IN THE NON-IRANIAN CORPUS

Move#	Obligatory		Conventional		Optional	
	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%
Move1	20	100	--	--	--	--
Move2	--	--	19	95	--	--
Move3	--	--	18	90	--	--
Move4	20	100	--	--	--	--
Move5	--	--	19	95	--	--
Move6	--	--	19	95	--	--
Move7	--	--	19	95	--	--

As indicated in Table 9, Move 1 (Background information) was found in the whole corpus. As its prevalence was 100%, it was categorized as obligatory. As for Move2 (Reporting results), it occurred in 95% of cases. Thus, it could belong to the conventional category. Move 3 (Summarizing results) could be categorized as conventional too as it occurred in 90% of the corpus. Another obligatory Move showed to be Move 4 (Commenting on results) which prevailed in the whole corpus. Moves 5, 6 and 7 (Summarizing the study, Evaluating the study and Deductions from research) all showed to belong to the conventional category as they occurred in 95% of the corpus. The distribution of obligatory, conventional and optional Moves can be better compared in the following Figure.

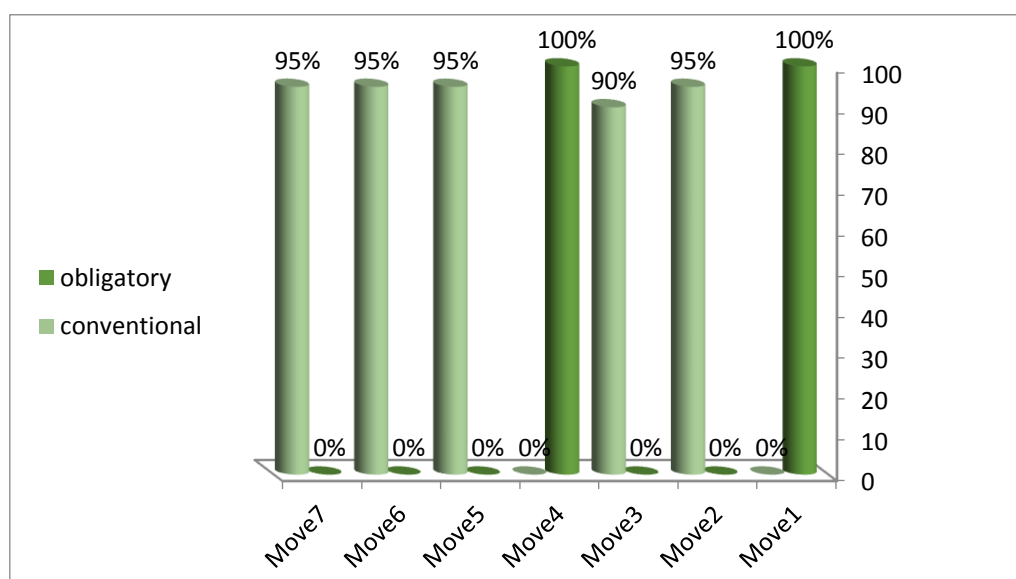


Figure 5. Distribution of obligatory, conventional and optional moves in the non-Iranian corpus

As for Steps and their categorization as obligatory, conventional and optional, the results are comparable in Table 10.

TABLE 10
DISTRIBUTION OF OBLIGATORY, CONVENTIONAL AND OPTIONAL STEPS IN THE NON-IRANIAN CORPUS

Step #.#	Obligatory		Conventional		Optional	
	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%
Step 4.1	20	100	--	--	--	--
Step 4.2	--	--	18	90	--	--
Step 4.3	20	100	--	--	--	--
Step 4.4	--	--	15	75	--	--
Step 6.1	--	--	--	--	8	40
Step 6.2	--	--	--	--	6	30
Step 6.3	--	--	18	90	--	--
Step 7.1	--	--	19	95	--	--
Step 7.2	--	--	19	95	--	--
Step 7.3	--	--	18	90	--	--

Move 4 was comprised of four Steps, the first of which (Interpreting results) showed to prevail in the whole corpus. Thus, it can be categorized as obligatory. The second Step (Comparing results with literature) was found to occur in 90% of the corpus. Thus, it belonged to the conventional category. The third Step (Accounting for results) was found to occur in the whole corpus which makes it an obligatory Step. The fourth Step (Evaluating results) existed in 75% of the cases which makes it a conventional Step. As for Move 6, there were three Steps which are analyzed here. The first Step (Indicating limitations) was found to be an optional Step as it prevailed in 40% of the corpus. The second Step (Indicating significance/advantage) was also an optional Step as it occurred in only 30% of the corpus. Move 7 consisted of three Steps 9 (Making suggestions, Recommending further research, Drawing pedagogic implications) all of which were found to belong to the conventional category as they occurred, respectively, in 95%, 95% and 90% of the corpus.

E. Answer to RQ5

The fifth question aimed to compare the two corpora in terms of the distribution of obligatory, conventional and optional Moves and Steps. The second null hypothesis of the present study stated that there is no statistically significant difference between the two corpora in terms of these. As the results showed, certain differences were observable. Yet, to know whether these differences were statistically significant or not, Chi-squared test was run and the results are presented once for Moves and once again for Steps below.

TABLE 11
COMPARISON OF THE IRANIAN AND NON-IRANIAN CORPUSES IN TERMS OF OBLIGATORY, CONVENTIONAL AND OPTIONAL MOVES

Move	Iranian corpus	Non-Iranian corpus	χ^2 and sig.
Move 1			
<i>Conventional</i>	100	100	--
Move 2			
Obligatory	100	--	1
<i>Conventional</i>	--	95	Sig. .000
Move 3			
<i>Conventional</i>	70	90	.250 Sig. .114
Move 4			
<i>Obligatory</i>	100	100	--
Move 5			
<i>Conventional</i>	65	95	.375 Sig. .018
Move 6			
<i>Conventional</i>	85	95	.167 Sig. .292
Move 7			
<i>Conventional</i>	85	95	.167 Sig. .292

As it can be observed in the Table above, the two corpora only diverge significantly in terms of conventional Moves (3, 5, 6, 7) which all existed significantly more in the non-Iranian corpus than the Iranian. A similar comparison was also made Table 4.12 between the two corpora along Steps, as can be seen below.

TABLE 12
COMPARISON OF THE IRANIAN AND NON-IRANIAN CORPUSES IN TERMS OF OBLIGATORY, CONVENTIONAL AND OPTIONAL STEPS

Step	Iranian corpus	Non-Iranian corpus	χ^2 and sig.
Step 4.1			
<i>Obligatory</i>	100	100	0
Step 4.2			
<i>Conventional</i>	85	90	.076 Sig. .633
Step 4.3			
<i>Obligatory</i>	100	100	--
Step 4.4			
<i>Conventional</i>	90	75	.197 Sig. .212
Step 6.1			
<i>Conventional</i>	70	--	.775
<i>Optional</i>	--	40	Sig. .000
Step 6.2			
<i>Optional</i>	55	30	.253 Sig. .110
Step 6.3			
<i>Conventional</i>	75	90	.197 Sig. .212
Step 7.1			
<i>Conventional</i>	80	95	.227 Sig. .151
Step 7.2			
<i>Conventional</i>	75	95	.280 Sig. .077
Step 7.3			
<i>Conventional</i>	85	90	.076 Sig. .633

The only statistically significant difference was found between the two corpora in Step 6.1 (Indicating limitations), as the highest frequency in the Iranian corpus belonged to the conventional category and that of the non-Iranian corpus was optional. The null hypothesis could be, thus, rejected.

V. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

What we found in the present research could be linked to the findings of several studies or the points raised by several scholars reviewed in the first and second chapters. As an instance, Posteguillo (1999) used Swales' eight-move version of analyzing Discussions in his genre analysis of Discussion and Conclusion sections of 30 computer science articles. He found a cyclic pattern between the moves and 'Statement of Results' as a key obligatory element. What distinguishes Posteguillo's research from the present study is first the model it adopted and then the corpus used which contained academic articles and not theses. Swales (1990) considered 'Statement of results' as a quasi-obligatory move and Posteguillo found it as an obligatory move. Similarly, here in the Iranian corpus, 'Reporting results' was found as an obligatory move. In the non-Iranian corpus, 'Commenting on results' was found as an obligatory move. This can establish a similarity of the two corpora (i.e. academic articles and theses).

Atai and Fallah (2005) compared the genre of Discussion sections in academic articles written by English speaking researchers and Iranians. They found that 'Statement of Results' was the most frequent in both corpora. This is in line with what we found in the present research with the Iranian corpus in which 'Reporting results' and 'Commenting on results' were found as the most frequent.

Nguyen and Pramoolsook (2015) analyzed the move structure of Results and Discussion in a sample of TESOL Master theses written by Vietnamese students. Their analysis indicated that only 'Reporting major findings' is obligatory and the first four moves which showed the rhetorical functions of summarizing, evaluating and deducing from the reported study of M.A. thesis Discussion section occurred frequently. Contrary to the present research, this study lacked a comparative approach between corpora. It only included a national corpus which we can now compare to the national corpus of ours (Iranian corpus). The similar finding is that in the Iranian corpus too, 'reporting results' was found as an obligatory move.

In the Iranian context, Nadoushan (2012) also investigated the move structure of the Discussion sections of MA theses written in English by Iranian EFL students and compared its results with a study by Rasmeenin (2006) on the Discussion sections of 9 theses written by non-Iranian EFL students. He also indicated optional and obligatory moves and the frequency of each. According to his study, it was shown that Move 2 (Reporting results) was the most frequent. Move 5 (Summarizing the study) and move 6 (Evaluating the study) were the least frequent. In the present study, in the Iranian corpus, the most frequent Moves turned out to be 'Reporting results' and 'Summarizing results' while the least frequent was 'Summarizing the study'. These are very similar and show commonalities traced in the Iranian context. Zekrati (2015) also analyzed the genre of 32 Discussion sections of Medical Articles written by Iranian and non-Iranian nonnative authors. Based on the results of this study it was revealed that 'Reporting the results' was the most frequent

move, and the least frequent move was 'Summarizing the study'. This is also confirmed by the present research though the corpora are different, one being research articles and the other being M.A. theses.

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The overall findings were that the distribution of Moves and Steps in the Discussion section varies within and between the Iranian and non-Iranian corpora. Iranian TEFL M.A. thesis writers tend more to report the results and summarize them in the Discussion sections than any other thing. They tend least to summarize the study. However, English-speaking TEFL M.A. thesis writers tend most to provide background information and comment on the results in the Discussion sections and pay the least attention to summarizing the results.

The distribution of obligatory, conventional and optional moves and steps varies within and between Iranian and non-Iranian corpora. In Iranian TEFL M.A. theses, providing background information, commenting on results and reporting results are obligatory moves while in the non-Iranian Discussions, only the first two are obligatory. English-speaking TEFL M.A. thesis writers tend to indicate limitations in the Discussion section significantly more than Iranian writers. This shows Iranian TEFL M.A. writers are more reserved to discuss limitations.

TEFL students at M.A. level learn, during their academic years, how to write their thesis. They get acquainted with the sections and sub-sections of thesis and are often provided with a template before preparing a draft of their thesis in advance to their defense. Yet, they are scarcely familiarized with the further constituent Moves and Steps of each main section especially the Discussion section of thesis which is expected to follow the main findings but precede the conclusive remarks which end the main content of a thesis. In other words, Discussion section occupies a sensitive part in a thesis and students are not well familiarized with what to include in it and basically in what preferred order. The present findings show Iranian TEFL students at M.A. level tend to summarize the study to the minimum in their Discussion section of thesis. They should be made aware of the significance of this Move. They are good at summarizing the results, but not that proficient in commenting on results, at least not as proficient as their English peers. They should be also encouraged to more openly express the limitations of their study.

VII. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Genre analysis of Moves and Steps has been predominant in research articles. Dissertations and theses have been less the target of genre analysis, especially in the TEFL or applied linguistics domain, and yet more specifically in the context of Iran. Moreover, different models of genre analysis prevail including that of Swales and so on. They are adopted in different works of research with little adaptation or innovation. In large corpora, sometimes, there might be a need to adapt the model or offer a new model if the research followed a grounded theory which is conspicuously absent in the body of related literature to genre analysis. The great variety of genres especially for writing research proposals, theses or dissertations across universities (public or private sectors) in Iran provides an interesting context for comparative studies of genre analysis too. The results can provide hints for Research Methodology and Seminar courses at Iranian universities.

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A Survey on Self-efficacy of English Majors: Exploring Its Correlation with Time Management and Strategy Use*

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Abstract—The present study seeks to investigate the self-efficacy of English majors and its relationship with time management and strategy use during their English learning. The study reported in this paper was conducted to examine self-efficacy of students passing TEM-4 (Test for English Majors -- Band 4) and their self-regulating time management. The data were collected via student questionnaires & interviews. The findings of this case study revealed that there is a gender difference in English majors' self-efficacy. Meanwhile, a positive correlation between the self-efficacy of students passing TEM -4 & their strategy use as well as self-regulating time management was demonstrated. Implications of the findings to language teaching and learning are discussed.

Index Terms—self-efficacy, TEM-4, self-regulating time management, strategy use

I. INTRODUCTION

The construct of learners' self-belief, in the recent years, has been a hot topic which has gained much attention in language acquisition. For almost two decades of research has revealed that learners' self-belief is one of the strong influential factors on their academic performance. Therefore, it has caused a new wave of attention to the study of learners' self-efficacy. Bandura assumed that "Of all beliefs, self-efficacy is the most influential one which plays a powerful role in determining the choices people make, the effort they will persevere in the face of challenge, and the degree of anxiety or confidence they will bring to the task at hand" (Bandura, 1984, p361). It is this perceived self-efficacy that can explain why language learners' behaviors differ greatly even if they get almost same knowledge and skills training. Considering the strong connection between self-efficacy and strategy use, numerous studies have found a positive relationship among strategy use, self-efficacy, and learners' achievement (Ehrman & Oxford, 1990; Green & Oxford, 1995; Rubin, 1975). According to the previous research, when students use more strategies, they intend to achieve more success which, in turn increases their self-efficacy beliefs, and previous achievement will result in higher sense of self-efficacy.

At present, China possesses the largest population of English learners. Though they have made great effort in studying English, there are still a bunch of difficulties for them, which can be explained by complex factors including environment factors and learner factors. Self-efficacy, a major component of social cognitive learning theory, is "people's judgments of their capacities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (Bandura, 1984, p391). In other words, self-efficacy is closely related to learners' judgment on their own abilities to task performances in specific academic domains. Students' self-efficacy, as one of learners' psychological and non-intellectual factors, for example, has great influence on their English learning. For teachers and researchers, how to help students study more efficiently is a permanent issue for them.

As the researches on language learning indicated that the use of strategies had turned out to be key factors in EFL learning. Meanwhile, it may contribute to the other aspects involved in foreign language acquisition, such as gender, age, self-efficacy, etc. and one focus of research in the area is closely related with the investigation of the relationship between language learning strategies and these other aspects. All of the factors are considered to have an influence on the process of language acquisition. Self-efficacy, which can promote students' learning motivation, has attracted scholars' attentions in many fields. Therefore, it is necessary to research the self-efficacy of English majors to find out the reasons of affecting their self-efficacy and give some relative suggestions to improve their self-efficacy and promote their academic performances accordingly.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Self-efficacy, which was put forward by Albert Bandura in the 1980s, means one person conjectures and estimates whether he or she has ability to accomplish one thing or whether has confidence in achieving success during the process of solving problems. Albert Bandura thought "the self-efficacy was developed by four factors: immediate experience,

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vicarious experience, verbal persuasion and emotional arousal. And the way it realized main body mechanism was with the intermediary process of choice, thought, motivation and emotion” (Bandura A. 1993, p125). The research by Zimmerman BJ, Martnez-pons M indicated that the self-efficacy of English learners had close relationship with students’ grade, and there was a positive correlation between the self-efficacy of English learners and their self-monitoring behaviors: organization, appraisal, programme, and regulation (Bandura A. 1997).

There were many scholars who studied self-efficacy of English learners. The research by Zhoudianjun indicated that meta-cognitive self-monitoring strategic training could improve English learners’ writing level and promote their self-efficacy of English writing remarkably. Especially, it was obvious to improve the English writing level of high-level and middle-level students (Schunk, D.H, 1991). The study by Panhualing and Chenzhijie manifested that the self-efficacy of English majors, who had different grades and majors, was not similar. However, there were no obvious differences between male and female and between learners from higher and lower educational background (Yufan, B.2004). The study by Qiuxiang (2008) showed that there was a significant correlation between the self-efficacy of English majors and their achievement motivation. The more self-efficacy English majors have, the higher achievement motivation they got. The higher achievement motivation English majors possessed, the less fear they would have during the process of solving problems of learning English. Besides, if English majors thought they had ability to accomplish one thing, they would like to pay more effort to make it.

The term language learning strategy has been discussed by a great number of researchers in EFL. Rubin (1987) define learning strategies as "... any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information." Richards and Platt (1992) describe learning strategies as "intentional behavior and thoughts used by learners during learning so as to better help them understand, learn, or remember new information." Oxford (1990) defines language learning strategies as techniques consciously used by learners to improve their progress in acquiring, storing, retaining, and using information in second or foreign language. Many studies have reported the positive relationship between self-efficacy and learning strategies. Others identified a significant strong positive correlation between high self-efficacy and improvement in their reading and comprehension skills (Naseri & Zaferanieh, 2012).

In general, the use of language learning strategies is consistently linked with language proficiency. It is proved that using language learning strategies has a positive impact on learners’ proficiency. Apparently, successful language learners arranged and combine their use of particular types of strategies in effective ways during language learning process (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990). Besides, as researches home and abroad have indicated, there are other factors that have big influence on the language learning strategies learners selected and used, such as gender difference, learners’ self-efficacy beliefs which was defined as ‘people’s judgment of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances. Bandura (1984) indicates that students’ judgments of their capability to perform academic tasks, namely, their self-efficacy beliefs, predict their capability to accomplish such tasks.

TEM4, Test for English Majors Band-4, is an important means to evaluate English majors’ language proficiency in China once per year. Kinds of language skills and abilities, such as vocabulary, grammar, listening, reading, as well as writing are involved in the test. At present, however, there are limited researches on the correlation between the self-efficacy of English majors passing TEM-4 and their self-regulating time management as well as strategy use. The time management is a worthy goal of many human activities. It concerns a variety of problems related to goals, assessment of available resources, control of management policies, scheduling of decisions (Macan T H., Shahani C., et al., 1990). Time management disposition is a kind of personality trait that reflects the way individuals use and control time.

English academic self-efficacy refers to an individual’s belief to his or her ability to learn and use English. Many studies have proved that time management and self-efficacy is one of the important factors affecting academic performance and achievements. The relationships between time management of language learners and self-reported academic performance were explored by Macan T. H., Shahani C., Dipboye R. L., et al. Since 1980s, scholars began to seek the relationship between learners’ strategy use and L2 proficiency (Bialystok, 1981). Huang & Naerssen (1987) examined language learning strategy use of 60 graduates and found that strategy use is positively related with language proficiency. Although many studies have been conducted to investigate the learning self-efficacy, time management and strategy use, the findings from the existing researches are far from satisfaction. Based on the researches discussed above, gender, learners’ language learning strategies, language proficiency, time management and self-efficacy appear to be main significant factors related to language acquisition. Therefore, the present study seeks to examine the self-efficacy of English majors and its relationship with time management and strategy use during their English learning.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Participants*

In this survey, two classes of junior students are chosen randomly from English department in a university in southern China. The number of respondents is 76. All of them have taken part in the TEM-4 the same year. Among the 76 students, there are 11 boys and 50 girls. However, 15 students did not fill in the blank of TEM-4. So there are only 61 effective questionnaires answered by students who will be regarded as the effective subjects. The brief information

of the subjects is as follows:

TABLE1
THE BASIC INFORMATION OF THE REAL SUBJECTS

	Male	Female	Amount	Percentage
Class 3	3	27	30	49.10%
Class 5	8	23	31	50.90%
Amount	11	50	61	100%
Percentage	19.67%	80.33%	100%	

B. Instruments

The questionnaire used in this survey is adapted from the questionnaire of Liuxi. It is divided into two main parts. The first part is the basic information of the subjects, including grade, major, gender and the score of TEM-4. The second part is the investigation of the self-efficacy of the English majors. And the second part consists of two. One is the investigation about the situation of their self-efficacy, the other is the investigation about the fact that how the English majors learn English and improve their skills in our school. The second part about their self-efficacy includes their confidence in listening, speaking, reading, writing and interpretation and passing the TEM-4. Besides, it involves their self-efficacy of mastering the learning strategies. As well as covers their goal setting, monitoring, self-regulation, the management of time, the usage of leaning tools, the cooperation between teachers and students, the situation between learning effort and physiological management and the strategic use of learning English and examination taking. And each one has five choice: 1 stands for “it hardly fit my condition”, 2 stands for “it does not often fit my condition”, 3 stands for “it sometimes fit my condition”, 4 stands for “it often fit my condition”, and 5 stands for “it totally fit my condition”.

IV. RESULTS & DISCUSSION

A. The Gender Difference in the Self-efficacy of English Majors

In this part, 3 groups are set according to their score of TEM-4: high-score group, middle-score group and low-score group. The score over 70 is named high-score group, the score between 60 and 70 is middle group, and the score below 60 is low-score group. Altogether there are 5 English majors belonging to high-score group, including 3 boys and 2 two girls; there are 25 English majors belonging to the middle-score group, including 2 boys and 23 girls; 31 English majors belonging to the low-score group, including 6 boys and 25 girls.

TABLE2
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF GENDERS AND THE ENGLISH MAJORS' SELF-EFFICACY

SEEM	Male(n=11)			Female(n=50)		
	HSG (n=3)	MSG (n=2)	LSG (n=6)	HSG (n=2)	MSG (n=23)	LSG (n=25)
M	4.00	3.50	2.50	3.50	3.82	3.36
SD	1.73	2.12	1.37	0.71	1.07	1.08

SEEM= the self-efficacy of English majors; M= mean; HSG= high-score group; MSG= middle-score group; LSG= low-score group; SD= standard deviation

In sum, it reveals that female students reported higher levels of self-efficacy beliefs and that the majority belongs to the middle-score group and the low-score group whether they are boys or girls. Boys' self-efficacy of high-score group is higher than that of girls'. And boys' self-efficacy is lower than that of the girls in both the middle-score and low-score group. Besides, the standard deviation indicates that girl's self-efficacy is more stable than that of the boys'. This study, like the previous ones by other researchers, identified that gender is closely associated with English majors' self-efficacy.

B. The Correlation between the Self-efficacy of Passing Tem-4 and Time Management

The result shows that when English majors in male and female have more ability to regulate the time to study English, they have more self-efficacy to pass the TEM-4. There exists a positive correlation between the self-efficacy of passing the TEM-4 and self-regulating time management in male and female. The low-score group's deviation of the self-efficacy of passing the TEM-4 is the most stable, and the middle-score group's deviation is the highest. And the low-score group's deviation of time management is the most stable, and the middle-score group's deviation is the highest.

TABLE3
THE CORRELATION BETWEEN SEP AND TM

	HSG(n=5)		MSG(n=25)		LSG(n=31)		correl	P
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD		
SEP	4.00	1.00	3.76	1.13	3.55	0.89	0.33	0.049
TM	3.60	0.89	3.36	1.15	2.90	0.87		

SEP= the self-efficacy of passing the TEM-4; TM= time management

In this survey, it reveals that 81.98 percent of English majors can often manage their time to study English well. The average of the ability of self-regulating time management is 3.14. English majors should set goals: short-term goals, middle-term goals, and long-term goals. It reveals, in this research, that 80.33 percent of English majors can frequently make use of strategies in TEM-4 practice.

C. The Correlation between the Self-efficacy of Passing Tem-4 and the Strategic Use

It shows that there exists a positive correlation between the self-efficacy of passing TEM4 and the strategic use in male and female when English majors do exercise before examination. If they can have more ability to take advantage of strategies, they have more confidence in passing TEM4. And the high-score group's deviation of strategic use is the most stable, and the low-score group's deviation is the highest. In listening part, many of them will scan the questions before listening. When statistics and other important information are heard, they will write them down briefly. In reading part, they will take advantage of their knowledge and text context to guess these they can not understand well. In writing part, they will list an outline to make them have a clear thought before they write it on test paper. Besides, they will do exercise according to the time requirement of the TEM-4. Generally speaking, the proficient language learners tend to use strategies in the light of their specific learning tasks, context, or their needs respectively and individually. Meanwhile, these learners are more likely to be self-regulated, flexible or have higher learning autonomy in the use of strategies during their language learning process.

TABLE4
THE CORRELATION BETWEEN SEP AND SU

	HSG(n=5)		MSG(n=25)		LSG(n=31)		correl	P
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD		
SEP	4.00	1.00	3.76	1.13	3.55	0.89	0.40	0.03
SU	4.60	0.55	3.68	0.90	3.10	1.14		

SU= strategic use

V. CONCLUSION

From the analysis of investigated data above, we know that English majors' self-efficacy has relationship with genders, self-regulating time management and strategic use in practice. That's to say, that genders, self-regulating time management and strategic use in practice are the reasons affecting the English majors' self-efficacy. The above results indicate that English majors do use a number of language learning strategies. The findings also showed a close relationship between the use of language learning strategies and gender, self-regulating time management and students' self-efficacy beliefs. Broadly speaking, in consideration of the research findings, developing English learners self-efficacy is inclined to have a favorable influence on their academic performance and achievements since a strong sense of self-efficacy has been found to be positively associated with self-regulating time management and strategy use in learners' academic performance. Teachers should teach students self-regulated learning strategies as well as concentrating on language learners' enrichment and good command of skills in order to improve their self-efficacy, learning autonomy and finally their language proficiency during foreign language learning. Strategy use has been identified as an effective way to enhance language learners' independent and autonomous learning. In general, the more strategies a learner applies, the more the learner feels self-efficacious. Hence, understanding the use of language learning strategy and investing how it relates with self-efficacy could make great contributions to the success of foreign language acquisition.

In this study, it's found that high self-efficacy scores and students' reading strategy use are closely related. There are four strategies identified here—cognitive, metacognitive, compensatory, and testing as well. The findings indicated that students who employed a combination of the four strategies proved to have the highest self-efficacy scores as well. The results demonstrated a must for training English learners some strategies explicitly in order to enhance their self-efficacy and help them become more autonomous (Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Yusuf, 2011; Zimmerman

et al., 2006). Wong (2005) examined the overall language self-efficacy of ELLs in Malaysia and how self-efficacy influenced their language learning strategy use. It was found that participants who had a higher level of self-efficacy also reported greater use of learning strategies. Strategies most often mentioned were cognitive (i.e., use of English listening, reading, and writing outside of classroom) and social (i.e., assistance from interlocutors). The study also found that participants with low self-efficacy used context to guess meanings they did not understand while those with high self-efficacy tried to find the meaning of misunderstood information by enlisting Journal of International

Student728 interlocutors or seeking print resources. The results of this study suggested that self-efficacy might be increased by training learning strategies to students, particularly the strategies that were most often mentioned by learners. Idrus and Sivapalan (2010) suggested that it was important for teachers to be aware of the self-efficacy level of their students, and teaching learning strategies can increase self-efficacy, and the negative attitude of learners with low self-efficacy should be addressed within the classroom to improve overall performance. But these studies were not able to offer effective solutions to improve language learners' motivation, autonomy, and self-directedness, and learners' self-efficacy and learning strategy have not yet been integratively examined in an ESL context (Shi Hong, 2018).

Since learners' self-efficacy could be influenced by their individual interest and different motivations, strengthening their motivation and developing their interest are beneficial to enhance language learners' self-efficacy. Therefore, it's considered favorable to design some significant events to stimulate learners to perform more actively while performing their learning tasks and involve them more positively in kinds of works. English teachers, on the other hand, play a significant part in developing learners' self-efficacy. Hence, in order to strengthen learners' self-efficacy, teachers should be encouraged to put emphasis on the incentive mechanism and supportive environment, as well as guiding them to problem solving, effective communication, and specific language skills, and cultivating learners' different abilities in their study and realistic practice.

It's commonly confirmed that effective use of language learning strategies can, definitely, facilitates learners' control of developing language skills as well as increasing their confidence in the learning process (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Ellis (1997) & Schunk (1995) illustrated that "strategy instructions promote learners' independent and autonomous learning." Since learners can benefit from strategy training or instruction and promote their self-efficacy and autonomous learning, hence they can be essential and critical to improve English majors' actual performance and achievement in English learning. For teachers, they should provide some useful strategy training for learners. Meanwhile, using strategy to influence self-efficacy can be achieved by making the language learning tasks appear easier, which in turn can make language learners feel more control in the learning process.

Since this study was conducted only in English majors, further researches need to be carried out in other study fields to compare the results. This study explored English majors' self-efficacy beliefs, self-regulated time management and strategy use in learning that affected their TEM-4 scores from students' perspective. It, however, investigated in only one Chinese university. More participants from more different majors and different countries can be explored in the future studies.

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Non-equivalence in Legal Translation*

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Abstract—This paper investigates the question of non-equivalence in legal translation in terms of lexical meanings, namely, translation of legal conceptual issues and false friends, lack of equivalent legal words, legal synonyms and legal system-bound words. Also, three reasons for non-equivalence in legal translation are analyzed from the perspective of legal system, culture and language. In the final part, this paper puts forward appropriate translation methods to deal with non-equivalence in legal translation like borrowing, coinage, addition and transliteration with annotation. In addition, for legal translators, a basic knowledge of the relevant legal system, a high level of proficiency in two legal languages and a law dictionary are necessary.

Index Terms—non-equivalence, correspondence, legal translation, translation methods, legal translators

I. INTRODUCTION

For the past decades, both translators and legal scholars in China have been thinking about the question of whether ‘fa’ in Chinese is indeed equivalent to ‘law’ in English since it is known that the word ‘law’ in English has four different interpretations in Chinese as *li* (理 in Chinese, means order), *li* (礼 in Chinese, means rites, rules of propriety), *fa* (法 in Chinese, means human-made laws) and *zhi* (治 in Chinese, means control).

Since Jakobson put forward the concept “equivalence” in 1950s, “equivalence” or “correspondence” has been discussed and studied in the legal translation field for a long time. According to Toury (1986), equivalence is a compromise between the source text system and the target text system that are originally incompatible with each other. In the western translation field, “equivalence” or “correspondence” is no less important than the principles of “faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance” in the translation field of China. Thus, it is self-evident that these two translation concepts “equivalence” and “faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance” are like the “king clause” in Civil Law. What’s more, “equivalence” has long been regarded as “empirical and theoretical concept” in the theoretical studies of contemporary translation.

When it comes to legal translation, it refers to a special and specialized area of translational activity. With a view to conform to the translation of the legal language, the “translation of language for special purposes (TLSP)”, one of the three norms for legal translation is offered, that is, equivalence.

However, it is noticed that there exist a number of Chinese and English legal words and legal terms translated in a non-equivalent way. Take a legal concept ‘theft’ for example. ‘Theft’ in English law is different from its equivalent ‘*Diebstahl*’ in German law in terms of concepts, where there are great discrepancies as to what consists of ‘theft’. In accordance with the *Theft Act 1968*, ‘theft’ refers to the dishonest appropriation of property belonging to another with the intention of permanently depriving the other of it.¹ While in German Law, ‘*Diebstahl*’ (theft) means the act of taking away movable property belonging to another with the intention of appropriating it or making the third party appropriate it by unlawfully.² It illustrates the fact that the two legal systems define ‘property’ differently and other elements contained in the definitions also differ (Weisflog, 1987:210-211).

Thus, based on the question of non-equivalence in legal translation discussed above, the paper, first of all, analyzes reasons for non-equivalence in legal translation. Secondly, some examples will be presented in terms of its lexical meanings to manifest the non-equivalence in legal translation. Confronted with the difficulties occurring in legal translation, the paper will finally put forward some appropriate translation methods to deal with non-equivalence in legal translation.

II. REASONS FOR NON-EQUIVALENCE IN LEGAL TRANSLATION

In legal translation, the complexity and difficulty of translating legal words or concepts can be attributed to two different languages and legal systems (Cao, 2007:23). Specifically, the reasons for non-equivalence in legal translation may include systemic differences in law, cultural differences and linguistic differences.

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¹ See John M. Scheb & John M. Scheb II: “Criminal Law”, second edition, Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1999:155.

² See German Criminal Code, translated by Xu Jiusheng and Zhuang Jinghua, China Legal Press, 2000 :174-176, 183-188.

A. Different Legal Systems and Laws

Legal language is a specialized language that is closely related to a country's legal system. That is to say, law and legal language are bound by system, which suggests that legal translation involves translation from one legal system into another (Cao, 2007:24). In terms of legal systems, there are several categories of world legal systems or families, such as the Common Law, the Civil Law, and the mixed systems of law. Therefore, it is difficult to translate the elements of source legal system to the target legal system (Sarcevic, 1997:13). Take words from Chinese *Criminal Law* as examples, “劳改”(laogai)、“徇私经营罪”(xunsijingyingzui)、“拐卖妇女儿童罪”(kuaimaifunvertongzui)、“破坏社会主义市场经济秩序罪”(pohuaishehuizhuyishichangjingjizhixuzui)、“死刑缓期执行”(sixinghuanqizhixing). These words do not exist and do not have corresponding words to match in the Anglo-American Criminal Law. Likewise, many legal concepts or terminologies also have not been brought into Chinese legal system.

B. Cultural Differences

Another reason for non-equivalence in legal translation is cultural differences. Law, expressed through legal language, embodies a specific culture. Thus, legal translation is also characterized by its culture-specificness. The reasons why legal languages differ from each other can be mainly attributed to the existence of different legal cultures and traditions especially when involving two cultures with marked differences, which will further result in difficulties in legal translation. Legal cultures can be investigated and examined by reference to different legal systems. For example, Anglo-American law pays more attention to legal procedure. So there exist many legal words concerning judicial proceedings, such as discovery(证据开示 in Chinese), disclosure(证据披露 in Chinese), pleading(呈送程序 in Chinese), which do not have a corresponding lexical items and connotations in Chinese legal language. On the contrary, Chinese nation attaches more importance to rites, which gives rise to words like *li* (礼 in Chinese)、*Li Zhi* (礼制 in Chinese) in the history of Chinese Legal Philosophy, also without corresponding English words in an equivalent way.

C. Linguistic Differences

There exist significant linguistic differences in legal language on account of different legal systems, cultures and histories. To meet the requirements for legal systems, legal language has developed its own characteristics. For instance, the early Anglo-Saxons often express legal concepts by using the combination of two semantically identical words that are alliterative as their linguistic tradition. Therefore, it can be seen that two semantically identical words that are often synonyms with alliteration are often used in English legal documents, such as *null and void; power and authority; save and except; obey, observe and comply with; charges and expenses* and so on. Take ‘*null and void*’ as an example. The legal phrase ‘*null and void*’ is translated as *wuxiao* (无效 in Chinese, means having no legal force) into Chinese as one word. This is because there are no two semantically identical words in Chinese to be equivalent to the English counterpart. Although ‘*null and void*’ in English possesses the same meaning as the word ‘*void*’, we may also note that the tone of ‘*null and void*’ is more certain and emphatic than one word ‘*void*’, which can be one of the explanations for frequently-used two semantically identical words with alliteration. Under this circumstance, it is easier to bring out problems of non-equivalence in legal translation, especially when in some languages there do not exist two equivalent words with similar meanings due to different legal languages.

III. NON-EQUIVALENCE IN LEGAL TRANSLATION

The principle of “equivalence” or “correspondence” in legal translation emphasizes the aspect of power in legal language. In other words, legal language in the translated text should possess the same “language power” as that of the original text (Li Kexing, 2010). However, in legal translation, due to factors such as differences in legal system, culture and linguistics, many legal concepts in one language cannot find corresponding words in another language to denote their meaning, causing both linguistic and legal complexities.

There are many cases causing non-equivalence in legal translation, and here we mainly discuss five major manifestations that may pose problems of non-equivalence. These are (1) legal conceptual issues; (2) lack of equivalent legal words; (3) legal synonyms; (4) legal system-bound words; and (5) false friends

A. Translating Legal Concepts

Legal concepts are the abstraction of legal thoughts and rule of law in the legal system (Cao, 2007:54). For instance, due to the development of different legal traditions and legal systems, some concepts in Common Law system are unknown to the Civil Law system and vice versa. In other words, some legal concepts in specific legal cultures are unique to the given legal systems. Take *fanzuiweishui* or *criminal attempt* (犯罪未遂 in Chinese) as an example. In the *Criminal Law of the People's Republic of China*, *fanzuiweishui* or *criminal attempt* (犯罪未遂 in Chinese) refers to a case where an offender has already started to commit a crime but is prevented from completing it for reasons independent of his will.³ While in Anglo-American Law, the definition of ‘*attempt*’ is that a person is guilty of an attempt if he/she does an act which is more than merely preparatory to the committing of the offence.⁴ Major

³ See Article 23 of *Criminal Law of the People's Republic of China* (2017 Amendment)

⁴ See Article 1, Section 1 of the *Criminal Attempts Act* 1981: (1) If, with intent to commit an offence to which this section applies, a person does

differences of ‘criminal attempt’ in Chinese Law and Anglo-American Law mainly lie in a) First, ‘criminal attempt’ in Chinese law is defined as committing a crime, while ‘attempt’ in Anglo-American law emphasizes “the act more than merely preparatory to the committing of the offence”. And whether ‘attempt’ in Anglo-American law can lead to punishments or not depends on the court’s opinions according specific situations. In other words, a person who ‘attempts’ to commit a crime may not be convicted of a crime for some uncertain reasons. b) Second, as to the reason of being prevented from completing a crime, it is independent of a person’s will in Chinese law. However, whether it is independent of a person’s will has not been taken into consideration in Anglo-American law. Therefore, according to the interpretation above, ‘*criminal attempt*’ is not the corresponding expression of ‘*fanzuiweishui*’ (犯罪未遂 in Chinese).

B. Lack of Equivalent Legal Words

As Newmark points out, “Semantic loss is a common translational problem, among which lack of equivalent legal words in translation becomes more obvious.” In the process of translation, many legal people, who under the Civil Law system, are accustomed to use “domestication” translation skill. They focus on conceptual equivalence, but ignore equivalence in connotative or cultural meaning. This non-equivalence problem is that although there exist words in the target law system equivalent to the source law system in terms of linguistics, these words may be partially equivalent to words in source law system or may not be equivalent from the perspective of function. For example, ‘costs’ are often translated as *susongfei* (“诉讼费” in Chinese), but actually the real meaning of ‘costs’ are different from *susongfei* (“诉讼费” in Chinese). In Common Law, ‘costs’ is categorized as “court costs” and “litigation costs”. The former one refers to a small amount of money and the costs of taking a case to court, including filing fees, jury fees, courthouse fees and reporter fees, etc. In a sense, it is just similar as *susongfei* (“诉讼费” in Chinese), while the latter one refers to a large sum amount of money that is spent on compensation for costs or losses incurred by the other party as a result of being engaged in this lawsuit and on retaining an attorney for the other party on a lawsuit, including the expenses of civil actions, criminal charges and other legal matters.⁵ Thus, it is clearly seen that the term ‘costs’ is totally different from *susongfei* (“诉讼费” in Chinese). Also, ‘*juror*’ in English translated as *peishenyuan* (“陪审员”) in Chinese is a good manifestation. Because of the vast difference between Chinese jury system and western jury system, semantic loss is also caused when translating *peishenzhidu* (“陪审制度”) as “*juror*”.

Still, once there has stirred a heat discussion when *jiehunzheng* (“结婚证” in Chinese) is translated as ‘marriage certificate’ and ‘marriage license’. Actually, China is a country that highlights entering to the register or registration, while countries like Britain and America pay less attention to registration than to ceremony and rite. ‘Marriage certificate’ means a document that is signed by the wedding host and submitted to the relevant institutions for filing, proving that the marriage of both parties is legal and effective. And ‘marriage license’ refers to an official written authorized certification issued by legally qualified government officials to the host of a wedding ceremony and is a prerequisite for legal wedding.⁶ Therefore, it is self-evident that ‘marriage certificate’ and ‘marriage license’ are totally different from *jiehunzheng* (“结婚证” in Chinese) that is issued by Chinese marriage registration authority and held by both husband and wife to prove their marriage legal and valid.

C. Legal Synonyms

Another manifestation of non-equivalent translation is that a legal term may have several synonyms, some of which also may be similar with each other, but actually they are totally different in law (Cao, 2007:70). For example, such words relating to law as legislation, statute, order and decree. Obviously, such a feature of Anglo-American legal language can pose a problem in legal translation for having no equivalent words in Chinese. Take the terms ‘custody’ and ‘guardianship’ in the *Australian Family Law* as an example.

In *Australian Family Law 1975*, ‘custodian’ refers to the legal right parents have to take care of and have control of their child on a day-to-day basis in relation to divorce or separation between two parents.⁷ While ‘guardian’ refers to the legal right parents have to make decisions on important matters such as education, medical and welfare for a long period of time on behalf of the child.⁸ The problem of non-equivalence in translation is created when these two terms both ‘custodian’ and ‘guardian’ are translated as “*jianhu*” (“监护” in Chinese). In other words, the two totally different legal terms in Australian law are translated into a same Chinese term “监护”. Thus, it shows us that translators are easily trapped into a dilemma, namely, non-equivalence in legal translation, especially when two synonyms words in English are translated into Chinese.

D. Legal System-bound Words

Legal language and legal translation are characterized by the use of legal terms specific to law, also known as system-bound words (Cao, 2007:60). There are many such words but we will only look at two categories of such words that present non-equivalence in legal translation: (1) words associated with areas of law and institutions; (2) words

an act which is more than merely preparatory to the commission of the offence, he is guilty of attempting to commit the offence.

⁵ See *The Compact English-Chinese Dictionary of Anglo-American Law*, 2013:329.

⁶ See *Black Law Dictionary*, 1999:998.

⁷ See *The CCH Macquarie Dictionary of Law*, 1993:47.

⁸ See *The CCH Macquarie Dictionary of Law*, 1993:79.

associated with the legal profession.

1. Words associated with areas of law and institutions

In spite of conceptual similarities within the same legal family, it is not necessarily to mean that the concepts are structurally similar. If we compare the Common Law and the Civil Law in terms of legal institutions and fields, there are many structural differences. For instance, there is the absence of such Common Law concepts as *consideration* or *estoppel* in the Civil Law of contracts (Cao, 2007:66). Besides, take ‘Equity’—a distinct branch of English legal structure as an example. In ordinary sense, the term ‘equity’ refers to fairness and equality. In law, ‘Equity’ refers to a set of legal principles and procedures developed by the Court of equity, attempting to remedy the deficiencies of the Common Law according to the doctrines of fairness and justice.⁹ It is so unique to English legal system that most of legal rules in this branch of law do not exist in other legal systems. In legal translation, the word ‘equity’ is translated as ‘*hengpingfa*’ (“衡平法” in Chinese) by coinage due to the fact that there is no corresponding word in Chinese legal system and legal language. However, the problem of non-equivalence to English term ‘equity’ in semantically and functionally has arisen for having no substantive or practical meaning, and having not been recognized in Chinese legal system before. Therefore, translators are often trapped into the embarrassing situation when translating words relating to law and institution that do not exist in other legal system.

2. Words associated with the legal profession

There are a number of words relating to legal profession. A lawyer is a person who practices law as an attorney, barrister, solicitor, counsellor, etc. The work of lawyers involves the practical application of legal theory and knowledge to address specific problems, or guaranteeing the interests of those who retain lawyers to provide legal services.¹⁰ The names of lawyers vary across countries, such as lawyer, barrister, solicitor, advocate, attorney and counsel. Here, take two kinds of lawyers—solicitors and barristers as an example. A solicitor is a legal practitioner who deals with most of the legal matters in some jurisdictions. He/She is responsible for communicating directly with agents, accepting cases, providing legal opinions and collecting legal fees. A solicitor can only appear in a court other than the high court to plead cases.¹¹ A barrister is another type of lawyer in Britain. He is responsible for the legal issues of cases and appears in the high court to plead cases at the solicitor’s request.¹² In legal translation, ‘solicitor’ is usually translated as ‘*chujilvshi*’, ‘*shiwulvshi*’, ‘*suzhuanglvshi*’ (“初级律师”, “事务律师”, “起诉状律师” in Chinese) and ‘barrister’ as ‘*gaojilvshi*’, ‘*chutinglvshi*’, ‘*dalvshi*’ and ‘*zhuamenlvshi*’ (“高级律师”, “出庭律师”, “大律师”, “专门律师” in Chinese). Or they are collectively called as *lvshi* (“律师”). Obviously, according to the different functions solicitors and barristers play, these expressions in Chinese actually do not correspond to the original terms expressed in English law.

E. False Friends

False friends in legal translation are also manifestations of non-equivalence translation. It means that a word is translated based on its literal meaning, but actually it does not mean that. Examples of common false friends include: “enterprise crime” in legal English is often mistranslated as *qiyefanzui* (“企业犯罪” in Chinese), but actually this word is equivalent to “organized crime”, that is, *youzuzhifanzui* (“有组织犯罪” in Chinese); “injunction” does not mean *jinling* (“禁令” in Chinese) or *minling* (“命令” in Chinese) but *qiangzhiling* (“强制令” in Chinese) or *fayuanqiangzhiling* (“法院强制令” in Chinese) issued by Anglo-American court. On the contrary, such as, “leading case” should mean *shouyaoanli* (“首要案例” in Chinese) while “leading question” should refer to *youdaoxingxunwen* (“诱导性提问” in Chinese); “industrial tribunal” is *laozijiufencaipansuo* (“劳资纠纷裁判庭” in Chinese).

In legal Chinese, there also exist non-equivalent words or terminologies when being translated into English. This kind of mistranslation may be caused by lack of equivalent English words or ignorance. For example, *leifan* (“累犯” in Chinese) has two meanings in the *Criminal Law* of China: one is the action of committing a crime, the other is a person who commits a crime. Today in Chinese translated text the word is translated as ‘recidivist’ while translated as ‘repeat crime’ in *Legal Dictionary*. According to Black Law Dictionary, recidivist means that one who has been convicted of a crime more than once (repeat offender or habitual criminal), close to essential elements of the *Criminal Law* of China.¹³ But when referring to the action of committing a crime, *leifan* (“累犯” in Chinese) should be translated as cumulative offense (offense committed by repeating the same act at different times). So, ‘recidivist’ in its translated text is not totally equivalent to *leifan* “累犯”. Again, *jianyu* (“监狱”) or *juliusuo* (“拘留所”, or *kanshousuo* “看守所”) in Chinese is often considered to be equivalent to the word ‘prison’. But actually in American legal English, ‘prison’ or ‘penitentiary’ is a building for Confederate or State to keep criminals sentenced to more than one-year imprisonment. Hence, in China, from the perspective of translational equivalence, terminologies of *jianyu* (“监狱”), *juliusuo* (“拘留所”) or *kanshousuo* (“看守所”) in legal Chinese should be translated as ‘prison’ or ‘detention house (center)’ respectively.

From these examples illustrated above, it is obvious that translation based on literal meaning of words cannot realize

⁹ See *The Compact English-Chinese Dictionary of Anglo-American Law*, 2013:483.

¹⁰ See *The Compact English-Chinese Dictionary of Anglo-American Law*, 2013:806.

¹¹ See Curzon, L. B. *A Dictionary of Law*, 1983:341-342.

¹² See *The Compact English-Chinese Dictionary of Anglo-American Law*, 2013:136.

¹³ See *The Compact English-Chinese Dictionary of Anglo-American Law*, 2013:1155.

the effect of equivalence, which sometimes leads to misunderstanding.

IV. CONCLUSION

Legal translation is a process of linguistic transcoding and an activity of communication within the mechanism of law, involving different legal cultures and systems. This paper has discussed the question of non-equivalence in legal translation.

Despite the diverse linguistic and cultural differences between different laws, translation from one particular law to another is not impossible. For example, when it comes to the absence of legal concepts and linguistics and lack of equivalent legal words, we sometimes need to use borrowing expressions from the target language or create new words. For instance, many legal terminologies in China borrow from Japan, including *fa ren* (“法人”legal person), *renquan* (“人权”human rights), *gongzhengren* (“公证人”notary public), *yiwu* (“义务”obligation), etc (Xiao Han, Li Lei, 2015). Also, ‘*fanzuiweishui*’ (犯罪未遂 in Chinese) mentioned above can be translated as ‘uncomplete murder’ and *jiehunzheng* (“结婚证” in Chinese) is translated as ‘marriage registration certificate’ by creating new expressions.

As for legal synonyms, the translation methods of addition and adding annotation are good ways to convey original meanings. For instance, ‘custodian’ and ‘guardian’ can be translated as “日常监护权” and “长期监护权” respectively by adding the two words “日常” and “长期”, or giving additional annotation followed in these two words. With regard to words relating to legal system, transliteration with illustration plays an important role in retaining the semantic meaning of the source language. For example, ‘solicitor’ and ‘barrister’ can be translated as “沙律师” and “巴律师” in Chinese according to their pronunciations or can add some annotations about their specific functions. For the translation of some false friends, translators should possess a basic knowledge and understanding of relevant legal systems and legal languages and a law dictionary is required when encountering difficulties in legal translation.

All in all, regarding non-equivalence in legal translation, translators should not only be familiar with the semantic and pragmatic meanings of legal terms in the respective legal system, but also be flexible to employ appropriate translation methods so as to maximally reduce non-equivalence in legal translation and convey the original legal meanings and spirits to target readers.

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