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# Efficacy of Sight Translation in English-Japanese Consecutive Interpreting Training in a University Course

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**Abstract**—A special type of simultaneous interpreting, sight translation has been a topic of particular interest as a variant of written and oral translation. The association of sight translation and simultaneous interpreting has been discussed for many pedagogical and professional purposes. However, few studies based on empirical evaluation have investigated the efficacy of sight translation as a comprehension component in relation to consecutive interpreting. This study examined the effectiveness of intensive sight translation activities for the subsequent training in consecutive interpreting of students registered on an English-Japanese interpreting course at a university in Japan. Data analysis revealed the efficacy of sight translation practice but showed that it had no significant impact on consecutive interpreting. Several exploratory analyses were conducted that may provide insight into the characteristics of the two distinct modalities by presenting the differences in processing capacities needed by the two respective modes.

**Index Terms**—sight translation, consecutive interpreting, visual input, oral translation, training, university

## I. INTRODUCTION

Interpreting and translation perform essentially the same functions, namely, re-expressing in one language what has been expressed in another for communicative or other purposes (Gile, 2009). However, three functions are considered to be within the purview of language professionals: translation, interpreting, and sight translation (National Council on Interpreting in Health Care, 2009). Sight translation (ST) is defined as a specific type of written translation, as well as a variant of oral translation (Nilsen & Monsrud, 2015). More specifically, ST is the oral rendition of a text written in one language into another, with the interpreter translating the source text at sight (Pöchhacker, 2016). Professionally, ST is an indispensable mode of interpreting, frequently used in settings in which immediate access to information presented in a foreign language is required.

From a pedagogical perspective, ST has received little attention in the last few decades; most authors have discussed ST as a preliminary exercise rather than as a curricular component (Pöchhacker, 2016). Recent advocacy for ST has been on the rise, however, because of the clear need for education and training in academic and professional fields (Nilsen & Monsrud, 2015; Pöchhacker, 2016). ST has been viewed as a pedagogical exercise for raising students' awareness of syntactic and stylistic differences between the source language and the target language (Nilsen & Monsrud, 2015). At present, ST is used by many schools as a preparatory exercise for an interpreting course in order to lay the foundation for the acquisition of skills in consecutive and simultaneous interpreting.

Didactic suggestions for the inclusion of ST practice in curricula have increasingly been emphasized; this is the case even in Japan. For example, a lengthy project for ST studies was launched in Japan in 2015 by prominent scholars of interpreting studies in affiliation with the Japan Association of Interpreting and Translation Studies. The project members have been exploring ST through a multilateral approach to its practice, research, and education, as well as attempting to establish a framework for ST by exploring its diverse applications (<http://www.jaits.org/>).

To date, interpreting studies have advanced our understanding of certain characteristics of ST. However, little research has consisted of a comparative analysis between ST and consecutive interpreting (CI). CI is defined as the process of interpreting after the speaker or signer has relayed one or more ideas in the source language, and then pauses while the interpreter transmits that information (Russell, 2005). We may find that ST and CI differ in many respects. On the one hand, ST involves reading whereas CI involves listening. In addition, CI requires note taking whereas ST does not. For CI, the most challenging part is listening and note taking, especially interpreting from the second language to the first language (mother tongue). These skills are unique to CI, and ST may therefore have no effect on CI performance. However, ST and CI also share skills, including rapid source text analysis, fast conversion of messages from one cultural setting to another, public speaking skills, and enhancement in flexibility of expression (Gile, 2009). Given such shared skills, we may assume that ST—in which an interpreter translates a source text aloud while reading it—will facilitate the decoding process because of the interaction of comprehension, semantics, and background knowledge. Those shared characteristics with ST may contribute to enhancing some abilities in CI, namely, understanding of syntactic structures in source speech and fluency of expression.

In 2017, the author taught English/Japanese interpreting to undergraduate students registered for an English interpreting course at a university. For the present research, intensive ST training was offered to a class over one semester in the hope that it would improve students' CI skills. ST tests and CI tests were administered during mid-term and final examinations, respectively. The present study first explores the development of ST skills over one semester. With respect to translation problems that cause difficulties during ST, major errors or deficiencies in rendering are identified. Strategies for solving these problems are then analyzed. Next, the study explores the effect of ST on CI skills. For example, it examines how reading and oral output skills taught through ST activities are related to enhancing CI skills, in which only listening and note-taking skills are critical. Finally, from a pedagogical perspective, the implications of introducing ST activities into academic interpreting courses are clarified.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The most salient attribute of ST that distinguishes it from other modes of interpretation is that "the interpreter's target-text production is simultaneous not with the delivery of the source text but with the interpreter's real-time (visual) reception of the written source text" (Pöchhacker, 2016, p. 20). ST is not paced by the source-language speaker; rather, its rhythm depends on the interpreter, who has some margin of freedom in allocating processing capacity to the reading and analysis effort or to the production effort (Gile, 2002).

As a special mode of simultaneous interpreting (SI), sight interpreting or sight interpretation (Lambert, 2004; Pöchhacker, 2016) is delivered in a booth. This variant of ST involves an interpreter performing SI with a text; that is to say, the interpreter has access to a written script while listening to the original speech and performing SI.

Agrifoglio (2004) identified several features of ST:

- 1) Continuous access to information in the text
- 2) Attention sharing between visual input and oral production
- 3) Coordination of reading and production effort
- 4) Monitoring production while reading
- 5) Progressive access to new information (no previous access) or prior access to information (previous reading)
- 6) Extreme risk of source text interference

In ST, effective preparation for the source-language text in a given time is extremely important to expediting the processing capacity. In a real-time professional interpreting setting, a time constraint for processing the source text before translating it for immediate use is strictly imposed on the interpreter. As the reading effort initially carries the burden of comprehending the written text—which contains all the information in the message plus language components associated with syntax and style—effective layout of notes and graphic presentation of markings are of primary importance when preparing the text (Gile, 2002). In ST, an interpreter has to read ahead to identify the key words and units of translation in order to produce smooth oral interpretations; thus, the source-language text is normally processed by dividing sentences into several translation units. For this purpose, slashes are inserted into the text according to phrases or semantic chunks. This task makes it possible to focus eye movements on shorter text segments, thus reducing the time and capacity required for comprehension (Gile, 2002). In addition, writing the glosses and numbering the semantic chunks in the source text in order of translation can reduce the production capacity requirements.

The most problematic issue in SI is the linguistic interference between the source language and the target language. Gile (2002) stated that in CI and SI, the memory of the source-language words fades to a significant degree before the re-creation of their content in the target language. In ST, by contrast, because they continue to be visually present throughout, the risk of linguistic interference is probably higher than in CI or SI (Chen, 2015). In other words, this constant shifting of the translator's visual contact with the source text and the presence of the written text makes it much more difficult for the interpreter to perform ST than other modes of interpretation do (Mikkelsen et al., 1995). Agrifoglio (2004, p. 47) notes that "the main difficulty of ST lies not in the written nature of the source text, but in the smooth coordination of the Reading, Memory and Production Efforts, while struggling against increased visual interference from the source language."

From a pedagogical standpoint, in interpreting training, we may assume that ST would be an effective tool to help students recognize the difference in syntax and style between the second language and the first language (the native language). ST has been considered useful for the development of oral and language-transfer skills in the process of syntactically restructuring and paraphrasing a source text (Ilg & Lambert, 1996). In recent years, advocacy for the use of ST has increased for education and training in the academic and professional interpreting fields as its need has become clear. Nevertheless, empirical studies are insufficient in relation to the association of ST with CI in training and practice.

Gile (2009) explains the functions of ST and CI by using their respective models. CI uses a two-phase model involving a listening phase and a reformulation phase. The listening phase requires listening and an analysis effort that refers to all comprehension-oriented operations. In the reformulation phase, it requires a production effort in which the interpreter takes notes to support his or her memory. The note-taking technique is crucially important to reducing memory load constraints.

If we compare Gile's model on ST to CI:

ST = analytical reading + memory + production + coordination

CI = (analytical listening + memory + note taking) + (note reading + recall of information + production)

There is a critical difference between the two tasks. CI involves listening and note taking, which is definitely the most challenging part because it determines the accuracy of CI.

On the other hand, as was mentioned earlier, ST and CI also share skills, such as rapid source text analysis, fast conversion of messages from one cultural setting to another, public speaking skills, and enhancement in flexibility of expression (Agrifoglio, 2004). In this context, the author first explores how the intensive ST training offered to the students during the semester developed their own ST skills. Next the author investigates the effect of ST on CI in order to justify the use of ST activities to improve students' CI performances in an academic arena.

### III. METHODS

#### A. Research Question

The author presented the following questions.

- 1) Will intensive ST training, if offered to university students over a semester, develop their abilities in ST?
- 2) Will intensive ST training, if offered to university students over a semester, develop their abilities in CI?

#### B. Research Participants

The present research was conducted during Spring Semester 2017 at the Japanese university at which the author lectured. The research participants were 16 students in a mixed class of third- and fourth-year students. They were English major students registered in introductory courses of English-to-Japanese interpreting who had never undergone ST or CI training in the past. No screening tests were conducted when the students registered for the courses. The latest TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) score obtained by the students ranged from 495 to 695 points.

#### C. Procedures

Fifteen lessons were presented over the semester, each lasting three hours. Intensive ST training was offered for the first hour, with two-hour CI training sessions undertaken shortly after the ST activity was completed. During the semester, all lessons were carried out in the CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) room.

The textbooks used for the ST activities were *Shadowing* (Kadota & Tamai, 2004), *Introduction to Bilingual Interpretation* (Ohata, Okuda, & Tanimoto, 2009), *Tsuuyakugaku 101* (Tomono, Miyamoto, & Minamitsu, 2012), and other books specializing in interpreting studies. In addition, newspaper articles, editorials, and internet resources in the fields of business, cross-cultural communication, culture, environment, and politics were also used as source texts. ST activities entailed the following tasks, conducted in the order listed below.

##### 1) Source Text Preparation

Unknown words in the source text constitute a major problem for students during ST. Students were first instructed to check for lexical problems and, if there were unknown words, to look them up in dictionaries. Second, the students processed the source text in several ways; for example, determining the smallest semantic segments in the sentences and inserting slashes to create translation units for the purpose of translating linearly. It was necessary to write glosses and number semantic segments in order of translation when the syntactic structure was difficult to translate linearly. All these tasks were to be completed within a time limit and shortly before the delivery of ST. The imposition of time constraints may be one of the most integral parts of didactic classroom instructions in ST activities.

##### 2) Pair or Group Practice with Peer Review

Students worked in pairs or groups, during which they took turns to verbalize the translation, one paragraph at a time. Students evaluated each other's performance to improve the quality of individual oral performance.

##### 3) Oral Representation as a Rehearsal

After group practice, individual students translated the entire source text orally, using microphones attached to headsets. Through the monitoring system in the CALL room, the author monitored each student. The author assisted by providing suggestions, comments, and corrections on each student's performance, without being heard by other students.

##### 4) Oral Representation before an Audience

A student was then selected to perform a complete oral translation of the source text that had been previously practiced in step 3, and this effort was heard not only by the author but also by the other students in the classroom.

##### 5) Recording Individual Students' Performances

In order to identify specific causes of translation problems, students were asked to record their ST performances on their own computers and then to listen to them carefully, with the text visible, to discover a solution for specific problems. This recording process was repeated several times. Upon recording, clear output, right intonation, proper pauses, and even elocution were exercised in the students' performances, as though they were making a real speech (Viaggio, 1992). For this purpose, honorific terms, polite lines, and humble forms in the Japanese language were used. Furthermore, the students were asked to distance themselves from the form of the source text and to develop rhetorical skills to avoid literal translation (Lee, 2012).

With regard to CI from L2 to L1 (English to Japanese), training was applied in the following order:

- 1) Listening

Students listened to the source-language text once, with the textbook closed to learn the text's outline.

2) Shadowing, Repeating, or Retention

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

3) Oral Representation as Rehearsal and Monitoring

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

4) Oral Representation before an Audience

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

5) Recording Individual Students' Performances

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

#### D. Data Collection

Data were collected on two occasions: From the mid-term examination held at the end of the eighth lesson, and from the final examination implemented after the 15th lesson. The subjects were 16 students. The procedures during the examinations were as follows:

1) Students were given an unknown source text in English. They immediately proceeded to process the text. The time limit for processing the source text was three minutes.

2) Students were then asked to perform ST verbally, within four minutes. Performances were recorded on students' own computers.

3) The students were then asked to perform CI from English to Japanese, as well as from Japanese to English. These source materials were not relevant to the present research. The irrelevant test items were inserted here between the ST and CI test items that followed to reduce the practice effect of ST on CI. The duration of step 3) was 40 minutes.

4) Finally, they performed the CI for the same source text as had been used for the earlier ST test in 2), which was also recorded on each computer. To examine the effectiveness of ST on CI, the same source text was used for both ST and CI.

The duration from step 1 to step 4 was 70 minutes for both the mid-term and final examinations. Performances of ST and CI recorded on the students' computers were copied onto a USB flash drive and assessed by the author.

#### E. Material

The test items for the mid-term and final examinations were presented by the same speaker. The difficulty levels of the source text for both examinations, in terms of intelligibility, syntactic complexity, vocabulary, and familiarity with the text information, were almost the same.

The test item of the mid-term examination referred to "Job hunting in Japan" and had a word count of 336 words. The test item of the final examination comprised 268 words and related to Donald Keene, a renowned expert in Japanese literature and culture (Tomono, Miyamoto, & Minamitsu, 2012).

The mid-term examination (336 words):

"Job hunting in Japan"

Fall is one of the most beautiful seasons in Japan, but for third-year college students, it is also the time for one of the most challenging events of their lives—job hunting. The students rush to attend company seminars, preliminary exams, and job fairs.... Statistics show that on average one out of three new employees quits his or her first job within three years—a surprisingly high turnover rate after all the effort both on the part of company recruiters and students applicants. Isn't it time to review the entire recruiting system in Japan?

*Tsuuyakugaku 101* (Tomono, Miyamoto, & Minamitsu, 2012)

The final examination (268 words):

"Donald Keene"

On April 26, 2011, Donald Keene, an 88-year-old renowned expert in Japanese literature and culture, gave his last speech at Columbia University in which he announced that he would be leaving the United States in order to spend the

rest of his life in Japan.... Since the two-volume novel cost only 59 cents, Keene immediately purchased it and was absorbed by the story of that world as narrated by a court lady a millennium earlier. That was how he began his life-long journey as a scholar in Japanese literature.

*Tsuuyakugaku 101* (Tomono, Miyamoto & Minamitsu, 2012)

#### F. Measurements

The criteria of Viaggio (1992, 1995) for ST and CI were used for assessing the students' recorded performances:

- 1) Comprehension (Has the student understood everything and understood it correctly?)
- 2) Re-expression (Did the student make any syntactic or lexical mistakes?)
- 3) Style (Could it have been better expressed?)

In terms of T-units, defined by Hunt (1965, p.20) as the "shortest grammatically allowable sentences into which writing can be split or a minimally terminable unit" (i.e., a dominant clause and its dependent clause), every detail of each translated unit was assessed using a scoring rubric created by the author, which allocated specific points to each translation unit (Yamada, 2015). If the translation of a specific sentence was left incomplete, it received zero points. To ascertain the difficulty level of a specific word, a "word frequency list" from the relevant academic area was used (<http://www.wordandphrase.info/frequencyList.asp>). Using this analytic protocol, the data were analyzed using an F-test and a *t*-test.

## IV. RESULTS

### A. Quantitative Analysis

First, the marks obtained in the mid-term and the final examinations for ST were compared.

TABLE 1  
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF MARKS OBTAINED IN SIGHT TRANSLATION DURING THE MID-TERM AND FINAL EXAMINATIONS

	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>
Mid-term	16	18.56	6.54	.004
Final	16	29.06	12.34	.004

Note. \*\*\**p* < .001 Full marks are 50 points.

As shown, the difference in the marks obtained in ST between the mid-term and the final examinations are statistically significant ( $p < .001$ ). This demonstrates that the students markedly developed their ST skills through the ST activities applied during a semester. Next, the marks obtained in the CI performed in the mid-term and final examinations are shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2  
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF MARKS OBTAINED IN CONSECUTIVE INTERPRETING IN THE MID-TERM AND FINAL EXAMINATIONS

	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>
Mid-term	16	26.38	9.05	-.948
Final	16	28.19	12.48	-.948

Note. Full marks are 50 points.

As shown, the difference is not statistically significant ( $p = .358$ ) for the marks obtained for the CI between the mid-term and the final examinations. The results indicate that the students did not significantly develop CI skills during the semester.

Next, the marks obtained for ST and the subsequent CI (both of which used the same source text) were compared to the mid-term (Table 3) and final examinations (Table 4), respectively, to examine the effect of ST on CI performance.

TABLE 3  
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF MARKS OBTAINED IN SIGHT TRANSLATION AND CONSECUTIVE INTERPRETING IN THE MID-TERM EXAMINATION

	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>
ST	16	18.56	6.54	-6.58
CI	16	26.38	9.05	-6.58

Note. Full marks are 50 points. \*\*\**p* < .001

TABLE 4  
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF MARKS OBTAINED IN SIGHT TRANSLATION AND CONSECUTIVE INTERPRETING IN THE FINAL EXAMINATION

	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>
ST	16	29.06	12.34	0.49
CI	16	28.19	12.48	0.49

Note. Full marks are 50 points.

We can observe the statistical difference between the marks in ST and CI for the mid-term examination. CI scored significantly higher than did ST. By contrast, no statistical difference was produced in the final examination ( $p = 0.67$ ).

### B. Qualitative Analysis

Next, the author divided the students' ST problems into four categories, referring to the aforementioned criteria from Viaggio (1992). The data were analyzed according to the following criteria:

1) Mistakes in comprehension involving linguistic understanding or conceptual understanding, and mistakes in syntactic analysis owing to weak command of the source language

The mid-term examination consisted of seven paragraphs. Most of the students had no significant comprehension problems in paragraphs one to four, which described the current situation of "job hunting in Japan." However, from the fifth paragraph, as the writer begins to express specific thoughts using complex syntactic structures, the students appeared to encounter the first stumbling block in exercising linguistic and conceptual understanding. The fifth paragraph is as follows:

"It is impressive to see how students can be tough enough to skillfully juggle all of these activities. Of course, they have been trained to be tough, already having made their way through college entrance exam hell. Still, to a large extent, job hunting dominates their young lives" (Tomono, Miyamoto, & Minamitsu, 2012; my emphasis).

The syntactic analysis of the first sentence, including the word "how," was a problem for the majority of students. It appears that some students may not have understood the syntactic structure. Others, although they seemed to have analyzed the structure of the sentence accurately, may not have been able to coordinate their syntactic understanding and construction. Consequently, they used repair and omission, which resulted in an awkwardly coordinated translation to Japanese. One example of a translation is as follows: "It is impressive, and students are tough, and they did these activities well."

2) Lexical problems that lead to awkward rendering because of an inability to come up with fixed equivalents

Several students were unable to translate the following underlined words into proper Japanese:

"It is also the time for one of the most challenging events of their lives—job hunting." "... because they wear standard black and white interview suits, formal business shoes, and carry black attach écases" (Tomono, Miyamoto, & Minamitsu, 2012; my emphasis).

In these sentences, the underlined lexical items may have been familiar to the students; they had difficulty coming up with suitable equivalents in Japanese. In most cases, uncertainty in choice of vocabulary was the problem.

3) Expression problems for acceptable translation

"Since the two-volume novel cost only 59 cents, Keene immediately purchased it, and was absorbed by the story of that world as narrated by a court lady a millennium earlier" (Tomono, Miyamoto, & Minamitsu, 2012; my emphasis).

The first half of this sentence was generally well translated, whereas the latter half, including the underlined portion, was not rendered in proper Japanese by the majority of students. Though the translation of "court lady" and "millennium" were shown in the vocabulary list, they were unable to link the English and Japanese styles well enough to express the phrase "as narrated by."

4) Incompletion of work within the allocated time

In the mid-term examination, the majority of students completed only the first four paragraphs (191 words) in ST, and none of them were able to finish it completely. On the other hand, in the final examination, most students completed the ST for the first five paragraphs (224 words) out of a total of six paragraphs. Five students completed the translation of all the paragraphs within the time limit. Although the intelligibility and familiarity of the two source texts were almost equivalent, the students translated a significantly higher number of words in the final examination than in the mid-term examination.

## V. DISCUSSION

### A. Testing of Research Question 1

1) Will intensive ST training, if offered to university students over a semester, develop their abilities in ST?

In the present research, intensive ST practice was offered for one hour, once a week, adding up to 15 hours during the semester. The duration and frequency may not be sufficient for identifying remarkable development in ST skills. Nevertheless, the results indicate that the difference between the marks for ST in the mid-term and final examinations were statistically significant ( $p < .001$ ). This finding suggests that ST may be a trainable activity and that the more ST training students receive, the better the skills they will acquire.

Furthermore, with regard to verbal performance of ST, there was a phenomenal improvement in the students' oral abilities from the mid-term to final examinations. In the mid-term examination, students seemed uncertain about appropriate word selection when given a choice. However, in the final examination, they appeared to have become more aware of completing the work in a given span of time. Hesitation, fixation, regression, frequent pauses, retorts, and disfluency in speaking were thereby significantly reduced. The free flow and tempo of their verbal output clearly improved, resulting in an increase in the total number of words translated. During ST training, they may have learned how to access continuous or progressive information in the text. It is likely that they acquired the skills and/or techniques to divide their attention between visual input and oral constructions as they practiced the coordination of reading and translating. In this process, the students may have become more aware of tempo, resulting in an increase in



rendering speed. This suggests that the appropriate speed of interpretation is of primary importance to completing ST in a given time span.

Students may have employed several strategies to make this development possible. First, when they were unable to follow the context, they may have used their reasoning skills to determine the main idea by inferring from the context. If they remained unable to translate a specific phrase, they almost omitted that part and restarted from the next phrase while paraphrasing the problematic area—sometimes even inventing a translation for it. When they had lexical problems, some of them inferred the meaning of unknown words from the context. When they failed to complete the automatic equivalent translation for a specific word or phrase, they produced word-for-word translations. Some students adopted several strategies to solve their problems, while others remained unable to exercise these strategies when encountering a complex sentence structure and/or unknown word.

Next, the students used various strategies with respect to the “extreme risk of source text interference in ST.” In fact, the majority of students had problems rendering plausible Japanese that was pleasing to the ear. When they encountered an additional phrase or language component in a relatively long sentence, such as “Statistics show that on average one out of three new employees quits his or her first job within three years—a surprisingly high turnover rate after all the effort both on the part of company recruiters and students applicants.” they struggled. It appears that they were unable to read further on to execute verbal output in plausible Japanese for the underlined part because of an inability to monitor output while reading.

When one performs ST from English to Japanese, semantic phrases are supposed to be translated linearly, that is, in order of head-initial to head-final linearity, which is syntactically different from Japanese. This difference seems to be a major stumbling block for students. Viezzi (1990) explains that in the case of morphosyntactically dissimilar language pairs, source text interference is more likely to occur than in other language pairs because of the impact of morphosyntactic transformation on processing resources. Gile (2002) notes that Japanese grammar is rather rigid because it imposes strict conditions on the order of elements in the sentence, as well as grammatical agreement conditions. Because the morphosyntactic structure is distinctively different in English and Japanese, many students probably found it difficult to render English into plausible Japanese. More specifically, when relaying their initial thoughts in Japanese, the students could not complete the translation, which resulted in an awkward Japanese rendition. Consequently, they stopped translating or restarted from the beginning to compensate for the inadequate Japanese expression.

Another interesting revelation concerning linguistic interference is the fact that when students performed CI, linguistic interference did not occur more often than in ST. Surprisingly, when consecutively interpreting the aforementioned sentence, many students gave a more natural rendition than in ST. In fact, the data indicate that students obtained 18.6 points out of 50 for ST and 26.4 points for CI when translating the same source text in the mid-term examination; they obtained 29.0 points for ST and 28.1 points for CI in the final examination. It was initially assumed that the score for ST would substantially exceed the score for CI because ST does not entail a risk of misinterpretation caused by insufficient listening comprehension abilities. Memory failure would be likely to occur more frequently in CI than in ST because the source text is visually present throughout. However, the research yielded results contrary to this assumption.

In CI, it appears that in the process of rendition they solved a particular syntactic problem instantaneously at a cognitive level. It seems likely that the students adopted a strategy of monitoring the construction of sentences at an unconscious level and therefore that they verbalized a plausible translation in Japanese automatically, without thinking about whether it had been properly expressed. We may suppose that when verbally interpreting from a source language to the interpreter’s mother tongue language, a strategy for monitoring sentence construction is automatically set in motion. Consequently, the interpreter edits his or her own words while translating into Japanese. In this process, erroneous expressions may be mitigated, thereby producing plausible Japanese translations in CI. For example, they appeared either to guess the meaning of the unknown word from the context or to ignore the word altogether—apparently judging whether it was crucial to the discourse—both of which may have been done instantaneously at a cognitive level.

By contrast, during ST, when students can see the source text throughout the output performance, they seemed to have been more aware of language inadequacy, particularly in terms of expression, when compared to CI. This may have hindered coherent and fluent translation. Upon encountering unknown words in the source text in ST, they sometimes paused or even stopped translating. In this respect, Gile’s (2002) statement that the risk of linguistic interference is probably higher in ST than in CI appears to be correct.

Another noteworthy issue concerns the rhetorical skill of orality in ST. Angelelli (1999) contends that ST should sound as if the interpreter were reading a document in the target language, which implies a smooth delivery, devoid of hesitations and pauses. When sight translating the source text of formal speech or an address at a ceremony, the students were instructed to be extra careful about using correct, honorific, and humble wording in Japanese. In the didactic setting of written translation in junior and senior high school, however, they appear to have already become used to translating English sentences into Japanese without using honorific expressions. Thus, some of them seemed to find it difficult to adjust their current translational style into the formal and polite Japanese language style. Hence, training in ST for formal speech or an address is extremely important in further training for students to acquire language

proficiency in their mother tongue. In this regard, ST activities also greatly help to develop verbal competence in the target language.

### *B. Testing of Research Question 2*

2) Will intensive ST training, if offered to university students over a semester, develop their abilities in CI?

The study offers important observations concerning the second research question. In a broader sense, when the mid-term and final examination marks in ST and CI were compared, mixed results were produced. CI yielded a significantly higher score than ST did in the mid-term examination. It is assumed that students had not yet acclimatized to the ST environment in the middle of the semester. In addition, ST has several features that distinguish it from other modes of interpreting, such as comprehension of the visually presented source text. This entails the risk of interference, which hinders the ability to present clear and fluent delivery. This may have resulted in lower scores for ST than CI. However, students gradually developed their ST skills in the latter half of the semester. Consequently, they obtained high scores in ST in the final examination whereas their CI skills did not develop in line with their ST skills.

Next, when comparing the obtained marks by ST and the subsequent CI, where both tasks were performed using identical source materials, they showed no statistical difference in the final examination. This suggests that ST may not be an effective tool for enhancing immediate CI performance for new learners. To put it differently, the shared skills of SI and CI such as rapid source text analysis including syntactic analysis, quick conversion from L2 to L1 and flexible expression may not directly contribute to enhancing the quality of immediate CI performance. It was anticipated that the previous ST task with textual support might make it easier for students to perform subsequent CI because they had already come to understand the syntactic structures and language components of the source text from performing ST. Thus, ST might help to improve performance with CI, to the extent that students might outperform ST in scores. However, the results were not in line with the anticipated outcome.

The relatively lower score in CI may have resulted from the students' insufficient processing capacity for CI, in which the listening phase is critical. Due to cognitive load and the need to pay full attention while listening, the students' processing capacity may have been overwhelmed. Furthermore, the processing capacity required for listening in CI is largely determined by the note taking of students, during which incoming information is accumulated in the short-term memory. Reformulation of a message may depend heavily on the way in which notes are taken, a technical skill that requires training over a long span of time. Therefore, the information in the source text that had been acquired through ST by the students may not have been reflected well in their CI performance.

In the listening phases, languages with many short words and homophones and few grammatical indicators, such as Chinese and Japanese, may be more vulnerable than others (Gile, 2004). In this regard, the shared skills of ST with CI may not directly contribute to enhancing the accuracy of immediate CI performance. Alternatively, another feature of ST may have exerted a positive effect on the students' processing capacity and ability to analyze syntactic structure. Linearity in translation increases students' awareness of semantics and sentence structures. This, ultimately, would help students to comprehend each phrase in the source text linearly, in the order in which they listened. Were they to acquire this technique, they would learn how to reduce the cognitive load borne in CI. In other words, if students learn how to translate the incoming information uttered by the speaker linearly through a segmented process, they can reduce their cognitive load. It may therefore be advisable to teach ST and related segmenting skills in CI training, particularly for new learners of interpreting.

Next, a comparison of individual students' ST and CI when conducting the qualitative analysis produced results that highlighted specific comprehension problems with logical structures and language components. In many cases, these problems occurred in ST, but it was also observed in the very same phrases or sentences in CI. Frequency, distribution, and type of syntactic error were almost identical between ST and CI products. In other words, the complex syntactic structure and language components that seemingly confused a student in ST seemed to cause the same difficulty in CI.

From the perspective of linguistic theory, when performing ST, initial reading of the text imposes a heavy burden on the interpreter, namely, that of comprehending the logical structure and language components associated with syntax and style in the written text. This task requires a fair amount of linguistic skills. Thus, students who do not demonstrate reasonable linguistic skills in ST will not be able to understand the same syntactic structure presented in CI. This implies that the main cause of the problems may be rooted in a deficiency in the students' linguistic understanding. It was initially assumed that some students might not consecutively interpret well owing to a lack of listening comprehension ability. However, it seems possible that they were unable to interpret well not because they lacked listening abilities but because they lacked linguistic understanding, such as analytical skills and comprehension of complex sentence structures. Since the syntactic and lexical mistakes that occurred in ST almost exactly matched those occurring in CI, it may be assumed that comprehension by reading and comprehension by listening are more closely linked to each other than initially expected. However, cognitive processing during reading and listening has not been closely analyzed here. Future studies should explore the cognitive processes associated with syntactic, lexical, and strategic translation problems in both modalities based on more thorough examination. Although the findings in this research are preliminary, it will contribute to a better understanding of the efficacy of ST when learning CI.

## VI. CONCLUSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

This study attempted to examine the efficacy of ST training for English-to-Japanese CI and to discuss the relationship between ST and CI. The findings indicate that students significantly enhanced their ST skills during the administration period, whereas the data did not demonstrate any appreciable difference in the development of CI in the given span of time. In other words, a noticeable effectiveness of ST on CI performance was not observed. This result may be due to a deficiency in students' processing capacity for CI, which relies purely on auditory intake and involves complex cognitive processing. Their note-taking skills when reformulating messages may not have improved sufficiently either. In addition, the frequency and duration of ST training may not have been sufficient to produce any salient efficacy of ST on CI for untrained students in interpreting course.

However, when comparing ST with CI in terms of output products of students, they were clearly related in both dimensions. This result suggests that students' inability to interpret well may arise in part from a lack of linguistic understanding, such as analytical skills for comprehending syntactic structures and complex language components. To reduce the burden of processing complex structures, ST may be helpful. In this context, enhancing linguistic understanding through ST activities is of crucial importance in the methodology of interpreting education offered at universities.

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# From Chinglish to New Chinglish — A Critical Exploration of Chinese ELF

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**Abstract**—Predominant status of English in politics, science, technology and intercultural communications leads to fierce debate over the so-called “ownership” of the English language. Considering the major agent in the spread and development of English around the world, increasing arguments have favoured the position of English as a lingua franca (ELF) shaped more by English’s non-native speakers. This echoes growing advocacy in Chinese academia of legitimatising Chinese ELF and implementing it to the English education. This paper suggests the emergence of an imagined Chinese ELF community in response to the paradox under the Post-Multilingual context that individuals adopt and adapt English for intercultural communication while this may endanger local culture and identity. However, it argues that Chinese ELF is hard to be legitimatised officially and applied to teaching contexts due to its immanent self-contradiction and attitudes of the Chinese public — its aimed recipients — towards embracing and using it formally. Key point lies in the fact that under today’s context of Anglo-hegemony, it is still native speakers who remain arbiters of the form of the English language spread and taught over the globe, essentially preventing Chinese ELF from being recognised.

**Index Terms**—Chinglish, ELF, language legitimacy

## I. INTRODUCTION

Linguist David Crystal in his book (2004) defines English as a global language, since there had never been a language so widely spread and spoken by such a large population before. Both geographical-historical and socio-cultural factors ensure the status of English at present in politics, science, technology and, most vitally, intercultural communications, therefore generating the concept of English as a lingua franca (ELF). It refers to communicative interactions during which “non-native speakers and all English varieties, native or non-native, are accepted in their own right rather than evaluated against a Native Speaker English benchmark” (Jenkins, Cogo, & Dewey, 2011, p. 283).

Issues have thus arisen from the international use of the English language around the so-called “ownership” of English. From one perspective, so do they target on any other languages — linguistic descriptions have yet predominantly focused on English spoken and written by its native speakers (NSs); from the other perspective, supporters of ELF believe English should be shaped more by its non-native speakers (NNSs) than its NSs considering the number of both groups as well as the function of NNSs — it is them who are agents in the spread and development of English around the world (Brutt-Griffler, 2002). China, being a nation in the “expanding circle” of world Englishes where “a deep-rooted linguistic ideology and a rising nationalism are met with a desire for modernity” (Li, 2016, p. 20), has bred an “imagined Chinese ELF community” to cope with various Post-Multilingualism challenges it faces. A growing number of domestic scholars have then advocated to legitimatise Chinese user’s own English as a lingua franca (Chinese ELF) and implement it to the Chinese English education (e.g. Fang, 2017; Wang, 2012, 2013, 2015).

This paper, nevertheless, argues that despite the emergence of an imagined Chinese ELF community in response to the issues under present post-multilingual contexts, Chinese ELF is hard to legitimatise officially and implement to ELF teaching contexts due to its immanent self-contradiction and attitudes of the Chinese public — its aimed recipients — towards embracing and using it formally; key point lies in the fact that under today’s context of Anglo-hegemony, it is still NSs who remain arbiters of the form of the English language spread and taught over the globe, essentially preventing Chinese ELF from being recognised. To support my argument, first, I review the theoretical background of ELF consisting of its definition and related literature; the status of English in China is also briefly discussed. Second, I investigate the reasons contributing to the gathering of a Chinese ELF community in an ideological sense. Third, I critically analyse the limitations of Chinese ELF system from two perspectives, including its inherent self-contradiction and unobtainable recognition from the public. Then, I finalise this paper by concluding that considering current global contexts, though boasting increasing advocators, ELF may still be difficult to replace the position of ENL in China.

## II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

### A. English as a Lingua Franca

English as a lingua franca is regarded as “a contact language used only among non-mother tongue speakers” (Jenkins, 2006, p. 160) and heavily dependent on the specific situation of language use, being defined functionally by its use in intercultural communication rather than formally by its reference to native-speaker norms. This is to say,

communicative efficiency is more vital than correctness. To accommodate to each other's cultural backgrounds and apply code-switching into other languages they know are common means adopted by ELF speakers. Despite its short history of only 20 years, ELF has undergone significant reconceptualisation and progression. In *Conceptualising ELF* (2017), Mauranen proposes the scientific foundation of how ELF, involving "contact between speakers with different 'similects' – the product, in turn, of contact between English and the particular L1 of the speaker in question", facilitates interactions — by establishing common frameworks of "prioritising enhanced explicitness with recourse to paraphrase, repetition and a degree of structural and lexical simplification" (*ibid.*, p. 847); Hall et al.'s study (2017) on the cognitive processes underlying ELF interaction has further verified its justification.

Calls have thus been inspired for investigating the nature of ELF and its implications for L2 teaching and learning. With study focused on the characteristics of ELF interaction at the level of pragmatics (Cogo & House, 2017), phonology (Gardiner & Deterding, 2017), metaphor (Pitzl, 2009), lexico-grammar (Seidlhofer, 2004) and language norms (Hynninen & Solin, 2017) to compile an ELF corpora (i.e. VOICE), the gradually accumulating research body, representing a deeper understanding towards ELF, leads to some ELF linguists' supports for a fundamental shift in language policy and English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching (McKay, 2002; Jenkins, 2004, 2006) that boasts ELF-aware teacher education (Sifakis & Bayyurt, 2015) — from regarding ENL as the superior and standard model to recognising the position of ELF in English language teaching (ELT); namely, imparting features being crucial for international intelligibility based on Lingua Franca Core (LFC) to EFL learners.

### B. *Community and ELF*

In accordance with Blommaert's (2010) view that globalisation has impacts on sociolinguistic issues and requires a perspective shift from language-in-place to language-in-motion, research into ELF at present goes beyond territoriality and generally probes into multilingual and multicultural practices where English plays a crucial role in interaction (e.g. Jenkins, 2015; Seidlhofer, 2011). Once being the cornerstone of sociolinguistic inquiry, nowadays links between language and geographical boundaries are criticised for its ignorance of pervasive trans-lingual and trans-cultural turns that symbolise the dynamics and adaptability of English in often-transient multicultural encounters, resonating the advocacy of ELF. Nevertheless, since it is scientifically-evident that there exists common ground between ELF users who share the same mother tongue (see Mauranen, 2012; Honna, 2012), while the notion of nation associated with the first language (L1) cannot be simply ignored, the trend of deterritorialisation of ELF that breaks the link between language and nation leaves an open question as to how to understand the connection between non-native English speakers who have shared L1 backgrounds and participate respective intercultural communication where ELF is relevant for them.

Therefore, Anderson's (2006) book on nationalism that highlights imaginedness and ideological dimension of community and membership proposes the concept of "imagined community". As for him, "communities are to be distinguished by the style in which they are imagined" (Anderson, 2006: 6); in other words, membership emerges in imagination and communities take shape in imagination. In "imagined communities", community members do not necessarily meet or even know each other but they conceive a core, "deep, horizontal comradeship" (*ibid.*, p. 7). To put it more specifically, though it sets no limitation on physical space, an emotional attachment to the imagined affinity may gather members; besides, the plural form of this terminology infers both that there exists 'finite' boundaries — it is impossible to assume that all ELF speakers constitute a single and homogeneous global community (Ehrenreich, 2009; Mauranen, 2012) — and that this concept accepts independence and autonomy as an integral feature of communities. Based on this idea, Chinese ELF in this paper should not be defined in linguistic terms but in ideological terms — the formation of a Chinese ELF community is propelled by a spiritual core shared by Chinese ELF users.

### C. *China: an "Expanding Circle" Nation in World Englishes*

As Rushdie comments in *Imaginary Homelands* (2012) that "the English languages ceased to be the sole possession of the English some time ago" (p. 14), no one today could claim absolute ownership of English, since the usage of this global language has long broken out of national and cultural boundaries. To better understand the patterns of English, Kachru in 1985 proposes a model of world Englishes consisting of three concentric circles — "inner", "outer" and "expanding" — each representing the types of spread, patterns of acquisition and functional domains in which English is used across cultures and languages. Nations in the inner circle are described as the traditional bases of English, namely, where it is the primary language. Countries of the outer circle are generally former UK colonial dependencies with people being English-as-a-second-language (ESL) users instead of English-as-a-native-language (ENL). While those situated in the expanding circles usually develop English named performance varieties, since they are learned as a foreign language and thus dependent upon inner circle countries in setting norms. China, belonging to expanding circles, is holding the largest population of EFL learners while it keeps fiercely increasing. According to Wei & Su (2012), population of Chinese EFL learners has achieved approximately 400 million. The mushrooming of the English learning industry owing to the prevalence of English in the past several decades even stimulates some scholars to claim English to be a Chinese language (e.g. Jiang, 2003). Thus, it is necessary to explore English in China under today's contexts of Post-Multilingualism so as to investigate Chinese ELF into the future, offering a small window on the holistic development of ELF.

### III. THE FORMATION OF AN IMAGINED CHINESE ELF COMMUNITY

As mentioned before, the conceptual paradox in considering Chinese speakers' ELF in association with China could be solved if Chinese ELF is defined in ideological terms rather than linguistically. To put it in other words, the grouping of Chinese ELF users is by no means a simple process of generalising their characteristics of using ELF that yield to their mother tongue, facilitating communications in English between Chinese and non-Chinese; it is stimulated by a deep-rooted comradeship. Under the framework of identity prototypes purposed by Gao (2014), gone are days when Chinese EFL users are faithful imitators "whose L2 use and cultural conduct were strictly modelled on the native speaker" (ibid, p. 60). Influenced by globalisation and postmodernism that bring Post-Multilingualism challenges, Chinese people endeavour to achieve a balance between protecting its national language and "recognising the (commercial) value of dialects, encouraging the learning of new (foreign) languages", as well as to "communicate and express its cultural values through a language that is traditionally associated with the Other or Others" (Li, 2016, p. 19). This leads to the emergence of "an imagined Chinese ELF community" in Chinese ELF users' mental space (Wang, 2017, p. 7) with common perceptions — imagined affinity, imagined boundary, an emotional attachment to Chinese ethnicity (Wang, 2012) as well as the rebellion against authority, be it domestic or foreign — of their English in intercultural communication, breeding "legitimate speakers" and "playful creators" to satisfy public's needs of connecting to the global and promoting an updated ethnological image so as to not only reconstruct its self-identity, but also achieve others' recognition.

#### A. *Legitimate Speaker*

The legitimate speaker of English was originally the outcome of the postcolonial era, during which the colonial power of the UK was lingering dispersedly in various parts of the world, leading to the setback of linguistic hegemony. With neo-Marxist theory, feminist theories and critical theory at their backs, new concepts regarding the position of English, i.e. world English (Kachru, 1982) and ELF, have all contributed to the rise of legitimate speakers. "If 'faithful imitator' does not have an independent voice, the legitimate speaker is determined to articulate himself" (Gao, 2014, p. 64).

To investigate the appearance of legitimate speakers of Chinese ELF, it is thus necessary to recall ourselves of the history of Chinglish, which could be roughly divided into three strands (Wang, 2014). It begins with the early version of Pidgin English dated back to 1627 that functioned as the bridge between Chinese and foreigners who came to China for business, missionary service and colony rule (Eames, 1974). The second strand echoes a predominant pursuit of "correct" English in China (Wang, 2014), when the English education has been geared towards emphasising the authenticity and correctness of NSs' English (e.g. Jiang, 1995; Yip, 1995). While contextualising the growing power of China and increasing involvement of Chinese speakers in intercultural communication comes to the third strand with heated debate on the endonormativity of Chinese variety of English within the framework of ELF. It thus results in the stand-ups of legitimate speakers in (e.g. Fang, 2015; Wang, 2012, 2013, 2016) and out academia circles, both groups of which are mutually supported.

After a century of near silence, it is undeniable that China has made rapid growth in many areas since the Reform and Opening-up; while according to Li Wei, "China's emergence as a new politico-economic world power has been met with hostilities from both the United States and the neighbouring countries in East and Southeast Asia" (2016, p. 17). Given the temporary unshakeable position of English as the dominant language over the world due to economic and political reasons, the best way for Chinese people to express their sense of nationalism and national pride out of their emotional attachments to Chinese ethnicity or cultural root while simultaneously fight against the imposition of western power seems to be the adoption of Chinese ELF. In this term, China English (or Sinicized English) that is typically used by the Chinese authoritative English-language News Agency or publications could be regarded as an ideal evidence. Featuring Chinese characteristics while being comprehensible to NSs, it is usually adopted either for purely Sino-cultural spread (i.e. exam-oriented education) or, under the disguise of it, for political purposes (i.e. harmonious society). Hu (2004) lists three reasons why China English should be promoted, since firstly it "retains a common core that renders it as intelligible to speakers of other varieties of English as Hiberno-English or Australian English" (p. 28); secondly, it is politically, economically and culturally more understandable to some other Asian countries, facilitating communication process; final one is the population size of China English speakers — he argues that a variety of English within China may very well dominate, due – if nothing else – to the sheer numbers of Chinese speakers and foreigners, new contacts with China (ibid). However, it ought to be reaffirmed that, for legitimate speakers of Chinese ELF users, the ultimate end is far more than simply being closely engaged to the global community and promoting Chinese ideologies in various fields which cannot be fulfilled with "authentic" English, but to "claim equal language standards and rights with NSs" (Gao, 2014, p. 63).

#### B. *Playful Creator*

New millennium brings a postmodern era of technological developments, increased globalisation, frequent international traveling and popularity of mass media that all promote world-wide linguistic and cultural flows, in which people live not "within a language but across languages" (Gao, 2014, p. 65) with "hybridity, ambivalences and fluidity are norms of daily life" (ibid, p. 66). Such a context births the playful creators, who employ "unconventional

hybridisation, fragmentation and juxtaposition of linguistic and cultural elements at surface level, to form distinct ways of self-expression” (ibid, p. 65). While it should be noticed that, to some degree, their critical playfulness overlaps the needs of legitimate speakers in their challenge of existing standards, while rather than fighting to be ‘equal’ users of the same language, they actually ‘disinvent’ the L2 and create their own L2 related ‘creole’ (Makoni & Pennycook, 2005). This is to say, playful creators’ typical way of interacting with the social environment is not serious negotiation or bitter fight, but expressing themselves in indirect and cynical means. New Chinglish is a typical product of the era today, which, according to Li Wei, is “a Translanguaging variety of English that has been reconstituted, re-appropriated, re-semiotized, and re-inscribed by Chinese speakers of English via new media” (2016, p. 11-12). While it should be noted that in spite of its various categories, only those intelligible to NSs representing the phenomenon of Chinese ELF. Net Chinglish — new inventions of English words and expressions with Chinese characters to “express one’s meanings and intentions, especially creator’s social dissatisfaction” (Li, 2016, p. 15), i.e. freedom: the combination of freedom and damn used to mock the freedom with Chinese characteristics — is a representative product of playful Chinese ELF creators. Superficially, the mass media gathers Chinese ELF users together in the virtual world for the entertaining purpose, creating trans-languaging words; while when probing much deeply, it is the mixing product of the rebellious spirits against either domestic or foreign authority, the desire of boasting a cool and modern element embedded in the Chinese characteristics and the affinity to an imagined global community that takes up part of psychological space of Chinese EFL speakers, contributing to an imagined Chinese EFL community. As Li Wei observes, what happens here is a paradoxical situation that “the private citizens are unhappy with what the state provides for them individually in their daily life”, more specifically, the sense of inequality and depression, whereas they “yet ideologically united in national pride” (2016, p. 17). Besides, the Internet and mass media equip Chinese people with exterior ways to be exposed to the rest of the world, satisfying their inner aspiration for global community membership (Wang, 2012). Individuals are keen for connecting with outside so as to either convey their Chinese ethnological pride or present the new China’s image of modernity and coolness under the new context; while in turn, make comparison to self-reflect and furthermore rebel against power imposed by the state authority.

To conclude, though, to a large extent, it could not be dichotomously separated from the national state, along with the political power embedded, the formation of an imagined Chinese ELF community in its members’ psychological space is the corollary of responses, be they serious or playful, to challenges faced by China at this historical juncture where the increasing national pride and ambition to boast their own culture brought by the rise of China are coincident with individual’s desire for freedom, power, and rights in China (Li, 2016) — its appearance is by no means a coincidence, but an inevitable antidote.

#### IV. CHINESE ELF LEGITIMACY AND IMPLEMENTATION

Despite the formation of an imagined Chinese ELF community ideologically, the endonormative orientation to Chinese speakers’ English is suspended from being legitimated and implemented to EFL teaching context due to its immanent paradox, its relatively lower position compared to exonormativity in Chinese EFL speakers’ mental space and, most crucially, the future of China in the world system.

##### A. *Immanent Self-contradiction*

ELF, acknowledged by most scholars, is “the term referring to a dynamic, situational natural linguistic phenomenon which embraces diverse socio-linguacultural identities (e.g., Jenkins et al., 2011; Seidlhofer, 2011; Mauranen, 2012)” (Ishikawa, 2015, p. 41). It should thus be concluded as “fluid, flexible, contingent, hybrid and deeply intercultural” (Jenkins, Cogo, & Dewey, 2011, p. 284). Chinese ELF, equivalently, is an unstable non-system activity that facilitates linguistic communication rather than a concrete product, since what it focuses on is constantly altering and adjusted according to the context. From this perspective, its endonormative practices may inevitably “reifies and hypostatizes ‘ELF’ as a seemingly stable form” (O’Regan, 2014, p. 533), containing a paradox in itself. Studies on ELF typically engage attempts to describe regular features of ELF, i.e. phonology, syntax, with Jenkins’ (2000) LFC being characteristic of this “first wave” of ELF research. Scholars whose ultimate goal is “some kind of codification” (Jenkins, 2011, p. 287) comes up with two particularly well-known corpora of ELF — the Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE) and the ELF corpus of academic English (ELFA). While outdated though it claimed to be considering the long-lasting doubts, rebuttals and revisions, according to Jenkins, the codification of ELF, being the starting point of the whole study, is “an aim which, nevertheless, has not been dismissed out of hand” (ibid, p. 287). It should therefore be noticed that to trap those dynamic, fluid and constantly-updated linguistic phenomena into a rigid mode of generalisation, to a great extent, has already made ELF a field of self-contradiction.

Although part of the interest of ELF, from an orientation of features, transforming into current focus on “the processes underlying and determining the choice of features used in any given ELF interaction” (ibid, p. 287), investigating what makes communication in English successful in fluid and dynamic contexts (see Jenkins, Cogo & Dewey, 2011). Driven by insights gained from corpora (see Seidlhofer, 2011), ELF research has identified a range of elements crucial for communicative success including accommodation (adapting to an interlocutor’s speech style) and the use of various strategies to pre-empt or negotiate misunderstandings (Jenkins et al., 2011) that are deployed in each new interaction in order to make meaning and achieve communicative outcomes. From this perspective, ELF



communication is purely a “context driven phenomenon” (Leung & Lewkowitz, 2006), or as Canagarajah (2007) observes, “intersubjectively constructed in each specific context of interaction ... negotiated by each set of speakers for their purposes” (p. 926). However, be it focusing on phonological features or interactive strategies, it is yet a process of hypostatisation to describe a scene as an ELF interaction that deserves to be studied, as it “is about the way in which an abstraction ‘ELF’, in the discourse of the ELF movement, is made to appear already given, or ‘real’” (O’Regan, 2014, p. 537). This is to say, despite their claims of moving forward, what ELF researchers study today, regardless its categorisation by region or function, is still “a hypostatized conception of ELF” (ibid, p. 538) that, in its essence, bridles a dynamic, situational, unstable non-system linguistic activity. Therefore, because of the problematic self-contradiction, it is ideologically impossible to develop an endonormative form of Chinese ELF system that could be legitimated and implemented to English education in China.

### B. Unobtainable Recognition

Graddol, in his book *The Future of English* (1997), introduces the notion of the Engco Model, which later has been adopted by the English Company (UK) Ltd as a way to examine the relative states of the world languages and making forecasts of the numbers of speakers of different languages based on demographic, human development and economic data in order to predict the global linguistic landscape of the 21st century. The global influence index score of English in 1995 is 100 while Chinese is only 22. Nevertheless, tremendous changes occurring in the past decade has modified Graddol’s prediction from valuing ENL to pointing that Asia probably now holds the key to the long-term future of English as a global language, since while English is a major language, it only accounts for around 30% of the world Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Davis, 2003). The rise of China, after a century of silence, should never be ignored or denied; however in the global context, overthrowing the position of ENL is never an easy task that could be fulfilled in the near future, or what could be anticipated simply depended on the analysis of GDP; it is deeply and complexly associated with capital exchange and commodification at a macro level.

Bourdieu (1986) divides capital into three basic types based on the field it functions — economic capital, cultural capital and social capital, whereas one form of capital, to a certain degree, could be converted to the other form. While in 1992, he further expounds the linguistic capital as the embodied cultural capital that produces “a profit of distinction on the occasion of each social exchange” (p. 55). As to him, the linguistic market, similar to others, is by no means a free market, for power relations within it predetermine the standards according to which linguistic capital is allocated, thus preserving the rule of the elite. In other words, linguistic capital perfectly mastered in the form of those who seize the power— in this sense, NSE — could be “transferred into other forms of capital like economic or social capital” (Smits & Gündüz-Hoşgör, 2003, p. 830) and thus help the speakers of the legitimate language on their path to social success; in turn, the imperfect use of the dominant language, considering the political economy of capital and anglophone structural power, may create “symbolic barriers” against social and economic resources.

Compared to other nations that possess the depth of penetration of internationalisation of its population, China embraces a more complex soil for the development of ELF. Whereas in Europe a large percentage of research is conducted in English, in China almost every field of inquiry still has much of its fundamental research written in mandarin — even if later, key studies are then published in English. The rise of China combined with its deeply-rooted linguistic ideology might be another two-edged sword for the legitimacy of Chinese ELF. Different from those once having been colonies of either Britain or America, China has its own official language of mandarin that is closely-knotted to the cultural and economic power of the national states where it has always been the first language of the major population. This is to say, despite the Post-Multilingual context it is confronted with, the position of the Chinese language could never be swayed domestically — most Chinese people are still able to live without much involvement of the English language in their daily life while very few Chinese EFL learners actually transit to English daily users. For them, the acquisition of English, rather than a purely communicative tool, is more like a means to add up their linguistic capital, namely, their ability to use the right words, right grammar, register, tone, body language and so forth of, in this sense, inner-circle Englishes that is favourable by the social structure of the linguistic market where economic and political relations take a determining place. It is thus explicable that though an imagined Chinese ELF community exists for power negotiation, with legitimate speakers enthusiastically proposing English with Chinese characteristics as a legitimate variety of world English, all too often the majority of Chinese English learners or educators, subject to social structural constraints, show far less interest.

In the case of how a variety of English can be progressed to the status of recognition, Kachru in 1992 notes two factors — attitudes and teaching materials, both of which in China, nevertheless, offer the legitimacy of Chinese ELF a bleak prospect. With regards to the status quo of English pedagogical field that reflects clearly the superior position of ENL to ELF, NSs are more ambitiously recruited and offered more competitive packages, as they have long been believed to be automatically more competent at teaching their mother tongue. The unprecedented immense scale of ELT enterprise in China has been described as the most ambitious language-learning campaign in history (Hertling, 1996); its preference for NSs’ English could be deemed as a strong evidence of Chinese costumers’ needs of accumulating their linguistic capital in this fiercely-competitive global market, instead of simply being able to communicate with non-Chinese speakers. While apart from the English education, public’s attitudes towards the use of Chinese ELF in the formal contexts, though varied, holistically are negative. A recent example is the sweeping criticism towards the English of a Chinese actress spoken in an advertisement video of Dior — wonderful grammar, heavy

Chinese accent. The reason behind this stronger dissenting emotion is that the presence in this video, in public's opinions, represents China's national face and thus is expected to show "standard" English pronunciation – British or American. Probing more deeply is the fact that Chinese EFL learners are still driven by realistic principles of social comparison, and will prefer to target the most powerful varieties.

From Chinglish to New Chinglish, the process seemingly breeds a large number of ELF users actively creating English saturated with Chinese characteristics, while it should be noted that their creation is generally restricted to particular 'marginal' domains of language use (e.g. recreation, informal talk), leading to limited influences on the mainstream of social life. In terms of boosters of New Chinglish that largely involve younger generation whose social power is limited, albeit their practice could be extolled as heroic resistance against hegemony of linguistic standards, it remains to be further explored how "free" and "sincere" they are. Both legitimate speakers and playful righters of Chinese ELF, to a greater extent, appear to be powerful in L2 research, but may remain powerless and speechless in reality. To achieve the endonormativity of Chinese ELF, superficially, requires the acceptance and usage of Chinese EFL speakers, not simply in a playful mode in the virtual world, but more importantly, in actual world where language use is inseparably linked with power, capital exchange and social structure.

## V. CONCLUSION

To conclude, this paper focuses on the complex situation of Chinese English. Echoing the paradox under the Post-Multilingual context of how to balance the inevitable trend that individuals adopt and adapt English for intercultural communication while this phenomenon may endanger local Chinese culture and identity, it is obvious that people are still negotiating their identities in relation to the spread and use of English in China. All those contributing to an imagined Chinese community, the formation of which has been delved deeply into by analysing the emergence of legitimate speakers and playful creators of Chinese ELF users in this paper. Despite my favour that the number of Chinese ELF speakers would keep increasing considering public's multiple needs, I have critically argued that Chinese ELF is fundamentally difficult to be recognised and legitimised officially due to both internal and external reasons. A thorough ELF system that could be applied into English pedagogy inevitably requires the codification of the features of Chinese English, which, to a large degree, reifies and hypostatizes 'ELF' as a seemingly stable form, thus contradicting the nature of this fluid and emergent linguistic phenomenon. Public's attitude is another obstacle for Chinese ELF to be use legitimately while the reason beneath this negative attitude is what fundamentally blocks the progressing course of Chinese ELF — capital.

In my opinion, English will continue to be used and function as an international language, whose influence will also continue to exert in China. The future of Chinese speakers' English is tied to the future of China; in turn, the endonormativity of Chinese speakers' English is tied to the development of China. However, considering temporary hardly-shakeable Anglo-dominant capital commodification and exchange in the global context, the legitimacy of Chinese ELF, along with its implementation to the English education in China, is more like a hopeful dream.

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# Recreational Games to Strengthen Equilibrium and Oral Expression of Children with Down Syndrome

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**Abstract**—This research shows the contribution of recreative games on the improvement of oral expression and equilibrium in children with Down syndrome. Two are the cases of study chosen in this research project executed for 10 months in an elementary school located in Manta city, Ecuador. The researchers' team designed ad hoc., an educational intervention that articulates games and phonics for exercising the oral expression in Spanish and English languages. Besides, the participants train their static and dynamic equilibrium using the gamification model proposed by Delgado, Pérez, Mero, Villafuerte, and Macias in 2019. Pretest and posttest are applied to determine the participants' oral expression and equilibrium progress. The results allow concluding that recreational games contribute to developing oral expression and equilibrium in children with Down syndrome. However, the early therapies, family involvement, children's personality, and their learning attitudes impact on the children's performances.

**Index Terms**—basic education, down syndrome, equilibrium, inclusion, oral expression

## I. INTRODUCTION

Language and motor functions have a positive correlation for the individual's integral development (Ternera, 2010). However, it is possible to detect in children with Down syndrome a delay in their language development (Zampini, Salvi, and D'odorico, 2015), and equilibrium (Beltrán, 2016). Thus, children with DS have difficulties to pronounce sounds, words, and messages correctly; and to run and to keep their body balance as an effect of the muscle hypotonia (Wajuihian, 2019); situations that influence negatively on their social relationship and academic performance. Inclusive education is still in the process of consolidation globally, which requires the interaction of multidisciplinary professional teams to propose didactics and other operational procedures. Besides, it is urgent to understand inclusive education as the inclusion of all children (Qvortrup and Qvortrup, 2017).

The Constitution of Ecuador (2008), allowed relevant advances for developing the inclusion in education in this country. However, most of the teachers feel, they are not well trained for the work in inclusive education (Corral, Villafuerte, and Bravo, 2015). Previous studies ratify the need to improve the dimensions: educational practice, and inclusive culture to consolidate the inclusive education in Ecuador.

Static and dynamic equilibriums are related to psychomotor development to promote children's interaction with others during everyday lives (García and Martínez, 2016). Besides, gamification contributes to strengthening people's communicational competence (González, Solovieva, and Quintanar, 2014).

Language is the way how people can express ideas and feelings to others for improving social interaction and integration with other members of a community (Chamizo and Rivera, 2013). In addition, language is the most common communicative way used for executing the teaching and learning process at every educational level. Thus, language provides to learners the opportunity to access to knowledge (Daunhauer, Fidler, and Will, 2014).

The signature of international agreements about inclusive education (UNESCO, 2009), had increased the presence of students with physical, sensory, intellectual, or mental disabilities in regular primary and secondary schools during the last 10 years. However, the development of theories and procedures for the inclusive education is still a challenge of the Ecuadorian education system (Villafuerte, Pérez, Boyes, Mena, Pinoargote, Riera, Soledispa, and Delgado, 2018).

Thus, this article authors expect to contribute to the strengthening of equilibrium and oral expression of children with Down Syndrome throughout an educational intervention based on recreational games. Besides, this work aims to support teachers and parents in the education of children with Down Syndrome.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Conceptualization of Equilibrium and Language

The term equilibrium refers to the interaction between the motor, sensory, and perceptive system (Lázaro, 2000). The equilibrium allows a group of organic systems to act effectively and with the maximum of energy savings (Muñoz, 2009). The domain of the body for giving stability to the person without falling to the floor could be called equilibrium (Espigares, Hernández, Correa, and Rodríguez, 2009). A wide range of daily activities requires equilibrium (Camargos, and Maciel, 2016) because, it involves function at a complex level as a voluntary action, emotional self-regulation, and personality configuration (Lee, Fadel, and Bialik, 2018).

The term equilibrium is the act of interacting with the motor, sensory, and perceptive system (Lázaro, 2000).

Equilibrium is also understood as the proper maintenance of the different parts of the body into space. The equilibrium allows a group of organic systems to act effectively and with the maximum of energy savings (Muñoz, 2009). The correct domain of the body for giving stability to the person without falling to the floor could be called equilibrium (Espigares, Hernández, Correa, and Rodríguez, 2009).

A wide range of activities requires equilibrium (Camargos, and Maciel, 2016). It also influences on the development of the kids' symbolic function at the complex level, voluntary action, emotional self-regulation, and personality configuration (Lee, Fadel, and Bialik, 2018).

Some types of equilibrium are stable, unstable, neutral, dynamic, static, rebalancing, and equilibrium with objects. All those types of equilibrium are required to develop gross and fine motor skills (Bravo, Villafuerte, and Ormaza, 2013; Lee et al., 2018). A wide range of daily activities requires the domain of equilibrium (Camargos, and Maciel, 2016). It involves functions of a more complex level like voluntary action, emotional self-regulation, and personality (Lee, Fadel, and Bialik, 2018).

The term language refers to the way of human communication. It operates the social interaction and integration in a community (Chamizo and Rivera, 2013). The receptive and expressive language processes provide people the opportunity to express their feelings and opinions but, also to access to knowledge (Daunhauer, Fidler, and Will, 2014). The active exchange of information allows people to improve dialogic relationships for strengthening their learning process (Cuisn and Ferreira, 2015). It helps kids to establish interactions with others during childhood (García and Martínez, 2016).

### *B. Inclusive Education in Ecuador*

Ecuador had signed in 1995, the international agreements for the attention of the diverse population (Corral, Bravo, and Villafuerte, 2015). From the social and educational approach, the Inclusive Education (IE) allows responding to the diversity of all students' needs throughout greater participation in the learning process, cultural, and communitarian activities (UNESCO, 2009).

Inclusive education is understood as an efficient response to reduce the exclusion behavior in the conventional educational system. It means the introduction of changes in educational organizations to satisfy all the students' necessities (Raffo, Dyson, Gunter, Hall, Jones, and Kalambouka, 2009). However, the Latin American countries' first advance was the presence of children with educational special needs in regular schools (Echeita and Ainscow, 2011).

The integration of kids with disabilities in regular schools is not the real goal of inclusive education. It is a compensatory action for improving the inequities in access to the educational services of quality (Booth and Ainscow, 2000; Corral, Villafuerte, and Bravo, 2015).

Inclusive education is a set of actions, organizational policies, technical supports, and projects that any educational center has to work the students' educational special needs. Thus, the curriculum adaptations are required to establish alternative work rhythms coherent to the learners' possibilities (Muñoz and Martín, 2008; Villafuerte, Luzardo, Bravo, and Romero, 2017). However, in Ecuador is still necessary to work hard from social and educational fields to detect and diagnose in learners' disability conditions to apply the appropriate treatment (Segers, Bravo, Moreira, García, Villafuerte, Sancan, and Barcia, 2018).

### *C. The Down Syndrome in Childhood*

John Langdon Haydon Down discovered this genetic alteration in 1866 but, 92 years later Jérôme Lejeune learned that Down syndrome is a chromosomal alteration that occurs when an individual has a full or partial extra copy of chromosome 21 (Beltrán, 2016; and Down Española, 2018).

Down syndrome is associated with diverse medical disorders related to physical and intellectual disabilities. They can be heart defects, vision problems, hypothyroidism, hypotonia, mental health, emotional problems, memory, etc. (Wajuihian, 2019).

There are three kinds of chromosome alterations: (a) Trisomy 21; (b) Mosaicism; and (c) Translocation (American National Down Syndrome Society, 2019).

(a) Trisomy 21: This is the most frequent kind of DS. It occurs for the Nondisjunction. Thus, the embryo has three copies of chromosomes instead of two.

(b) Mosaicism: Egg and sperm have a normal number of chromosomes. Nevertheless, during the cell division, the chromosomes are unusual. It is as a result of the presence of an extra chromosome 21. It means 47 chromosomes instead of 46.

(c) Translocation: It occurs when a chromosome 21 full or partial, is attached to another chromosome.

One in 550 toddler borns with DS in Ecuador. It seems that the age of the mother is the main cause of the syndrome.

To more age the more probability to have a baby with DS. However, Mazzi (2015) argues that genetic damage is appearing in young women with more frequency in the age range between 20 to 25 years. Besides, Mazzi introduced in 2015 the following table to show the relationship between a mother's ages and the potential frequency of Down Syndrome.

TABLE 1  
MOTHER'S AGES AND POTENTIAL FREQUENCY OF DOWN SYNDROME

Maternal age	Chromosome anomalies	Possible presence
20	1/526	1/1667
25	1/476	1/250
30	1/385	1/952
35	1/202	1/385
40	1/65	1/106
45	1/20	1/30
50	1/7	1/11

Children with DS grow up in a similar way as children without DS. Nevertheless, they present difficulties to control their position because of the hypotonic effect. Thus, they can not control their equilibrium easily (Perpinán, 2018).

Some factors that difficult their equilibrium are related to the impaired muscle tone, flexibility, impaired motor control, vision difficulties, vestibular issues, decreased endurance, etc. (Children's Hospital of Philadelphia, 2018).

They present a delay in their motor development, communicational, social and sensorial functions, and learning and cognition (Beltrán, 2016). Other features can include microgenia, macroglossia, small chin, dry skin, muscle hypotonia, etc. A diagnostic on time is an important factor for doing a correct intervention, giving support, etc. A late diagnostic of DS could be a relevant factor that affects children's health, cognitive, and motor development (Luque, 2019; and Wajuhian, 2019).

To García and Martínez (2016), the children with DS present some of the following characteristics:

- (1) Balance: The movement in children with DS can be slow, clumsy, and inharmonic between motor and cognitive.
- (2) Cognitive: The memory short and long – term can report difficulties in person with DS. Experts think that is essential the memory in the process of language (Fernández and García, 2013). It seems that the practice constant helps the memory who is stabilizing after 11 – 12 years old.
- (3) Difficulties in speaking: The hypotonia also prejudice the speaking competition. In consequence, some words are not clear pronounced. It is indispensably the language to express more quickly the thinking. However, it is important to know the meaning of the word (Chamizo and Rivera, 2013).
- (4) Macroglossia or enlarged tongue protruding beyond the alveolar ridge in resting position effects on the speaking (Nuñez, García, Morán, and Jasso, 2016). It has been classified in two categories: (a) true macroglossia, which occurs in congenital or acquired forms, and (b) relative macroglossia. Those physical conditions difficult the articulation for pronouncing the phonics: t, d, s, l, and n. In addition, the hearing loss is common in kids with DS, affecting their speaking (Kumin, 2017).
- (5) Motor and language: There are positive correlations between language and motor (Ternera, 2010). Thus, the motility and speaking function of children with DS are directly related to their learning process (Miranda, 2016).

#### D. Recreational Games and Psychomotor Skills

The recreational games are activities that contribute positively to the kid's integral development. Games articulate various dimensions of development such as expression, motor skills, affectivity, intelligence, sociability, etc. (Jiménez, 2006).

Games classification includes the following categories: (a) Round-trip and chase games; (b) Games with a ball; (c) Traditional games; and (d) Sports games (Vázquez, 2012).

To Sánchez (2011), the frequent use of the gamification allows execute the following didactic strategies: (1) Stimulation of participants expression and communication through the movement; (2) Participant's social recognition as a member of a community; (3) Self-assessment as part of a community; (4) Autonomy capability for the decision making; and (5) Solidarity and empathy as member of a group. At this point, games also support the development of players' abilities for plurality and diversity (Motta, 2013).

According to Mateo (2014), the designing of any educational interventions that include recreational games should consider: (1) Voluntary activity: children play voluntarily; (2) Enjoy your practice: children enjoy games; (3) Material disinterest: Players do not expect any material retribution when they play. (4) Use of time: It is considered as a valid, useful and positive way to use free time; (5) Inclusive and accessible: It is an activity to which all persons have the right to access free of social discrimination, age, disability, etc.; (6) Bakery: games are spontaneous or organized, and

individual or collective. Therefore, any educational intervention that involves gamification requires previous analysis in concern to the players' individual and group conditions such as body size and weight, bone structure and flexibility, etc., but also, players' necessities and interests to warranty their participation and enjoyment (Ben fez, 2011). Besides, student's course level and curriculum are key factors to consider when teachers design any educational intervention (Gutiérrez and López, 2015).

Finally, games contribute to the children's' physical, psychological and social health as a part of their integral development (More and Castellá 2016). Thus, the psychomotor function allows the progressive discovery of the body sensations (Segers et al., 2018). Children complete the muscle groups that control their posture, balances, and displacements between the ages of 5 to 8 years, however, children with DS present delays.

Psychomotricity includes the relationship between the person and the surrounding environment (Rodríguez and Arufe, 2016; Gromowski and Silva, 2014).

Linguistic expression skills allow people to communicate through the actions of listening, speaking, reading and writing, Besides, participants' physical and psychosocial, motor and spiritual condition (Delgado, Pérez, Mera, Villafuerte, and Mac ías, 2019).

However, games pretend to do the learning process as a pleasant experience (Pinzón, 2019) which generates pleasure and enjoyment in the participants by sharing movement and active environments (Posada, 2014). This ratifies that games generate satisfaction for those who take part in it (Delgado, Pérez, Mera, Villafuerte, and Bone, 2019).

### III. METHODOLOGY AND INSTRUMENTS

This work applies the research methodology case of study. It analyzes cases of children with Down syndrome (SD) to determine the evolution before and after the administration of an educational strategy which includes recreative games to develop in the participants, their oral expression in Spanish (mother language) and English (foreign language); and their equilibrium. The questions to answer in this research are:

- (a) How can recreational games strengthen oral expression in children with Down syndrome?
- (b) How can the recreative games strengthen the equilibrium in children with Down syndrome?
- (c) What is the contribution of the recreational games to the oral expression evolution in children with Down syndrome?
- (d) What is the contribution of the recreational games to the equilibrium evolution in children with Down syndrome?

#### *Participants:*

The participants are a girl and a boy. They both attend to the 6th grade in a primary school in Manta, Ecuador. They are 11-year-old and have been diagnosed with Down syndrome. For the protection of their identity, they are called "the dancer" and "the philosopher" in this work.

The philosopher: He is an 11-year-old boy. He shows good attitudes for reading in Spanish and English languages. He shows a temperament trend intellectual but, presents a delay in motor functions. He reacts positively before the proposal of language challenges. His historic file reports an early stimulation and permanent language support from their parents and professionals.

The dancer: She is an 11-year-old girl. She shows good attitudes for dancing and sports but, presents a delay in reading and writing in Spanish and English. She shows a temperament trend of domination but, reacts positively before the proposal of physical challenges. Her historic file does not report early stimulation and language support.

Points to consider before beginning the work with these kids:

- Explain very well to the children the instructions in every session
- Parents asked the participants to work the session separately
- The boy has phobias to the dirty socks
- Avoid training the girl during the menstruation period because she reports physical pain.

#### *Stages and instruments*

The stages applied in this research are:

Stage: Pretest and Posttest diagnostics:

In the eco-environment of the school and in the presence of participants' tutor, the following instruments are administrated. The results are registered for the research team.

For oral expression: A diagnostic instrument was designed for the research team ad hoc. It consists of the interview to participants to assess:

Variables: (a) pronunciation; (b) intonation; (c) fluidity; in Spanish and English.

For equilibrium: It is applied to the Test Flamenco (García, 2001). The objective is to assess the children dynamic balance

Materials used are Rod of 3.60 m., Length x 10 cm. Width; and 15 cm altitude, stopwatch.

Description: The participant is requested to make 3 trips on the balance bar according to the following instructions:

(1) Frontally; (2) Right side, and (3) Left laterally. The tours must be carried out in a continuous way and without rest or pause between them.

*Stage: The educational intervention:*

For working the children's' oral expression: The educational intervention introduces games to train children's muscles

of the mouth, lips, and tongue. Includes the use of Phonics in 3 levels of complexion (basic, intermediate, and advance). Each level contains 10 sessions. This instrument is designed for the research team and evaluated for 3 local professional experts in language therapy. The observations of the experts were considered in the final version. It is applied for 5 months in 3 sessions per week in the facilities of the regular school where children attend.

For working children's equilibrium: The Games Methodology by Delgado, Pérez, Mera, Villafuerte, and Macias (2019) consists of series of exercises the children dynamic equilibrium using games and materials able in schools as balls, cord, plastic cubic, etc.

*Ethic norms:*

This research applies the following ethic principles:

1. The participant's relatives or tutor had signed a concern phonic and declared they participated voluntarily in this research.
2. The participant full is kept in anonymous to protect his identity.
3. The data collected in this work will be managed by the authors for 7 years.
4. *This research information can be used only for academic purposes. It will not be commerce for any reason.*

#### IV. RESULTS AND IMPLICATIONS

- (a) How can the recreational games strengthen the oral expression in children with Down syndrome? Participant's oral expression evolution can be observed on the following report. See tables 1 and 2.

TABLE 1  
PRETEST RESULTS OF ORAL EXPRESSION IN SPANISH AND ENGLISH

The philosopher	The dancer
<p><i>a. Pronunciation:</i> He reports distortion when repeat words beginning with the phonics [T], [L], [D], [N], [S], [SH], and [CH]. The force he applies on n the phonic [D] made it sound as [T]. The force applied in the phonic N changes the sound as [M]. He did not pronounce the phonic [R]</p>	<p><i>a. Pronunciation:</i> She speaks a little (she only answers certain question). She does not pronounce the phonic [R]. She repeats with distortion the phonics [T], [D], [S], [CH] and [SH] weaker. She changes the pronunciation of some words Instead of CASH – CAD [D], SHOP – [O], THURSDAY – SEVEN [TH]. The energy used to pronounce some phonics distortion their sounds [M], [T].</p>
<p><i>b. Intonation:</i> He repeats sentences of level beginner using an appropriated intonation. He introduces questions using an appropriate tone. He narrates activities using a slight intonation. A little timid.</p>	<p><i>b. Intonation:</i> She repeats sentences of level beginner using an appropriated intonation. She introduces questions using a strong tone as giving orders to people. She narrates activities using a strong tone. She enjoys competitions and intends to lead the conversation using a strong tone.</p>
<p><i>c. Fluency:</i> He repeats sentences slowly. His speaking speed is estimated in 60 words per minute.</p>	<p><i>c. Fluency:</i> She repeats sentences slowly. Her speaking speed is estimated in 50 words per minute.</p>

Source: pretest diagnostic (2019).

*Remarks about oral expression pretest:*

The results confirm a delay in the development of participants' oral expression.

In the case of the philosopher:

The force impregnated in the phonics [D], [M], [SH], [CH], [R], [T] distorts and hinders the understanding of the words.

Recommendation: It is recommended to work intonation working his self-confidence. It is recommended to work exercises at the muscles of the mouth, lips, and tongue for improving his pronunciation.

In the case of the dancer:

She starts rejecting the oral expression test, but after a motivational dialogue, she assumes the practice. She reports distortion in the pronunciation of the phonics [R] [T], [D], [S], [CH], [SH], [M]

Recommendation: It is recommended to work exercises at the muscles of the mouth, lips, and tongue for improving her pronunciation.



TABLE 2  
POSTTEST RESULTS OF ORAL EXPRESSION IN SPANISH AND ENGLISH

The philosopher	The dancer
<p><i>a. Pronunciation:</i> He improved his pronunciation. He pronounces correctly words ending with the phonics: [R] mother, chair, north [P] ship He pronounces correctly words beginning with the phonics [CH] watch He reports distortion when pronounce words having in the middle the phonic [L] Helicopter.</p> <p><i>Advances to a higher level of complexity</i> He reports distortion in the pronunciation of phonics of higher complexity. [ST] standard. He reports distortion in the pronunciation of words beginning with phonics [SH] shop, sheep [SW] swim, swindle, switch [K] think. Exception in the words Show. He reports distortion in pronunciation of words ending with phonics [SH] wash, cash. [K] Stock. He reports distortion in the pronunciation of words having in the middle the phonic [S] Measure. [BL] Establish. [EE] Chees.</p> <p><i>b. Intonation:</i> His intonation has been positively improved by repeating sentences or engaging in dialogues. He narrates activities he does at home, vacations, free time, etc., using correct intonation from beginning to the end of his speech.</p> <p><i>c. Fluency:</i> It is reported outstanding progress He begins conversations spontaneously with the research project members. He reports improvement to 75 words per minute.</p>	<p><i>a. Pronunciation:</i> She improved her pronunciation but, she still reports distortion when pronounce words ending with the phonics [R] Mother, Chair [P] Watch She reports distortion when repeats words that begin with the following phonics [CH] Watch [SW] Sweat [SH] Sheep. She reports distortion when pronounce words having in the middle the phonic [L] Elephant.</p> <p><i>Advances to a higher level of complexity</i> He reports distortion in the pronunciation of phonics of higher complexity. [ST] standard. She reports distortion in pronunciation of words ending with phonic [SH] wash, cash [CK] stock [N] thin.</p> <p><i>b. Intonation:</i> Her intonation has been positively improved by repeating sentences or engaging in dialogues. She describes personal activities using an appropriate intonation; but it is still the trend to speak in a soft volume at the end of his speech.</p> <p><i>c. Fluency</i> It is reported limited progress. She keeps the rhythm in pronunciation during dialogues. She reports improvement to 60 words per minute.</p>

Source: posttest of oral expression (2019)

*Remarks about oral expression posttest:*

In the case of the philosopher:

The posttest results show a relevant progress in oral expression. He pronounces correctly the phonic [D], [M], [CH], [T], [R].

He had reached the advanced level of complex ion in which it is possible to note distortion in phonic [ST], [SH], [SW], [K], [S], [BL] and [EE].

Intonation. He reports a good progress using appropriate tones during all her speeches.

Fluency: He presents a progressed to 75 words per minute (wpm)

In the case of the dancer:

The posttest results show a good progress in oral expression. She pronounces correctly the phonic [D], [M], [CH], [T]. She still cannot pronounce the phonic [R]. She still shows a trend for domain the dialogues.

She reports a limited progress in the advanced level of complex ion in which it is possible to note distortion in phonic [ST], [SH], [SW], [K], [S], [BL] and [EE].

Intonation. She presents a very good progress using appropriate tones during all her speeches. Even, she denies finishing the evaluation.

Fluency: She reports a progressed to 60 words per minute (wpm)

(b) How can the recreative games strengthen the equilibrium in children with Down syndrome?

Participant's equilibrium evolution can be observed on the following report. See table 3.

TABLE 3  
MOTOR EQUILIBRIUM EVOLUTION DURING 3-MONTHS INTERVENTION

Diagnostics	The Philosopher	The Dancer
Pretest	Achievement: He completed 3 laps with support / 1 minute.	Achievement: She completed 2.5 laps with support / 1 minute.
Posttest	Achievement: He completed 3 ½ laps without support / 1 minute.	Achievement: She completed 4 laps without support / 1 minute.
The local standard for children without Down syndrome: 4 laps without support / 1 minute.		
The international standard for children without Down syndrome: 5 laps without support / 1 minute.		
Source: pretest and posttest of equilibrium (2019).		

*Remarks for motor equilibrium diagnostic results:*

The results confirm a delay in the development of participants' equilibrium.

*In the case of the philosopher:*

The participant begins the equilibrium test, showing high confidence. However, when he realizes his mistakes in the dynamic equilibrium bar, his confidence reduces. A person requires self-confidence to maintain static and dynamic equilibrium. For that reason, this research works the students' confidence, expecting to improve their equilibrium performances.

*In the case of the dancer:*

She began the execution of the test of equilibrium slowly, but when she familiarized herself with the activities, she assumed every game as a real challenge. It is a fact that equilibrium requires the participants' self-confidence for that reason, the project works such conditions in the participants expecting to improve their equilibrium performances.

(c) What is the contribution of the recreational games to the oral expression evolution in children with Down syndrome?

*Remarks about oral expression evolution in the case of the philosopher:*

His intonation has progressed. He uses appropriate intonation during his speech from the beginning to the end of the practice sessions. He does not show at himself as a timid boy even, he introduces questions using the appropriate tone during the dialogues spontaneously. His fluency had progressed from 60 words per minute (wpm) in the pretest to 75 wpm., at the posttest.

Finally, he loves to chat and enjoys singing. For that reason, it is recommended he practices singing in his spare time. See figure 1.

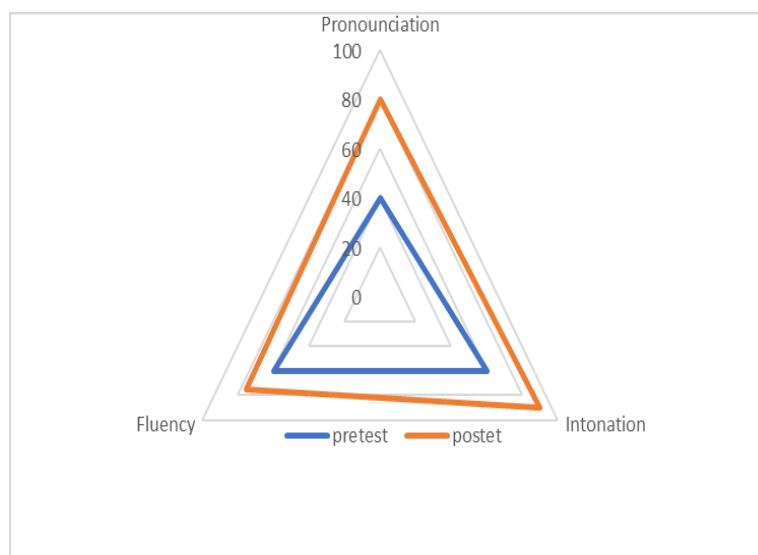


Figure 1 Oral expression evolution in the philosopher

*Remarks about oral expression evolution in the case of the dancer:*

The posttest results confirm that the participants reached better achieves in oral expression after the educational intervention that included games. The dancer still presents distortions in phonics especially when she repeats hard words to pronounce in both Spanish and English language. Her fluency has progressed from 50 words per minute (wpm) reported at the pretest to 60 wpm reached in the posttest.

She is an excellent conversationalist girl, but she is not able to express herself orally due to the limited word range she has. However, when the idiomatic practice becomes more complex, she collapses and breaks into tears. She enjoys dancing and singing for that reason it is recommended she develops those activities in her spare time. See figure 2.

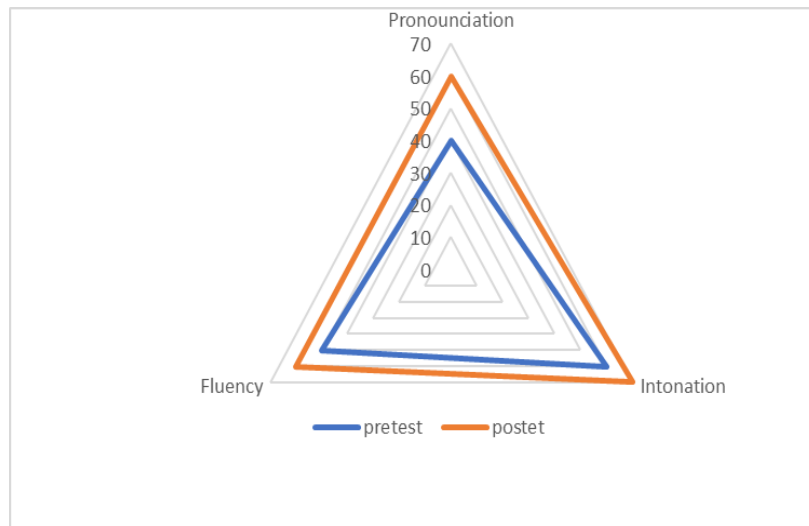


Figure 2 Oral expression evolution in the dancer

(d) What is the contribution of the recreational games to the equilibrium evolution in children with Down syndrome?

*Remarks about equilibrium evolution in the case of the philosopher:*

He shows very good progress from pretest result 3 laps to 3.5 laps in the postet. He shows from the beginning of the process insecurity and fear to fail the equilibrium practices. It has been necessary to support the philosopher's confidence in himself to complete the games that involve jumping.

*Remarks about equilibrium evolution in the case of the dancer:*

She shows outstanding progress from pretest result 2.5 laps to 4 laps in the postet. She shows from the beginning of the process a sport attitudes and competitive spirit. She loves to dance, and for that reason, she loved the games used for the researcher team to develop equilibrium. She has reached the standard reported for kids without Down syndrome.

He shows a very good progress from pretest result 3 laps to 3.5 laps. It has been necessary to support the participant working on his motivation and self-confidence.

*Remarks about equilibrium evolution in the case of the dancer:*

She shows an outstanding progress from pretest result 2.5 laps to 4 laps. She shows from the beginning sport attitudes and competitive spirit. She loves dance for that reason, she loved the games used for the researcher team to develop equilibrium. She has reached the standard reported for kids without Down syndrome.

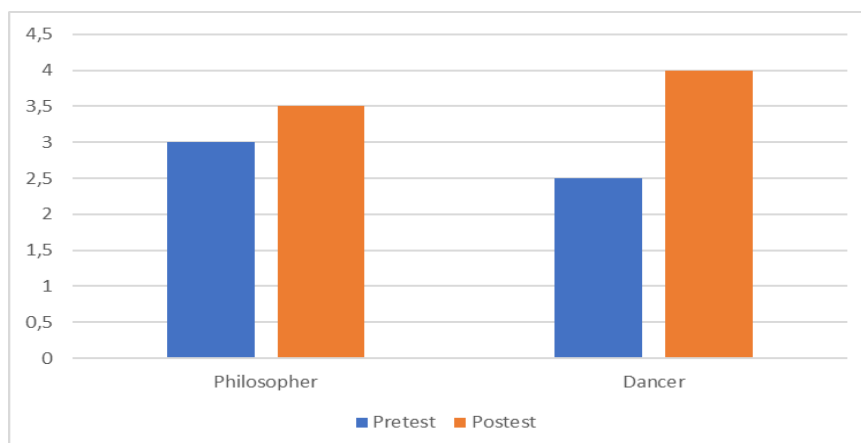


Figure 3 Equilibrium evolution in the participants.

## V. DISCUSION AND CONCLUSION

The work experience with students with Down syndrome confirms the relevance of the teachers as an active member of an inclusive community next to parents. They both should assume the role of guides of the children's learning process, including oral expression (Perpin án, 2018); and equilibrium (Delgado et al., 2019), as part of their integral development process. Such challenges demand trained teachers to work students with educational special needs associated with the disability but, mainly people involved with the improvement of the inclusive education en Ecuador (Corral et al., 2015). Thus, it is ratified the need to invest in scientific research and inclusive education (Bravo et al., 2013). The redesign of

the educational buildings for improving the access of students and teachers with physical disabilities, educational technology installations, curricular adaptations, learning environments, etc., to improve the interaction between student-teacher-parents and working on the construction of really inclusive communities.

The authors of this work express agreement with the statements of Motta (2013), and Posada (2014), when arguing about the contribution of games to avoid those alienating, boring classes, etc., resulting from the traditional model of education still applied in Ecuador; because, games have the power to improve the participation of children with and without special needs in the educational environments (González, Solovieva, and Quintanar, 2014), and advance towards the universal education

*The dancer:*

She did not have always the disposition to play the games proposed during the sessions in this research. She shows characteristics of a singer and dancer girl but, when she has her menstrual period, she became an annoyance person.

She showed a limited advance in her oral expression because of her strong personality. It is a frequent condition in children with Down syndrome. She showed signals of the Emperor syndrome such as competitive behavior, but also impulsive love emotions. People with emperor syndrome try to impose his or her desire, tantrums in public places, authoritarianism, etc. Thus, she only does the things she wants to do, and when she wishes to. In this case, she did tantrums some days because she wanted to play basketball instead of the oral skills games especially when the class was less dynamic or involve more cognition, attention, memory, and reasoning. She shows apathetic, tends to incline the head, and avoids answer to any questions.

The team of researchers observed that she is highly competitive; therefore, a rating table of compliance was administrated to stimulate her to work. This activity motivated her to cooperate and doing voluntarily most of the practices.

However, her progress in equilibrium was outstanding because, she loves sports; thus, she reached in equilibrium the local standard of children without Down syndrome.

*The philosopher:*

He shows a willingness to learn, executes the games, and practice for developing his oral expression from the begging to the end of the sessions. He shows the characteristic of an intellectual boy. According to the psychologist, it is the result of early-age stimulation supported by his family. In this case, the presented unhealthy pulmonary condition, because of the exposition to cold temperatures during a family trip, caused, he missed classes for 2 weeks. Nevertheless, despite his absences, he continued to improve because of his self-motivation to practice oral expression and equilibrium at home. He shows outstanding progress because he has the disposition to learn and has a positive mood. He loves the thing that involves cognition and tries to do well the practices. However, it has been observed he needs to improve his self-confidence to advance to more complex equilibrium levels. The results showed outstanding progress on his modulation, rhythm, and intonation of his oral expression.

From the analysis of the data obtained with the psychosocial approach, it is ratified that the natural psychological and physical changes of the adolescent age generate in this learner new socio-emotional factors that influence on their motivation for learning, school performance, and relationships personal with peers and family.

Finally, both cases studied in this research project (the philosopher and the dancer) do have different evolution of oral expression and equilibrium, which are related to their interest and family support.

CONCLUSIONS

This work concludes that oral expression quality and the equilibrium can be developed successfully in children with Down syndrome when, recreational games are introduced such into the formal education procedures, as into the traditional therapies.

The training of muscles using games is a relevant contribution to improve the participants' oral expression and equilibrium.

A wide range of games that require a few simple materials available in schools were chosen and administrated during this researching process. However, the participants' personality and family background, and their disposition to play influenced in the final results.

This research project finds that recreational games can help children to reduce the stress generated during traditional classes and therapies. Games help to develop also children's self-confidence to speak (oral expression) and execute more complex body movements (equilibrium). Moreover, this experience ratifies that equilibrium helps children with Down syndrome cultivating better attitudes for learning. Finally, the earlier the games are introduced in academic work with children with Down syndrome, the better results will be obtained

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# Investigating the Appropriateness of Reading Passages of Grade Seven English Textbook: Tsehay Chora Primary School in Focus, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

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**Abstract**—The purpose of this study was to assess the appropriateness of reading passages of Grade Seven English textbook suitability in developing students' reading comprehension. Descriptive research design with both qualitative and quantitative research methods were employed. In the study, 42 Grade Seven students randomly and four English language teachers with comprehensive sampling technique were included. The instruments used to collect data were document analysis, students' questionnaire, and teachers' interview. The data gathered through document analyses and students' questionnaires were analyzed with frequency, percentages and mean; whereas, teachers' interview data were analyzed through narration. The finding of study showed that, the reading passages of the current Grade Seven English textbook lack interestingness, authenticity and sufficient vocabulary. These deficiencies could hamper the appropriateness of reading passages so that the reading texts could not be adequate to develop the students' reading skills. Hence, the reading passages should be revised to be appropriate for students' success in reading.

**Index Terms**—illustration, vocabulary sufficiency, authenticity, cultural appropriateness, and interestingness

## I. INTRODUCTION

Textbooks play a vital role in teaching English because they form the fundamental of language input learners acquire in the classroom (Kirkgoz, 2009). Because of this, it is necessary to evaluate the appropriateness of the textbooks to meet the desired learning outcomes. The process of evaluating and selecting textbooks is of course complex, and it involves different stakeholders such as curriculum designers, teachers and learners. The selected textbooks should meet the need of learners as different writers suggest (Judy, 2007). Therefore, textbook evaluation covers the contents, activities, illustrations, objectives, authenticity of the language, difficulty level of tasks and cultural appropriateness of the lessons given in the textbook.

In this regard, Raval (2013) argues that appropriateness of English textbook and the reading passages in the textbook play important role in students' language learning. Due to this fact appropriate reading passages in the textbook should include suitable contents, vocabulary, structures, and proportion in exercise, glossary and illustration that go with the title of the reading passages. The reading of pictures is not just a different process from that of reading of words, but can be a process that is equally as complex as that of reading words (Judy, 2007).

Using illustrations as a reading tool offers a powerful medium to those who are involved in the literacy development of emergent readers. Sheldon (1988) elaborates that one picture may be worth a thousand words and it serve as functional as simply decorative and clear for their intended purpose. Thus, the use of illustrations for the reading purpose has paramount value that it could make the students motivated, provide meaningful context and help them to understand reading comprehension in terms of the printed word.

Reading passages should also contain interesting reading topics. Williams (1986) claims that 'in the absence of interesting texts, very little is possible.' Jordan (1997) supplementing this notes that interest is vital, for it increases motivation in the development of reading speed and fluency. When the topic of a passage is not interesting for students, their motivation to read is substantially lessened.

Authenticity in language use is crucial in reading in order to introduce students to the real context and natural instances of language. Therefore, authentic materials in the reading passages inspire students to read passages interestingly (Ali, 2010).

Cultural relatedness of the reading texts is the other important aspect. Brown (1994) points out that culture is the context within which we exist, think, feel and relate others. It is the glue that binds a group of people together. It can be defined as a blueprint that guides the behavior of people in community and is incubated in family life. Consequently,



the reading passages that are not related to the students' culture and religion may be less motivating for them to read and will be more difficult to comprehend than the culturally-related ones.

Moreover, for the appropriateness reading passages vocabulary is an important aspect to be considered. As (McDonough et.al, 2013) cited in (Getinet, 2018) argue that knowledge of vocabulary is often considered to be an integral part of a reader's overall competence in foreign or second languages. That is knowledge of vocabulary in a foreign language is considered to be very essential for readers.

In addition to the above scholars ideas the researchers have also consulted studies done elsewhere out of Ethiopia. For instance, Ali (2010) studied on evaluation of the reading text and exercise of Palestine - Grade 9. The result indicates that no authentic reading texts are found in the textbook. Moreover, extensive reading is not included. Yee Chiew (2012) examined the extent to which the textbook used in the university-based intensive English program matches with the set of criteria for selecting a good reading textbook. Findings from this study suggest that the textbook conforms to all the four important criteria of reading textbook selection. It can be concluded that the textbook is appropriate for students reading literacy development. Further research could be done on the aspect of authentic text presentation which has been overlooked by the present study.

In addition, Rahma, (2004) evaluated the teaching of reading skills of English in Bangladesh. The findings show that students' present level of reading is not up to the mark because of insufficient vocabulary found in the reading passages. Therefore, the above study revealed that insufficient vocabulary found in reading passages was the problems for students' to develop the reading skills.

The current study focused on investigating the appropriateness of reading passages against the criteria stated above; namely, illustration, interestingness, authenticity, cultural appropriateness and vocabulary knowledge. As mentioned in the Education and Training Policy of Ministry of Education (MoE, (2007) of Ethiopia states English is taught as a subject from Grade One, and it is the medium of instruction from Grade Nine through high school, colleges and universities. For each grade level, the teachers and the students use textbooks prepared by MoE. However, the illustration, the vocabulary items found in the passages might not be suitable for the learners.

#### *A. Statement of the Problem*

English is one of the foreign languages that have been used in Ethiopia since the introduction of modern education in the early 20th century. Since then both governmental and non-governmental schools played significant roles in the spread of English language education in Ethiopian (MoE,2007).As a result of this, Ethiopia has introduced English language to be a compulsory subject and the language of instruction starting from Grade Seven up to university education.

Currently, communicative approach language has been employed I English language teaching in all levels of the education system of Ethiopia. All the materials used by teachers and students are printed in the English language. Therefore, students' especially primary school level ones are supposed to master the skills in English language.

Among these four major skills, reading is considered as one of the most important receptive skills which language learners should master. Reading cannot be considered as a set of mechanical skills to be learned once and for all but rather it is a complex process of making meaning from passages for a variety of purposes (Lyon, 2003).

The objective of teaching reading skills in Grade Seven like other grades is to develop students' reading comprehension ability in English language, Institute for Curriculum Development and Research (ICDR, 2004). To accomplish this objective, different reading passages were designed and incorporated in the English language syllabus. However, as it has been mentioned by some researchers, students' proficiency in the English language was not as expected. Our experience at Tsehay Chora Primary School shows that students' reading ability tends to be poor. In addition to this, Ethiopian Early Grade Reading Assessment (EGRA, 2010) showed that there is strong evidence that reading achievement is low in all regions. Most critically, these findings showed that reading achievement is very low in Ethiopia. When students were asked to read a simple passage at Grade 2 and Grade 3 levels, more than 50% of the children in most regions were unable to answer a single simple comprehension question. This may be due to the inappropriateness of the reading passages of the textbook for their language learning.

To mention other local research, for instance, Getinet (2018) conducted study on evaluating the appropriateness of Grade Nine English reading texts from the perspective of teachers and students. He evaluated the textbook by using certain criteria like the readability, exploitability, socio- cultural content and students' background from the perspective of teachers and students. But, he did not investigate the appropriateness of reading passages by using certain criteria such as illustration, interestingness, authenticity, cultural appropriateness, and lexical knowledge.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate the appropriateness of the reading passages of Grade Seven English textbook.

#### *B. Research Questions*

The study attempted to answer the following research questions.

1. Does textbook contain the reading passages that have clear illustrations?
2. Does the textbook contain interesting reading passages?
3. Does the textbook contain authentic reading passages?
4. Does the textbook contain culturally appropriate reading passages?

## 5. Does the textbook contain enough vocabulary for students?

### II. METHODOLOGY

The study employed descriptive research design by using mixed methods data collection and analysis methods.

#### A. Participants of the Study and Sampling Techniques

The study was conducted at Tsehay Chora Primary School which, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The participants of this study were Grade Seven students and their English language teachers. There were 140 students in four sections (A, B, C and D) in the 2018/19 academic year. Taking 30 percent of the students randomly through lottery system from each section, eleven (totally, 44) students were selected. Besides, using comprehensive sampling technique, four English language teachers who teach in both Grades Seven and Eight were included. Moreover, 14 reading passages were taken from Grade Seven English textbook though comprehensive sampling technique.

#### B. Data Gathering Instrument

By employing mixed-methods research approach, data were collected through document analysis, student questionnaire and teachers' interview.

Document analysis was used to examine the appropriateness of the reading passages. To assess the reading texts, criteria were developed through adapting Ali (2010) and Cunningsworth (1995) works. Specifically, the parameters used as a check list to examine the passages were illustration, interestingness, authenticity, cultural appropriateness and vocabulary. The checklist prepared was Yes/No format. The scope of the document analysis is limited only to the reading passages that are presented in the textbook with the view of supporting students' comprehension skill.

Questionnaire was administered to assess students' views about appropriateness of the reading texts in relation to illustration, interestingness and cultural appropriateness. The questionnaire items were closed- ended in form having five level Likert scale that range from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. The items were translated into Amharic for students' easy understanding.

The four teachers were interviewed about the appropriateness of the reading passages for their students. The interview items were semi-structured in form enquiring the appropriateness of the reading passages in terms of their authenticity and cultural relatedness to their students.

#### C. Data Analysis Techniques

The data gathered through documents analysis and students' questioner were analyzed and interpreted quantitatively by using, frequency, percentage, mean, and grand mean; whereas, the data obtained from teachers' interview were analysed thematically using narration in the statements.

### III. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

#### A. Document Analyses

The Grade Seven English textbook was published in 2011. The textbook contains twelve units in which there is at least one reading passage. Hence, this study focuses on the examining the appropriateness of reading passages for students developing their reading comprehension. The reading passages in the textbook were evaluated by adapting the criteria developed by Ali (2010) and Cuning (1995).

The document analysis was made under five major themes in line with the set research questions. They are clarity of illustrations, interestingness of reading passages, authenticity of the passages, cultural appropriateness of reading passages and sufficiency of vocabulary items found in the reading passages. Therefore, the fourteen reading passages of the textbook were evaluated five times with the five themes. Consequently,  $(14 \times 5) = 70$  was maximum value. Similarly, the research questions numbers two, three and four were grouped into one and each reading passage was evaluated four times. Thus, their minimum value was  $56 (14 \times 4) = 56$  percent. Table 1 summarizes the result obtained from document analysis

TABLE I.  
READING PASSAGES ANALYSIS WITH ILLUSTRATION, VOCABULARY SUFFICIENCY, AUTHENTICITY, INTERESTINGNESS AND CULTURAL APPROPRIATENESS

No	Appearance in the 14 reading passages	Alternatives					
		Yes		No		Total	
		F	%	F	%	F	%
1	Illustration	40	57.1	30	42.9	70	100
2	Vocabulary	19	27.1	51	72.9	70	100
3	Authenticity	10	17.9	46	82.1	56	100
4	Interestingness	20	35.7	36	64.3	56	100
5	Cultural appropriateness	53	94.6	3	5.4	56	100

Key= F= Frequency % = Percentage

The above table indicates from the five indicators of passage appropriateness, the analysis shows that cultural appropriateness and illustration were found meeting the criteria. To be specific, cultural appropriateness has the frequency of 53 (94.6 %) appearance in the reading passages. The other quality that the passage tended to fit with the purpose of the textbook is the clarity of illustrations which appeared with the frequency of 40 (57.1%). However, the other qualities of the reading passages tended to lack are authenticity of the passages which is rated as 17.9 percent appearance and sufficiency of vocabulary with the rate of appearance in 27.1 percent.

Therefore, the reading passages though they satisfy the qualities of cultural appropriateness and clear illustrations; they lack to have adequate vocabulary, authenticity, and interestingness.

### B. The Students' Questionnaire

The obtained from 44 students using questionnaire were presented and analysed using percent and mean as follows. First, the data analysis related to clarity of illustration is presented. Then, the analysis data about interestingness of reading passages is reported. Finally, the analysis of the vocabulary found in the textbook is presented.

TABLE II.  
ANALYSIS OF CLARITY OF ILLUSTRATION

Items	Contents		1	2	3	4	5	Total	Mean
No 1	There are adequate illustrations found in the reading passage.	F	6	6	1	19	10	42	3.14
		%	14.3	28.6	2.4	45.6	24.2	100	
	All the reading passages have clear illustrations.	F	6	15	1	5	15	42	3.19
		%	14.3	35.7	2.4	11.9	35.7	100	
	The reading passages have the visual imagery of high aesthetic quality.	F	24	13	2	3	0	42	1.62
		%	57.1	31.0	4.8	7.1	0.0	100	
Illustration	The illustration found in the reading passages are relevant	F	4	10	2	19	7	42	3.36
		%	9.5	23.8	4.8	45.2	16.7	100	
	The illustrations found in the reading passages are functional	F	3	10	4	9	16	42	3.6
		%	7.1	23.8	9.5	21.4	38.1	100	
	Grand mean								3.98

Key: 1= strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3= Undecided 4=Agree 5 = Strongly agree F= Frequency

As Table 2 showed that, most of the respondents agree that illustrations found in the reading passages are adequate, clear, have high aesthetic quality, relevant and functional. It is evident that the grand mean of the analysis obtained is closer to 4.0 which is to mean that respondents agree about the clarity of the illustrations.

The next part of the analysis tries to assess the interestingness of the reading passages for the learners to develop their reading skills. The following table presents students response about the interestingness of the passages.

TABLE III.  
ANALYSIS OF INTERESTINGNESS OF READING PASSAGES

Items	Contents		1	2	3	4	5	Total	Mean
No 2	Illustrations are interesting	F	22	10	2	6	2	42	1.95
		%	52.4	23.8	4.8	14.3	4.8	100	
Interestingness	The reading passages are interesting enough that student enjoy reading them?	F	30	6	2	3	1	42	1.86
		%	71.8	14.3	4.8	7.1	2.4	100	
	The reading passage contain variety of reading topics that arise students' interest	F	26	5	2	4	5	42	1.98
		%	61.9	11.9	4.8	9.5	11.9	100	
	There are reading passage that are not interesting for students	F	6	12	1	16	7	42	3.14
		%	14.3	28.6	2.4	38.1	16.7	100	
	Grand Mean								2.23

Key: 1= strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Undecided 4=Agree 5= strongly agree F= Frequency

The interestingness of reading passages found in the textbook appeared to be less as the analysis of the students response revealed in the above table. The mean results of the different indicators for interestingness of reading passages is below the average score in the five levels Likert scale. Besides, the grand mean shows was found to be 2.23 Which still signifies the reading passages that are found in the grade seven English textbook are not interesting for the students.

Finally, the students responses about adequacy of vocabulary in the reading passages was analysed in the following table. The analysis was done using indicators for the sufficiency of vocabulary. The indicators are progression of

vocabulary from simple to complex, use extra colors to highlight new vocabulary, inclusion of new vocabulary that are concrete and sufficient vocabulary items.

TABLE IV.  
ANALYSIS OF SUFFICIENCY OF VOCABULARY IN THE READING PASSAGES

Items	Contents		1	2	3	4	5	Total	Mean
No 3 Vocabulary	The arrangement of vocabulary items is from simple to complex	F	10	14	5	2	11	42	2.21
		%	23.8	33.3	11.9	4.8	26.2	100	
	The new words in the reading passages are highlighted	F	22	4	1	15	0	42	2.76
		%	52.4	9.5	2.4	35.7	0.0	100	
	The reading passages provide learners with sufficient vocabulary items	F	31	0	1	4	6	42	1.90
		%	73.8	0.0	2.4	9.5	14.3	100	
	The pages included vocabularies that are concrete	F	17	15	4	2	4	42	2.07
		%	40.5	35.7	9.5	4.8	9.5	100	
	The reading passages use colors to highlight new words	F	18	12	4	3	5	42	2.17
		%	42.9	28.6	9.5	7.1	11	100	
Grand Mean									2.22

Key: 1= Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Undecided 4=Agree 5= strongly agree F= Frequency

Table 4 above indicated the analysis students' views about the adequacy of new words in the reading passages using indicators. As the mean result shows the reading passages tend to have less new words to develop students' comprehension ability. The mean result in all the indicators for the sufficiency of vocabulary is below the average score. As a result the grand mean is 2.22 on the five levels Likert scale. This showed that the vocabularies found in the reading passages are not sufficiently presented.

Generally, the result of students' questionnaire analysis shows that the reading passages of the textbook tend to be less interesting and lack adequate vocabulary though it was reported that the passages have clear illustrations. This implies that the passages will not enable students to develop their comprehension ability.

### C. Teachers Interview

With the interview, the authenticity and the cultural appropriateness of the reading passages was examined. The analysis of the interview was done thematically. First the analysis teachers' response about the authenticity of the passages is presented. Then, the analysis of the responses about the cultural appropriateness of the passages is reported.

Regarding the authenticity of the reading passages, majority of the respondents agree that the passages lack authenticity. For instance, Teacher<sub>1</sub> notes that "The reading passages...are not enriched with authentic reading passages. For example, from the 14 passages 12 of them are not authentic and two of them that is in Unit 3 page 45 and Unit 6 on page 91 are authentic reading passages." In a similar manner, Teacher<sub>2</sub> and Teacher<sub>3</sub> reported that their teaching experience for more than eight years showed them that textbook contain non-authentic reading passages. They specifically identified only two passages, namely "Bull Jumping and Cotton Growing" are the only authentic reading passages that expose learners to real life experience.

Hence, from this analysis, it is possible to say that the reading passages are not authentic. This in turn affects students' learning to develop their reading skills in the language.

The analysis of teachers' interview response about cultural appropriateness of the reading passages indicates that most of the reading passages are culturally appropriate. Almost all respondents agreed that the topics of the reading passages are customized to be culturally fit to the students experience and exposure. They mention some of the topics of the passages like "Jumping the Bull, Tsemay and Banna, the Traditional Game Gebet'a, and Growing Cotton".

From the above analysis, it could be concluded that reading passages found in Grade Seven English textbook are culturally appropriate for the learners. This will in turn enhance students' reading skills.

## IV. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the appropriateness of the reading passages of Grade Seven English textbook. In this section an attempt was made to discuss important findings of the study with related to research objectives.

The first research question was intended to assess if the reading passages of the textbook contain clear illustrations. The findings of the document analysis showed that majority of the reading passages have illustrations. In addition, the result obtained from students' questioner assured the existence of clear illustrations and suitable visual texts in the reading passages. Therefore, this find of this study agrees with what Sheldon (1988) recommends about the importance of illustrations for reading passages.

The second research question examined the interestingness of reading passages. The findings of the document analyses revealed that majority reading passages contains less interesting reading passages. From the 14 reading

passages, 11 (78.5%) of the reading passages are not interesting reading passages. Besides, the finding from the students' questionnaire analysis still signifies the reading passages that are found in the textbook are not interesting for the students as the grand mean was found to be 2.23.

The third research question was concerned to examine authenticity of the reading passages. To this end, the result of document analyses revealed that the textbook comprised non-authentic and outdated passages. Similarly, the findings of the teachers' interview data analysis assured that majority of the reading passages in the textbooks include non-authentic reading passages. From the 12 reading passages 12(85.7%) of them were non-authentic passage. This finding disagrees with what Cunnings worth (1995), Ur (1996) and Berardo (2006) recommend. They contend that authentic texts can be motivating and more interesting. Also Al-Masri (1993) asserts that the learners are likely to be more motivated by the relevance, usefulness and authenticity of the learning tasks.

The fourth research question was intended to examine the cultural appropriateness of the reading passages. The result of document analyses showed that the reading passages of textbook are culturally appropriate. Similarly, the findings of the teacher interview data analyses assured that almost all the reading passages found in the textbook were culturally appropriate for the students. This finding with what Niederhauser (1997) suggests that bringing culture related content into the language classroom is one of the best ways of increasing motivation.

The last research question was intended to assess the adequacy of vocabulary in the reading passages. In this regard, the findings of the document analyses and students' questionnaires indicated that there were not enough new vocabulary items in the reading passages. From the fourteen passages only five of them have new vocabulary items. Therefore, it is possible to deduce that the textbook did not help students to develop their guessing and word attack skills which in turn make students have less stock of vocabulary.

## V. CONCLUSION

The intent of this study was to investigate the appropriateness of reading passages of Grade Seven English textbook. It examined the reading passages in terms of illustration, interestingness, authenticity, cultural appropriateness and sufficiency of vocabulary. The following conclusions were drawn from the findings obtained.

- The reading passages of the textbook had clear illustrations.
- The passages were found less interesting.
- The reading passages were less authentic.
- The passages were found culturally appropriate to the students.

Generally, though the reading passages of Grade Seven English textbook satisfy the criteria of clear illustrations and cultural appropriateness, they lack inclusion of adequate new vocabulary, arise interest of students and authenticity.

Therefore, it is recommended that the Ethiopian Ministry of Education, particularly, Syllabus Designing Department should revise the Grade Seven English textbook reading passages to

- make them more illustrative and culturally fit and
- to improve the deficiencies of the reading passages in availability of new vocabulary, interestingness of the passages and authenticity of passages

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# Theories and Research on Oral Reading Fluency: What Is Needed?

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**Abstract**—Oral reading fluency skill is considered to be the bridge to reading comprehension. However, it has been neglected in many English reading programs despite the fact that different theories (including behaviorism, information processing model theory, automaticity theory, and Ehri and McCormick's word learning theory) have shed light on this skill. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to review theories, studies and practices relevant to this skill. This study has two aims: (1) to identify the theories underpinning oral reading strategies and (2) to identify the gap in research so far conducted on oral reading fluency. Various reading-aloud techniques and assessment methods are presented in this study. Moreover, some factors that affect students' oral reading fluency are illustrated. Significantly, the practices that this study investigates and presents concerning teaching and assessing oral reading fluency might give an inspiration for the policymakers and curriculum designers to integrate oral reading fluency in their reading programs.

**Index Terms**—oral reading fluency, theories, reading-aloud instructions, assessment methods, factors affecting oral reading fluency.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Oral reading fluency is a key skill, which is a prerequisite for comprehension as emphasized by Tindal et al. (2016) and Rasinski (2014). They believe that fluency as a skill feeds into comprehension, which is the ultimate goal of reading. According to DiSalle and Rasinski (2017), 90% of comprehension problems are due to the deficiency in oral fluency. Thus, students who have poor reading fluency in their early stage of academic life will likely have problems in later academic stages. For this reason, it is essential to build and develop literacy skills in the early learning stage (Rasinski 2014). However, this has been neglected in many English learning programmes in various countries.

Investigating oral reading fluency theoretically and through the literature is essential for proposing instructions and implications. In response, this study provides an overview of the instructional reading strategies for oral reading fluency and the assessment techniques employed in the literature. It also provides details about the factors that affect students' oral reading fluency. It would be fair to say that all of the existing studies relating to oral reading fluency have investigated the effects of one or two oral reading-aloud strategies on students' oral fluency. Some of them have examined and discussed one assessment measure whilst others have investigated one or more factors that affect students' oral reading fluency. It is evident that there is presently no research covering the areas which this study aims to investigate. Furthermore, no studies have been found to suggest or provide a comprehensive model that builds and supports oral reading fluency. Hence, this study has clearly addressed a gap in the literature concerning different issues relating to oral reading fluency and would therefore, most certainly add value to the growing literature in oral reading fluency by presenting the issue as comprehensively as possible. In light of this, the objectives of the present paper are:

- a) to identify the theories underpinning oral reading strategies
- b) to identify the gap in research so far conducted on oral reading fluency with the aim of recommending areas for future studies.

Defining oral reading fluency has been a key issue for many educators and scholars alike. The reason for this is that oral reading fluency involves identifying a host of different aspects in a fixed time, such as the number of: correct words, incorrect words, pauses, repetition of words or phrases and finally mean length of utterance (Rasinski 2014). However, based on current research perspectives, there is a common definition for oral reading fluency, which is the ability to read aloud a text accurately with natural speed (Rasinski 2009; DiSalle & Rasinski 2017; Samuels 2007). Hence, it is necessary to highlight that Padak and Rasinski (2008) and Samuels (2007) identified three main components of oral reading fluency which are accuracy, automaticity, and prosody. Defining these three terms is imperative to understanding how oral reading fluency should be addressed.

Accuracy is the ability to decode words precisely. First and foremost, for fluent readers to read accurately, they must identify individual words. This identification requires learning the alphabetic principle, which involves letters (graphemes) and sounds (phonemes). In addition, decoding isolated words, such as sight words, high-frequency words,

and irregular words is paramount. Mastering the previous knowledge allows accurate word identification, which happens instantaneously (Rasinski 2014).

Automaticity, on the other hand, refers to recognising and decoding words effortlessly (Rasinski 2014; Samuels 2007). It depends on the students' knowledge of alphabetic principles and vocabulary (Ehri & McCormick 1998). Reading becomes automatic once readers master accuracy. Therefore, automaticity and accuracy are closely related. It is proven that readers' cognitive load is reduced as automaticity and accuracy are increased (Samuels 1974). Consequently, the cognitive resources will be devoted to comprehension. It is also believed that the more errors students make in reading accuracy, the less textual information they grasp (Lahmann, Steinkrauss & Schmid 2017). Hence, both accuracy and automaticity enhance effective reading comprehension. It is also reported that automaticity or accuracy alone is not sufficient to determine students' oral reading fluency (Rasinski 2014). For instance, students might read separate words accurately and rapidly. However, when they read a connected text, they might find it difficult to read at the same level of accuracy and speed. Moreover, reading too quickly might not allow students to comprehend (Rasinski, Rikli, & Johnston 2009). In fact, to reach a proper level of text comprehension, students should have accurate word recognition (Samuels 2007).

The last component of fluency is prosody, which refers to reading smoothly with expression and intonation that presents the meaning and comprehension of connected text (Rasinski, Rikli, & Johnston 2009). In some studies, prosody is called expression. Prosody involves reading with the pitch, tone, volume, and rhythm. It also includes chunking words or phrases together and emphasising certain phrases (Padak & Rasinski 2008). Numerous studies have proven that reading orally with expression helps the reader to build and develop his/her own comprehension skills, the meaning of the text, and speaking skills (Rasinski, Rikli, & Johnston 2009). Moreover, though a positive relationship between prosody and comprehension was reported in those studies as mentioned earlier, the reliability data for measuring students' prosody was an issue. In fact, there is no valid and reliable measure created yet to measure students' prosody (Haskins & Aleccia 2014; Sarris & Dimakos 2015). On the other hand, there are some available valid and reliable measures for both accuracy and automaticity (Rasinski 2004).

## II. THEORIES AND ORAL READING FLUENCY

Various theories shed light on reading fluency particularly reading-aloud strategies which are behaviourism, information processing model theory, automaticity theory, and Ehri and McCormick word learning theory. The following sections present theories views on building oral reading fluency and instructional implication for each theory.

### A. Behaviourism

Behaviourism is a well-known theory that focuses on the changing of behaviour over a period of time. For behaviourists, information is transferred and conveyed from a knowledgeable person, teacher, to a less knowledgeable source, student (Zuriff 1985). In education, behaviourism can inform literacy instructions meaningfully by leading teachers to use specific strategies and assessment methods. In essence, it is an important theory that is associated with direct instructions and implications for reading that could improve the students' achievement (Tracey & Morrow 2012). Generally, three basic behavioural theories contribute to behaviourism; classical conditioning, connectionism, and operant conditioning. These three theories focus on breaking down the complex task, in this case reading, into smaller components. For instance, Tracey and Morrow (2012) claimed that reading components are categorised into five categories, which are visual discrimination, auditory discrimination, left-to-right progression during reading, vocabulary and finally, comprehension. These components have some sub-skills. For example, for auditory discrimination, there are sub-skills including phonics, sight words, and blending. Each one of these sub-skills requires a response and feedback. To elaborate, a teacher asks a student to pronounce a word. If the student does it correctly, then the teacher needs to give quick feedback. However, if the student pronounces the word incorrectly, the teacher should correct the student's pronunciation. This can happen by providing sufficient opportunities to pronounce the word repeatedly until the student has perfected it. This is strongly related to oral reading fluency whereby feedback is a requirement to help students improve their reading fluency. It is also emphasised by Rasinski (2014), Padak and Rasinski (2008) and Rasinski and Padak (2000). They believed and insisted on the significance of providing students with appropriate guidance and feedback to help them build their reading fluency. Furthermore, the role of feedback in teaching and assessing reading fluency was stressed by many other researchers (Cummings, Park & Schaper 2013; Dewey et al. 2015).

Significantly, guided reading, direct instruction, practice, and the repeated reading approaches for LaBerge and Samuels (1974) are examples of the most influential reading strategies that are emphasised by a behaviourism perspective (Tracey & Morrow 2012). Usually, the guided reading strategy is used more with younger students: kindergarten to grade two levels. For direct instruction, the teacher knows the sub-skills that students need to develop. Therefore, the teacher is responsible for the students' learning by finding out their strengths and weaknesses. Then, the teacher can start teaching and building learners' reading sub-skills directly and explicitly to students as phonics, sight words, high-frequency words and blending words. The teacher has to provide students with lots of practice to acquire the previous sub-skills. This is also stressed by Padak and Rasinski (2008). Padak and Rasinski clearly stated that to start teaching the basic reading skills at an early level is essential to building a good foundation for reading skills. Al-



Kharusi (2014) claimed that using direct instructions and practice helped students greatly to increase their potential reading fluency. It is important to note that teachers' knowledge is potentially important to building students' reading skills. As stated previously, behaviourists believe that information is transferred from a knowledgeable person to a less knowledgeable source. Moreover, the behaviourism theory focuses on measuring the change in behaviour objectively. With respect to oral reading fluency, students must be assessed on reading skills, such as phonics, fluency, and comprehension. It is the teacher's job to set measurable behavioural objectives to assess students.

Although the behaviourism theory points at different reading-aloud methods and the role of feedback, it is criticized harshly. For example, behaviourism views the learner, reader, as a passive recipient of information in the text. Readers' knowledge and experience do not matter in this theory. Readers are only responding to stimuli. Only perceptual information and the decoding process are significant to this theory. Needless to mention that behaviourists place great attention on the final product or the output, regardless of the processes in learners' brains. Therefore, behaviourism is criticised harshly for this issue. Behaviourism also receives tough criticism because it does not explain how the mind interferes in the processing of information. As a response to the previous shortcomings, there was a major shift towards a cognitive sciences paradigm.

### *B. Information Processing Model Theory*

In the cognitive science paradigm, scientists and psycholinguists began to focus on how a language could be built and developed in students' brains. One of the cognitive processing models is called the "information processing model". Based on the information processing model (Slavin 2002), oral reading fluency is addressed through various systems that lead readers to engage in specific skills, such as recognising letters and sounds rapidly and retrieving knowledge that is stored in the long-term memory. The brain has a specific capacity for daily tasks. If the students use a significant portion of this capacity and amount of time to read and decode words, then a small capacity and less time will be left and devoted to meaning and comprehension. Thus, if the students learn to read fluently at an early stage, then a big portion of the brain's capacity will be devoted to making sense of the meaning of the text.

This model has three types of memories: sensory memory, short-term memory, which is also called working memory, and long-term memory. When readers see pictures or printed words in a text their sensory memory retains the data. When they read, the information is stored in the short-term memory for thirty-seconds approximately. Certainly, information cannot stay too long in the short-term memory, which has a limited capacity for information. Readers forget the information quickly if they do not encode by rehearsing the information. If they rehearse, in this case, they read aloud many times, information will move into the long-term memory, which has an unlimited capacity over a long period of time. Therefore, teachers have to help students improve their memories by motivating and allowing them to practice to encode data into their long-term memory. This theory promotes reading practice, repeated reading, assisted reading, and rhyming methods as a way to encode data, in this case, recognition of letters, sounds, sight words, and high-frequency words.

Unfortunately, this model as the behaviourism theory has received some criticism. For example, this model views the human mind like a computer or machine, which processes information. Readers receive input or information, i.e. a text. Then, they process the text by reading it and finally, they deliver the output or behavioural response, which the behaviourism theory focuses on. Although this model believes that humans are like computers, it stresses on the three types of memory and how to address any issue considering them, which is clarified earlier. It also tells us that older children have a greater capacity in working memory (Slavin 2002). Therefore, building oral reading fluency should begin at an early level.

### *C. Automaticity Theory*

Automaticity theory is a famous theory in the reading fluency field (Samuels 2007) that focuses highly on word recognition. For the automaticity theory, reading fluency is identified as the ability to decode and comprehend a text at the same time (Samuels 2007). As pointed by Tracey and Morrow (2012), reading text has many sub-skills (or processes) such as recognising letters, associating sounds with the letters, blending, segmenting, chunking, skimming, and scanning. However, there are three basic processes that all readers go through during the reading of a text, which are decoding, comprehension, and attention (Samuels 2007; Tracey & Morrow, 2012). Interestingly, the last one, attention, refers to how much focus and energy readers give to a text when they process the information for comprehension. The more attention one gives to decoding, the less attention one gives to comprehension. Therefore, Samuels (1974) designed a repeated reading strategy based on the automaticity theory. The repeated reading strategy helps students in reducing the capacity for attention and cognition given to decoding a text. Accordingly, the capacity allocated for attention and cognition for higher level processes, such as reading comprehension, will be increased. Fig 1 represents the role of automaticity theory in the working memory of both fluent and less fluent readers.



Figure 1: The role of automaticity theory in working memory of both fluent and less fluent readers (Adams 2012)

LaBerge and Samuels (1974) theory of automaticity is a bottom-up serial stage model of reading. This means that readers should master the lower level processes to reach to the higher level processes. To certify that, LaBerge and Samuels (1974) believed that teachers should ensure that students recognise all the letters in the early stage of reading through repeated reading. Then, the students can focus on the sounds that the letters make, which are developed later at the blending stage. Teachers can use repeated reading, readers theatre, paired reading, choral reading, modeling reading and assisted reading by recorded audio texts approaches in teaching reading fluency. Significantly, the roles of drilling, repetition, and error correction are vital in the previous approaches. In fact, the key to all these approaches is practice, which improves the speed of reading.

Evidently, the automaticity theory helps to find those who have problems in reading speed (Pikulski & Chard 2005). The automaticity theory does not believe that readers have a deficit in memory. It is about a lack of attention given to texts. To fix this issue of lacking attention, the automaticity theory promotes using easier texts as a remedy with students, which would help them develop their automatic reading (Samuels 1979). Moreover, Samuels recommended that teachers should use a rubric to evaluate students' reading progress. Using self-assessment and peer assessment techniques is also endorsed by this theory to help students discovering their own strengths and weaknesses.

Similar to the previous theories mentioned, this theory has received negative criticism due to the insufficient explanation. For instance, this theory does not shed light or explain how prosody, a significant component of oral reading fluency (Samuels 2007), can be improved. Therefore, it is criticised for neglecting prosody. Also, though this theory encourages teachers to use easier texts with struggling readers, it does not discuss the readability and the suitability of texts for certain levels. Finally, since this method relies on practice and drilling, therefore, it takes a lot of class time to ensure students' success. However, usually teachers are tied to the course syllabus to deliver on time. Therefore, it is not practical for many teachers.

#### D. Ehri and McCormick Word Learning Theory

Ehri (1995) word learning theory is another widely recognised theory in the field of reading fluency. Her theory presents the reading stages that students go through to achieve reading fluency. Ehri (1995) identified four stages for the development of reading words, which are pre-alphabetic (preschool), partial-alphabetic (kindergarten), full-alphabetic (first grade), and consolidated-alphabetic (second grade). However, later Ehri and McCormick (1998) identified one more phase, which is automatic-alphabetic (beyond second grade). Each of these stages has its own characteristics, which are used to develop instructional implications for students to read words fluently. They guide teachers in their reading instructions and inform their practices. For example, in the pre-alphabetic phase, the teacher has to focus on letter recognition and phonics awareness. In the partial-alphabetic stage, the teacher should model to students how to blend sounds in words. In the third phase, full-alphabetic, students re-read the text multiple times and practice pronouncing various sounds to encode them. Clearly, the first three phases focus on building knowledge of letters, sounds, graphemes, phonemes, and phonics. Concerning reading-aloud strategies, they are used more in the consolidated-alphabetic phase to move students to the advanced stage. It is worth noting that during the automatic-alphabetic phase, students develop automaticity and speed in reading familiar and unfamiliar words (Ehri 2005).

Ehri (2002) and Ehri and McCormick (1998) highlighted different aspects of reading fluency. For example, concerning reading instruction, they promoted using various reading methods that provide precise instructions that suit each student's level such as assisted reading, modeled reading and repeated reading approaches (Pikulski & Chard 2005). The reading instructions must also encourage continuous reading practice to increase students' knowledge of alphabets and sight/high-frequency words. For the assessment of oral reading fluency, Ehri (2002) believed that students should be assessed regularly by observing and giving them the support they need to move from one stage to another (Ehri 2002; Pikulski & Chard 2005). Furthermore, considering that factors that can affect students' progress in oral reading fluency, Ehri pointed out that having knowledgeable teachers is critical to build a strong foundation of literacy skills. Students, who have problems moving from one stage to another, need knowledgeable teachers, who can support the success of building and developing their reading skills. Ehri also claimed that classroom environment with

printed words is significant to improve students' vocabulary knowledge (Cardoso-Martins, Rodrigues & Ehri 2003). Truthfully, Ehri (2002) has made a considerable contribution to the reading field. A plethora of research has considered her theory in their research because they believe that Ehri's reading theory represents a comprehensive coherence framework for teaching how to read effortlessly and fluently (Lahmann, Steinkrauss & Schmid 2017; Pikulski & Chard 2005; Rasinski 2014).

### III. ORAL READING FLUENCY STRATEGIES

The following sections provide a brief description of some of the highly effective reading strategies that involved the reading-aloud approach used in different classroom levels and showed a positive impact on students' oral reading fluency.

#### A. *Repeated Reading*

There has been widespread agreement that the repeated reading approach is the most frequent method used to develop and improve students' reading fluency (Al-Kharusi 2014; Berg & Lyke 2012; Rasinski 2014; Rubin 2016; Samuels 1979). In fact, studies on oral reading fluency are dominated by research on repeated reading. It is found to be highly effective as it is promoted by many scholars and popular educators in the reading fluency field such as Rasinski (2014) and Samuels (1979). The essence behind this technique is that it increases accuracy, word recognition (sight words), and speed (Samuels 1979). However, this strategy cannot be used with first graders, who have not yet developed knowledge of the alphabet and sounds fully (Ehri 2002; Pikulski & Chard 2005).

#### B. *Reading Practice*

It is well known that practice makes perfect, and, therefore, the more someone reads, the better reader he/she will become (Rasinski 2014). Reading practice is not about practicing reading the same text as in repeated reading. It is about reading more variety of texts. Therefore, teachers need to encourage students to read not only in school, but also after school (Wallot, Van Rooij & Hollis 2013). Repeated reading is essential to those, who have difficulties in fluency, but for others allowing them to practice reading different texts is significant not only for students' fluency, but also for their knowledge (Rasinski 2009; DiSalle & Rasinski 2017).

#### C. *Modeling*

Plenty of studies have found that modeling is a vital approach to improve students' fluency (Calo, Woolard-Ferguson, & Koitz 2013; Rasinski 2009). Students might not recognise what it means to be fluent readers. They think that reading fluently means to read rapidly, which is not right because reading speed indicates only the automaticity (Rasinski 2014). Therefore, students need to listen to a fluent, expressive reading by fluent readers. This method increases students' phonological awareness and helps them to understand the meaning of texts (Berg & Lyke 2012).

#### D. *Assisted Reading*

Research into fluency has proved that assisted reading improves students' oral reading fluency (Rasinski & Padak 2000). In this strategy, the reader gets an opportunity to read a text while listening simultaneously to a fluent reading of the same text (Meeks & Austin 2003). This method helps the readers to decode words successfully, which later helps them in word recognition and automaticity. Also, assisted reading presents to the reader how to read with expression. This strategy can be validated in different forms. For instance, the teacher reads to the whole class. Pre-recorded or audio texts can also be used in which students read a text while listening to them. Another form is that a fluent partner (who is also called a reading coach) reads to students inside and outside the classroom (Rasinski & Padak 2000). Teachers can implement this strategy with the entire class or with specific students who are non-fluent readers.

#### E. *Rhyming Poetry*

Rasinski et al. (2016) suggested the rhyming poetry strategy for improving students' oral reading fluency through enhancing their phonological awareness. In fact, poetry has been found to be effective for developing students' phonics through learning about common orthographic patterns, word families, and phonograms. Integrating a rhyming poetry approach in the classroom motivates students to learn and explore the language in a relaxed, joyful way (Flores-Saldana 2016). Similarly, reading song lyrics is a powerful method to increase and enhance students' phonological awareness (Patel & Laud 2007).

#### F. *Readers Theatre*

Black (2016) and Young and Rasinski (2009) emphasised another approach called the "reading theatre or readers theatre approach" to improve students' reading fluency. In this activity, students read a particular script or scenario, poem or play, many times to act it out in front of an audience. Students can rehearse independently or with the guidance of teachers, who model the reading to students until they are able to perform fluently and expressively. Usually, this activity is performed by two or more students. It can be formal or informal. Remarkably, the reading theatre approach involved repeated reading, modeling, and practice which help students in achieving oral reading fluency (Black 2016; Faatz 2009; Sovitsky 2009).

### G. Choral Reading

Choral reading is also called unison reading. During the implementation of this strategy, the teacher expressively reads aloud a short text, poem or speech to the students and they have to follow the text that the teacher reads. Subsequently, a group of three or more students read in unison the text assigned by the teacher (Moskal & Blachowicz 2006; Rowen et al. 2015). Also, the entire class can participate in the activity and read along with or without the teacher. This “reading along” procedure has been shown to increase students’ confidence and enjoyment in reading because it reduces their shyness and panic of making mistakes when they read aloud independently. Furthermore, it helps students feel successful as readers (Rowen et al. 2015). Notably, this method involves modeling, practice, and repeated reading.

### H. Paired Reading

Paired reading is a simple research-based reading strategy that is used to boost reading fluency and accuracy at different grades (Padak & Rasinski 2008). It is also called a partner reading approach. Every student benefits from this strategy, not only struggling readers or those diagnosed with dyslexia (Schneider 2007; Topping 2014). The paired reading approach is used to improve students’ listening and speaking skills, as well as, their motivation to read (Padak & Rasinski 2008; Topping 2014). Students work together independently under the supervision of teachers. In this strategy, two students read aloud to each other a sentence, or a paragraph, which depends on both text and students’ levels. Usually, one of the students is less fluent or less confident in reading aloud alone than his/her partner. It is no surprise that the paired reading strategy is an ideal way to increase students’ confidence and self-esteem (Berg & Lyke 2012).

## IV. ORAL READING FLUENCY ASSESSMENT

It is important to measure fluency in a reliable way that helps examiners, teachers, and practitioners to easily distinguish between fluent and non-fluent readers (Rasinski 2004; Tindal et al. 2016). A comprehensive reading programme should integrate reading assessments that measure students’ skills at the beginning, throughout, and at the end of the reading programme. The importance behind assessing students’ oral reading fluency is to help teachers to determine the fluency instruction that works best for students’ needs and abilities. Also, assessing students informs teachers and directs them to make new decisions about creating, modifying or integrating new fluency approaches to stimulate students’ interests and motivation to read. Additionally, reading assessments provide teachers with information about the skills that students have and have not achieved. The assessments inform teachers about the students’ levels too. Teachers, then, can monitor students’ progress and performance and move them to the next level. Accordingly, the assessment of oral reading fluency should start early during the academic year through the teacher’s observation.

There are three fundamental aspects of oral reading fluency that need to be assessed; accuracy, automaticity, and prosody. The assessment of fluency should reflect the previous aspects, which also includes assessing; (1) numbers of syllables, (2) speech rate, (3) mean length of runs, (4) the frequency of silent and filled pauses, (5) tone in reading, (6) smooth delivery of phrases, (7) communicating meaning through speeding up or slowing down, and finally (8) pace of reading (Al-Kharusi 2014; Rubin 2016). In fact, due to those multiple aspects of fluency, the assessment of oral reading fluency has been neglected, in particular, the assessment of prosody (Rasinski 2004; Samuels 2007; Tindal et al. 2016).

There are various tools and tests available to measure oral reading fluency. Those tools have almost the same procedure for evaluating students’ oral reading performance. Students have to read aloud a passage or a list of words over a period of time. Based on the consulted literature (Thornblad & Christ 2014), the most popular and widely used assessments in the literature are Curriculum-Based Measurements (CBMs) and Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBLES). However, observations, field notes, and rubrics are important tools to assess students. The following sections discuss the previous tools.

CBM is a set of tests for measuring students’ academic skills in math, reading, writing, and spelling. Based on research, it has good reliability and validity (Thornblad & Christ 2014). CBM in reading has two types of measures that are drawn from the curriculum. For the first measure, which is called the maze task, students read a passage aloud or silently for three minutes. The students have to select one of three words to replace the missing word so that it restores meaning to the text (Cummings, Park & Schaper 2013). Basically, it is used to measure understanding and comprehension. In the second type, students read a passage aloud for one minute. The number of correct words is used as the index for CBM passage reading. This task is easy to administer and score, which is known as oral reading fluency or ORF. It is conducted at regular intervals and started from first grade through eighth grade (Thornblad & Christ 2014).

DIBLES is designed to measure students’ acquisition of early literacy skills (Dewey et al. 2015). It is designed based on curriculum measurement too. It evaluates students’ progress and provides feedback on the best instructional objectives and outcomes to speed up and enhance students’ development (Dewey et al. 2015; Samuels 2007). DIBLES Oral Reading Fluency (ORF) is a standardized test that is developed by the University of Oregon and that measures students’ accuracy, speed, and automaticity. It is administered to students individually starting mid-first grade through sixth grade (Cummings, Park & Schaper 2013). It has specific criteria to evaluate students. It also has a risk levels chart that illustrates the number of words that students need to read for one minute by the end of each grade. It is worth mentioning that this test is administered three times in a year; autumn, winter, and spring. For this reason, it takes up a

large amount of the classroom time, six-minutes per student, which teachers find to be overwhelming (Rasinski 2009; Rasinski 2004; Rasinski & Padak 2005).

DIBELS ORF is almost identical to the CBM ORF. There is no significant difference between them. In those two assessments, Reading Assessment Passages (RAPs) are being used which are field-tested and validated (Hudson, Lane & Pullen 2005). RAPs are designed based on the curriculum measurement to assist the teachers in their instructional strategies and monitor the student's development and performance. Both CBM ORF and DIBELS ORF measure five areas; initial sound fluency, letter naming fluency, phoneme segmentation fluency, nonsense word fluency, and oral reading fluency (Dewey et al. 2015; Samuels 2007). The score of those oral reading fluency assessments, which are a one-minute timed reading of a text is called Words-Correct Per-Minute (WCPM). The WCPM score is compared to certain norms and benchmarks to determine the student's level if it is, for example, above the benchmark, at the expected benchmark, below the benchmark, or significantly below the benchmark (Rasinski & Padak 2005).

Observations, field notes, and rubrics are recommended to employ before using the previous assessments to assess oral reading fluency (Rasinski 2004). There is very little doubt that the teacher's observation is the first main resource to measure students' fluency. It helps teachers to assess students' progress early. Before starting any formal assessments, the teachers can diagnose students informally by observing them during class time. Teachers can observe students' speed, pauses, mispronounced words, and expression. Furthermore, taking notes is not less important than observation (Rasinski 2004). After observing students, teachers might take notes on students' performance and keep them to monitor their progress over a year. In relation to using a rubric, many educators recommended using it to assess students' oral reading fluency, particularly prosody (Rasinski, Rikli, & Johnston 2009). Prosody is associated with readers' understanding of texts. Using a guided rubric that includes evaluation of a reader's voice; rise and fall, expression, and phrasing words in the text is important. Significantly, Rasinski, Rikli, and Johnston (2009) developed fluency scales to determine students' fluency including prosody. The Multidimensional Fluency scale incorporates smoothness, phrasing, and pace to measure students' prosodic reading.

#### V. FACTORS AFFECTING ORAL READING FLUENCY

It is well established that studying the factors that affect students' oral reading fluency and their academic reading achievement level is important in order to take action and do something about those factors to help students maximise their reading competencies and skills. However, there are some factors that can be controlled, and other complex factors that cannot be handled by the school, such as the socioeconomic status of the students, ethnicity, gender, and physical disabilities (Hermosa 2002; Limbrick, Madelaine, & Wheldall 2011; Van Dijk 2018). The following sections highlight the studies which illustrate, reveal and expose some of these factors.

Van Dijk (2018) investigated the influence of students' characteristics on early elementary oral reading fluency including grades one, two and three. It was found that the students' characteristics such as gender and their basic foundation of English skills can affect their oral reading fluency. For gender, the results presented that girls performed better than boys in the ORF test. Also, the students with a good foundation of phonics awareness and word recognition performed better than those, who did not receive a good basis of English literacy skills. This finding is pointed by Rasinski (2014) and Ehri (2002) as discussed earlier in theories.

The role of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to read and students' attitude towards reading-aloud were another factors reported by Rowen et al. (2015). Usually, students are driven by their extrinsic motivation in which they focus on the grades they need to get. However, students' intrinsic motivation is the most important for them. Therefore, teachers should address students' intrinsic motivation by providing them with a wide range of different texts such as poetry, novels, plays and short stories that would engage and attract their attention and interest. Needless to say that information processing model emphasises on using a wide range of genre to stimulate students' interest.

Cummings, Park, and Schaper (2013) believed that passage effect (level of difficulty) is an important factor that can affect students' oral reading fluency. Their study suggested that the passages should be developed to match students' capabilities and levels. Similarly, Wallot, Van Rooij and Hollis (2013) recommended in their study that the level of a text should be taken into consideration during the assessment of students' reading fluency. It is unfair to use hard text, particularly during students' assessment. Moreover, the genre should be considered during the assessment.

A case study with a few participants, only four, was conducted by Devaney, Foord, and Anne (2012) to investigate the factors that affected four high school English second language learners' (ESL) reading fluency. It was indicated that the students' motivation to read, their anxiety about making mistakes and their peers' comments when the students read in the classroom had an effect on the students' performance. Therefore, the researchers recommended that teachers should motivate the students to read and support them by creating a positive classroom environment and building rapport among students so no one in the class would be afraid of making mistakes. A similar interesting study has been conducted by Tysinger, Tysinger, and Diamanduros (2010). They examined the relationship between social anxiety and students' performance in reading fluency and comprehension. Though it was found that anxiety affected students' reading fluency in Devaney, Foord, and Anne (2012) study, in contrast, Tysinger, Tysinger, and Diamanduros (2010) found that anxiety did not affect students' reading fluency, but it affected students' comprehension. Furthermore, there is a study more recent than the previous two studies about the impact of anxiety, but on the oral narrative speech of students in Iran (Sanaei, Zafarghandi & Sabet 2015). Interestingly, this study revealed the same findings as the Devaney,

Foord, and Anne (2012) study. The findings illustrated that classmates commenting on students' oral reading could affect their oral fluency, though the findings were not that significant.

More uncontrolled factors were proposed by Duursma, Augustyn, and Zuckerman (2008). They believed that parental education, students' socioeconomic status, and ethnicity had a great impact on literacy skills including oral reading and speaking skills. Also, the authors highly emphasised the role of parents at home with their children. Students, whose parents read to them at home, seemed to be more fluent. Also, the role of the home environment in which parents encourage their children to read and retell the stories had a positive impact on students' reading-aloud performance. Similarly, Geske and Ozola (2008) investigated the reasons behind the low level of reading literacy among primary school students in fourth grade. They found the same results as in the Duursma, Augustyn, and Zuckerman (2008) research. It is important for parents to read aloud to their children to help them read fluently and comprehend texts easily.

The final study, which was conducted seventeen years ago, identified multiple factors that can affect learner reading which were reported in the above studies (Hermosa 2002). These factors emerge from two main domains, which are psychosocial development (motivation to read, reading interest, readability, reading readiness, emotional problems and family issues), physical and physiological development (mostly health problems: hunger, illness and malnutrition, visual and hearing problems). It is understandable that students with health problems are likely to have academic problems. Thus, more current research studies (Cummings, Park & Schaper 2013; Piper & Zuilkowski 2016; Wallot, Van Rooij & Hollis 2013) tried to understand why many young and adult learners with good health still have some difficulties in reading.

## VI. CONCLUSION

Collectively, the previous studies have outlined and provided different reading-aloud strategies, assessment methods and factors influencing oral reading fluency. With respect to all the reviewed research, it is imperative to note the context and sample size which can affect the outcomes of a study (Creswell 2005). Moreover, the majority of the consulted studies investigated one or two reading-aloud strategies and in most cases used one assessment method. A few studies focused on the factors. For these reasons, further research should address the previous gaps, which would give more insight into this issue.

This study set out to identify the theories underpinning oral reading strategies and the gap in research so far conducted on oral reading fluency. In fact, the findings helped to identify how oral reading fluency should be addressed in any reading program. The conclusion which can be drawn from the present study is that oral reading fluency is a significant skill and component of reading, which should be integrated into any English reading program. The outcomes of this humble research have important implications for building the foundation for teaching and assessing reading fluency in consideration of the factors that have been highlighted.

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# A Comparison of Entertain Strategies Used in English and Chinese Scientific Research Articles

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**Abstract**—Based on the engagement system of appraisal theory, this study made a comparative study of entertain strategies between English and Chinese scientific research articles. This study aimed to address the following two questions: (1) What are the similarities and differences of semantic resources expressing the meaning of entertain between English and Chinese scientific research articles? (2) Is there any quantitative difference in the entertain between English and Chinese scientific research articles? 30 English scientific research articles and 30 Chinese scientific research articles were compared from the qualitative and the quantitative perspectives. This article only focused on Result & Discussion section of English and Chinese scientific research articles. The results showed that English and Chinese scientific research articles generally use the similar semantic resources to express entertain meaning. As for the quantitative use, the frequency of entertain in English scientific research articles were significantly different from that in Chinese scientific research articles. This study may provide a new perspective for the comparative study of English and Chinese scientific discourses. These findings may also provide some pedagogical implications, especially for the teaching and learning of English academic writing.

**Index Terms**—appraisal theory, engagement system, entertain, scientific research articles

## I. INTRODUCTION

Academic writing aims not only to represent the external reality, but also to engage with readers to challenge established knowledge and validate new claims (Xu & Nesi, 2019). As a formal academic writing, scientific research articles not only convey the objective scientific truth, but also have the important rhetorical function (Latour & Woolgar, 1979; Bazerman, 1988). In order to realize the rhetorical function, many strategies are employed in scientific articles, such as grammatical metaphor (Yu, 2006; Livnat, 2010), hedges (Lewin, 2005; Hidalgo-Downing, 2017), Thematic Progression (Yu, 2002; Ye & Wang, 2004), cohesive devices (Ji & Guo, 2017; He & Wang, 2018) and so on. In recent years, some researchers also pay attention to the appraisal resources used in scientific research articles (Xu, 2009; Yan & Xu, 2011; Yang, 2019). Appraisal is one of the discourse semantic resources construing interpersonal meaning, which is regionalized as three interacting domains — “attitude”, “engagement” and “graduation” (Martin & White, 2005). The most important function of appraisal is to construct relations of alignment and rapport between the writer/speaker and the actual or potential respondents, which is most obviously embodied by engagement system (Liu, 2010). As Xu et al. (2010) pointed out that scientific claims usually have a certain timeliness, so many viewpoints in scientific research articles must show their scope of application and thus avoid absolute assertions. Therefore, the nature and characteristics of scientific research articles determine the wide application of appraisal devices. Yang (2019) made a contrastive study of engagement resources between English and Chinese research articles, and found out that engagement resources are distributed unevenly both in each part of English and Chinese scientific research articles and that the types of engagement resources are used in different frequencies both in English and Chinese scientific research articles. Among these engagement resources, entertain devices are most frequently used both in English and Chinese scientific research articles.

The above studies concerned appraisal system only discuss the overall appraisal devices used in scientific research articles and do not deeply explore one subsystem and give a detailed explanation of it. In view of this, the current study focuses on the subsystem of engagement-entertain and makes a detailed comparative study of entertain devices used in English and Chinese scientific research articles. Besides, this article only focuses on Result & Discussion section of English and Chinese scientific research articles. The entertain devices of engagement system within Appraisal Theory (Martin & White, 2005) with a minor revision is used in this study, in the hope of improving the Appraisal Theory itself and giving some guide to the teaching of English academic writing. This study is concerned with the following two questions: (1) What are the similarities and differences of semantic resources expressing the meaning of entertain between English and Chinese scientific research articles? (2) Is there any quantitative difference in the entertain between English and Chinese scientific research articles?

## II. THEORETICAL: ENTERTAIN OF ENGAGEMENT DOMAIN WITHIN APPRAISAL THEORY

Systemic Functional Linguistics believes that all languages have three meta-functions at the same time, namely, interpersonal function, ideational function and textual function. Based on interpersonal function, Martin & White (2005)

established the appraisal theory. Appraisal system is composed of three subsystems — attitude, engagement and graduation.

Among them, engagement was proposed under the influence of Bakhtin's (1986) and Voloshinov's (1995) notions of dialogism and heteroglossia. According to White (2019), engagement is used to describe and explain the various styles or strategies of intersubjective positioning that have been observed operating recurrently within different discourse domains. Specifically, it is concerned with mapping the value relationships between the values and hence with understanding the way different choices of values from the system have different consequences for rhetorical potential, understanding the rhetorical consequences of the interaction of these positioning values with other meanings, most notably with values from the attitude subsystems, and understanding the possible interaction between such values both within utterances and within the text as a whole as meanings accumulate as the text unfolds.

According to Martin & White (2005), the engagement system has two subsystems: monogloss and heterogloss. Monogloss has no acknowledgement for alternative voices while heterogloss acknowledges the existence of alternative positions (Martin & White, 2005). Heteroglossic resources can be further divided into two broad categories according to "whether they are 'dialogically expansive' or 'dialogically contractive' in their intersubjective functionality" (Martin & White, 2005, p.102). Dialogic expansion involves these resources employed by writers/speakers to entertain those alternative voices internally or externally manifested in written/spoken discourse. The dialogic expansion consists of entertain and attribute. Entertain refers to "those wordings by which the authorial voice indicates that its position is but one of a number of possible positions and thereby, to greater or lesser degrees, makes dialogic space for those possibilities" (Martin & White, 2005, p.104).

In scientific research articles, entertain is typically conveyed via modal auxiliaries (*may, could, etc.*), modal adjuncts (*probably, likely, etc.*), or modal attributes (*it's possible that..., it's likely that..., etc.*). It is also realized via mental verb/attribute projections (*we/author think, it is assumed that..., etc.*). Entertain in scientific articles also includes evidence/appearance-based postulations (*it appears, the research suggests..., etc.*). For example:

- (1) This bears a significant physical meaning that might hold the key to the answer to the longstanding puzzle...
- (2) ... which are assumed to be associated with the way in which the thiol binding group attaches to the surface.
- (3) 从表 5 可以看出 CMCSEN 所得到的秩和平均数最小, Single 最大。  
(It can be seen from the Table 5 that CMCSEN...)
- (4) 从图 3 可以看到, 对于固定带宽的抽运光, 随着信号光脉冲宽度的减小, 解析解与数值解的偏离加大。  
(It can be seen from the Figure 3 that...)

Xu (2015) proposed that modality of high probability such as *must* should be regarded as "pronounce" rather than "entertain". When *must* expresses deontic modality or epistemic modality, the semantic meaning can be explained as "it is necessary for..." or "it is necessary that...", which reject the different opinions and contract the dialogic space. For instance, "we must regard..." should not be identified as "entertain" since it contracts the dialogic space rather than expand it. However, in some cases, "must" is used to express a personal opinion and can be seen as a kind of speculation, which should be identified as "entertain". So in this study, Xu's opinion is partly adopted and *must* is identified according to the specific co-text and context.

It also should be noted that *can* is identified as entertain value only when it functions as deontic or epistemic modalities. In example (5), the word *can* is inscribed as entertain as it functions as epistemic modality that manages the probabilities of the current proposition. But in example (6), the word *can* is not an entertain value since it merely describes some abilities.

- (5) The result of this is that the system as studied here can be interpreted as two decoupled resistors ...
- (6) .... with this kind of tool, the collection procedure can work well.

### III. METHODOLOGY

#### A. Data Collection

According to the statistical analysis data of Journal Citation Reports (JCR) on Web of Science (SCI), the research articles (review articles are not included) produced by universities or research institutions in the United States and the United Kingdom published during 2010-2014 by the engineering journals with the highest impact factors in the following five fields—electrical & electronic engineering, mechanical engineering, computer science & application, optics and telecommunications are selected. In each field, 20 papers are randomly selected, and a total of 100 papers are selected to build the English scientific research article corpus, or English Scientific Corpus (ESC) for short.

For the selection of Chinese corpus, in order to correspond with the fields of ESC, the top journals in the above five fields are selected respectively. In the same way, the research articles (review articles are not included) of Chinese authors published in these journals in the five years of 2010-2014 are collected. 20 articles are selected from each journal to form a corpus of 100 Chinese scientific research articles, which is called Chinese Scientific Corpus (CSC) for short.

In view of the comparability, discipline and genre characteristics of corpus selection (Connor & Moreno, 2005), this study limits the subject matter and length of the selected corpus: in terms of subject matter, both English and Chinese corpora are selected from the five fields of electrical & electronic engineering, mechanical engineering, computer

science & application, optics and telecommunications, and the themes of English and Chinese articles are similar; in terms of length, each article is limited to 4000-6000 words (the body part). This study only analyzes the Results & Discussion section. After the establishment of the corpora, 60 articles with the requested structure and length are selected from the English and Chinese Scientific Corpora for quantitative and qualitative analysis.

In addition, in order to ensure the validity of the results, this study strictly controls the selection of articles and ensure that the collected articles are really written by authors that are native speakers of Chinese or English. This study judges it according to the authors' self-introduction, name, and organization. Therefore, the data in this study are representative.

TABLE I.  
THE ENGLISH AND CHINESE SCIENTIFIC CORPORA

	<i>English Corpus (words)</i>	<i>Chinese Corpus (words)</i>
Results & Discussion	41746	39251

Table I shows the make-up of the two corpora. The reason why only the Result & Discussion sections of English and Chinese scientific research articles are studied is that according to the previous studies (Yang, 2019), due to the specific rhetorical function of Result & Discussion section, engagement resources especially entertain are most frequently used in this section among the whole article. Therefore, it is necessary to have a detailed study of entertain device in Result & Discussion section.

### B. Data Analysis

The entertain resource of this study were annotated according to Martin & White's Appraisal Theory (2005). At the same time, the context was also considered when identifying the entertain resource, since context is an important element which should be taken into account when examining appraisal expressions in the text because a word may have multiple meanings in different contexts (Martin & Rose, 2003). Considering the fact that evaluation values are at the semantic level which the computer can hardly handle exactly, the author identified and marked the entertain resource manually.

To minimize the level of subjective judgements and inconsistency, the data were annotated three times within three months. After the annotation, the author discussed the doubt with the professors in this field and made sure that each one was correctly identified.

In this study, the author analyzed entertain resource in 60 selected English and Chinese scientific research articles. The entertain devices were counted and calculated for the frequencies. Based on the calculated frequencies, data were processed in quantitative uses. Independent-sample t-tests by SPSS were applied to compare English and Chinese scientific research articles to see whether there would be significant differences in frequency between English and Chinese scientific research articles.

## IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### A. Similarities and Differences of Semantic Resources Expressing the Meaning of Entertain between English and Chinese Scientific Research Articles

TABLE II.  
ENTERTAIN ITEMS IN THE TWO CORPORA

<i>English Corpus</i>	<i>Chinese Corpus</i>
may	从图/表可以发现...
might	(it can be found from...)
can	从图/表可以看出...
could	(it can be seen from...)
would	被认为...
perhaps	(is believed that...)
likely/unlikely	可以认为...
probably/possibly	(we believe that...)
appear	由...可知...
seem	(we can know... from...)
it's possible/probable that ...	应特别注意...
is assumed to be/that...	(it should be noted that...)
is believed to be/that...	可能
is considered to be/as...	(may /perhaps, etc.)
is supposed to be...	
the results suggest that...	
it should be noted that...	

Table II shows the main semantic resources expressing the meaning of entertain in English and Chinese scientific research articles. In scientific research articles, entertain devices are often used by authors to show the respect for the readers as well as used for the negotiation between authors and readers. It is a kind of device that helps the authors to influence the readers' judgement and eventually persuade the readers to accept the viewpoints in the articles.

In English scientific research articles, the most frequently used semantic resources that express entertain meaning are modality. A large number of modal auxiliaries, modal adjuncts and modal attributes are used to make the discourse be dialogic and interactive. For example,

(7) Hence, the bright spots in the dark area of the SEM graphs may originate from this topography being transposed in the oxide underneath, or from some Cr residues.

(8) The results shown here indicate that when a molecule is left to self-assemble it is more likely to display one of the lower resistance groups although further experiments...

(9) Thus, it is possible to compare the damping injection for each controller in relation to the uncontrolled case.

Besides, formulations like “we/author(s)+mental process” and “it is assumed/believed” are used by authors to show that they allow for other possible points and thus expand the interpersonal space for negotiation of different views. And some evidence/appearance-based postulations like “it appears that...” also can open up the dialogistic space and persuade the readers to accept the authors’ viewpoints. For example,

(10) We believe that a good post-fault voltage regulation is accomplished by the strategies, confirming the correct value of the load angle reference...

(11) It appears that heating rates affected the heat flow rates of the coal samples studied.

(12) However it should be noted that a higher bsfc reduction has been observed at 1300 rpm engine speed estimated at ~8–8.5%.

In Chinese scientific research articles, the most frequently used semantic resources expressing entertain meaning are auxiliary verb in Chinese, such as “可以(can)”, “应该(should)”. Authors used this kind of expressions to weaken the subjectivity and make the discussion more objective and reasonable. For example,

(13) ...那么比较图 4 和图 5 即可得如 6 所示的解调相位的绝对误差。

(...then compare Fig. 4 and Fig. 5, we can obtain the absolute error of demodulation phase as shown in Fig. 6.)

(14) 不论是哪种情况下, 原先的 EPLR 公式都应做一定的修正。

(In either case, the original EPLR formula should be modified.)

Comparing the semantic resources expressing entertain meaning in English and Chinese scientific research articles, we can find that English scientific research articles use more kinds of semantic resources than Chinese ones. Specifically, in English scientific research articles, more kinds of modality are used while in Chinese ones, it is mostly realized by volitive auxiliary. Therefore, compared with the Chinese scientific research articles, English ones have more choice and used more abundant semantic resources with a more flexible way to open up the dialogic space and make the articles more objective and reasonable.

Another difference is that in English scientific research articles, authors sometimes combine two kinds of entertain resources to enhance the rhetorical effect, such as “would + seem” and “may + probably”. However, in Chinese scientific research articles, this phenomenon seldom occurs.

However, there is the similarity in English and Chinese scientific research articles in terms of the effect of entertain strategies. Both of them are used to help the authors to persuade the readers to accept their viewpoints in a more objective and reasonable way.

In a word, both English and Chinese scientific research articles are more likely to employ modality to realize the function of persuasion in Result & Discussion section.

### B. Quantitative Differences in the Entertain between English and Chinese Scientific Research Articles

As shown in Table III, the frequency of entertain in English and Chinese scientific research articles were significantly different ( $t [58] = 6.611, p < .05$ ). This means that there were significantly different quantitative uses of entertain between English and Chinese scientific research articles. To be specific, entertain was employed more frequently in English scientific research articles than in Chinese scientific research articles. It can also be proved by the means of entertain in English and Chinese scientific research articles (19.40 vs. 8.07).

TABLE III.  
ENTERTAIN IN ENGLISH AND CHINESE SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH ARTICLES, AND THEIR DIFFERENCES IN FREQUENCY

	English articles (N=30)		Chinese articles (N=30)		Differences	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	T (df=58)	P
Entertain	19.40	8.011	8.07	4.899	6.611	0.000

All values are significant at  $p < 0.05$

For scientific articles, “Result & Discussion” is the most important part in the whole article, which is used to present and explain the experiment results, verify the author’s viewpoint, emphasize the new findings and persuade readers to accept the findings and viewpoints. In the process of persuasion, the authors try their best to be rigorous and allow for other voices. In order to avoid subjective assertion, the authors sometimes need to explain and argue from the presumptive, suggestive and suspected perspectives. Therefore, the large amount of entertain devices could make the expression more objective and reliable. It can make the discussion humbler and more sufficient, and thus be more easily to be accepted by readers (Xu et al., 2010).

It can be seen that the mean frequency of entertain resource in Chinese scientific research articles is less than half of

the entertain resource in English scientific research articles (8.07 vs. 19.40). As discussed above, the entertain resource could help the author to persuade the reader in a more objective way. It means that more entertain resources used in English scientific research articles makes it be more objective than the Chinese scientific research articles.

## V. CONCLUSION

In this study, the employment of entertain devices in English and Chinese scientific research articles was investigated from the qualitative and quantitative perspectives. As for the qualitative analysis, this study explored similarities and differences of semantic resources expressing the meaning of entertain between English and Chinese scientific research articles. As for the quantitative uses, it is found that entertain was employed more frequently in English scientific research articles than in Chinese scientific research articles.

The findings of the current study may provide some pedagogical implications, especially for the teaching and learning of English academic writing. As the most important part in research articles, Results & Discussion section use a large number of entertain resources to enhance the objectivity and rationality. According to the different thinking patterns, Westerner and Chinese use different kinds of semantic resources and their amount are also different. When teaching English academic writing, teachers could compare the employment entertain resources in English and Chinese scientific research articles, and teach students to write English articles with the western writing style.

The present study is far from perfect and there is room for improvement since it includes only five fields of scientific research articles and the number of English and Chinese scientific research articles may not be sufficient. It is supposed that a larger scale data may better reflect the whole picture of the employment of entertain in English and Chinese scientific research articles. Therefore, the further studies may establish a bigger database which includes diversified typical and representative English and Chinese scientific research articles.

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# An Analysis of the Characteristics of Chinese Female College Students' English Conversation

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**Abstract**—This article analyzed the characteristics of Chinese female college students' English conversation from the perspective of second language acquisition by using some theories of sociolinguistics and discourse analysis. After analysis, it was found that female students used hedges and intensifiers extensively in second language conversations. Additionally, the participants consciously maintained the face of their peers and made the conversation take place in an atmosphere of equality and solidarity. Through the use of deixis, the conversation was well organized and carried out smoothly. The participants changed their roles, gave and took the floors, and offered new information to prolong the conversation. Although female language had many characteristics, it cannot be fully reflected in this sample conducted in a second language.

**Index Terms**—female language, English conversation, conversation analysis

## I. INTRODUCTION

Female's language has some different characteristics compared to men's because of their physiology and social division of labour. In the last century, many linguists had conducted in-depth research on this. For example, the book *Language and Women's Place* written by Robin Lakoff (1975) is considered a landmark work which systematically describes the characteristics of women's language and the social reasons for the formation. Mulac (1981, 1982, 1985, 1986) and his co-researchers published a series of articles that analyzed "gender-linked language differences" in a quantitative study approach which provided more substantial evidence. Coates (2013) deeply researched the differences between men and women's language. In her work *Women, Men and Language*, she elaborated on the six characteristics of women's language: vocabulary, swearing and taboo language, grammar, literacy, pronunciation and verbosity.

However, most linguists carried out their research from the perspective of mother tongue use, and there were not many studies conducted from the perspective of second language, because the environment and learning purpose of second language were considerably different from those of mother tongue acquisition. Four Chinese female college students (Ting, Yan, Lang & Yi) participated in this study, whose characteristics of English conversation were analyzed with the theories of sociolinguistics and discourse analysis. This study attempted to generalize some characteristics of female conversations in second language, such as the features of using hedges and intensifiers, the organization of conversations through deixis, the change of roles and face-saving strategies.

## II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

### A. Hedges and Intensifiers

The term "hedge" was first proposed by George Lakoff (1973) and defined as a class of words that could make statements "fuzzier or less fuzzy" or reduce the degree of certainty. Hyland (1998) gave hedge a more formal definition which he considered to be linguistic means used to indicate "a lack of complete commitment to the truth value of an accompanying proposition" or "a desire not to express that commitment categorically" (p. 1). There were later different classifications for hedges, but no consensus was reached. For example, Namasaraev (1997) divided the lexical hedges into nine categories as following:

- a) modal auxiliary verb (e.g. will, must, might);
- b) lexical verb (e.g. believe, assume, tend, suggest);
- c) probability adjective (e.g. possible, likely, unlikely);
- d) noun (e.g. assumption, claim, probability);
- e) adverb (e.g. practically, presumably, clearly, probably, maybe);
- f) adverb of frequency (e.g. often, occasionally, generally, usually);
- g) "if" clause;
- h) compound hedges (e.g. seems reasonable, looks probable);
- i) fillers (e.g. you know, you see, by the way, em, uhh).

Similar to the definition of hedge, linguists also differ on the definition of intensifier. The intensifier is also called as

“amplifier” or “booster”. According to Key (1972), females liked to use intensifiers to show their strong emotions. The narrow sense of intensifiers refers to items “whose function is to scale the qualities conveyed by gradable adjectives” (Méndez-Naya, 2003). However, in a broad sense, intensifiers have more forms. Méndez-Naya (2003) listed five kinds of intensifiers:

- a) verb modifier (e.g. I greatly admire his paintings.);
- b) noun modifier (e.g. The play was a terrible success.);
- c) adjective modifier (e.g. The article was extremely interesting.);
- d) adverb modifier (e.g. He was driving very quickly.);
- e) preposition phrase modifier (e.g. He is much in favour of the US attack on Afghanistan.).

#### B. Face Saving

When the conversation cannot be continued for some reasons and the speaker’s face was threatened, such as one party had nothing to say, or did not want to answer the questions, or cannot find a suitable word to express himself, then other participants may try to save the speaker’s face. Brown & Levinson (1987, p.61) proposed their famous “face theory” and argued that there were positive face and negative face in communication. With positive face, participants got the approval of others. Whereas with negative face, participants would not be imposed by others, and their autonomy was kept. Politeness strategies were used to save face. Brown and Levinson put forward three politeness strategies: positive politeness strategy, negative politeness strategy and indirect politeness strategy. Holmes (2013) thought that politeness was “expressing positive concern for others” and it was a “non-imposing distancing behaviour” (p.5). Generally speaking, women were more polite than men (ibid. p.1).

#### C. Deixis

The use of deixis in the language is ubiquitous. Through the switch of deixis, the conversation is going on with turn-takings and all the participants offer or get new information. Deixis means “a word or phrase which directly relates an utterance to a time, place, or person (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 147)”. Similarly, Wortham (1996) defined deixis as “forms like *we*, *here*, *this* and *now*” and they had “referents fixed” in the conversation. There are different ways to classify deixis, for example, Levinson (1983) classified deixis into five categories: person deixis, place deixis, time deixis, discourse deixis and social deixis (pp. 68-94). Among them, person deixis, spatial deixis (place deixis) and temporal deixis (time deixis) were thought to be three major categories (Anderson & Keenan, 1985). The following were some examples:

- a) person deixis (such as I, you, he, she, me, him, them);
- b) place deixis (such as here, there, where, yonder);
- c) time deixis (such as now, then, soon, tomorrow).

#### D. Roles in Conversation

Richards and Schmidt (2010, p. 501) defined the roles in the conversation as “the relationship which people have to each other in an act of communication and which influences the way they speak to each other.” In different situations, one person may take on different roles, superior or inferior, because he may have “a stronger personality (ibid.)” In the conversation, the roles of participants changed constantly, but there was always someone in control of the progress of the conversation.

### III. METHOD

#### A. Participants

The participants were four senior female students majoring in English, aged about 21, who had studied English for 14 years. They were good friends and often talked about their studies and life together. They all had good academic performances and would continue their graduate courses after graduation. Therefore, it can be said that they were typical representatives of Chinese college students. They were at the stage of graduating at that time, all of them were very busy, and some of them just returned to school from other cities. They had not seen each other for some time. After half a semester of internship, they had a deeper understanding of society and were full of hope for their future studies. Ting hosted the conversation for she was more talkative and had more leadership skills. Before recording, they knew the conversation would be used for discourse analysis.

#### B. Recording and Transcription

The conversation was recorded by a cell phone in a dormitory of a regular university in southern China. It was a casual conversation with general and trivial topics. From the analysis, we would know more about Chinese female college students’ life and their talking styles. The recording lasted about 17 minutes, and the voices of all participants in the recording were clear. There was some background noise in the recording, but it did not affect the transcription. Jeffersonian Transcription Notation (see Appendix) was used to mark the conversation and notations would be kept in all examples.



## IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The four participants in the conversation were classmates and knew each other very well. There were no complicated relationships or social hierarchies among them. They carried out this conversation in English. Although their English proficiency limited their expressions, there were still many features worth analyzing from different aspects of the language.

A. *Hedges*

As we had mentioned in the previous part, women were more likely to use hedges. Let us take Ting for example. She led the conversation and added some comments from time to time. Using hedges made her language milder in the mood. Examples 1 to 4 were from Ting's speech:

**Examples 1-4**

1. **Ting:** [Maybe it is a good idea.]
2. **Ting:** May maybe we don't know how to hunt for a [job].
3. **Ting:** Maybe we need to learn how to cooperate with others [and] we need to learn the skills (.) of communicating with others.
4. **Ting:** That's maybe in the future we need to contact with each other frequently, um.

We can find the word "maybe" in every example. In example 1, Ting was just not so sure that if the idea was good. In example 2, Ting assumed that all of them did not know how to find a job. In example 3 and 4, Ting used "maybe" to add uncertainty to her opinions. These "maybes" also showed a kind of modesty and humbleness. On the other hand, by saying "maybe", the addressee can retort the addresser if she/he has different opinions. Hedges consequently prevent the speaker from being attacked for its uncertainty. More examples were from Yan and Lang:

**Examples 5-7**

5. **Yi:** <If you>, if you three have (.) some opportunity↑, please tell me↓. ((*laugh*))
6. **Yan:** So I think, um, to some degree, I think I am really satisfied with my, my college life. How do you, do you, think of your college life?
7. **Lang:** Ok, um, I want to talk about two aspects about my college life. Um, um. The first aspect is my major life, my major, English, um, because it is different from the high school li, high school life. Um, we learnt English from the FOUR parts respectively, the reading, listening, writing and (.) speaking. So I can learn it more comprehensively and professional. Um, <but, I think> my English knowledge is so narrow, not broad, abroad, so, um. The second aspect I want to talk about is, is about my life, um, in the four years. In this four years, I think, the most, the most pitiful is my ability to manage my emotion, because, um, sometimes, I will, I will not be so careful, to, um, pay attention to my, to my ability to communicate with others, so I will, um, from time to time to hurt somebody. Um, so, <THIS IS what I (.) feel pitiful. Yes. That's all.>

In example 5, Yan used a conditional adverbial clause introducing by "if" which weakened her request. In example 6, Yan used the hedges like "I think" and "to some degree" to show her indecisiveness. In example 7, Lang used "um" many times to gain time and "I think" to emphasize what she said was her personal opinion. From those examples, it was found that the girl students were tending to use hedges to show their tender and softness. They wanted to show that they did not impose their views on others or to be dominant in the conversation.

B. *Intensifiers*

Intensifiers are used to strengthen the emotion or feeling. Commonly speaking, girls were more sensitive, as these four girls were going to graduate soon, they would go to different universities to continue their postgraduate studies and separate from each other. Their love for friends and college life was strong, which can be identified by the following examples:

**Examples 8-14**

8. **Lang:** We miss you so much.
9. **Yi:** I miss you very very much.
10. **Yan:** [We are so busy.]
11. **Lang:** [Me too], I real, I real real like it.
12. **Yan:** It's, it's really meaningful. Yes.
13. **Lang:** I think my college life is so valuable.
14. **Lang:** I think, um, this ability for me is s::o weak.

Intensifiers can be found in these examples like: "so much", "very very much", "so busy", "real real like[sic]", "really meaningful", "really so valuable" and "so weak". They also strengthened the effect of intensifiers by using intensifiers repeatedly, such as in example 9 and 11 or prolonging the pronunciation, such as in example 14, Lang prolonged the pronunciation of "so" into "s::o". In addition to expressing strong feelings, these intensifiers also reinforced their agreement with the topics being discussed.

C. *A Talk with Team Spirit*

The four girls were a group of "equality and solidarity". As mentioned before, these four girls were from the same

class, with similar ages and educational background. This conversation was a free talk without any pressure, and they offered suggestions or asked for help freely without feeling being superior or inferior. In this conversation, there was no sentence having a strong imperative tone. They were equal and solidary, and this can be shown in the following examples.

The first evidence was at the beginning of the conversation. It went like this:

**Example 15**

**Ting:** *Hey*↓, guys↑, *how* are you these days?

**Yan:** [Um, fine.]

**Yi:** [Um, fine.]

**Lang:** [Me too.]

**Ting:** Wow, we haven't seen for each other for a long *time*.

Before the talk, the four girls came together as usual. They had not seen each other for a long time. In China, most senior students had no class in the 8<sup>th</sup> semester. They just wrote their graduation essays and did some part-time jobs as interns. In the beginning, Ting asked the other three girls about their life recently, Yan, Yi and Lang all answered her question nearly at the same time. With the informal words like “hey” and “guy”, Ting created a casual atmosphere. The word “guy” and their answers at the same time to some degree indicated their equality and solidarity.

The second evidence was that they helped and comforted each other when someone thought she was not good enough. This was shown in the following example:

**Example 16**

**Yi:** I, I thought my college life is wasted by me.

**Ting:** [Why?]

**Yan:** [Why?] Why do you °think °?

**Ting:** But, I think (.) you have done a *good* job.

**Yi:** Yeah.

**Ting:** Yes.

**Yan:** You have experience.

**Yi:** But, but, I didn't do a lot of ((*background noise*)), I, um, I didn't-.

**Ting:** You MEAN you have wasted *your* (.) *time*.

**Yan:** [Why?]

**Yi:** [Yeah] I, I, I ((*laugh*)) I think I have wasted a lot of my college (.) time. Because I didn't, I haven't found what I am interested in, *really*, um, um, interested in.

**Yan:** [Ok.] Um. You don't have your aims, your goal.

**Yi:** Yeah, so, I, I suggest, um, control, control our time schedule (.) in college life.

In Example 16, the four girls were talking about college life. Yi was leading the talk and felt that she had wasted her college life. Ting and Yan asked her for reasons. Simultaneously, Ting also comforted Yi, thinking that she had “done a good job”, while Yan thought that Yi had gained some “experience”. At this point, Yi suddenly was unable to find a suitable expression to describe the reason why she had wasted her college life. Yi stammered out two “but”s and six “I”s. At this moment, Yan offered her opinion and finally Yi expressed her thoughts: she didn't find anything she was interested in and had no goals. Yan agreed with her. Ting's and Yan's interposition gave Yi some time to buffer. By prompting each other, Yi's embarrassment in the conversation was avoided.

*D. Well Organized Conversation*

Participant role refers to the relation that persons have to each other with regards to their involvement in a speech event. In this conversation, everybody knew clearly about their participant roles by following the deixis. The conversation was carried on smoothly under Ting's guidance. The general structure of the conversation can be seen from six examples extracted from the conversation.

**Example 17**

The following sentences from Ting and Yan were excerpted from different parts of the conversation (in chronological order):

**Ting:** So how about, talking about (.) our college life?

**Ting:** (*speak to Yan*) What did you (.) learn during (.) college life↑?

**Ting:** (*speak to Yi*) Shirley, how about you?

**Yan:** (*speak to Lang*) How about you?

**Ting:** Ok, that sounds good, as for me, I love my *college* life ...

SO. <How *about* your feelings? ↓>

**Ting:** So↑, that's what, that our topic *today*↓.

In the beginning, Ting was not sure about the topic, so she began the conversation by suggesting talking about college life. After a while, Ting asked Yan “What did you learn during college life?” Thus the floor was given to Yan. Later, by asking “Shirley, how about you?” Ting gave the floor to Yi (Shirley). Differently, Lang got the floor from Yan instead of Ting. Perhaps Yan just wanted to help Ting to carry forward the conversation. In the end, Ting took back the floor by saying “as for me”. After everyone had finished, Ting summarized the discussion. The whole structure of

the dialogue was clear. The deixis here in the sentences, such as “our”, “what”, “you”, “me”, “my”, “your” and “our”, made all speakers easily keep their roles in the conversation. For listeners, it was also easy to follow the plot.

#### E. Face Saving

During the conversation, the four girls saved each other’s face by mutual encouragement. These four girls were very familiar with each other, so they tended to use the positive politeness strategy. In this strategy, the listeners may agree with the speaker and cooperated with the speaker to satisfy his wishes. Two examples were in the following:

##### Example 18

**Ting:** So I want to-, um, experience the social life and try my best to hunt for a job.

**Yan:** Yeah

**Ting:** And I learn- more- about the society. And how, what kind of abilities we need (.) in order to survive.

**Yan:** Yes, yes, it is our final goal.

In this example, Yan directly agreed with Ting’s ideas to “experience the social life”, “hunt for a job” and “learn more ability”, and believed that this was their “final goal”. Ting may feel relieved that Yan agreed with her. Ting gained some face from Yan’s positive politeness strategy. This strategy was also adopted in the following example:

##### Example 19

**Yi:** For example, I want to learn (.) swimming.

**Ting:** Yes.

**Yi:** But I failed, I didn’t do it.

**Ting:** Ok. So we still have a long way to go. We can learn more things. But. Yes. So we can (.) just keep, keep going and then try to learn more.

In example 19, Yi expressed the regret that she did not learn to swim in the college, Ting consequently comforted Yi by saying that it did not matter and they still had time as long as they kept going and studied hard. When Yi heard Ting’s comfort, she would feel that her failure can be forgiven. Thus, Yi’s face was saved and her regret of not learning to swim was weakened.

#### V. LIMITATION

This study had the following obvious limitations. First, the conversation was not natural enough. The four students knew that the recording would be used for analysis, so they may worry about the mistakes they made and their privacy may be leaked, which may make them feel nervous. The way to get a natural conversation was to establish a close relationship with the participants, but it needed a long time.

Second, the conversation was not complicated enough for it was carried out among four female students with common topics. Most of the time, they just agreed with each other and did not refute others; they just offered their ideas but seldom commented on other’s ideas. It was better to analyze a conversation between different genders with different positions, for example, boss and employee or teacher and students.

Finally, as we had mentioned before, Coates (2013) held the view that female language was different in vocabulary, swearing and taboo language, grammar, literacy, pronunciation and verbosity. However, these characteristics can only be fully reflected in the conversation of women who were proficient in their mother tongue. Among the second language learners, due to limited language proficiency, only the features of vocabulary and grammar were relatively easy to be identified. Therefore, the other features were not being discussed.

#### VI. CONCLUSION

The four Chinese college female students showed their conversational ability very well in this second language conversation despite many grammatical mistakes and disfluency. After analysis, it was found that some features of second language conversation of Chinese female college students were similar to those of native English speakers. Hedges and intensifiers were used extensively and the indecisiveness and sentiment of the female language were embodied. Chinese college female students also saved faces for others, built a close relationship and integrated themselves into the conversation. In addition, the use of deixis made the role changing and floor switching clear, which kept the conversation well organized. From the analysis of this study, it can be concluded that the conversation of the women who speak English as a second language has certain similarities with the conversation of the women whose mother tongue is English.

#### APPENDIX

The following is retrieved on Dec 20, 2019 from this website:  
<http://pages.ucsd.edu/~johnson/COGS102B/JeffersonianNotation.doc>

## JEFFERSONIAN TRANSCRIPTION NOTATION INCLUDES THE FOLLOWING SYMBOLS:

Symbol	Name	Use
[ text ]	Brackets	Indicates the start and end points of overlapping speech.
=	Equal Sign	Indicates the break and subsequent continuation of a single interrupted utterance.
(# of seconds)	Timed Pause	A number in parentheses indicates the time, in seconds, of a pause in speech.
(.)	Micropause	A brief pause, usually less than 0.2 seconds.
. or ↓	Period or Down Arrow	Indicates falling pitch.
? or ↑	Question Mark or Up Arrow	Indicates rising pitch.
,	Comma	Indicates a temporary rise or fall in intonation.
-	Hyphen	Indicates an abrupt halt or interruption in utterance.
>text<	Greater than / Less than symbols	Indicates that the enclosed speech was delivered more rapidly than usual for the speaker.
<text>	Less than / Greater than symbols	Indicates that the enclosed speech was delivered more slowly than usual for the speaker.
°	Degree symbol	Indicates whisper or reduced volume speech.
ALL CAPS	Capitalized text	Indicates shouted or increased volume speech.
underline	Underlined text	Indicates the speaker is emphasizing or stressing the speech.
:::	Colon(s)	Indicates prolongation of an utterance.
(hhh)		Audible exhalation
? or (.hhh)	High Dot	Audible inhalation
( text )	Parentheses	Speech which is unclear or in doubt in the transcript.
(( italic text ))	Double Parentheses	Annotation of non-verbal activity.

Jeffersonian Transcription Notation is described in G. Jefferson, "Transcription Notation," in J. Atkinson and J. Heritage (eds), *Structures of Social Action*, New York: Cambridge University Press, 1984.

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# Ideology and Textual Analysis Modes in College English Teaching

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**Abstract**—Ideology has been infiltrating into texts. So has Western ideology extended into texts adopted in college English course book in China. As it is known to the world, there are conflicts and contradictions of ideology between China and some Western nations. Therefore, it is vital for English teachers to distinguish derogatory ideas from the Western ideology, disguised under the cover of course book in the course of teaching. The paper, based upon *The Diamond Necklace* written by Guy De Maupassant, a French novelist, and “Unit 1 The Pursuit of Dreams, Deaf DJ” from *New Progressive College English Integrated Course* (Vol.1), is going to exploit the issue of ideology hidden in the texts respectively. The author of the paper puts forward three textual analysis modes to expose the ideologies, i.e. first, plot mode for fictional text; second, thematic mode for non-fictional one; third, qualitative mode for a mixed genre of fictional and non-fictional text. The three modes can be viewed as complementary, which can be used either together or separately depending upon the situation.

**Index Terms**—ideology, college English teaching, textual analysis mode, control

## I. INTRODUCTION

Ideology infiltrates everywhere, so has it been infiltrating into textbooks. (Michael W. Apple, 2004, pp.59-98) And, if the textbook is compiled in a foreign language, according to the independence of language and thought claimed by Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, it will be filled with foreign ideologies, i.e. foreign thoughts or ideas. Faced with the issue of ideology, maybe, someone will immediately refute my opinion, and shrill, “You are too exaggerative; it’s just a teaching medium, nothing political, how could there be ideology in it?” The doubt demonstrates that someone is unknown to ideology, and he is ignoring or denying it. Actually, among some Western nations, such kind of ideological conflicts between social systems have been continuing for more than 150 years since communist theory was formally put forward in *The Communist Manifesto* by Karl Marx (1818-83) and Frederick Engels (1820-95) in 1848. For instance, disintegration of USSR in 1991 and upheaval of Eastern Europe in 1989, are very good cases in point to prove the conflicts still existed up to now. Similarly, ideological conflicts and confronts between communist China and some of capitalist Western nations have been surrounding us anywhere since New China was established in 1949. The two types of ideas are antagonistic; and the West nations have tried exhausting all efforts to subvert China because China and West have antagonistic social institutions and systems. In other words, the fundamental foundations of the two systems are differently oriented. China is for majority of citizens, the other, the West nations, for small minority of society. In order to subvert China like the former USSR or Eastern European nations, Western capitalist ideologies have changed its channels and vehicles into China. They have been exporting and transferring Western cultures, hard or soft ones, into the antagonists. The strategy of cultural export, such as all kinds of cultural products, life styles, political opinions, or high technology, etc., is the first choice for the people are unconscious of the ideological influence. But, the exportation, essentially, is cultural sabotage or invasion against China. They aim to adolescents for they haven’t grown matured enough to possess a pair of critical eyes to distinguish true from wrong. Hence, English textbooks, chosen as sites or battlefields of the conflicts, can’t help but be affected by the ideologies, either. This is self-evident. Even British linguist Paul Simpson has addressed such an idea on it, “In fact, no academic study, and certainly no description of the language of texts, can be neutral and objective, for the sociocultural positioning of the analyst will mean that the description is unavoidably political.”(Paul Simpson, 2005, pp.18) The statements quoted here may explain that the text, adopted by English teachers in China, is also suitable to the case with no exception. That is to say, a text isn’t transparent or neutral but political as well. Though they are only used as materials for teaching and learning, not for political propaganda, they can hardly resist the ideological influence or dominance. The situation agrees with what a saying describes: If one touches pitch and he will be defiled, which means one is unconsciously influenced by what he is frequently exposed to. Therefore, it is hard for English teachers to avoid the ideology influence disseminated by the text, and he will be affected more or less. But, rationally, as a teacher of English in China, we must find the ideology hidden behind text and resist it, and make an ethical evaluation.

Herein, the paper is going to explore the problem. It consists of two parts, one is the summary of theory of ideology

and education from sociological perspective, the other part, based upon the theory, citing *The Diamond Necklace* written by Guy De Maupassant (1850--1893), French novelist, and "Unit 1 The Pursuit of Dreams" from *New Progressive College English Integrated Course (Vol.1)* as an analysis sample,<sup>1</sup> is to focus on the ideology dispersed into texts correspondingly, and explore thematic analysis mode of the text in teaching. By doing so, the author of the paper hopes to shed some light to teachers and students with some kinds of modes to distinguish ideology disguised in the text.

## II. PAST AND PRESENT OF IDEOLOGY STUDIES

Generally, the study of ideology is far more comprehensive and remarkable in the West than in China. The term *ideology* was coined by Destutt de Tracy (1754-1836), the French philosopher, to describe the science of ideas: that is, the discipline that would enable people to recognize their prejudices and biases. (Dani Cavallaro, 2007, pp.75) His theory has been the fountain of ideological studies. Then, it was studied repeatedly in the later by a body of philosophers, such as Rene Descartes (1596-1650), Immanuel Kant (1724 -1804), G. W. Friederich Hegel (1770-1831), Karl Marx (1818-83) and Frederick Engels (1820-95). The giant philosophers mentioned here have examined the theory from all aspects and made divergent interpretations about it. Some stresses its spiritual orientation, others from its material one, someone else from political one; and other focuses on the studies are moral, ethical and scientific, etc. Throughout modern times, philosophers have been interested in the idea all the more, like Georg Lukács (1885-1971), Antonio Gramsci (1891-1937), Louis Althusser (1918-1990) and Jacques Derrida (1930-2004), et al, have pushed forward the studies further. For example, Gramsci's hegemony theory, Althusser's theory of Ideological State Apparatuses (shortened as ISAs); they are accepted as the ground to resolve problems theoretically and practically. Late as it is today, we may boldly claim that Cultural Revolution (1966-1977) in China was affected by the series theories of ideology because they have controlled the soul and mind of the people. As much as all of them have been investigating the issue with diverse orientation, they share one of fundamental concerns with each other: why do average people easily and eagerly accept and internalize the conditions which they know to be disadvantageous to them? Or relatedly put in another way: why do average people end up with investing in their own unhappiness and put up with the oppression because of the marginal pleasures this may bring with it? In seeking to answer the questions, critics and philosophers have proposed various definitions of ideology. The main ones are listed as follows:

- a body of ideas, ideals, values or beliefs;
- a philosophy;
- a religion;
- false values used to keep people under control;
- a set of habits or rituals;
- the medium through which a culture shapes its world;
- ideas promoted by a specific social class, gender or racial group;
- the values that sustain dominant structures of power;
- the process whereby a culture produces meanings and roles for its subjects;
- the alliance of culture and language;
- the presentation of cultural constructs as natural facts.

(Dani Cavallaro, 2007, pp.76)

From the definitions given above, we can understand ideology is multiple-dimensional concept. It reflects the ideas or voices from various classes or groups in society because it can penetrate into aspects of daily life. But, the ruling class always tries to exploit ideology to control other parts of the society; they exhaust all means to legitimate their ideologies to safeguard against other exploited groups, not merely from political dimension but also various ones related with the existing national sovereignty. So, the people who regard ideology as something merely political are one-dimensional, extremely radical and risky.

Frankly, the studies of ideology in China are less influential than the West. To the author's knowledge, there are some fragmentary discussions of it. They are not systematic, loosely dotted in journals and newspapers. And, the understanding or discussion is centralized around the opinions of Karl Marx and Friederich Engels or Vladimir Lenin (1870-1924), the first founder of USSR; to quite a lot of intellectuals' understanding, ideology refers to only political ideology. Probably, this is mainly resulted from the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976) in China, which has brought about at least three folds of effects: first, it had involved a large number of scholars into conflicts of classes, and they were persecuted or tortured; it left incurable scars to them mentally and physically; second, the shadows brought about by the political movement have made the scholars unwilling to set their foot upon ideology, especially political ideology; third, most of intellectuals have mistaken ideology as political since the Revolution.

Based on the survey of ideology studies discussed above, we can arguably get the characteristics as subsequent entries:

1. Of being class or caste, it refers to ideology is the ideas to represent some class or group in society;

1. Ji, Peiyong & Feng, Yu. (co-ed., 2017). *New Progressive College English Integrated Course (Vol.1)*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press. Unit 1 The Pursuit of Dreams is taken from the Vol.1, pp.12-33.

2. With interests, this means ideology can meet the common demands of some classes or groups, or bring about interests to the classes or divisions;
3. Practicality, it refers to ideology derives from practice in reality on one hand, it also means it is guideline to practice for certain class or group;
4. Of being group, it refers to ideology is embodiment of group appeals, individual voices combined together;
5. Penetrability, this refers to ideology can infiltrate aspects of daily life in society to influence average citizens unconsciously.

(Chen Shuya, 2012, pp.32-36)

### III. IDEOLOGY AND ENGLISH TEXTBOOK

There are more in-depth researches focused on ideology and education in West than on ideology and English. Roughly, the study between ideology and education is called Sign Control Theory or Sign Domination Theory, which are embodied by a bunch of scholars or educators related to the studies. (Shi Lina, 2013, pp.25-35) One of them is J. P. Gibbs, British scholar of sociology; he divides social control into five types. He defines “social control” as some part of groups deliberately manipulates others in society by some kinds of mediums. The controllers make full use of national powers and verbal signs to dominate others of the society. The use of verbal sign, i.e. education or cultivation for human beings, essentially functions to dominate the human mind and moral value. Basing on Gibbs, J. Eggleston further divides curriculum and social control into two dimensions: first, a society is the dominator of curriculum; second, a society is controlled by curriculum, which is dominated by ruling classes in a society. Other educators, like Basil Bernstein, Pierre Bourdieu, Raymond Williams, Michael W. Apple, M.F.D. Young, all have contributed to the development of the studies greatly. Bernstein puts forward Code Theory of Education Knowledge; Bourdieu has Culture Capital Theory, Williams’ Selective Tradition, Young’s Theory of Knowledge and Control, and Apple’s Theory of Culture and Politics. The series of theory are sources of ideology and education.

The studies of ideology and language, so far as the author is concerned, Paul Simpson, British linguist, is one of representative scholars on the research. His work, *Language, Ideology and Point of View* (2005), interprets the relationship between ideology and English texts. Based on critical discourse analysis, the book offers all kinds of linguistic modes to distinguish ideology permeated throughout the lines. Combining with discourse analysis, stylistics and cultural studies, he provides readers with insights to understand his thesis. Simpson is comprehensive and analytic.

However, the study in China is just at its initial stage. There are not many scholars who have focused on it, though they mention some relations between ideology and English textbook. We have diverse editions of *Syllabus for English Teaching*,<sup>2</sup> which attach the importance of ideology to text-editing and teaching, to teaching methodology and textbook, text-selected and political background home and abroad, etc. Every level of Education ministry has paid heed to the ideology in English course-books. They have special watchdog committees to censor it in order to reduce Western ideological impacts to the least.

### IV. TEXTUAL ANALYSIS MODE OF IDEOLOGY

#### A. Plot Mode

As we have seen in the fore-explained section, the foreign studies are comprehensive on the ground of ideology and education, for which even have brought about a new discipline, curriculum sociology (the author’s emphasis) to be established for some time. The theories given by them are of great significance and frames of reference for Chinese scholars, who are striving to put them into practice to resolve the issues in English text for Chinese learners. Like the theory of class ideology by Marx and Engels, Gramsci’s hegemony theory, Althusser’s theory of Ideological State Apparatuses (shortened as ISAs), code theory of education knowledge by Bernstein, culture capital theory by Bourdieu, Williams’ selective tradition, Young’s theory of knowledge and control, and Apple’s theory of culture and politics, they are very popular and of guidance in the studies to them. As it is known to the world, there have conflicts of ideologies between China and some Western nations. Moreover, English is a required curriculum for every college student. We should have paid enough attention to English texts, as a kind of cultural capital, to resist Western ideologies to dominate the young generations. So, the following parts, hereafter, are going to discuss textual analysis modes of ideology, based on *The Diamond Necklace* and Unit 1, taken from *New Progressive College English Integrated Course* (Vol.1).

In the author’s eyes, there are three modes to distinguish the ideology from the lines of a text. One is plot mode for fictional text; the other is theme mode for non-fictional one; third, qualitative mode of event for a mixture of the two genres. Plot, according to Aristotle, is “the imitation of the action, as well as the arrangement of the incidents.” (J.A.Cuddon, 1999, pp.676) Here, specifically, plot is referred to the action of a tragedy by Aristotle; and in the textbook as college English there are not many cited tragedies but more extracted novels. So, another definition of plot, given by E. M. Forster, British novelist, in his work *Aspects of the Novel* (1927), is more accountable and serviceable, explains that “...a plot is also a narrative of events, the emphasis falling on causality.” (J.A.Cuddon, 1999, pp.676) Hence, according to the explanation, first, we must understand what series of plots there are in a text, including

2. There are different versions of *Syllabus for English Teaching in China* (1962, 1980, 1985/1986, 1999, 2004).



sub-plots and events comprising a plot. Taking *The Diamond Necklace* by Guy De Maupassant as an example to illustrate the procedures to discuss the ideologies permeated in the text. The main plot, i.e. arch plot, in the story goes as follows:

*Mr. Loisel and Ms. Mathilde, a shabby couple, were invited to attend the evening party hosted by the Minister of the Ministry of Education. They borrowed a necklace from a friend, Madame Forestier, for the party; unfortunately, they lost it unconsciously on the way home. So, they have to borrow large sum of money from friends and families to buy a new one to return it to Madame Forestier. To pay off all the debts, she has been laboring, and living a frugal life, for entire ten hard years. To her shock, they found that the necklace they had borrowed ten years ago was nothing but one with fake diamonds.*<sup>3</sup>

From the main plot, we can catch at least two points, one is Madame Mathilde is a woman with strong vanity; e.g. “*It annoys me not to have a single piece of jewelry, not a single ornament, nothing to put on. I shall look poverty-stricken. I would almost rather not go at all.*” “*...there is nothing more humiliating than to look poor among other women who are rich.*” (Guy De Maupassant, *The Diamond Necklace*, pp. 331) The speech addressed by Mathilde is evident enough to display her vanity. The other point is the nation the heroes are living in is one with highly respected contract. The former is easily understood because the poor couple borrowed a necklace for the party, and from a sub-plot of the story we find that they especially bought an evening gown, too. All the actions, including all kinds of events, acts, caused by Mathilde here, are very good cases in point. Mathilde’s idea, more or less, is a reflection of ideology of class and caste in French society, which is prevailed and dominated by French bourgeois’ life style. From the text, we know that the subsequent items are popular at the time:

1. Regularly hosting a kind of party, which requires attendants to comply with a series of rituals and rites for upper-classes, for instance, a female participant must be good-looking, gentle-lady like, wearing all sorts of ornaments to show off her dignity, elegance, noble origin and status;

2. In a party, usually, a good-looking woman is more sociable, and she would be regarded as a pride by her husband, lover or mistress; the party is held as a means of communication, or a step to enter into a privileged class or group;

3. Throughout a party, dancing or having a dinner is required and popular, so attendants, male or female, are good at dancing and familiar with the events or fashions prevailing in middle and higher society, for which are frequently cited as subjects or topics in conversations. An event or act of the story, like “*All the attaches of Cabinet wished to Waltz with her*”, illuminates that dancing is one of links to host an evening party.

The latter part, that is, the nation, herein, France is specifically referred to, is one country with highly respected contract. The idea of contract is dotted through the lines after the Loisel’s company lost the borrowed necklace. A reader can perceive it by thinking for a moment. After they lost the necklace, they borrowed large sum of money to buy another one to return it to the owner and friend Madame Forestier as well. The quotation cited in the following could be evident to prove the thesis.

*“Loisel possessed eighteen thousand francs which his father had left him. He would borrow the rest. He did borrow, asking a thousand francs of one, five hundred from another, five louis here, three louis there. He gave notes, took up ruinous obligations, dealt with usurers and all the race of lenders. He compromised to all the rest of life, risking signing a note without knowing whether he could meet it, (the author’s emphasis) and frightened by the trouble yet to come, by the black misery that was about to fall upon him, by the prospect of all the physical privation and moral tortures that he was to suffer, he went to get the new necklace laying upon the jeweler’s counter thirty-six thousand francs.”* (Guy De Maupassant, *The Diamond Necklace*, pp.334)<sup>4</sup>

From the excerpts given above, the word “borrow” is used twice; the acts or the actions which are similar to “borrow” are ten. Of course, the description here has vividly portrayed Loisel’s suffering to beg somebody humbly in order to borrow any money. Moreover, if we extend the thinking, we could regard Loisel’s acts as a negotiation with others to sign a contract of IOU. As it is known to the world, French philosophers, Rousseau, Montesquieu, and Voltaire reacted to the social conditions they saw and sought to establish universal rights of man. Among all the theories they have advocated, the concept of contract, put forward by Rousseau, is welcomed deeply into the human mind. The series of theory, hammered out by French thinkers, have been accepted by the world as a foundation of political systems to establish a modern nation. If we compare Loisel’s case with whatever in China, we might say, there is a long way to go for us to construct a nation with modernity.

Then, embarking upon the main plot, i.e. the Loisel’s company has been laboring for ten years to pay off the debts. The text delineates the heroine’s endurance, violent effort and responsibility. During the ten years, her identity is turned upside down; but she has never given up a ray of hope for future. So, the theme of story is dually dimensional: first it is an irony to her vanity; second, it is an image of her persistence, loyalty to both family and society, and victory. From all the plot and events concerned with Mathilde, she is no secondary to her overwhelming surroundings, no “second sex” though she is female. (Simone de Beauvoir)

3. The plot is summed up by the author, based upon *The Entire Original Maupassant Short Stories* by Guy, de Maupassant. (Trans. by Albert M.C. McMaster, B.A.A.E.Henderson, BA.MME. Quesader and others. Prepared and Published by: E-Books Directory.com)

4. Maupassant, Guy, de. (Trans. by Albert M.C. McMaster, B.A.A.E.Henderson, BA.MME. Quesader and others). *The Entire Original Maupassant Short Stories*, pp. 331, 334. Prepared and Published by: E-Books Directory, com.

Further, if a reader of the text can focus on some of the sub-plots, and integrate them well together, surely, he will have an integrated picture or notion of the nation: it is a modern nation. First, the life style of average people is modern or a kind of modernity, such as taking a walk after supper, hosting a party of communication, taking a taxi “to the cab companies”; second, concept of contract is accepted deeply into the minds of ordinary citizens; third, modern media and state governance, like newspaper and advertisement and companies etc. Moreover, there is Ideological State Apparatus--police station.

### B. Thematic Mode

Thematic mode is most frequently employed in analyzing ideologies of a text. That is, we probe the ideologies hidden between the lines according to the theme expressed in a text. First, we have to summarize what is the theme of a text after we read it again and again. So, what is theme? A theme of a work, properly speaking, is not its subject but rather its central idea, which may be stated directly or indirectly. (J.A.Cuddon, 1999, pp.934) They are ideas about the human condition that we draw from works of literature—not just from fiction but from literature in all genres. (Kelley Griffith, 2006, pp.32) The definition explicates that a theme is subjective ideas of a text by the author of a text. If there is no plot in a text, we must grasp and grip with main events in it. By doing so, we can discover the ideologies hidden beneath the verbal signs, including pictures, illustrations or figures of designs. Taking Unit 1 *The Pursuit of Dreams, Deaf DJ* as an example to illuminate my arguments. The theme of the text tells us a story of Robbie Wilde, a deaf guy. He loves music very much, especially he dreams to be a DJ though he is deaf. He has overcome all kinds of difficulties and his dream has come into true at last. Therefore, the theme conveys us a clear idea: only if a man has a dream and takes his action, whatever difficulties he is faced, his dream is sure to be realized one day. Obviously, the text wishes the narrator of the story, Robbie Wilde, can be an example for Chinese college students to follow. From the theme of the text, i.e. learning materials, it is available to reach the goal, i.e. an encouragingly didactic story. It is an ideology embodying heroism and optimism.

Second, we must have a clear idea about the textual structure so that we can understand what each part means. For instance, the author of the paper divides the text Unit 1 into three parts: Part1 tells us that Robbie Wilde likes the music and was influenced by his father, a DJ, when he was a kid and wants to be a DJ; Part 2 selectively describes how he overcame his suffering from losing hearing in the course of fulfilling his dream; Part 3 explicates briefly that he is dedicated to charity and has encouraged young kids to pursue their dream. Basing on the summaries listed here, the text displays the following ideas:

1. A kid's dream is influenced by his family, and vital to his growth;
2. Enduring hardship and making use of high-technology are keys to the fulfillment of one's ideal;
3. A successful man is popular and great only if he is devoted himself into helping others in need;

Besides, we should be excellent at exploring facts and acts through non-fictional type of text; that is, analyzing some statements in a text, decoding the signs, verbal or pictorial.

E.g.1. “We didn't have health insurance at the time and when I got a third infection, my parents couldn't pay for the treatment. I went deaf in my right ear...” (Excerpted from Unit 1 *The Pursuit of Dreams, Deaf DJ*, pp.14) The statement implies that USA is not a paradise for everyone but for the rich people, because Robbie's hearing impairment is partially due to inability to pay for treatment, which is a kind of indirect criticism of the health care against USA.

E.g. 2. “I loved listening to Metallica, Led Zeppelin, Bob Marley, Michael Jackson. My dad was a DJ, so he played disco, folk, dance, rock, and music from other countries.” (Excerpted from Unit 1 *The Pursuit of Dreams, Deaf DJ*, pp.14)<sup>5</sup> The text quoted here reveals that entertainment industry is very popular, especially music show, which means a sort of entertainment society has come into being and producing and consuming of entertainment are push and draw of the society.

Third, we can get ideas from topic sentences of each part in a text, which is usually located in the beginning or the end of a text. If there is no topic sentence for each part, key words are best markers to dig out the hidden ideologies between the lines.

### C. Qualitative Mode

Qualitative mode, from my viewpoints, is also an approach to the text mixed with two types of genres, i.e. fictional and non-fictional, to discover ideologies hidden beneath a text. As to such kind of text, besides the two ways explored above, we can try qualitative mode to grope ideologies implied in the lines. Here, a qualitative mode refers to the category of events or occurrences in a text, similar to the category of subject, such as love, dream, independence, patriotism, eco-system protection, technology and science or devotion and the like. Like Unit 1 *The Pursuit of Dreams Deaf DJ*, we could infer the theme conveyed by the title of the unit, by which belongs to the category of subject dream-fulfilling. The subject is a reflection of fulfillment of individual dream, i.e. individual value, more concretely speaking, a kind of individualism, is exposed to us, which is exactly suitable to propaganda and encourages college students of China to implement personal ideal, maximize the value, and become a healthy well-being physically and mentally. Sometimes, if the title of a text is not clearly enough to express a theme, such as “*The Diamond Necklace*”, it

5. Ji, Peiyong & Feng, Yu. (co-ed., 2017). *New Progressive College English Integrated Course* (Vol.1). Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press. Unit 1 *The Pursuit of Dreams* is taken from the Vol.1, pp.14.

is hard for us to classify it into whichever category qualitatively. If so, we should read the text repeatedly and find the key events of the text, make sure why, what and how in them. Take the main chain of events in “*The Diamond Necklace*” as an example listed as below to illustrate my ideas:

The main events chain of the story (what):

1. The Loisel couple is invited to attend a party (the wife, Mathilde has no necklace but to borrow one);
2. Mathilde lost the necklace for her being carelessness;
3. The couple has to borrow large sum of money to replace the necklace;
4. The couple has to work hard for ten years to pay off the debts.

The events given here are only part and parcel of the chain of events in the story.

The root of ten-year endurance (why) of the couple:

1. The couple is extremely boastful, vain, and always pretends to be elegant, dignified in public;
2. The way to replace the necklace and the debts (how):

The couple borrowed large sum of money to replace it, and has been living a shabby life, in a small flat, laboring to do all kinds of jobs they can to earn every franc; such a life style lasted for ten years;

As is discussed above, by taking why, what and how into account, we are certain to give a comparably fair judgment of an event; and all the events integrated together in a text will explicitly express some ideas and can help us make decisions for the elementary events of a text, and notice the dominant ideas in a piece of work; the integrated idea of the events is part of the main theme. In brief, the principle to utilize the mode starts from a text’s title to get the category of subject first; second, demarcating the category of an event one by one; third, from the sum of all events integrated together to catch the category. The category is essential in the mode to find ideologies.

#### V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The three modes discussed above are merely preliminary ones to explore ideologies disguised in text signs. They can be viewed as complementary, which can be used either together, in an integrated way, or separately, one by one, depending upon the situation. Besides the three modes, there are other approaches to further exploit in analyzing ideologies, like from a perspective of media, journalism and cultural and political studies. Only if we are conscious and careful in teaching, especially in teaching English, for English language is a coat and an instrument of transmitting culture or knowledge, the users are easy to be deceived, we can find ideologies coated with all kinds of shapes and unveil all the ideological harms to students, and resist them completely.

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# Machine Translation: The Case of Arabic-English Translation of News Texts

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**Abstract**—This study aims at identifying the common types of errors in Google Translate (GT) in the translation of informative news texts from Arabic to English, to measure the translation errors quality and to assess the fluency and the semantic adequacy of the translation output, and therefore to explain the extent a human translator is needed to rectify the output translation. For this purpose, some examples were purposively selected from online newspapers. The collected data was analyzed using a mixed method approach, as the errors were qualitatively identified, guided by Hsu's (2014) classification of machine translation errors. Quantitative descriptive approach was used to measure the translation errors quality, using the Multidimensional Quality Metrics and Localization Quality Evaluation. As for assessing the semantic adequacy and fluency, a questionnaire that was adapted from Dorr, Snover, and Madnani (2011) was used. The results of the analysis show that omission, which is a lexical error and inappropriate lexical choice, which is a semantic error are the most common errors. Inappropriate lexical choice is sometimes a result of the homophonic nature of some source text words which can be misinterpreted by the machine translation system. This study concludes that it is useful to use machine translation systems to expedite the translation process, but that accuracy is sacrificed for the sake of ease (less work for the human) and speed of translation. If greater accuracy is required, or desired, a human translator must at least proofread and work on the material.

**Index Terms**—Google Translate, translation errors, News, informative texts, semantic adequacy, fluency, translation quality

## I. INTRODUCTION

Machine translation (MT) is one of the promising technologies in the realm of translation. Translators can no longer translate all the required huge number of texts. MT systems can facilitate and expedite the process of translation. In other words, a translator can use such translation systems, which are sometimes available for free, to translate some types of texts and then the job of a translator would be to post-edit the submitted work to ensure its accuracy. This might help so far as reducing the cost and time of translation is concerned (Aiken & Balan, 2001). A web-based MT can be accessed freely to expedite the translation process. Some scholars and researchers (e.g., Drugan 2013; Koponen & Salmi 2015) argue that MT is only useful to get the gist of the meaning of a submitted text. MT cannot be used for a professional translation unless the text is post-edited. However, we argue that these MT systems are not very efficient with every type of text. Maybe, informative texts can be translated using those MT systems. However, some other types of texts, such as expressive texts, may not be suitable for MT because the resulting translation output could be highly flawed.

In this regard, Arnold, Balkan, Humphreys, Meijer and Sadler (1996) argue that MT errors can be categorized under two major types: Problems of ambiguity, and problems that happen due to structural and lexical differences between languages and multiword units (e.g., idioms and collocations). Lexical ambiguity happens when one word has more than one sense and therefore, it is difficult for the machine translator to decide which one is the correct choice in a specific parameter or context. On the other hand, structural ambiguity occurs when one phrase or sentence has more than one possible structure. These problems, however, no longer cause big challenges to GT, as it is currently based on the neural system, which removes or reduces many of these challenges. Ambiguity sometimes results from the fact that one word can be used as a noun and verb in different contexts. Consider the examples below, as provided by Arnold et al. (1996):

- 1a. *The main function of the merchant banks is to raise capital for industry.*
- 1b. *On weekdays, one third of the room functions as workspace.*
- 1c. *Investment is a function of the interest rate.*

As we see in the above examples, the word 'function' can be used as a noun as in (1a) and (1c) or as a verb as in (1b). Although this might seem problematic, thanks to technology this problem can be solved by providing the MT systems with all the required information. Arnold *et al.*, (1996) suggest that an automatic parser can solve the problem by finding out whether the noun or verb form of a particular verb fits in a specific context; this can be achieved by having the parser look at the grammaticality of the source text (ST) word. Looking back at the example provided earlier, we

can figure out that English does not have an article +verb pattern or the article + adjective + verb pattern. However, we have the pattern of article + noun or article+ adjective+ noun. Therefore, a parser will likely translate the (1a) and (1c) examples as nouns. The problems mentioned by Arnold et al., however, are reduced thanks to the neural system adopted by GT in the last few years.

Therefore, much attention needs to be paid to MT and the common errors of MT systems. This will help provide solutions to the errors produced. This task can be implemented in cooperation between translators, translation theorists and computer engineers. Vilar, Xu, D'Haro, and Ney (2006) claimed that errors in MT can be stratified into five categories: inflectional errors, word order errors, missing words, extra words and incorrect lexical choice. Inflectional errors are the types of errors that ensue due to generating incomplete forms of some ST words. Word order errors are errors that occur due to improper order of the TT words in relation to the ST order. Missing words error happens when some words are missing in the translation output. Extra words are words that do not exist in the ST but were generated by the machine translator in the TT. As for lexical choice errors, they happen when the TT word is not the right equivalent for the ST word. In a more detailed categorization of errors, though earlier, Dagneaux, Denness, and Granger (1996) mentioned that errors in MT can include errors such as subject omission, verb tense, continuous aspect errors, sequence of tenses, conditional clauses, word order, uncountable nouns, prepositions, double negation, indefinite articles, word omissions and lexical confusion.

Condone *et al.* (2010) examined the errors in MT of submitted English- Iraqi Arabic dialogues. They found that errors included deletions, and insertions. The results showed a high frequency of pronoun errors in the translation to English as well as high frequency of errors in subject person inflection in translation to Iraqi Arabic. They also found errors in word order and plurality. In a similar context, evaluation of machine translation output was conducted by Popovic and Ney (2011). They found some errors, which they categorized into five types, viz., inflectional errors, reordering errors, lexical errors, word deletions, and word insertions.

In spite of the research conducted on MT output to identify the types of errors in the MT output, more studies are needed to investigate errors found in MT output of the different subgenres of informative texts such as news. This research, therefore, aims at identifying some common errors in GT from Arabic to English and to assess the semantic adequacy and fluency of the GT output. This will help guide readers to the extent that a human translator is needed to rectify the translation. This research specifically addresses the following research questions:

1. What are the common types of errors produced by GT in the process of translating Arabic news texts into English?
2. To what extent is the output of GT fluent?
3. To what extent is the output of GT semantically adequate?

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. History of Machine Translation (MT)

Ping (2009) postulates that MT is a discipline of translation that employs computer software to translate submitted texts. This system of translation was developed in the 1950's (Hutchins, 1995; Balkan, 1998). It was used at the beginning to produce a raw output for the purpose of providing a preliminary understanding of the submitted source text (ST), which is based on a statistical analysis of the ST. The purpose of MT systems was to replace humans, but it proved to be unsuccessful. Later on, MT developers lost their enthusiasm about using MT systems since the translation output contained lots of errors resulting from lexical and syntactic ambiguity (Juan, 1994). The failure of MT led to the development of computer-assisted translation (CAT), which does not neglect the role of a human translator who rectifies and corrects the translation produced by such computer-based software.

MT systems can be classified into three different types: neural MT (NMT), rule-based MT (RBMT), and statistical machine translation system (SMT). Since 2016, GT (GT) moved from the SMT to the NMT system. NMT system uses artificial neural network to predict the probability of an array of words, typically modeling entire sentences in a single integrated model. This system does not require large space ion memory. NMT models use deep learning and representation learning.

### B. Google Translate as a Machine Translation System

One of the free MT systems is GT which can be accessed freely. One advantage of GT is that it has access to many translation databases or, in other words, too many translations created basically by humans. In this regard, many researchers (e.g., Aziz, Sousa, & Specia, 2012; Jia *et al.*, 2012; Karami, 2014; Komeili, Farughi, & Rahimi, 2011) argue that GT is the most popular MT system since it is viewed by 200 million people.

However, as mentioned earlier, GT currently uses the Neural Machine Translation system (NMT). According to Castilho, Gaspari, Moorkens and Way (2017), NMT systems have proved to produce much better translation output in many language pairs if compared to SMT systems. The advantage of NMT lies in the fact that it uses artificial intelligence to represent all the sentences in the target language at once, instead of breaking them into small chunks such as phrases or words.

In relation to this, Handschuh (2013), in a study conducted on German-English translation using four different online MT systems, viz. GT, SYSTRAN, Bing and Babylon, found that MT's output is mostly erroneous and inaccurate. Keshavarz (1999) argued that the errors fall under lexico-semantic errors such as the wrong use of tenses, errors in the

use of verb groups, errors in word order, incorrect use of prepositions, incorrect use of the active and passive voice as well as errors related to the use of articles. Some researchers (e.g., DeCamp, 2009; Vilar, Xu, D'Haro & Ney, 2006) found that the most frequent error in MT output is omission. Some other researchers (e.g., Gaspari, Toral & Naskar, 2011; Valotkaite & Asadullah, 2012) found that mistranslations are the most frequent errors in MT.

Lotz and Rensburg (2016) conducted a study on two types of texts, namely, texts from a slide-show presentation and texts from an online news report. Over a period of four years (from 2010 to 2013), the same two texts were submitted to GT to check the extent to which the quality of MT output was improved. Omission, mistranslation, non-translation and grammar were the most frequent types of errors found in the translation output. Lotz and Rensburg also found that although the quality of the translations seemed to have improved up to 2012, this trend leveled off, with some of the 2013 output containing more errors than that of the previous year.

### C. Types of Texts

There are different types of texts that can be submitted for translation. According to Reiss (1977/1989) texts are classified into three types: informative, expressive and operative. Informative texts are texts that transfer information, knowledge, opinions logically and referentially. The main focus of communication is the topic. Examples of this type of texts are news and scientific articles. Expressive texts refer to texts of high aesthetic value and when form is highly valued. Thus, translating expressive texts, such as literary works, requires optimal attention to the form, rhythm and other aesthetic values of the ST. One example of appellative or operative texts is advertisements, whereby the text producer appeals to the readers so as to do or not to do something (e.g. buying, selling ...etc.). Based on such a classification of texts, it may be presumed that informative texts are easier for MT than others, which are the focus of this article, in particular news texts. News texts are hypothesized to be easier than other types of texts in translation.

## III. METHODOLOGY

### A. Research Design

This study adopts a mixed method approach, as the researchers analyzed the source texts qualitatively. It is a descriptive analysis type of qualitative enquiry as the researchers, who are translators as well, examined the collected data, found the errors and provided corrections for the identified errors. Quantitatively, the errors were measured and assessed.

### B. Corpus of the Study

The data was collected purposively from two main sources: Al Jazeera.net and Al Masryoon online newspaper as sources of informative texts... Al Jazeera was selected as one of the sources of the informative texts' data due to the high professionalism of the channel and the elevated type of Arabic language used in the phrasing of its headlines and news articles. As regards Al Masryoon, it was also selected because of the standard language used in most of its news articles. The data comprise some lines from news articles that were written in Standard Arabic and the raw output of the translation of the STs that were submitted to GT. GT was used because it is available for free and it is widely used (Drugan, 2013).

### C. Data Analysis

The collected data was analyzed qualitatively using Hsu's (2014) model. In this regard, Hsu (2014) provided a more detailed typology of such errors as shown in Figure 1 below. This model classifies errors into orthographic errors, morphological errors, lexical errors, semantic errors and syntactic errors.

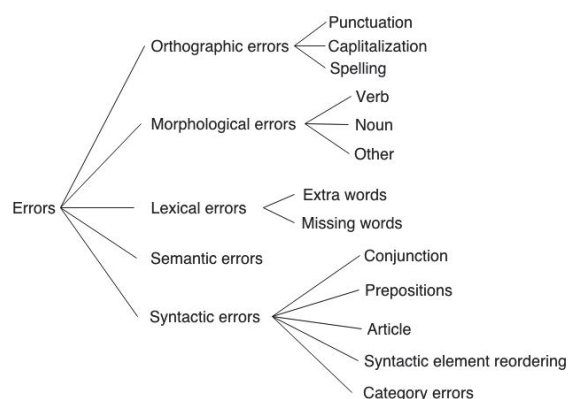


Figure 1: Classification of MT Errors (adopted from Hsu, 2014)

For the purpose of measuring the translation errors quality, errors were reclassified using the Multidimensional Quality Metrics (MQM) framework and Localization Quality Evaluation (LQE), whereby errors were classified into three types as follows:

1. Minor errors: they are kind of errors that do not affect the comprehension of meaning while they affect fluency. The penalty error is assigned a score of 0.5.
2. Major errors: they are kind of errors that make the TT difficult to understand, yet, the general message is conveyed. The penalty assigned to such type is 1.
3. Critical errors: they refer errors that change the meaning of the ST and make it either incomprehensible or distorted. The penalty error assigned to such type is 3

As for measuring the adequacy and fluency of the MT output, human evaluators were used to answer a questionnaire (find it attached) that was adapted from Dorr, Snover, and Madnani (2011) Four monolingual native English evaluators were asked to rate the fluency of the translation output. Similarly four bilingual speakers were asked to rate the adequacy of the translation by comparing the translation output to the STs. In terms of fluency, raters were asked to judge the translation as follows:

- 1=incomprehensible
- 2=disfluent English
- 3=non-native English
- 4=good
- 5=flawless English

As regards semantic adequacy, they were asked to assess the translation as follows:

- 1= Meaningless (None)
- 2=odd (Little meaning)
- 3=partially meaningful (Much meaning)
- 4=almost meaningful (most meaning)
- 5=Meaningful (All meaning)

#### IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section of the article addresses the objectives of the research, which are identifying the common types of errors in the GT in the translation of informative texts from Arabic to English, measuring the translation errors quality and assessing the fluency and the semantic adequacy of the translation output, and therefore to explain the extent a human translator is needed to rectify the output translation

##### Section 1. Types of errors

##### Syntactic errors

As shown in Figure 1, syntactic errors can result from errors in articles, conjunctions, prepositions, syntactic order and word category. Examples of such errors are provided below.

##### Example 1

<b>ST</b>	بدأ، مساء الأحد، إغلاق صناديق الاقتراع في الانتخابات الرئاسية المصرية بالخارج، التي يتنافس فيها مرشحان أحدهما الرئيس الحالي عبد الفتاح السيسي.
<b>TT</b>	On Sunday evening, the polls closed in the Egyptian presidential elections abroad, in which two candidates are competing, including <b>current</b> President Abdel Fattah al-Sisi.

As seen in example 1, GT provided an accurate translation of the ST. The meaning is generally understood. However, the syntax is contorted to some extent, giving rise to ambiguity. It seems that it is the polls that closed abroad, not the Egyptian elections. The meaning would be clearer to use the preposition “for” as in “...the polls for the Egyptian Presidential Elections”. The overall meaning of the translation would also be clearer to separate the two sentences that speak of two different events happening in different parts of the world, though clearly inter-related. And perhaps the two different tenses serve to confuse the reader mixed in with the different events or subjects. The subject in the first phrase or sentence is “the polls” On Sunday..., the polls ... closed abroad and the subject happens to be overseas. The event happened in the past tense. The subject in the second phrase or the phrase, tacked on at the end, is the “two competing candidates” and the event is happening in the present progressive form of the verb or tense. This created confusion: Is the election happening in Egypt? Are the elections abroad or are the polls abroad? Or are they both the same thing? Clearly, or not so clearly, is it the overseas polling stations for Egyptian voters living abroad to vote for their elections back home that closed? Did both the overseas polls and the Egyptian Election close/stop at the same time? Are the candidates overseas competing?

Part of the problem is there are two prepositional phrase expressions “in the polls” and “in the elections” but the last plural referent is the Egyptian Presidential Elections, so maybe it is less problematic. But then ‘abroad’, a reduced locative prepositional phrase is tacked on at the end. It is like saying the two candidates are competing in the Egyptian Presidential Elections abroad where the polls have closed, as in the Egyptian Presidential Elections abroad. Or, they are competing in the polls abroad. In other words, because of the way the output is structured the meaning could be construed as the candidates are overseas competing in the Egyptian elections or in the polls when in fact, the two candidates are competing for a position in Egypt and the candidates are in Egypt. There are foreign offices assigned to register the votes of Egyptian citizens living abroad. If the output had been more clearly expressed in terms of syntax,

there would not be any confusion or ambiguity.<sup>1</sup>

Another error recorded is the dropping of the definite article “the” prior to the word “current”. It was supposed to be translated as “the current ....”

Another example that shows a syntactic error can be seen in example 2 (in the section below). In example 2, the translation is ambiguous. Are the withdrawals related to the political scene or those specific candidates? The “political scene” is very vague. What about it? Or is it the withdrawals of those specific candidates that was related to the political scene? Separating the sentence of the output would make the meaning more clear: “Presidential election...or competitors .... Previous withdrawals from the presidential race, such as potential candidates like... and so and so, were related to the political scene, especially the swing to (right wing politics). Or just stop after the political scene, but without an explanation of what that was, it is not really saying much of anything. It remains vague or ambiguous or unclear. The meaning overall is hindered regarding clarity. Also, the repetition of the preposition “to” is creating some confusion. “The withdrawals from the race are related to ...” and “particularly to.....”<sup>2</sup>

### Semantic errors

Semantic errors result from the selection of a non-equivalent to the ST word, which might happen due to the linguistic ambiguity of the ST lexemes. Linguistic ambiguity might occur because of homophony or synonymy of the ST. Examples of semantic errors in GT outputs are provided below.

#### Example 2

<b>ST</b>	وتجرى الانتخابات الرئاسية دون وجود لمرشحين معارضين أو منافسين بارزين؛ جراء انسحابات سابقة من السباق الرئاسي متعلقة بالمشهد السياسي، لا سيما لكل من المرشحين المحتملين، خالد علي، ومحمد أنور السادات، والفريق المتقاعد، أحمد شفيق.
<b>TT</b>	Presidential elections are held without the presence of prominent opposition candidates or competitors; <b>previous withdrawals</b> from the presidential race are related to the political scene, particularly to potential candidates Khaled Ali, Mohamed Anwar Sadat and retired <b>team</b> member Ahmed Shafiq.

A semantic error was found in the translation of the ST word الفريق which means “major general”: resulting in “team” instead of ‘major general’, which is a military rank. This error occurred because the ST word “الفريق” is a homonym of another Arabic word that means ‘team’. Homonymy often causes linguistic ambiguity which results in semantic errors. Another semantic error occurred in the dropping of the ST word جراء (as a result of) in the TT, which affected the meaning. The ST expression implies that lack of candidates and competitors in the elections was due to the candidate’s withdrawal from the elections.

#### Example 3

<b>ST</b>	ويشمل برنامج طرح الشركات، المزمع إدراجها في المرحلة الأولى من البرنامج في قطاع خدمات البترول والتكرير، الشركة الهندسية للصناعات البترولية والكيماوية "انبي"، وشركة الحفر المصرية، وشركة الشرق الأوسط لتكرير البترول "ميدور"، وشركة أسيويت لتكرير البترول، وشركة الإسكندرية للزيوت المعدنية.
<b>TT</b>	The program of companies to be included in the first phase of the program in the oil and refining services sector includes the Engineering Company for Petroleum and Chemical Industries (ENPI), the Egyptian Drilling Company, Middle East Oil Refining Company (MIDOR), Assiut Oil Refining Company and Alexandria Mineral Oils Company.

The translation in example 3 is rather problematic. The first problem is the improper lexical choice of an equivalent of the ST word برنامج which, in this context, does not mean “program”; it rather means “plan”, or “the agenda of the following companies... is to ...” In the first instance of the word “program” which is an incorrect choice, the reader would have to construe it as the “roster” or the “list” “of companies to be included in ...”. The translation problem applies to the second instance of the word “program” as well because this second use of “program” creates a problem. It is so vague: What program is being talked about? A program for creating Middle Eastern oil company alliances? Or what? That in itself then makes the text receiver wonder if “program” in the second case is also an incorrect word choice. A program for the renewal of this sector? Of development or redevelopment? A clean energy drive program due to environmental concerns? If “program” is the right word, then the translation should say what the program is ... state the name of the program. The second problem is omitting the word طرح meaning “selling” in the translation output, creating confusion in terms of meaning.

### Lexical errors

Lexical errors, as explained in figure 1, occur due to the incorrect omission or addition of some lexemes or expressions above the word level, i.e., omitting necessary lexemes or adding unnecessary/incorrect lexemes or expressions. Examples of such errors in GT outputs are demonstrated below.

#### Example 4

<b>ST</b>	ووفق قرار الهيئة الوطنية للانتخابات بمصر (رسمية)، تنتهي مساء الأحد، عملية الاقتراع في اليوم الثالث والأخير لتصويت
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<sup>1</sup> A better translation would be: “On Sunday evening, the polls for the Egyptian presidential elections closed here and abroad; two candidates are competing, including the current President AFAS.”

<sup>2</sup> The meaning would be more clear if expressed like this: Previous withdrawals. from the presidential race, particularly such stellar candidates as Khalid Ali, Mohamad Anwar Sadat ..., are related to the political scene”. if the meaning meant is that the withdrawals. are due to the political scene and/or not those specific candidates.



المصريين بالخارج في التاسعة مساء بتوقيت كل دولة.

**TT** According to the decision of the National Electoral Commission in Egypt (Sunday), the voting process ends on the third and final day of voting for the Egyptians abroad at 9:00 pm.

As seen in example 4, the output of GT left some parts of the ST untranslated. The final part of the ST that is *كل دولة* meaning “local time of each country” was left out in the translation output. Another issue, the word “Sunday” in brackets is vague. Is that when the decision was made? I.e., they met on Sunday and made a decision that day? Or, was it just reported on Sunday? Also, adding the missing item “living” to produce the phrase “Egyptians living abroad” sounds better.

It should be pointed out here that as a result of this omission, the meaning is contorted. It sounds like the translated version is saying that the voting process will end for the Egyptians who are abroad at 9 pm., but what about at the other times? Are there three days allotted for voting in Egypt and overseas? This lack of specification of who or what is where and when or what is happening where is creating confusion. Absolute specificity is needed in every part of the sentence. Referents cannot be ambiguous. Time zones... which time zones where? What is happening in what time zone? It is this lack of specificity, improper word use, referent confusion, etc. that is creating confusion or at least questions as to meaning.

#### Example 5

**ST** ويتنافس في رئاسيات مصر 2018 الرئيس الحالي عبد الفتاح السيسي الذي يسعى إلى فترة رئاسية ثانية من أربع سنوات، هو أكثر حظوظاً من منافسه رئيس حزب "الغد" (ليبرالي) موسى مصطفى موسى، الذي أعلن قبيل أيام من ترشحه تأييده للسيسي. -

**TT** Egypt's president, Abdel Fattah al-Sisi, who is seeking a second four-year term, is more likely than his rival, the leader of the "Tomorrow" party, Musa Mustafa Musa, who announced days before his candidacy for Sisi. -

In example 5, the translation output is inaccurate on several counts. Some phrases were omitted in the TT output. For example, the first ST part that reads *ويتنافس في رئاسيات مصر 2018 الرئيس الحالي* was deleted in the TT, which created some confusion and misunderstanding. Similarly, the ST phrase *أكثر حظوظاً* “has more chances of winning” was rendered as “more likely”, leaving some parts of the ST meaning untranslated. The ST phrase means “more likely to win” or “more likely to succeed than his rival” or “has a greater chance of winning”. Also, the ST word *تأييده*, which means “his support”, was not translated in the TT. This might be a result of the ST complexity, as it is not clear whether “announced ...his candidacy” refers to Al Sisi, to “his candidacy for president, “his candidacy for the presidential race, or ... “his candidacy for the leader of the opposition party. The text receiver assumes that the rival is the “who” that announced he is in the running for presidency. It would be a more natural translation to place the head noun “Musa Mustafa Musa” in clause-initial position followed by the modifying noun phrase “leader of the “Tomorrow” party, and the modifying relative clause “who announced his candidacy for the presidency just days before”.

#### Example 6

**ST** استنكر الخبير الاقتصادي هاني توفيق ، إعلان الحكومة عن طرح أسهم 23 شركة حكومية في البورصة معتبراً ذلك كارثة لأنه تفريط في حق الأجيال القادمة .

**TT** The economic expert Hani Tawfiq denounced the government's announcement of the shares of 23 government companies on the bourse as a disaster because it is a violation of the rights of future generations.

In example 6, there is the problem of deleting some words/information in translation that exist in the ST. For instance, the ST word *طرح* was not translated in the translation output. So the part that reads as “announcement of the shares of” in the TT should be corrected by adding the word “selling” before the phrase “of the shares”. Similarly, the ST expression *معتبراً ذلك* “considering it” was not translated in the TT.

Such a lexical error creates confusion and raises questions like: What is the disaster here? The announcement? It is more the action to do with the shares that is the disaster. Also, what is the referent of deictic “it”; couldn't “it” also refer to bourse? Can you denounce an announcement? It is usually said that so and so declared the government’s hoarding of their shares or selling off of their shares to foreigners as a disaster. Or perhaps so and so denounced the government’s practice of or policy of or whatever action they took.

#### Example 7

**ST** أكد مسؤولون إثيوبيون، أن أنيس أبابا سوف تبدأ قريباً اختبار توليد الكهرباء من سد النهضة الإثيوبي الذي تجرى أعمال بنائه على النيل الأزرق، حيث يمكنه توليد ما يصل إلى 6.450 ميجاوات من الكهرباء.

**TT** Ethiopian officials have confirmed that Addis Ababa will soon begin testing electricity generation from the Nahdha dam, which is being built on the Blue Nile, where it can generate up to 6,450 megawatts of electricity.

In example 7, there seems to be no problem with the translation. This shows that sometimes GT produces accurate translation if the lexical items in the ST are not ambiguous or the structure of the ST is quite complex. The ST adjective word *الإثيوبي* was omitted in the TT; however, this did not affect the meaning because the word is implicitly understood in the TT.

There is one issue to note. Since “it” can anaphorically have two referents, the dam and the river, accuracy is lost or maybe the meaning is confusing. Is it the dam or the river that generates the electricity? It is probably both. Where there can be more than one referent, name the referent again in order to obtain clarity of meaning, and achieve lexical

cohesion through repetition. The word “dam” should be capitalized as it is part of a proper noun.

#### Example 8

ST أكد وزير الخارجية الإثيوبي، ورقينو قبيو، اليوم الأحد، تمسك بلاده بإعلان المبادئ الذي سبق ووقعته قبل نحو 3 سنوات، مع كل من مصر والسودان بشأن سد النهضة.

TT Ethiopian Foreign Minister Vardino Kabio confirmed on Sunday his country's adherence to the Declaration of Principles signed three years ago with Egypt and Sudan on the dam.

In example 8, the translation seems to be accurate but one problem arose in the translation of سد النهضة as “the dam” instead of “the Renaissance Dam”. This again highlights the problem of omission of some parts of the ST in the TT. This case also illustrates structural ambiguity in the sense that the translation is open to two interpretations due to using the preposition “on” heading the prepositional phrase “on the dam” instead of “in reference to the dam”. This has resulted in structural ambiguity which confused the meaning: Was the declaration signed on the dam? Or is the signing of the Declaration with reference to the dam?

#### Example 9

ST ورداً على سؤال أثناء المؤتمر الصحفي حول ما تردد من أنباء بشأن طلب مصري باستبعاد السودان من مفاوضات سد النهضة، اكتفى وزير الخارجية الإثيوبي بالقول: "قضية سد النهضة والنيل هي قضية طبيعتها ثلاثية، وإعلان المبادئ الذي وقعت عليه كل من الدول الثلاث ينص على ذلك صراحة"

TT In response to a question during the press conference about the reports of an Egyptian request to exclude the Sudan from the Nahdha Dam negotiations, the Ethiopian Foreign Minister said: "The issue of the dam of Nahdha and Nile is a trilateral issue. The Declaration of Principles signed by each of the three states explicitly states that "He said.

The translation of example 9 sounds good with the exception of the inaccurate use of “He said” at the end of the quotation marks. The quote is already preceded by “the Ethiopian Foreign Minister said”, thus the unnecessary repetition/redundancy of the subject and verb at the end resulted in incorrect usage and confusion as if there were another person expressing comments. Only the Ethiopian Foreign Minister is talking.

#### Example 10

ST قال الكاتب الصحفي مصطفى بكري عضو مجلس النواب، إن الفريق أحمد شفيق تعجل في إعلان ترشحه للرئاسة، حيث كان مقرر إعلان ذلك من فرنسا يوم 22 ديسمبر القادم.

TT Journalist Mostafa Bakri, a member of the House of Representatives, said that the team Ahmed Shafiq is rushing to announce his candidacy for the presidency, where he was scheduled to announce it from France on 22 December.

Again in example 10, the problem is translating الفريق as “the team”, which is incorrect as explained earlier. There is also semantic ambiguity of anaphoric reference where “his” could refer back to Bakri or to Shafiq, and anaphoric reference problem of “he” in “he was scheduled to announce. This confusion could be prevented by the translation ... Shafiq's candidacy rather than his. Where? Exactly what where? The House of Reps? Again, lack of specificity is creating a lack of clarity and confusion.

A lexical problem is attested in the wrong choice of the wh-word “where”. The last translated phrase is awkward. “Where” refers to place, but the issue and main topic of discussion is the timing or the date of the announcement. That would be paired with “which”. It is a “which”, not a “where”.<sup>3</sup> Is France/the place of particular importance? Not really. It would be usual to translate the text like “which was scheduled to take place on Dec 22 in France. Or which was scheduled to take place in France on Dec. 22”. The “where” has a different referent than the “which”. When the text recipient reads “where”, the recipient is predisposed to have certain expectations, to think in a certain way and to be set up in a certain mind frame. The reader is confused. What is this translation trying to say? What is this about? I personally wonder am I to assume now that the where is taking over from the which? ...that the where is the focus now? When in fact the phrase was just tacked on at the end to give more information but it was of little consequence.

#### Example 11

ST من جهتها، أعربت مفوضية اللاجئين التابعة للأمم المتحدة عن قلقها من تفاقم جديد للأزمة الإنسانية في سوريا بعد النزوح الكبير بسبب القتال في الغوطة وريف دمشق، وكذلك في عفرين وريف حلب الشمالي.

وقالت المفوضية إن أكثر من 45 ألفاً فروا من الغوطة الشرقية خلال الأيام القليلة الماضية، وإن الإجماع يجب أن يكون طوعاً، داعية إلى وصول المساعدات الإنسانية بالكامل للمدنيين داخل الغوطة الشرقية وخارجها لتلبية احتياجاتهم الملحة.

TT The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) has expressed concern about a new worsening of the humanitarian crisis in Syria following the massive displacement caused by the fighting in Ghouta and the countryside of Damascus, as well as in Afrin, the northern suburb of Aleppo. UNHCR said more than 45,000 people had fled the eastern Ghouta over the past few days, and the evacuation must be voluntary, calling for full humanitarian access for civilians inside and outside the eastern Ghouta to meet their urgent needs.

As seen in example 10, the translation seems to be free of error, which is more than likely due to the rich available resources of both the ST and TT. The translation should have said the Ghouta region in this last paragraph. It would

<sup>3</sup> An adequate and acceptable translation could be “...which was scheduled to be announced by Shafiq”. Or perhaps “which candidacy was to be announced”. Or just “Shafiq’s candidacy for presidency ...which Shafiq was scheduled to announce”.

seem that that is missing. There should have been an apostrophe after The United Nations because it is possessive. We assume it is the Commissioner who is speaking on behalf of this organization.

If the noun displacement is used, it must be followed by specifying of what, i.e., "... of 45000 residents of Arfin and its suburbs". Or "... of Syrian citizens from the Ghouta valley". Or "of ... its citizens". That is to say the noun displacement requires a prepositional phrase complement as part of its lexical meaning. Also, to prevent further confusion, there should be no mixing of different events together, especially if they occur at different times and in different places and involve different players. In the present case, so and so is concerned about the worsening humanitarian crisis in Syria caused by fighting in Ghouta region, or in Aleppo and the subsequent displacement of 45,000 refugees. So and so proposes to evacuate the refugees to a safer area, but insists/stresses that the evacuation must be voluntary.

The adjective "new" is not needed. It is getting worse, so that is a new event/phenomenon/situation. The determiner "the" before fighting can be left out. This part about the evacuation must be voluntary is poorly understood. Aren't the people fleeing? That is their idea or their will. They are in control then... evacuations are usually done by some organization or governments, one would assume.

Also the tenses are being mixed up here. So, the people fled and there is to be an evacuation. This problem has cropped up before (see the example above) with the mixing of tenses and events and/or players or places, which causes confusion. It is better to make two separate sentences, or divide the sentences by a semi-colon.

### Example 12

ST

يواصل الجيش السوري الحر المدعوم من القوات التركية تمشيط أحياء مدينة عفرين شمال غربي سوريا، بعدما أعلنت هذه القوات سيطرتها الكاملة على المدينة، في حين قالت الوحدات الكردية المنسحبة إنها ستتحول إلى أساليب الكر والفر.

TT

The Free Syrian Army, backed by Turkish troops, continues to comb the neighborhoods of Afrin city, northwest of Syria, after they announced full control over the city. The retreating Kurdish units said they would turn to hit-and-run tactics.

The problems in this translation are grammatical, semantic and lexical. The plural pronoun "they" has two possible referents – the Turkish troops or the "neighborhoods of Afrin. If the pronoun "they" could be used for the army as well, then in that case, there would be three possible anaphoric references.<sup>4</sup> The second sentence is correct and clear. However, it would be more clear to say the Kurdish troops would resort to..... Or they would resume hit-and-run tactics... if they had used them before but stopped them for some reason. The reason we are saying this is because habitual language usage can lead to language expectations. You anticipate hearing something but you get something different and it throws the recipient off (i.e., turn left or right or turn to hit someone or something or can turn to (meaning into) dust etc...

The overall meaning is pretty well understood – that the Free Syrian Army has gained full control of the city and made the announcement. However, since the plural referents in relation to "they" could be taken in an ambiguous manner, it poses some issues in terms of complete clarity and grammatical perfection.

### Morphological errors

Morphological errors occur at the level of verbs, nouns and other aspects of morphology. An example of such error can be found in example 10, as the ST verb *تجعل*, which is a past tense, was translated into "is rushing", which is a present progressive aspect." In example 1, the ST lexical items *بدأ إغلاق* were rendered as 'closed', which is a morphological error since the ST noun *إغلاق* was rendered as a verb and the ST verb *بدأ* was omitted. The omission of the ST verb *بدأ* in the TT reflects a lexical error.

Based on the analysis provided, this research shows that there are some frequent errors in GT's translation output, such as omission and inappropriate lexical choice. Thus, a human translator is needed to rectify the output translation. However, this research also illustrates that GT is a useful system that helps expedite the translation process.

### Section 2. Measuring the Translation Errors quality

Figure 2 below shows the severity of the translation errors found in the GT output, which is based on the raters' feedback.

<sup>4</sup> This issue could easily be solved by omitting "they" and replacing it by "after announcing".... or even better....After regaining full control over Afrin city, northwest of Syria, (Or in the northwest of Syria. Either it is in Syria or not) and announcing their victory, the Free Syrian Army, backed by Turkish troops, continue to comb the city's neighborhoods.

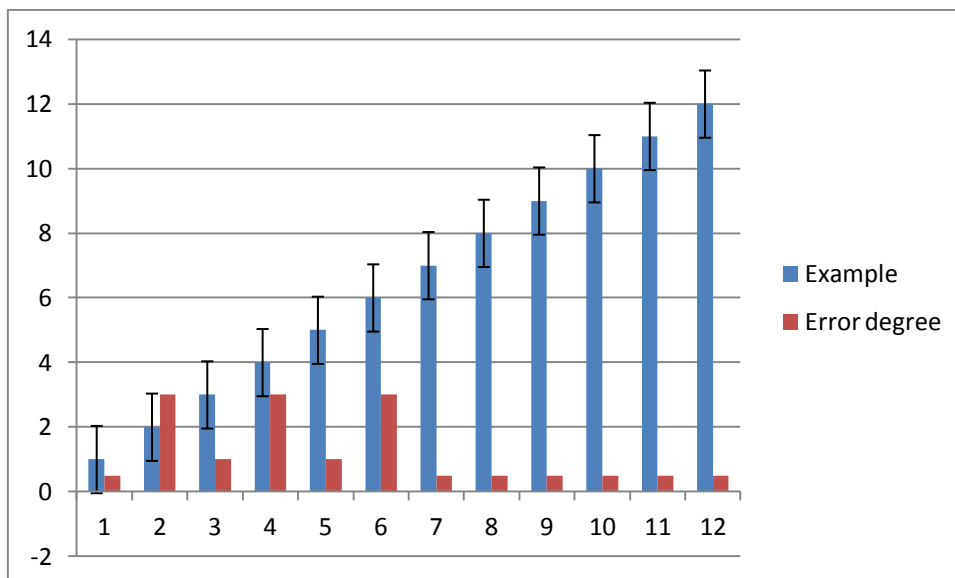


Figure 2: Quality of Translation Errors

As seen in figure 2, some errors were found to be serious (examples 2, 4 and 6), as they change the meaning or make the translation output incomprehensible. However, some errors were found to be major (examples 3 and 5), as the message is understood with difficulty. Some other errors (examples 1, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12) were found to be minor, as they do not affect the meaning intended in the ST. Overall, most errors were found to be minor.

**Section 3: The fluency of the MT output**

Two assessors rated the fluency as showing some fluency (with some errors) while one assessor rated it as good. The average rating score of the first assessor was found to be 3.69 while the third assessor’s average rating score was found to be 3.84. As for the second assessor, the average rating score was found to be 4.15. Since the average score was above 3, it can be inferred that the translation is considered as relatively ‘good’ Figure 3 below shows the fluency rating provided by the three assessors.

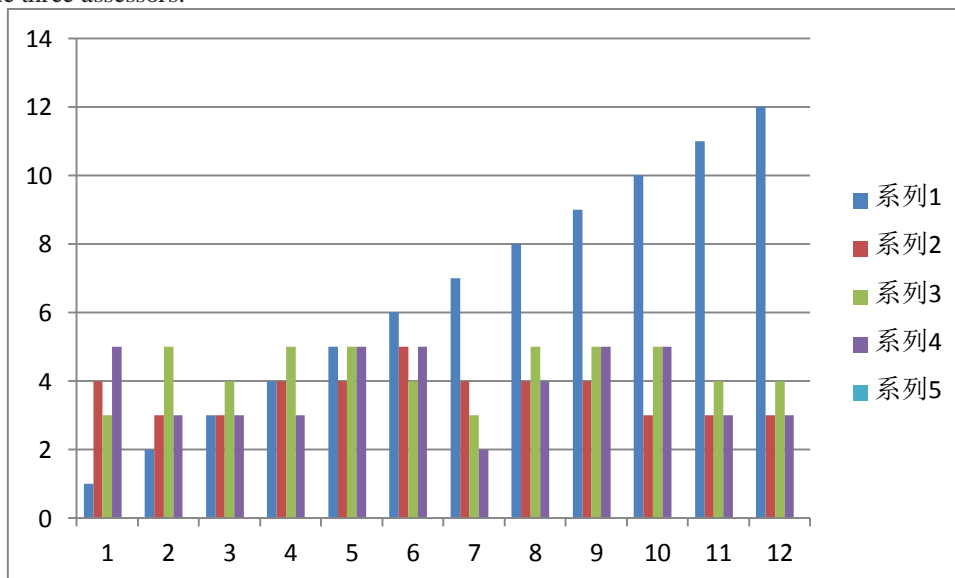


Figure 3: Fluency Rating

**Section 4: The adequacy of the MT output**

The evaluators assessed the translation as highly adequate. In other words, the translations were found to be highly semantically adequate. The figure below shows the assessment of semantic adequacy.

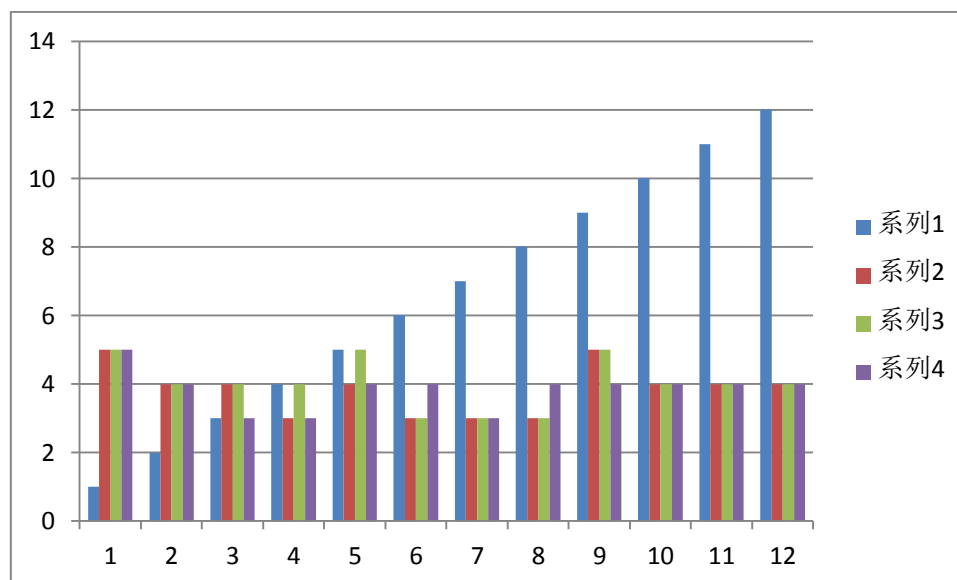


Figure 4: Semantic Adequacy of MT Output

As seen in figure 4, the three assessors rated the semantic adequacy as almost totally meaningful. The average rating score provided by the first assessor and the third assessor was found to be 3.92 while the score provided by the second assessor was found to be 4.7. This shows that GT was found to be of great support for translators.

## V. CONCLUSION

The article aimed at examining the common errors in the raw output of GT. It also aimed at examining the quality of the translation errors, the semantic adequacy and the fluency of the translation output... For this purpose, texts from different sources were selected. Different types of errors were found in the output translation. As regards, the quality of the translation errors, most of them were found to be minor errors. For, fluency, it was found that the translation show some fluency (with some errors). Also, semantic adequacy was found to be high. This research concludes that GT is a very important and effective system that can help expedite the translation process. Future studies that provide solutions to reduce the errors found in the MT output are recommended.

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# Free Indirect Speech in *Northanger Abbey*

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**Abstract**—The thesis mainly analyzes the Free Indirect Speech in Austen's novel *Northanger Abbey* (Volume 2). When Austen describes Catherine's feeling for Henry Tilney, it is difficult for us to distinguish the subjective consciousness of the narrator from the character. Their calm and objective tone is prone to arouse the resonance with the readers. Authorial narrator sometimes appears to explain the fate of Catherine. When Austen describes Catherine's expedition to Northanger Abbey, the character has more prominent subjective consciousness, and readers can distance themselves from the character and examine Catherine's ridiculous and irrational behavior and feel the ironic effects. The thesis points out that Austen used this technique to portray Catherine, who was able to deal with her feeling for Henry reasonably, however, was influenced greatly by the Gothic novels at that time, and could not handle the relationship between reality and fiction very well.

**Index Terms**— narrator, character, free indirect speech, resonance, ironic effects

## I. INTRODUCTION

According to the introduction of *Northanger Abbey*, Austen began writing *Northanger Abbey* in 1798. After revising it in 1803, she named it *Susan* and revised the novel again in 1816. The *Northanger Abbey* was published in December 1817, and was positioned as a legend by *Morning Chronicle*. (Sun Zhili, 2009, p.1) The reason for positioning the legend may be related to the Gothic plot described in the novel: the heroine often reads some Gothic novels and has nightmares, and what she has experienced in Northanger Abbey is in sharp contrast with the Gothic horror scenes described in the novel, so this is just a means of publicity.

The novel refers to several Gothic novels at that time: *Castles of Wolfenbach*, *Clermont*, *Mysterious Warnings*, *Necromancer of the Black Forest*, *Midnight Bell*, *Orphan of the Rhine*, and *Horrid Mysteries*. (Austen, 2015, p.25) Throughout the novel, Ann Radcliffe's *The Mysteries of Udolpho* is the most important, which has a profound influence on the heroine. Austen did not follow the trend to write a Gothic novel. Instead, she portrayed a heroine who wanted to verify the Gothic plot described in *Udolpho* through her experience at Northanger Abbey. The characters are directly projected by the heroine on the real-life characters (the heroine projected the ferocious gangster Montoni in the novel of *Udolpho* on General Tilney), and the Gothic novels at that time are thus satirized. Therefore, it can be viewed as an "anti-Gothic intention". (Sun Zhili, 1988, p.35)

In her early twenties Austen wrote this novel which was composed of two volumes. The first volume is about how Catherine Morland of ordinary origin got to know Henry Tilney who was a clergyman and of a very respectable family in Gloucestershire. They admired each other, but they were thwarted by Thorpe and Tilney's father. There are also other characters, to name a few, Catherine's brother James Morland, Catherine's friend Isabella, Catherine's neighbor Mr. and Mrs. Allen, Tilney's sister Miss Tilney, Tilney's father General Tilney, who were closely related to Catherine's fate. Isabella turned out to be a person who at first was fond of James Morland and later Henry Tilney's brother. She was in marked contrast to Catherine in personality. The second volume is about Catherine's visit to Northanger Abbey. Catherine was invited to visit Northanger Abbey but was turned from Northanger Abbey by Tilney's father without any reason and abruptly. Later, Henry apologized to Catherine, and they had a happy ending.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Current Research on Free Indirect Speech

Free Indirect Speech was theoretically officially named by Saussure's student Charles Bally in 1912. Hu Yamin once traced the history of Free Indirect Speech: Bally, Lorck and Spitzer's views on Free Indirect Speech. He defined Free Indirect Speech as follows: a kind of discourse mode narrating the language, feelings and thought of a character from the perspective of the character in the third person. It presents the form of objective narrative and the narrator's description, but what evokes in the reader's mind is the character's voice, action and mood. (Hu Yamin, 1989, p.81) Free Indirect Speech mainly has three features: the third person, past tense and non-reported clause. Free Indirect Speech can achieve different effects. (Shen & Wang, 2010, p.161-167; McHale, 1978, p.249-287; Cohn, 1978, p.116-126) Free Indirect Speech can achieve effects of irony, empathy, ambiguity, semantic density, and has the strengths of both indirect and direct Speech. (Shen & Wang, 2010, p.161-167)

Because there is no reported clause, the retelling is consistent with the narrative in person and tense. If the character's language does not have obvious characteristics of subjective consciousness, it is sometimes difficult to distinguish it from the narrator's description when expressed in Free Indirect Speech. (Shen & Wang, 2010, p.164) Some instances of Free Indirect Speech are authoritative descriptions by omniscient narrators. The author sometimes uses an ambiguous form to "mislead" readers and thus a dramatic effect can be produced. (Shen, 1991a, p.11-16) When illustrating the effect produced by character's discourse mode, Shen Dan mentioned that we should pay attention to the relationship between character's subjective consciousness and narrator's subjective consciousness. For example, we should pay attention to the extent to which the narrator summarizes the discourse of the character; whether the narrator replaced the character's point of view with his own point of view; whether the narrator used his calm and objective words to replace the linguistic component with the character's personality or emotional characteristics; whether the narrator reveals his attitude while retelling the character's discourse. (Shen, 1991b, p.18)

The domestic research on the novel *Northanger Abbey* is mainly conducted from the perspectives of Gothic elements, marriage, money, intertextuality, Cooperative Principle, figure and background, just to name a few. Hao Lianxin and Che Xiaorui discussed the use of Free Indirect Speech in *Northanger Abbey*. The article focuses on the fifteenth chapter of the novel: Tilney came to visit Catherine and apologize for his father's behavior after Catherine was turned from Northanger Abbey. The article points out that Austen's use of Free Indirect Speech can show how she views things. (Hao Lianxin & Che Xiaorui, 2010, p.61-62)

Narelle Shaw argued that in volume one, there are just four brief examples of Free Indirect Speech. By comparison, the incidence of Free Indirect Speech is inordinately high in volume two, and there occurs an intriguing concentration in conjunction with the figure of General Tilney. (Shaw, 1990, p.597) In volume one, the following four examples are related to Bath: when Isabella expressed her feeling for Catherine's brother James Morland, and Austen used Free Indirect Speech to express Isabella's prevarication, and her egotistical absorption in her own affairs or self-centered personality; Austen used Free Indirect Speech to express Mrs. Allen's views on the weather to create ironic effects; Austen used Free Indirect Speech to indicate General Tilney's protests when he thought Catherine came from a wealthy family and was angry with servants' negligence; Catherine did not have idea why General Tilney invited her to spend a day with his daughter, Austen used Free Indirect Speech to achieve ironic effects and reveal General Tilney and Catherine's personality. In Volume two, Austen used Free Indirect Speech to describe Isabella's indifference to friends; Catherine's belief in the Gothic world reached a comedic effect; when Catherine and General Tilney communicated with each other, General Tilney's greed nature was exposed and he became a villain who will thwart Catherine and Tilney's marital career. Shaw argued that Austen used this technique to achieve ironic effects and revealed her potential to shape characters. (Shaw, 1990, p. 591-596)

#### B. Author's Views on Free Indirect Speech

This thesis mainly uses the method of close reading to analyze the second volume of the novel, and explores the intention and effects of Austen's use of Free Indirect Speech in depicting Catherine's inner feelings. When Austen described the love between Catherine and Tilney, it is difficult to distinguish the subjective consciousness of the narrator from the character. They were calm and objective, and thus aroused readers' resonance with the character. Authorial narrator sometimes appeared to explain the fate of Catherine. When Austen depicted Catherine's exploratory journey to Northanger Abbey, the narrator's description gradually disappeared, the subjective consciousness of the character gradually became prominent. Austen focused more on character's mental activities, and depicted the character who wanted to confirm the description of the Gothic novel was unreasonable. Readers can distance themselves from the character and fully appreciate the absurdity of the character's thought as onlookers and thus feel the ironic effects.

### III. ANALYSIS OF FREE INDIRECT SPEECH

#### A. Mixed Subjective Consciousness of Narrator and Character

The second volume of the novel continues to depict Allen and Catherine's stay in Bath. Under the same roof as the beloved Tilney, Catherine became very sensitive to Tilney's behavior. She felt that "Tilney had never said so little nor been so little agreeable." (Austen, 2015, p.103) By the 6th week of Bath's trip, there might be only one week left, and she didn't even want to be separated from Tilney. Since deciding to renew the house for two weeks, Catherine was full of expectations now, and "the present was now comprised in another three weeks, and her happiness being certain for that period the rest of her life was at such a distance as to excite but little interest." (Austen, 2015, p.110). However, "Miss Tilney told her of her father's having just determined upon quitting Bath by the end of another week." (Austen, 2015, p.110) Then General Tilney invited her to go to Gloucestershire (Tilney was born in a decent family in Gloucestershire) to accompany her friends. Catherine was about to start a trip to Northanger Abbey:

Northanger Abbey! These were thrilling words, and wound up Catherine's feelings to the highest point of ecstasy. Her grateful and gratified heart could hardly restrain its expressions within the language of tolerable calmness. To receive so flattering an invitation! To have her company so warmly solicited! (Austen, 2015, p.111)



Austen used three exclamation marks to highlight Catherine's surprise and excitement. On the one hand, Catherine loves to read Gothic novels. In *Northanger Abbey*, she can verify everything described in the novels in person. On the other hand, she can enjoy her stay with her sweetheart Tilney. Most importantly, this was an invitation from General Tilney who assumed that Catherine came from a wealthy family. Catherine innocently thought that the invitation was a great honor. When she was later turned from the *Northanger Abbey*, she still did not know Thorpe's plot.

The Free Indirect Speech in this paragraph is mixed with the voice of the narrator, expressing the character's excitement. Free Indirect Speech has certain advantages in expressing the mental activities of character, and it can be switched freely from the voice of the narrator to the voice of the character. Catherine was in a bad mood when she knew the sudden change of agenda of the Tilneys, and later she had mixed feelings about having the opportunity to improve her acquaintance with Tilney. Does Catherine come from a wealthy or poor family? General Tilney thought that Catherine came from a wealthy family based on Thorpe's words. As for Catherine, she presents herself as poor, however, the narrator said in the final chapter: "that in no sense of the word were they necessitous or poor, and that Catherine still had three thousand pounds. (Austen, 2015, p.211) According to the third chapter, her family was not as respectable as Tilney's. This makes her very sensitive to her and Tilney's relationship. In chapter four, Catherine looked forward to Tilney's appearance. When she did not see Tilney, she would feel lost but still remain reasonable. She always viewed the relationship between her and Tilney with reason. She always maintained her dignity and did not blindly draw a conclusion and until she saw Tilney again in chapter eight. Readers also think that General Tilney has been thoughtful and they hope that she will further develop her acquaintance with Tilney.

Before Catherine set out for *Northanger Abbey*, Austen described Catherine's state of mind:

The Tilneys, they, by whom, above all, she desired to be favorably thought of, outstripped even her wishes in the flattering measures by which their intimacy was to be continued. She **was to be** their chosen visitor, she **was to be** for weeks under the same **roof** with the person whose society she mostly prized – and, in addition to all the rest, this **roof was to be the roof** of an abbey! Her passion for ancient edifices was next in degree to her passion for Henry Tilney- and castles and abbeys made usually the charm of those reveries which his image did not fill. (Austen, 2015, p.112)

This paragraph can also be viewed as the description of the omniscient narrator and summary of Catherine's discourse, or Free Indirect Speech with an ambiguous effect. The author used the parallel structure "she was to be" to express Catherine's ardent expectations and having a chance to see the Gothic place she had longed for. Austen used "roof" three times to indicate two meanings: under the same roof as the beloved Tilney, and under the roof of the *Northanger Abbey*. Catherine's juxtaposition of her feeling for Henry and *Northanger Abbey* shows that *Northanger Abbey* plays a very important role in her mind. She was sensible about her and Henry's feelings, with eager anticipation, and was convinced of the scenes described in Gothic novels.

Later, Catherine's love encountered a crisis, and she almost lost her beloved Tilney due to her suspicions. *Northanger Abbey* was not the place described in the novel she had read. When Catherine suffered a double blow, readers couldn't help crying for her suffering. When the readers read the most heartbreaking chapter thirteen in the second volume, they may find it hard to distinguish the subjective consciousness of the narrator from the character:

Turned from the house, and in such a way! Without any reason that could justify, any apology that could atone for the abruptness, the rudeness, nay, the insolence of it, Henry at a distance – not able even to bid him farewell. Every hope, every expectation from him suspended, at least, and who could say how long? Who could say when they might meet again? And all this by such a man as General Tilney, so polite, so well-bred, and heretofore so particularly fond of her! (Austen, 2015, p.188)

The narrator brings the readers completely into Catherine's mental world and makes them feel the indignation of being turned from the house by General Tilney. Catherine was very helpless at this time, and neither Henry nor her family could share her sorrow and help her out. She has to rely on herself. Readers are angry about the sudden change in General Tilney's attitude, and compliment her on her calm and objective tone. Catherine was not defeated because of this, she was still full of hope for the future.

Austen's novels often have "storms in the teacup". These seemingly small storms can subvert the lovers' boat. Austen created many "small storms" in the novel, which will be resolved satisfactorily in the end. We will resonate with Catherine and worry about Catherine's encounter with many unfortunate things. What Catherine had experienced is in sharp contrast to Catherine's previous expectations of *Northanger Abbey*. The readers involuntarily sympathized with Catherine and hated General Tilney. When Catherine returned home with great loss, the Morlands also thought that "it was a strange business, and that he must be a very strange man." (Austen, 2015, p.195). They used "strange" to comment on General Tilney, but did not explore the misunderstanding behind this.

We should mention that in *Northanger Abbey*, "I" sometimes appeared to explain the fate of characters. "I" said in Chapter fourteen:

It gives credit to every conclusion, and the author must share in the glory she so liberally bestows. But my affair is widely different; I bring back my heroine to her home **in solitude** and **disgrace**; and no sweet elation of spirits can lead me into minuteness. A heroine in a hack past chaise is such a **blow upon sentiment**, as no attempt at grandeur or **pathos** can withstand. (Austen, 2015, p.194)

Lancer views “I” in this novel as authorial “intrusion” or authorial voice. She said: many of Austen’s adolescent writings create authorial narrators who engage spiritedly in extrarepresentational acts.” (Lancer, 1992, p.63) Austen uses authorial “I” to either parody fictional convention, or qualify or personalize, and render ambiguous the resolutions to plots...each creates as well a sense of community with characters or with audience. (Lancer, 1992, p.72-73)

The above boldfaced words can summarize Catherine’s mood when she was turned from Northanger Abbey. The voice of “I” can be seen as author’s further explanation for the heroine’s encounter and also creates a sense of community with readers and won the approval or understanding of readers. The reasons behind Catherine’s humiliation were only revealed in the final chapter. It turned out that Thorpe intentionally misled General Tilney and made Catherine have experienced hardships. Catherine and Tilney finally cleared up the misunderstanding when Tilney came to apologize to her. Austen seems to keep the readers in suspense. If we trace back to the first volume, we find that we have ignored the character “Thorpe”. Because the second volume of the novel mainly deals with Catherine’s journey to the Northanger Abbey, there is no reason for Thorpe to appear. “I” must explain the mystery behind the event.

In Chapter sixteen of the second volume, “I” said:

Concerning the one in question, therefore, I have only to add - aware that the rules of composition forbid the introduction of a character not connected with my fable - that this was the very gentleman whose negligent servant left behind him that the collection of washing-bills, resulting from a long visit at Northanger, by which my heroine was involved in one of her most **alarming adventures**. (Austen, 2015, p. 211)

Austen used authorial narrator “I” to explain why Catherine’s journey to Northanger Abbey turned out to be so alarming. When authorial narrator revealed the truth, if readers recall Catherine’s earlier behavior and found what she had done rather ridiculous and worthless; the washing-bills turned out to be so ironic when Catherine was busy relating them to her earlier reading of Gothic novels. This kind of authorial voice also enhanced the ironic effects produced by Free Indirect Speech.

Park Honan thinks that “what is weak in *Northanger Abbey* is its freshest and most innovative feature - its narrative voice.” (Honan, 1987, p.141) and it is “a lithe and slippery eel of great energy which is less than fully controlled.” (Honan, 1987, p.143) In this novel, generalizations (explicit expressions of ideological stance that refer to “world” beyond the fictional) are quite plentiful. After *Northanger Abbey*, generalizations do not disappear, rather they are rendered contingent and ambiguous through Austen’s use of an “indefinite” free indirect discourse that allows the narrator an equivocal participation in the thoughts of her characters. (Lancer, 1992, p.73)

#### B. More Prominent Subjective Consciousness of Character

From chapter five to chapter thirteen, Austen describes Catherine’s expedition to Northanger Abbey. Catherine often read some Gothic novels in Bath and had a very rich imagination. She felt that the Northanger Abbey should be consistent with the description in the novel, but the actual exploration disappointed her. In Northanger Abbey, Catherine made an unreasonable guess on General Tilney and explored Tilney’s mother’s room. The narrator has drifted away from the character of the novel, allowing the character of the novel to speak for themselves, and the subjective characteristics of the character become more obvious. The incidence of Free Indirect Speech has increased when Austen describes Catherine’s mental activities, with the aim of expressing irony and highlighting the contrast between ideal and reality. The reader can distance themselves from the narrator and hear the voice of the character reproduced by the narrator, and realize the absurdity of her behavior and thought. With regard to the death of Tilney’s mother, the following examples can illustrate Catherine’s subjective consciousness:

- (1) Why was Miss Tilney embarrassed? **Could** there be any unwillingness on the general’s side to show her over the abbey? The proposal was his own, and was not it odd that she should always take his walk so early? (Austen, 2015, p.144)
- (2) Here was another proof. A portrait – very like- of a departed wife, not valued by the husband! He **must have been** dreadfully cruel to her! (Austen, 2015, p.147)
- (3) Of her unhappiness in marriage, she felt persuaded. The general certainly had been an unkind. husband. He did not love her walk: **could** he therefore have loved her? And besides, handsome as he was, there was a something in the turn of his features which spoke his not having behaved well to her. (Austen, 2015, p.147)
- (4) It was the air and attitude of a Montoni! What **could** more plainly speak the gloomy workings of a mind not wholly dead to very sense of humanity, in its fearful review of past scenes of guilt? Unhappy man! (Austen, 2015, p.153)

The above boldfaced modals can indicate Catherine’s suspicions and reveal her inner world. Readers as onlookers may appreciate her own cleverness temporarily. However, readers will find that her seemingly meticulous mind was full of fantasy. She considered General Tilney a brutal and vicious person. She never asked Tilney what his father and mother were like. However, she would like to take an adventure in person, and view Northanger Abbey as a place of terror. Henry Tilney reminded her of the age, country and religion, laws and education (Austen, 2015, p.162). Henry scolded her for her malicious ideas, and she became rather embarrassed and shed tears. Austen uses Free Indirect Speech to create a dramatic effect, allowing readers to directly feel the mental activities of the character and experience the character’s irrational and ridiculous personality.

## IV. CONCLUSION

This thesis has analyzed the effects caused by the Free Indirect Speech in *Northanger Abbey*. When Austen depicting Catherine's feeling for Henry Tilney, it is hard to distinguish the subjective consciousness of the narrator from the character. This kind of mixed description can arouse the readers' resonance with the character. Authorial narrator sometimes appeared to explain the fate of Catherine and later became indefinite and participated in the thoughts of characters in the form of Free Indirect Speech (Discourse) in Austen's other novels. When Austen depicting Catherine's journey to Northanger Abbey, the narrator's description gradually faded away, and the subjective characteristics of the character in the novel became prominent as Catherine's adventure was further described. In this way the readers will distance themselves from the character and experience Catherine's irrationality as onlookers. Austen did not explicitly indicate how Gothic novels did harm to people, but through Free Indirect Speech allowed readers to experience the protagonist's ridiculous and exhausting shuttle between the ideal world and the real world. Especially when Catherine returning to reality, everything Catherine carefully planned seemed so redundant, and her feeling of frustration and shame made readers involuntarily admire Austen's seemingly gentle but ironic writing technique.

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# An Overview of Syntactic Tense & Aspect: From both Grammatical & Lexical Perspectives

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**Abstract**—Language can be complicated even within one language, such as in English. Rules of grammar, construction, and syntax are used to express ideas clearly so that others understand the intention behind them. However, these rules can lead to challenges in ensuring that ideas are effectively communicated and interpreted, particularly because word choice in the context of grammar and syntax rules can impact the way an expression is interpreted. This can be illustrated through an examination of the perfective aspect of syntax. The purpose of this research is to provide an overview of aspect and tense from both the grammatical and lexical perspectives.

**Index Terms**—perfective, imperfective, lexical, grammar, tense, aspect

## I. INTRODUCTION

Language can be complicated even within one language, such as in English. The way individuals put words together and express ideas are intended to help the hearer or reader to understand the meaning behind what is said. According to DeLancey (2001), “Put in phenomenological terms, the fundamental communicative function of language is to provide the speaker with tools with which to guide a hearer in constructing an experiential representation” (p. 371). Rules of grammar, construction, and syntax are used to express ideas clearly so that others understand the intention behind them. However, these rules can lead to challenges in ensuring that ideas are effectively communicated and interpreted, particularly because word choice in the context of grammar and syntax rules can impact the way an expression is interpreted. According to Pustejovsky (1991), “It is my opinion that the representation of the context of an utterance should be viewed as involving many different *generative factors* that account for the way that language users create and manipulate the context under constraints, in order to be understood” (p. 411). That is, the way an idea is constructed and expressed determines how an individual understands what is expressed and what it means (Bardovi-Harlig, 1992).

In addition, some components of grammar, such as aspect, can allow for multiple interpretations, which must be considered when constructing expressions. Understanding the intricacies of language can help individuals express themselves more effectively as well as help individuals learn new languages, particularly when they have syntactic similarities to their native languages. As a result, individuals are able to gain a deeper understanding of language, its use, and its importance in conveying ideas.

This can be illustrated through an examination of the perfective aspect of syntax. The perfective aspect is an aspect, or viewpoint, within language that helps to convey the temporal elements of an expression. Typically, aspect and tense work together to give clues as to the timeframe of an expression. The perfective aspect is one element of aspect. While it is separate from tense, as in perfect tense, the two are closely related and frequently researched together. The purpose of this research is to examine the perfective aspect of linguistics, how it is used, and its importance in language. This research explores aspect and tense from the perspective of grammatical aspect and tense and lexical aspect, with particular attention to the perfective and imperfective in the grammatical context and the four classifications of lexical aspect.

## II. ASPECT AND TENSE

Aspect and tense refer to the temporal clues that are used in language for greater understanding of the intention behind what is said or written (Hamm & Bott, 2014). These temporal clues are also valuable so that language adheres to rules of grammar and syntax, which furthers an understanding about what is said and meant. For those who speak or understand a language, these clues can be obvious, particularly in the context of tense. For example, since the past tense of *run* is *ran* in English, it is easy to determine whether the use of the word is in past tense. Other uses, particularly in other languages, are more difficult to identify, and require the use of additional clues and rules to determine the temporal intention of the utterance.

Since the concepts of tense and aspect are closely related, and frequently work together in grammar to create an understanding of the utterance and its context in time. However, they are separate ideas in grammar and serve different purposes within language and syntax. Understanding the two components individually can help create an understanding as to how they work together. This can then build a foundation on which the meaning of utterances can be better

identified and understood as well as used properly, particularly for language learners (Robinson, 1990). This research provides a foundation of knowledge about tense and aspect in order to understand the perfective aspect more effectively.

### III. TENSE

For many, tense is the easiest concept to understand because of the way words and phrases are changed to denote tense. Within the context of grammar and linguistics, there are three tenses: past, present, and future. For example:

- (1) (a) Emily sat in the chair.  
 (b) Emily is sitting in the chair.  
 (c) Emily will sit in the chair.

In each of these examples, Emily sits in the chair. However, the tense of the sentences provides a different perspective for when that will happen. The grammatical tense lets the reader or listener know when the event or state occurred to provide context and understanding.

In (1) (a), Emily sat in the chair in the past as *sat* is the past-tense form of *sit*. Therefore, sentence is written in past tense. Using the knowledge of the past-tense form of the verb *sit*, the verb is the temporal clue for the sentence. Since the verb is the form that designates the sitting took place previously, the reader or listener knows that the event expressed already occurred. Therefore, it is in past tense. Smith assumes that “the syntax of a fully-tensed language includes a tense phrase (TP).” Every sentence has direct information about temporal location; (i) the default interpretation of present tense sentences as located in the present, (ii) past tense conveys that the reference Time precedes the Speech Time. The other types of languages have a syntactic aspect phrase but no TP, Gueron, J. and Lecarme J. (2008). In these languages temporal location is inferred from aspectual information.

In (1) (b), Emily is sitting in the chair currently. In this sentence, *is sitting* is the present-tense form of *sit*, with the linking verb *is* serves as a link between the subject (*Emily*) and information about the subject (*sitting in the chair*). Present tense frequently uses linking verbs, particularly in English, to connect the subject and the action. This method of construction is often found when the information about the subject is a state of being rather than an explicit action, such as in *sitting*. Sitting is not really an action, but when an individual *is sitting*, the verb *sit* is a state of being for that subject. Therefore, the linking verb *is* connects the subject to that state of being.

In (1) (c), the sitting takes place in the future. The compound verb *will sit* denotes that the sitting has not yet taken place, but is going to. In this example, *will* is a modal verb, and its function in the sentence is to convey functional meaning. As in the case of (1) (b), the use of the word *sit* suggests a state of being rather than an action. Therefore, the verb *will* helps connect the subject (*Emily*) to the state of being (*sit*). However, (1) (c) is different in that *is* (in (1) (b) is a linking verb rather than a modal verb. In (1) (c), *sit* is still the main verb, with the modal verb *will* conveying information about the main verb. In (1) (b), on the other hand, the linking verb (*is*) is the main verb with *sitting* as the state of being.

Another component to tense is perfect or imperfect tense. In imperfect tense, the action expressed occurred in the past and do not occur in the present. For example:

- (2) (a) Emily sat in the chair an hour ago.

Typically, imperfect tense will need some indicator that the action is not only complete, but that it is not occurring at the time of utterance. In (2) (b), the past tense of *sit* indicates that it occurred in the past, suggesting completion. However, if the sentence were complete with only the past-tense verb (*Emily sat in the chair.*) there would be no indication as to whether she were currently sitting in the chair or if she were no longer sitting in the chair. As a result, this would not give enough clues on the surface to suggest imperfect tense. The addition of *an hour ago* lets the listener or reader know that the event occurred in the past and that she is not sitting in the chair currently. This makes the action imperfect rather than perfect.

Perfect tense, on the other hand, occurs when the verb expressed occurred in the past. That is, the action is not only complete, but it will not occur again or is no occurring currently. This differentiates verb usage from events that occurred in the past, but are either also currently occurring, or may occur again in the future. Despite the emphasis on the past, perfect tense is not limited to the past. Perfect tense may be used in past, present, and future tense. What makes the tense perfect is the form of the verb and other temporal clues to suggest that the event occurred in the past and is not currently occurring.

While past perfect tense is straightforward, using past-tense verbs to express the idea or event, future and present are a little different. Perfect future tense expresses an event that will be complete at a given time in the future. For example:

- (2) (b) Emily will have sat in the chair by the time her lunch break is over.

In this example, the event has not occurred at the time of utterance (*future tense*), but by a given time (*by the time her lunch break is over*), the action will be complete (*will have sat*). In this way, the sentence is both perfect (*complete action rather than ongoing*) and future (*has not occurred at the time of utterance*). All of the clues, when taken together, show the completion of the action as well as the future tense of the verb, making the example future perfect tense.

In perfect present tense, a form of the verb *have* is used with a past participle. Perfect present will be used throughout this research as a basis of understanding perfective aspect. Therefore, a stronger background in perfect present tense is valuable for this discussion. For example:

- (3) (a) Emily has sat in the chair.

In this example, the verb *sat* is in the past tense, but the verb *has* shifts the sentence to perfect present tense rather than remaining in past tense. Perfect present is a compound tense. Therefore, it requires both the main verb (*sat*) and the auxiliary verb (*has*). These two verbs must work in cooperation to create the perfect present tense.

Remember that perfect tense requires that the action is complete. Present tense suggests that an action is current or immediate. By combining the past tense of the verb (such as *sat*) with the present tense of the auxiliary verb (*has*), the sentence is able to meet both of these grammatical requirements. In the use of a stative verb, this method can also be used. A stative verb is one that is ongoing or continuous, such as *wanted* (Binnick, 1991). These verbs are often used to express a state of being or state of mind, such as in the case of emotions. While some stative verbs may be more complex to use in the perfect present, they can be used since even stative verbs can be presented in the past tense (suggesting completion). For example:

(3) (b) Emily has wanted her chair.

It should be noted that, in the case of some verbs, additional temporal clues must be included to provide enough context for the perfect present tense. This helps reinforce the present tense as well as the idea of completion, referred to as *telicity*.

The usage of perfect present tense can be found in languages other than English, as well (Smith, 1997). Examining the usage in other languages is beneficial when translated accurately. In English, many of these translations are not grammatically correct, but the errors emphasize the perfect present tense usage. For example:

(3) (c) Ivan šte e *pristignal* v Sofia do dovečera.

This sentence, which is Bulgarian, translates to “Ivan will *be arrived* in Sofia by tonight.” In this sentence, *be arrived* is used in the same way as *have arrived* in English. In addition:

(3) (d) Cuma gibi Istanbula var-*mis-ti-m*.

This sentence, which is in Turkish, translates to “I had arrived in Instabul by Friday.” Once again, the sentence uses a form of *have* and a past participle to create perfect present. This approach combines the use of past and future tense as a way to understand the present.

#### IV. ASPECT

Aspect is different from tense, focusing more on the “notion” of time rather than clear, temporal clues like past, present, and future. According to Duan (2013), “Aspect was originally put forward as a category in general linguistics, but not specific to any particular language. Aspect, as a grammatical category in general linguistics, is indicated mainly by changes of verb forms” (p. 265). While aspect also deals with temporal clues, aspect may include elements from outside of the event or state in the sentence to suggest additional components or a part of an event still in progress. Singh (1998) explains, “Aspect refers to the way an event is viewed internally. [...] Sometimes, aspect is referred to as *situation internal time*, as in Smith” (p. 171). Rather than strictly temporal, aspect provides a viewpoint of the language. For example:

(4) (a) Emily sat in the chair.

(b) Emily was sitting in the chair.

In (4) (a), the sentence presents a complete event. *Emily sat in the chair*. That is all there is to the sentence. However, in (4) (b), there is an implication that sitting in the chair is only a component to a greater event or state, or one that is in progress but not complete. For example, *Emily was sitting in the chair [when the lights went out]*. The event, relative to (4) (b), is incomplete. The temporal clues suggest there may be more to the event than Emily simply sitting in the chair.

The elements of this event beyond sitting in the chair are not apparent from the sentence on its own. In this situation, a reader may rely on additional sentences or context clues from additional sentences to complete the event. Aspect and tense, though they are different, are closely related, and impact each other in linguistics. According to Bybee and Dahl (1989):

Theoretically, a combination of three tenses (present, past, and future) and two aspects (perfective and imperfective) would yield at least six combinations. This possibility, however, is practically never realized in a single language. In fact, it seldom happens that more than four combinations are distinguished, due to a universal tendency for there to be a coupling between perfectivity and the past, in most cases resulting in a system where a gram with the meaning ‘perfective past’ is opposed to everything else [...]. (p. 83)

Russian and Bulgarian which belong to the Slavic languages have rich forms to As can be understood from Bybee and Dahl (1989), aspect can become complicated when it is examined in other languages, due in large part to the way other languages change their verb forms.

This can be understood through an understanding of how linguistics occur in various languages. For example, according to Duan (2013):

Some inflected languages like show aspect. English is between an analytical language and an inflectional language. Without special form to show aspect, English resorts to inflectional changes of adding auxiliary verbs to verbs to indicate aspect. Chinese is a language without inflectional changes, so aspect is revealed by semi-dependent function words. (p. 263)

In other words, it is because of English as an analytical language that the perfective aspect does not really exist.

The same is true in Chinese, in which the lack of inflectional changes results in aspect being conveyed through semi-dependent function words. For example, Soh and Gao (2006) argue that the particle *-le* in Mandarin Chinese functions as a marker for the perfective aspect within the language (Li, Thompson, & McMillan Thompson, 1982). According to Li, Thompson, and McMillan Thompson (1982):

The basic communicative function of *le* is to signal a ‘Currently Relevant State (=CRS). That is, *le* claims that a state of affairs has special current relevance to some particular Reference Time. The Mandarin *le*, then, can be easily seen as an exponent of the perfect aspect, the basic discourse function of the Perfect being, as we have said, to relate some state of affairs to the “current” time, i.e., in the unmarked case, the conversational setting in which the speaker and hearer are participating as interlocutors. (p. 22)

This is the opposite of the use of *-ing* in English, which serves as a marker for the imperfective aspect. The imperfective is present when the event expressed is incomplete. In English, the use of *-ing* suggests currency, as with the Mandarin *-le*, but in English, *-ing* suggests that the verb is currently occurring rather than having been completed.

The use of textual markers in this way takes the place of inflectional changes when they are absent in a given language. In addition, despite similarities between languages, differences in syntax and grammar can result in insurmountable differences, leading to the need for interpretation when translating. This can be illustrated in *Figure 1* below.

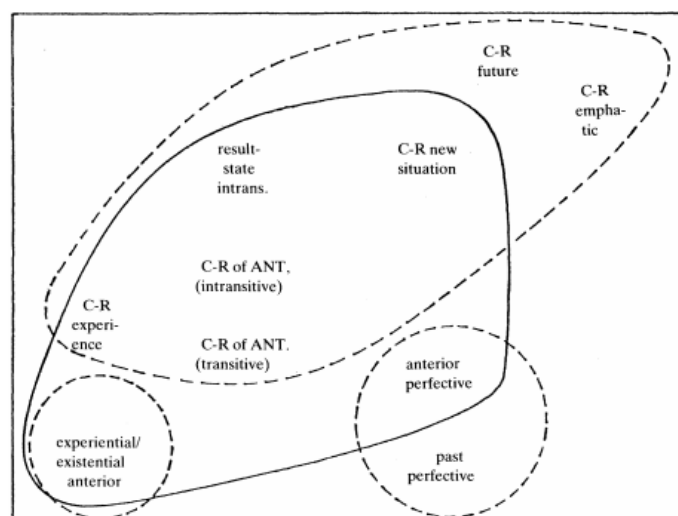


Figure 1: Alignment of English and Mandarin Perfects (Anderson, 1982a, p. 229)

This figure represents the uses of the perfect in use in English and Mandarin. Mapping the alignment shows that, in most cases, categories of words have single uses (Anderson, 1982a). Anderson (1982a) illustrates this through a comparison of Mandarin and English. According to Anderson (1982a, p. 228):

The English Perfect has a range of uses, as has long been recognized (see extensive bibliography in McCoard 1978). Major ones are in (1).

- |                                      |  |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| (1) (a) “experiential”:              | <i>Have</i> you (ever) <i>been</i> to Japan?   |
| (b) “current relevance of anterior”: | He <i>has</i> studied the whole book. (so he can help)                                     |
| (c) “new situation”:                 | (“hot news”) Io <i>has</i> just erupted! (discovery of volcanos on one of Jupiter’s moons) |
| (d) “result-state”:                  | He <i>has</i> gone. (or) He <i>is</i> gone. (is not here)                                  |
| (e) “continuous”:                    | I <i>have</i> been standing here for three hours. (still here)                             |
|                                      | (in the analysis here called ‘anterior continuing’)  |
| (f) “anterior”:                      | John thought Mary <i>had</i> left. / Mary will <i>have</i> left by then.                   |

Anderson (1982a) concludes that these meanings are similar to each other in some way, which places them near each other on a grammatical map. Therefore, in *Figure 1*, the relationship between the classifications can be visualized and, thus, understood. Despite the similarities, problems arise when different languages attempt to satisfy multiple categorical requirements in a map that does not entirely overlap, as in the case of Mandarin and English (Anderson, 1982a). In *Figure 1*, the solid line represents the English category boundary, while the dashed line represents the Mandarin category boundary. As can be seen, there are areas that do not align, such as in past perfective.

## V. GRAMMATICAL ASPECT

Grammatical aspect refers to the grammatical construction of words that denotes aspect. The two categories of grammatical aspect and tense examined for the purposes of this research are perfective and imperfective. The temporal view of a state or event in the perfective aspect occurs as a whole regardless of the internal structure of the utterance. In the imperfective aspect, aspect is expressed relative to the internal structure of the utterance rather than as a whole.

For those who are unfamiliar with grammar analysis and those who may be learning a language for the first time, this may be a difficult concept to grasp. The most effective way to identify and differentiate between the two is through an example. Mourelatos (1978) uses the quoted example: “A man may be walking to the Rose and Crown, and yet never walk there, perhaps because he is run over on the way” (p. 420). This sentence includes both the perfective and the imperfective, making it an effective example to use for identification and analysis of both of these grammatical constructs. According to Mourelatos (1978):

In Kenny’s example of the walk to the Rose and Crown, the first occurrence of the verb is in imperfective, the second in perfective aspect. The contrast is easily missed in English because the suffix “-ing” is not only part of the marker of the imperfective aspect but often simply a neutral participial or gerundial ending. (p. 421)

Mourelatos (1978) explains that the example has two options: perfective or imperfective aspect throughout.

However, in order for either of those options to be utilized, the sentence would have to be rewritten. To apply perfective aspect throughout, the sentence would read, “If it is now true that he has this very moment walked to the Rose and Crown, it will be true in the future that he did walk, or had walked, to the Rose and Crown” (Mourelatos, 1978, p. 421). To apply imperfective aspect throughout, the sentence would read, “If it is true now that he is walking, or has been walking, to the Rose and Crown, it will be true in the future that he was walking, or had been walking, to the Rose and Crown” (Mourelatos, 1978, p. 421). However, these grammatically correct rewritings may be much more difficult to understand.

Mourelatos (1978) further states that, in English, the difference between the perfective and imperfective aspects may be overlooked in English because of the use of the *-ing* ending to *walk* in the first verb. In English, *-ing* is a marker for the imperfective aspect. As a result, when it is seen, the reader or listener expects an imperfective aspect rather than a perfective aspect. With what is known about the perfective aspect, it would be expected that the first part of the sentence would read, *A man may have walked to the Rose and Crown*, which includes the form of *have* and a past participle. However, this is a complexity added to the analysis of the example by virtue of the English language usage of *-ing*. In this instance, an individual must have a strong understanding of the intricacies of language and grammar in order to identify the perfective aspect in the example.

This is only one example of the complexities of perfective versus imperfective aspects. According to Shirai (1998), “[...A]lthough the distinction between perfective and imperfective is the most fundamental of aspectual distinctions, analysis of [Japanese, Chinese, Korean and English] reveals that this distinction can sometimes be murky” (p. 661). In these languages, there are strong similarities between the two aspects, which can make it difficult to draw clear distinctions between them, and can then make it difficult to identify them and use them properly. This is particularly true for those learning one of these languages and whose native language does not have the same similarities. This section explores the grammatical perspective of aspect and tense in linguistics in order to understand them better and be able to distinguish between them.

**Perfective.** Perfective aspect provides a temporal view of a state or event as a simple whole regardless of the internal structure (Smith, 1997). Most often, in English, this is expressed using a simple past-tense verb. For example:

a. Emily sat in the chair.

In the perfective aspect, there is a clear beginning and end to whatever event or situation being expressed in the sentence. It is important to note that, in the example (5) (c), the verb *sat* is not a stative verb, but a dynamic one. Therefore, the emphasis is on the action of sitting rather than on sitting as a state of being. This sentence is a simple whole and took place in the past, therefore, it employs the perfective aspect.

In returning to the discussion of the perfective aspect, at the time of utterance, the event is complete, which means it took place in the past. This distinction is important in the perfective aspect because it is a primary characteristic of the aspect. According to Smith (1997):

The perfective span is realized according to the endpoint properties of the situation type. The initial endpoints of all situations are natural. The final endpoints of Activities are arbitrary; those of Accomplishments are natural; Semelfactives and Achievements have only a single point because they are one-stage events. Results obtain only for telic events. The temporal schema of States does not include endpoints; and Stative sentences in the English perfective do not include their endpoints. (p. 128)

Smith (1997) explains that the endpoint properties of the event or situation are key to the perfective aspect. Part of the reason for this is in the classifications. The type of classification is dependent on the duration, which is the span of time in which the verb occurs, of the verb. Each classification has its own durative characteristics that must be considered. If the perfective aspect did not include the endpoint, the verbs would not be able to categorized according to the classifications identified by Smith (1997). Four of these classifications – Accomplishment; Achievement; State; and Activity – are discussed in greater depth in the next section.

Higginbotham James (2009) detected that “English perfective is purely aspectual, serving to shift from a predicate of events *e* to a predicates of events *e`* that is the result of *e*. the head Perf has, therefore, two



argument positions and expresses the relation  $R(e, e')$  satisfied by an ordered pair of events such that  $e'$  is a result of  $e$ . because by assumption, results temporally follow the states, it follows that the situations characterized by a predicate  $F(e)$  are Past with respect to a present result  $e'$  of  $e$  Gueron, J. and Lecarme, J. (2008). According to this analysis, the Perfect is not associated with Tense at all except derivatively.”

**Imperfective.** Imperfective aspect expresses a state or event relative to the internal structure rather than as a whole. According to Smith (1997), “Imperfective viewpoints present an interval without endpoints. They can in principle focus either preliminary, internal, or resultant, stages of situations” (p. 130). For example:

(5) a. Emily was sitting in the chair.

In the imperfective aspect, it is clear that the process, event, or state is not completed. Therefore, the interpretation is that it is continuing at the time of utterance.

The three most common types of imperfective viewpoints are general, progressive, and resultative (Smith, 1997). According to Smith (1997), “The English imperfective, a progressive, is available for the event types that have intervals associated with them; it has the stage property that is associated with the dynamism of events” (p. 130). Generally, the imperfective can be applied in any situation. Since the imperfective viewpoint presents part of a situation, it is inherently progressive; there is no fixed, natural, or designated endpoint, which makes the event ongoing (progressive).

The imperfective can also be used in any tense: present, future, or past. It is the construction of the verbs and verb phrases that denote the tense in the imperfective. In English, the progressive is used to designate ongoing events such as:

(6) (b) Emily is sitting in the chair.

In this example, Emily is (currently) sitting in the chair. Since there is no designation of an endpoint or a timeframe, this is an ongoing event, making it imperfective.

Another component of the imperfective is the habitual, in which events are repeated or occur periodically. Typically, these situations or events do not have their own verb forms. Therefore, sentence construction relies on specific compound verbs to convey the habitual nature of what has occurred. For example:

(6) (c) Emily *used to* sit in the chair.

In this example, it is suggested that sitting in the chair is not only in the past, but there is no sense of an endpoint within the sentence other than it occurring in the past. Therefore, this conveys the past imperfective. In English, which does not have a general imperfective, the simple past tense is frequently used with additional elements to convey the continuous or ongoing nature of the event. For example:

(6) (d) Emily sat in the chair continuously through the night.

In (6)(d), the verb is simplified: *sat*. However, the addition of the phrase *continuously through the night* is a temporal clue that conveys the ongoing nature of the past event.

A further complication in English is the inability to use progressive stative verbs in the imperfective (Dowty, 1977). For example:

(6) (e) Emily *was wanting* the chair.

is grammatically incorrect. Instead, the sentence should read:

(6) (f) Emily *wanted* the chair.

Conversely, other languages include imperfect, stative verbs. Quite often, these verbs appear in the progressive naturally in these languages. For example, according to Garey (1957):

The present indicative is imperfective [in French] except when the verb designates the very act of making the affirmation in which it figures, as in *je vous dis que oui, je demande une explication de votre conduite, j'affirme que tout ce que j'ai dit est vrai*. In these sentences the present is perfective. Of the imperfective uses of the present, some are simply imperfective, others are iterative; thus, *vous buvez trop* can mean ‘you drink too much’ or ‘you are drinking too much’. Unlike English, French does not mark this difference formally. (p. 110)

In English, the construction of drinking too much is based on the duration of the drinking as well as whether or not an endpoint is indicated. However, in French, the idea is constructed using the same words regardless of the intention. As evidenced from the differences in conveying a single idea (particularly in the imperfective) in French and English, syntax and grammar construction vary based on language. Regardless of the language, understanding the rules of construction, such as in an understanding of the perfective versus the imperfective, can not only help with the usage of a native language, but can help individuals more effectively learn a new language, as well.

It should be noted that this problem (in English) does not occur in action verbs but is limited to stative verbs. For example:

(6) (g) Emily *was sitting* in the chair.

In (6) (g), which is the same construction as (6) (a), the pairing of the progressive action verb *sitting* with a form of *to be* (*was*), shows that the sitting was continuous or ongoing.

## VI. LEXICAL ASPECT

The second perspective of aspect to discuss in this research is the lexical aspect. The lexical aspect focuses on the lexicon, which is from where items are drawn for syntax (Marantz, 1997). According to Marantz (1997):

The leading idea of Lexicalism might be summarized as follows: Everyone agrees that there has to be a list of sound/meaning connections for the atomic building blocks of language (=the “morphemes”). There also has to be a list of idiosyncratic properties associated with the building blocks. (p. 201).

The connection between these components is illustrated in *Figure 2* below. Syntax combines sound and meaning, and syntax is drawn from the lexicon. Sound and meaning work together to contribute to syntax (and lexical combining).

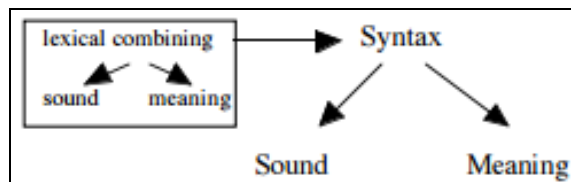


Figure 2: (Marantz, 1997, p. 202)

Within the context of this research, lexical aspect is the aspect of language as it relates to lexicalism. Though it is a perspective of aspect, lexical aspect can be viewed as slightly different from aspect in that it is understood through *aktionsart*, which is a German term used to describe aspects that do not have textual markers to denote them, such as through a lack of inflection (Bache, 1982). As suggested by the name, *aktionsart* focuses on action. Specifically, it refers to the circumstance of action. The circumstance of action provides context for understanding what is expressed just as other concepts of aspect do.

Lexical aspect is classified in four categories: accomplishment, achievement, state, and activities (Hamm & Bott, 2014). However, some researchers also include semelfactives, which are not addressed in this research. In addition, some scholars have developed alternative interpretations of these four categories. For example, Mourelatos (1978) explains the Kenny-Vendler typology, which consists of three categories – situations, occurrences, and events – each with binary contrasts. This is illustrated in *Figure 3* below.

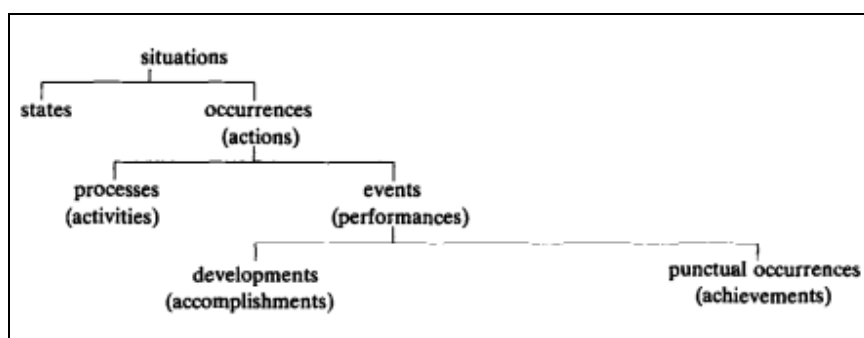


Figure 3: Kenny-Vendler Typology (Mourelatos, 1978, p. 423)

In this typology, the original four classifications – actions, activities, accomplishments, and states – can be found. However, the similarities between achievements and accomplishments are recognized, as they are both nested beneath events (performances) in the Kenny-Vendler typology model. This section explores the lexical perspective of aspect through an explanation of accomplishment, achievement, state, and activities. These four classifications are rooted in three semantic features: stativity, duration, and telicity (Novakov, 2009; Lundquist, 2012).

Stativity refers to a verb that is a state of being rather than an action (Binnick, 1991). For example, verbs used as emotion (*want*, *love*, *thought*) are stative verbs rather than action verbs. One way in which stative verbs are different from action verbs is that they remain unchanged for their entire duration in comparison to dynamic verbs, which express change over the course of the process (Binnick, 1991). In the example of the verb *want*, the wanting does not change while the subject wants whatever is expressed in the sentence. This is in comparison to the dynamic (action) verb *running*, which describes a process, typically with a beginning and endpoint, that changes throughout the process.

Duration refers to the relationship between the verb and the passage of time in the utterance (Petrović, 2016). A verb may be immediate and short-term, such as *jump*, or ongoing, such as *running*. Duration and state are frequently related. That is, a stative verb suggests a long or ongoing duration. Despite this relationship, state and duration are separate components in grammar and are identified separately from each other. For example, in the case of *running*, the duration may be short, such as in a 100-m dash, or long, such as in a marathon. In either case, there is a noted duration, which also suggests a fixed beginning and endpoint, even if the beginning and endpoint are not known in the utterance.

Telicity refers to the completeness of a verb (Lazović, 2008). If a verb is telic, it is complete (Verkuyl, 1972). For example, in simplest form, most past-tense verbs are telic. If the subject *ran*, it suggests the running is no longer taking place. Therefore, it is complete and telic. If a verb is atelic, it is not complete, which means it is currently occurring or is ongoing. For example, in simplest form, most present-tense verbs are atelic. If the subject *is running*, it suggests the running is in progress. Therefore, it is incomplete and atelic. Telicity is a significant component in determining perfectivity because of the need for the verb, event, or action to be complete in the perfective.

**Accomplishment.** An accomplishment verb “describes a situation that is dynamic and durative, but has a necessary endpoint” (Sugaya & Shirai, 2007, p. 3). That is, the event takes place over a period of time, but there is a known and natural end to that duration. For example:

(7) (a) Emily ran to her chair.

The endpoint is Emily’s arrival at the chair. Since she ran *to* the chair, it can be concluded that, once she reached the chair, she was no longer running. This classification also suggests the events leading to the arrival at the chair. That is, if Emily ran to her chair, there was a state in which she was not yet at her chair or, for that matter, had not yet begun to run to her chair.

The accomplishment verb emphasizes the process or action, but includes the process leading to the accomplishment. This includes such verb phrases as *climbed a mountain*, *walked to the park*, or *crossed the bridge*. As in the case of (7) (a), the emphasis is on the process, but there is an inclusion of a clear and natural endpoint. Climbing a mountain is a process, but it is natural to conclude that when the climber reaches the top, the event exists in the past.

It should also be noted that, in the case of accomplishments, there is no indication of the length of duration (Mourelatos, 1978). In returning to (7) (a), if Emily ran to her chair over her lunch break, it may be that she only ran to the chair for five minutes of that lunch break, or it may have taken the entire lunch break. The length of duration is not the focus of the syntax in accomplishment verbs. Instead, the emphasis is frequently on the endpoint and what occurred to reach the endpoint.

**Achievement.** An achievement verb is one that is dynamic and immediate or punctual (Sugaya & Shirai, 2007). The duration related to achievement may be implied or explicit, but there is a greater focus on the endpoint event rather than the process event. For example:

(7) (b) Emily found her chair.

An achievement is often used as climactic (Mourelatos, 1978). According to Mourelatos (1978), “[...T]hey can be dated, or they can be indefinitely placed within a temporal stretch, but they cannot in themselves occur *over* or *throughout* a temporal stretch” (p. 416). In (7) (b), for example, the emphasis is on the finding of the chair rather than the searching leading up to the achievement. However, unlike running to the chair, as in (7) (a), an achievement occurs immediately rather than over a period of time. An achievement is not a process or an ongoing event.

The achievement verb may be remembered based on its name. This verb classification is so named because the expression of an achievement in an individual’s life would qualify as an accomplishment. This includes *win a race*, *solve a puzzle*, *overtake an enemy*, or *publish a book*. As in (7)(a), these verb examples focus on the endpoint, but the process leading to the endpoint is just as important as the endpoint because of its role in creating the endpoint event.

**Activity.** An activity verb is one that refers to a dynamic and durative situation, but does not have an inherent endpoint, though an endpoint may be suggested, implied, or stated as a clarification (Sugaya & Shirai, 2007). It is expected that an activity verb requires time and has an endpoint, even if it is not explicitly expressed. For example:

(7) (c) Emily sat in her chair.

A significant difference between activities in comparison to achievements and accomplishments is in duration. While achievements and accomplishments either occur punctually or may occur either punctually or during a duration, there is the expectation that an activity verb requires time. In (7) (c), though there is no endpoint, it is understood that the event takes place over a period of time in order to be applicable. For example, if the sentence included the explanation that Emily sat in her chair *during her lunch break*, the activity classification requires that Emily was, is, and will be sitting in the chair for the entire duration of her lunch break (Mourelatos, 1978). An activity verb may be vaguer, but there is a clear beginning and end point to the activity. This includes such verb phrases as *played chess* or *took a nap*. There is no greater emphasis on the process than the endpoint or vice versa. Instead, the emphasis of these two components is more equal.

**State.** A state verb is one that is continuous unless impacted by some outside situation (Sugaya & Shirai, 2007). Though it occurs over a period of time, it is unbounded (Passonneau, 1988). Unbounded means there is no designated or natural endpoint, as occurs with activities, achievements, and accomplishments. There is significantly less focus on the action in stative verbs. Instead, the focus is on the state of being or state of mind expressed in the stative verb. For example:

(7) (d) Emily wanted her chair.

Stative verbs differ from the previous three types in that they cannot typically be categorized as action verbs. According to Mourelatos (1978), “A state, as the name implies, involves no dynamics. Though it may arise, or be acquired, as a result of change, and though it may provide the potential of change, the state itself does not constitute a change” (p. 416). In (7) (d), “want” is a verb, but is not a tangible action in the same way as “sit” is in (7) (c). Additional stative verbs include emotion words, such as *loved*, *feared*, or *respected*, as well as states of being such as *thought*. It should also be noted that state verbs do not have progressive forms in English. As in (7) (d), it would not be proper English to say *Emily is wanting her chair*. Instead, English would use the past form – *Emily wanted her chair* – or future form—*Emily will be wanting her chair*. Though future form may be difficult to use effectively.

## VII. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this research was to provide a foundation of information on tense and aspect on which to base an analysis of the perfective aspect in language. While tense is, simply, the time in which the expression occurred, aspect provides a viewpoint to provide greater context and understanding to the expression. The grammatical perspective of aspect is classified as either perfective, which refers to a complete action, or imperfective, which refers to an incomplete action. The lexical perspective of aspect is categorized in one of four classifications: accomplishment; achievement; activity; and state. Each of these four categorizations has unique characteristics in order to identify them in expressions. The verbs used in language can be applied to these four classifications to understand the intention of the expression more effectively.

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# C-E Translation Practice of the Chapter “Maritime Silk Road of the Indian Ocean” of the Book *The Silk Road*

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**Abstract**—*The Silk Road* written and edited by Professor Liu Yingsheng introduces the origin, rise and decline of the Silk Road and its unique status in world history. Through describing the evolution of the Silk Road and history and geography of countries along the route, this work reproduces the prosperity of the Silk Road at a time dated back to thousands of years ago. The chapter “Maritime Silk Road of the Indian Ocean” excerpted from the book describes intense cultural exchanges between ancient China and India, presenting hard evidence of strong ties between these two civilizations. This paper starts with brief introductions to source text analysis and translation preparations including pre-translation, while-translation and post-translation proofreading are then exemplified. Translation difficulties such as translation of proper names, specifically names of places and nations and of books and translation of classical Chinese are analyzed with examples and solutions proposed for reference.

**Index Terms**—*The Silk Road*, Maritime Silk Road of the Indian Ocean, translation difficulties and solutions

## I. INTRODUCTION

Since the Belt and Road Initiative was proposed, China has further pursued its ambition of sharing development fruits with other countries and rejuvenating exchanges of ancient Silk Road. More background information related to the Silk Road requires to be spread overseas to get more countries involved. The book *The Silk Road* introduces the exchanges between different civilizations at ancient times, citing books, diaries, scholars' research and records of different historical periods. Historical objectivity is the soul of translating this book. If the translator's carelessness causes miscommunication and unnecessary misunderstandings, the role the translator played as a “cultural bridge” shall be greatly reduced, which is not conducive to cultural communication. Eugene Nida (2004) defines that “translation consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning, and secondly in terms of style”(p. 12). The translator is supposed to fully convey the meaning and style of the source text. This paper shall analyze the translation of the chapter “Maritime Silk Road of the Indian Ocean” of the book *The Silk Road* and provide the translator's original translation to inspire discussions on translating Silk Road text.

## II. SOURCE TEXT ANALYSIS

The book *Silk Road* digs into ancient Chinese civilization in details and introduces cultural communications among ancient Chinese and other civilizations along the Silk Road. As its English version, this book focuses on promoting Chinese culture and briefing foreign readers this legendary history on the basis of accurate information delivery. The chapter “Maritime Silk Road of the Indian Ocean” includes six parts: busy sailing routes of the Indian Ocean, the climax of cultural exchanges between China and India, blend of Sino-India literature and art, Sino-India exchange on science and technology, vegetarianism, and the Indian Ocean rim recorded in ancient Chinese books. Generally speaking, the language of the translated text is plain, objective, and easy to understand. However, direct quotations from records are common, for example, “其奉正朔，修贡职，航海岁至，逾于前代矣” “众宝既丽，火布尤奇” “梵人长于音，所得从闻入，华人长于文，所得从见入”， etc. These quotations must be translated on the basis of accurate understanding. Paraphrasing and liberal translation should be adopted to maintain the readability of the text while retaining cultural image as much as possible.

## III. TRANSLATION PREPARATION

Translation process mainly includes pre-translation preparation, while-translation and post-translation proofreading.

### A. Pre-translation

Preparation before translation is necessary, which mainly includes learning translation tools and checking reference websites and dictionaries. During preparation, the translator first watched the large-scale TV series documentary named “Silk Road” jointly produced by Japan's NHK and China Central Television in the 1980s. This excellent documentary

inspired the translator's exploration of ancient Chinese civilization and realized the responsibility of spreading Chinese culture and ancient Chinese civilization through translation. The translator then read through the text and browsed parallel texts and related cultural background, covering Buddhist culture, ancient aeronautical navigation, Indian phonetics, Sanskrit and Chinese phonology, etc. Parallel texts, processing certain textual functions and characteristics which reflect their target language's genre norms, can serve as good guides for translators in translating, proofreading and correcting throughout the whole translation process. (Li Jiayu, 2016, p. 40-41)

#### B. While-translation

The translator developed a detailed translation plan to translate 1500 words per day and sorted out high-frequency proper names to build a term base to remove some obstacles for later translation.

#### C. Post-translation Proofreading

Proofreading can not be ignored in translating. Peter Newmark proposed that translators should take fifty to seventy percent of their efforts proofreading their works on the basis of difficulty of the source text. Proofreading is divided into two processes: self-proofreading and peer-proofreading. Self-proofing is mainly aimed at information omission and mistakes while peer-proofreading focuses on inconsistent terminology and misunderstandings of the text. Feng Qinghua (2008) holds that proofreading firstly is to check whether the translation accurately expresses the meaning and information of the source text and secondly is to verify whether the translation conforms to language expressions of the target text and whether it is smooth and concise. In this way, "translationese" can be avoided for maximum (p.14).

### IV. TRANSLATION DIFFICULTIES AND SOLUTIONS

In this translation task, the translation difficulties encountered mainly include translation of proper nouns and classical Chinese.

#### A. Translation of Proper Nouns

Difficulties in translating proper nouns are mainly about translation of places and nations and of books. The translator applies transliteration and annotation and literal translation to solve these difficulties.

##### a. Name of places and nations

Transliteration and annotation: A large number of ancient country names and place names can be found in the source text. Transliteration and annotation is used to facilitate readers to understand names and locations at both ancient and modern times and to deepen their understanding of the ancient Indian Ocean Silk Road.

Example 1: 大秦

Translation: Daqin (Imperium Romanum)

Example 2: 林邑

Translation: Linyi (present middle of Vietnam)

Example 3: 大食

Translation: Tazi (Arabian Empire)

Analysis: The word "Qin" can be easily reminiscent of the Qin dynasty (221—206 BC). It was mistaken for referring to the Xianyang area in Shaanxi, but in fact "Great Qin" was the area of Roman Empire and the Near East area called by ancient Chinese. "Tazi" was a Chinese term for the Arabs, the Arabian Empire, Arabian muslins and Iranian muslins during the Tang and Song dynasties. "Linyi" refers to central area of Vietnam today. Annotations of these geographic concepts are keys to understand the maritime Silk Road of the Indian Ocean.

##### b. Name of books

Literal interpretation: A large number of ancient Chinese and Indian books are mentioned in this book. For some ancient books whose name does not directly reflect the main information, explanatory words are added to the literal translation to help readers understand as semantic and communicative translation are the core of translation (Peter Newmark, 1988, p. 45). Literal interpretation is applied to retain the form and content of book name, reflecting the principle of fidelity.

Example 4: 《梵语千字文》

Translation: Thousand-Character Classic in Sanskrit

Example 5: 《梵语杂名》

Translation: Names of Sanskrit

Example 6: 《佛国记》

Translation: Journey in Buddhist Countries

Example 7: 《一切经音义》

Translation: Sound and Meaning of Tripitaka, Annotation of Sanskrit

Analysis: The concise and clear translation of these three books has refined the key information. In the book *Sound and Meaning of Tripitaka*, plentiful phonological exegesis document of characters in mediaeval times were recorded in Hui Lin's Sound and Meaning of the Tripitaka in the Tang dynasty, which have important value in the history of Chinese linguistics. This book is an annotation book, especially on sound and meaning of Tripitaka.

Transliteration annotation method: For some traditional ancient books, transliteration annotation method can fully retain the original information while bringing Chinese culture to readers.

Example 8: 《搜神后记》

Translation: Soushenhouji (Sequel of Stories of Immortals)

Example 9: 《博物志》

Translation: Bowuzhi (Ancient Encyclopedia)

Analysis: Chinese pinyin, easy to remember, carries cultural connotation behind books with an English explanation in the bracket indicating the theme and culture for foreign readers. This also helps to spread traditional Chinese culture and promote cross-cultural communication.

### B. Translation of Classical Chinese

Compared with modern Chinese, classical Chinese is much more concise. Two main reasons account for it. One is that monosyllabic words are the overwhelming majority in classical Chinese words. The other is that the omission of the subject and conjunctions are common in classical sentences (Chen Zhijie, 2009, p. 52). A large number of historical records and personal diaries are mentioned in this book, involving a large number of direct quotes in classical Chinese language. To translate classical Chinese, accurate understanding is a prerequisite and flexible use of translation skills is a guarantee. The translation methods mainly include inversion, omission, amplification, literal translation, literal translation and combination.

Inversion: As the Chinese, especially classical Chinese are very different in terms of form, structure and exemplification compared to English, it is necessary to make appropriate adjustments to the form and structure of the original sentence. The translation methods and techniques mainly used by translators are lexical order adjustment, syntactic conversion and change of voice to make the translation coherent and smooth.

Example 10: 上述《服昌蒲方》的末尾提到：“天竺摩揭陀国王舍城邑陀寺三藏法师跋摩米帝以大业八年与突厥国使主，至武德六年七月二十三日为洛州大德护法师净土寺主矩师笔译出。”

Translation: At the end of the “Chang Pu remedy”, it mentioned that it was translated by Master Sanzang, Bamomidi of Yituo Temple of Rajgir, capital of Mojietuo, Tianzhu, along with an envoy of Turk, from the eighth year of Daye to July 23rd, the sixth year of Wude, for Dade, Buddhist guardian master in the Jingtu Temple in Luozhou.

Analysis: Li Changshuan (2008) points that due to the omission of subject, some classical Chinese look like structurally run-on sentence and their translation requires segment and hierarchy in accordance with the meaning and importance. (p. 205). For long classical Chinese text, the priority is to segment the long sentence into chunks on the basis of accurate understanding: If it is not verified on the Internet, the first half of this sentence may be mistakenly punctuated as“天竺摩揭陀国王/舍城邑陀寺/三藏法师/跋摩米帝/以大业八年/与突厥国使主”. In this sentence,“国王” does not refer to the “king”, it should be segmented. In fact, “王舍城” refers to “Rajgir”, an early capital of Mojietuo, one of the sixteen major nations of the Buddha era (6—4 BC) at the Indian subcontinent. As this paragraph continues discussing the translation of “Chang Pu remedy” of the previous paragraph, the translator uses passive voice to make the paragraph more coherent and adjusts the last and most important information of the original text at the front of the sentence and rearranges the order of time and place for better understanding.

Omission is to omit words that do not conform to the thinking patterns, language expression of the target language, mainly including meaningless words or repetitions etc. to avoid redundant translation. Although classical Chinese are concise and frequently use four-character words, sometimes information must be integrated and reorganized.

Example 11:据文献记载，南朝宋齐时有十余国沿海路入华。梁时许多海外番国奉中国南部政权为宗主国，“其奉正朔，修贡职，航海岁至，逾于前代矣”。

Translation: According to the literature, during Song and Qi in the Southern Dynasties, more than ten countries came to China along the coast. During Liang in the Southern Dynasties, many overseas dependencies submitted to southern China regime as their suzerain. It is said more countries than the previous dynasty sailed to pay their tributes.

Analysis: In the quotation, the meanings of “其奉正朔” “修贡职” and “海外番国奉中国南部政权为宗主国” may seem different but they nearly mean the same thing. “Zhengshuo” refers to the first day of a year. Here it means the political conception of “orthodox regime”, which is the result of the development of ancient destiny theory, the great thought of unification thought and the huayi distinction. In the source text, repetitions have occurred many times. Although the author has fully expressed the meaning, the original quotations in the ancient books should be cited as evidence and supplement to further emphasize the historical facts. For this kind of sentence, the translator applies liberal translation and omission sometimes. For superfluous information, remove the quotation marks and delete the repeated meanings, for example, in this sentence, “many overseas dependencies submitted to southern China regime as their suzerain” can be retained while the meaning of “orthodox regime” and “Zhengshuo” can be omitted. However, historic records or crucial direct quotations should be kept in order to maintain its authenticity.

Example 12:另外，慧皎的《高僧传》记康僧会“明解三藏，博览六经，天文图纬，多数综涉”。

Translation: In addition, Hui Jiao’s *Stories of Eminent Monks* recorded that monk Kang was a comprehensive learner who “mastered Buddhist classics, six channels and astronomy”.

Analysis: In the source text, “明解” “博览” (read extensively) “综涉” (comprehensive), repeatedly expressed how



knowledgeable the monk Kang was. In translation, these three Chinese verbs can be summarized with the word “master”, and the verb phrase “多数综涉” is converted into the noun expression “a comprehensive learner” in English, which transforms the subject-predicate structure of the source text into a simple subject-link verb-predicative structure, clarifies the original Chinese illustrations.

**Amplification:** In order to make the translation easy to understand, vivid, and more in line with the purpose and language habits, interpretive words, connectives, generic words, general words and pronouns are added. In many classical Chinese quotations, the sentence omits the subject. In Chinese-English translation, the translator must add a subject to keep the sentence complete.

**Example 13:** 据法显记载, “大海弥漫无边, 不识东西, 唯望日、月、星宿而进。若阴雨时, 为逐风去, 亦无准”。

**Translation:** According to Fa Xian, “no one knows direction on the infinite sea but navigates the ship by observing the sun, the moon and stars. If it rains, navigators follow the wind.”

**Analysis:** Formally, a structurally run-on sentence seems to have a predicate without subject, but this is also a complete sentence, and it can express intact information just like other sentences. (Guan Lanruo, 2019, p. 11) There is no subject in the citation in the original text, but by understanding the original sentence, it is found that the first sentence omits the subject owner and the second sentence omits the subject navigator, so “no one” and “navigators” are added to the translation.

**Literal translation:** Literal translation can be used to translate concepts with Chinese characteristic and have already been accepted by westerners.

**Example 14:** 《五王经》中提到印度医学的病理生理理论, 说: “人由四大和合而成, 一大不调, 百一病生; 四大不调, 四百四病同时俱作。”《佛开梵志阿经》则云: “天、地、人、物, 一仰四气。一地、二水、三火、四风。”

**Translation:** In the book *Classics of Wuwang*, theories of pathophysiology were discussed as “human’s health was controlled by four points. If one was dysfunctional, man shall get one illness and shall get hundreds of illnesses if the four were all dysfunctional. *FokaianzhiaJing* said that “the universe, earth, human and object was all controlled by four qi: the earth, the water, the fire and the wind.”

**Analysis:** In the source text, the notion of “four points” can date back to Indian recordings in which they are four basic elements that make up everything. Later it was adapted as a Buddhist term “four qi (also known as chi)”—the earth, the water, the fire and the wind, referring to the force that makes up and binds together all things in the universe. “Four qi” is a renowned term in traditional Chinese medicine and it is literally translated to promote classical Chinese philosophy as well as Chinese medical wisdom.

**Example 15:** 三国时, 吴国丹阳太守万震在《南州异物志》中叙述了南海上船舶的风帆, 说: “外徼人随舟大小或作四帆, 前后沓载之。有卢头木, 叶如牖形, 长丈余, 织以为帆。其四帆不正前向, 皆使邪移, 相聚以取风吹。”

**Translation:** During Three Kingdoms (year 220-280), Wan Zhen, procurator of Wu described sail of boats on the South China Sea “foreign people set four sails in accordance with the size of the boat and combined them in the front and at the back. A piece of Lutou wood was in the shape of a fan with a ten-foot long woven sailing cloth on. The four sails did not face right ahead but were removed to take wind in a better way.”

**Analysis:** The original text discusses the structure of a boat in rigorous and objective language, and the English structure and expression are duplicated in Chinese.

**Combination:** Chinese, a parataxis language, is often organized by a loose structure with arrangement of information chunks; English is a hypotaxis language with a designed structure. When translating Chinese into English, a trunk structure should be built while combing Chinese short sentences through using conjunctions, participles, prepositions, infinitives, attributive clauses and independent structures.

**Example 16:** 段成式描述的这种植物形状为: “树长三四丈, 围五六尺, 叶似土藤不凋。二月生花, 状如蕉花, 有两甲。渐渐开罅, 中有十余房, 子长二寸, 黄白色, 有核, 熟则子黑, 状类干枣, 味甘如饴, 可食。”

**Translation:** Duan Chengshi described the shape of the plant as follows: “the tree, thirty-to-forty-feet long and five-to-six-feet wide, whose leaves looked like vine yet it did not wither. It blossomed in February with two hard petals like banana flowers. Gradually the flower opened, more than ten pistils stood inside as well as two-inch long fruits in yellow and white within which was a stone of the flower. When the fruit was ripe, it looked like a dried date with sweet taste and a black stone.”

**Analysis:** Classical Chinese texts introduce this plant in an order from outside to inside, from flowering to fruition in brief four-character sentences. The translator combines these fragments into three sentences via using the relative pronoun “whose”, preposition plus relative pronoun “within which” to introduce an attributive clause, “when” a time adverbial clause. In this way, tedious information in the source text can be avoided.

## V. CONCLUSION

### A. Reflections

After the translation task is completed, the translator reads through the full text to check an overall coherence and conduct self-verification, accumulates new vocabularies into term base, and summarizes problems encountered in translation. At the same time, attention should be paid to the details throughout the entire translation process, for example, the translation of personal names, place names, dynasties, and epochs must be standardized and titles of books must be italicized. The translation format of references in the text must be aligned, punctuation marks must be used accurately, and uncertain places require certification. In the process of translation, the translator repeatedly searches for some places that have been verified today, and chooses a more authoritative expression. For many ancient books that lack authoritative names, the translator chooses appropriate translation techniques; for unfamiliar fields mentioned in the book such as the introduction of sailing boats, descriptions of some plants, introduction of Sanskrit pronunciation, etc., the translator learns by searching the encyclopedia, comparing pictures and querying parallel English texts. Patience is an important factor to make translation version precise and excellent.

### *B. Limitations*

Although the translator has strived through this translation practice, many problems have also been exposed and require continual efforts in the future. The biggest problems exposed in translation are insufficient translation proficiencies and weak bilingual transformation. They are mainly reflected in the slow understanding of classical Chinese, and the inability to quickly select and obtain the key information required in the mass of information.

It is necessary to read extensively especially to browse more books about traditional Chinese culture. The translator also needs to further study and master translation techniques, and use appropriate theory and methods in translation practice. To summarize, improving bilingual ability is the fundamental way to improve translation efficiency and quality.

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# A Study on Self-efficacy and Its Role in Mobile-assisted Language Learning

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**Abstract**—In this era of digital technology, time and place no longer limit access to information, communication, and learning. Following the trend and popularity of CALL (Computer-assisted Language Learning), MALL (Mobile-assisted Language Learning) is gaining increasing attention and application. Many teachers as well as language learners turn to these mobile devices for various language learning purposes due to easy access to resources, convenience, and less language anxiety. Despite the comprehensive functions and sophisticated devices, a high percentage of learners still lag behind and even give up the apps after some time of use. Some research shows that the unsuccessful learners' lack of motivation constitutes a major hinderance in their self-regulated learning. This study tries to analyze an important component in learners' motivation, that is self-efficacy (especially computer self-efficacy), and seek for good solutions to the current problems.

**Index Terms**—mobile-assisted language learning, MALL, CALL, ESL, self-efficacy

## I. INTRODUCTION

In the area of language learning, mobile devices are used to facilitate language acquisition in both informal and formal learning environments. Portable digital assistants (PDAs) and mobile phones have been the common devices used for educational purposes (Chinnery, 2006). Time and place no longer limit access to information, communication, and learning. In terms of learning, mobile devices have become a new and innovative learning platform for mobile learning, or m-learning. According to Kukulska-Hulme (2009), there is no one clear definition for m-learning. This is due to trying to define “mobility” in that this word can refer to either mobility of the device or of the learner; both are equally important when discussing m-learning.

Additionally, MP3 players and iPods (Demouy and Kukulska-Hulme, 2010) and hand-held video game devices (Kondo, Ishikawa, Smith, Sakamoto, Shimomura, and Wada, 2012) have also appeared in m-learning research. Currently, mobile devices with touchscreen capabilities such as smartphones and computer tablets have become the trend when it comes to mobile devices. Research on how tablets play a role in m-learning is gradually emerging (Chen, 2013; Yang and Xie, 2013). These touchscreen technologies provide instant access to the Internet, e-mail, and additional social media that include Twitter and Facebook. In addition to the Internet, a wide range of applications (apps) can be downloaded onto mobile devices to fit both the needs and interests of their users. However, due to these emergent technologies, the use of mobile devices as language learning tools is still being fully explored and remains an area of active research.

In many ESL (English as Second Language) classes, especially those in China, it is not rare to find a class made up of more than 50 students, preventing them from receiving individual assistances when needed. In addition, the limited class time – two to three hours per week – makes it impossible for the students to get immersed in the language. In that case, the teacher will have to seek ways to engage students in learning the language as much as possible outside the classroom. With the increasing use of mobile devices, many teachers as well as students turn to the modern technology for this purpose. However, technology alone cannot solve the problem. Despite the comprehensive functions and sophisticated devices, a high percentage of learners still lag behind and give up the apps after some time of use. As is said, technology becomes useful only when it is made good use of. Some research shows that the unsuccessful learners' lack of motivation constitutes a major hinderance in their self-regulated learning. This study tries to analyze an important component in learners' motivation, that is self-efficacy, and seek for good solutions to the current problems in the era of mobile assisted language learning.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Learner Autonomy and Self-regulated Learning

The study of autonomy and learning in education began with the work of Henri Holec in the 1970s (Godwin-Jones, 2011). Over 40 years later, autonomy is still an important pedagogical principle with continuing research to be conducted in this area. Holec defined learner autonomy as “the ability to take charge of one's own learning” (as cited in Cotterall, 2000, p. 109). Learner autonomy is a central concept for this research because the resource can encourage students to make their own learning decisions outside of the classroom.

Cotterall's 1995 study identified several learner beliefs that can influence learner autonomy: (1) beliefs about the role of the teacher, (2) students' learning goals, (3) the value of risk-taking, (4) the value of language learning experience,

and (5) the value of self-confidence. Cotterall concluded that characteristics of autonomous learners included having expectations of the teacher as a facilitator, using self-monitoring techniques, having clearly established learning goals, taking more risks, having experience in language learning, and having greater self-confidence. Learner autonomy is a central concept in what has been called self-regulated learning.

Self-regulated learning is also referred to as self-instruction, “situations in which learners are working without the direct control of the teacher” (Dickinson, 1987, p. 11). According to Zimmerman (1998), self-regulated learners take full responsibility for their own learning and “believe academic learning is a proactive activity, requiring self-initiated motivational and behavioral processes as well as metacognitive ones” (p. 1). These processes employ techniques emerging from self-directed study, the first step towards self-regulated learning. In this stage, learners have their learning managed by teachers and other outside parties. This can be described as external regulation. They will consult and search for help, but are also fully aware of their need to be more responsible. Godwin-Jones (2011) states the purpose of self-directed study:

If they can learn how to build on existing knowledge, how to profit from errors, how to examine more closely the forms they are using, this can only have a salutary effect on their language ability and their capacity for autonomous learning. (p. 7)

In other words, this “capacity for autonomous learning” means that learners who reach an autonomous level control, manage, and implement their own learning tasks. Autonomous learning is the next step towards self-regulated learning.

There are three levels in a continuum of autonomy as discussed by Dickinson (1987): programmed learning, semi-autonomy, and autonomy. Programmed learning is the least autonomous stage of the continuum. During this stage, language instructors make every decision in the learning process, and the learners look to them for language materials, guidance, feedback, and instruction. This is where awareness is raised (Scharle and Szabó 2000). The next stage, semi-autonomy, has both language instructor and learners sharing the responsibilities of the decision-making in order to promote autonomy. For example, learners may take a larger role in developing their own goals and evaluating their own progress. Attitudes begin to change and this stage is the longest of the three because it takes time for behaviors and attitudes to change from old habits and thoughts (Scharle and Szabó 2000). The goal is to reach the autonomous stage. Learners in this stage begin making their own learning decisions and are closer to self-regulation. The roles are transferred from teacher to student and students begin to choose their own direction of study without the control of the teacher (Scharle and Szabó 2000). In order for learners to progress towards their own autonomy, they need to learn to develop strategies that will help them to become confident in taking control of their own learning. One such strategy is the use of technology.

## *B. Mobile-assisted Language Learning (MALL)*

### *(1) The Emergence of MALL*

In the twenty-first century, smartphones, tablet computers, and other mobile devices have become common tools in an individual’s daily life. Mobile-assisted language learning (MALL), a new subcategory of CALL, has emerged to take advantage of this new technology. This has led to new areas of research in how MALL can be implemented in language acquisition. The difference between CALL and MALL is portability and the importance of mobile devices is their ability to allow learners to choose what to study based on time and place. “The key attributes of mobile learning are identified as the potential for learning to be personalized, situated, authentic, spontaneous, and informal” (Kukulka-Hulme, 2009, p. 162). In correlation to these characteristics of mobile devices, a user’s everyday situations can be seen as new learning opportunities (Pachler, 2009).

A study based on the previously mentioned key attributes was conducted by Kukulka-Hulme (2012). Her study identified how learners use mobile devices to learn. Her findings showed that the activities learners chose were based on time (spontaneous learning) and place (situated learning). In addition, learners were more motivated to learn via mobile devices due to easy access to resources, convenience, and less language anxiety. From the results of her study, Kukulka-Hulme developed a conceptual framework for mobile-supported language learning in informal settings (see Figure 1). The use of this framework for time and place dimensions, along with reflection on the purpose of devices, can help instructors’ planning and designing match the needs of their students. This framework, which can be included in the techniques used in self-regulated learning, will determine the strength of influence on the fostering of autonomy within a language learner. According to Kukulka-Hulme (2007), there have been a variety of pilot studies and conferences on m-learning. Currently, there have been multiple studies conducted on mobile phone technology especially for vocabulary learning (Stockwell, 2007, 2010); However, as mobile technologies, especially smartphones and tablets, are introduced into more learning contexts, awareness of these learning tools will grow. Learning needs and the online resources will support ESL students in learning about the possibilities of MALL.

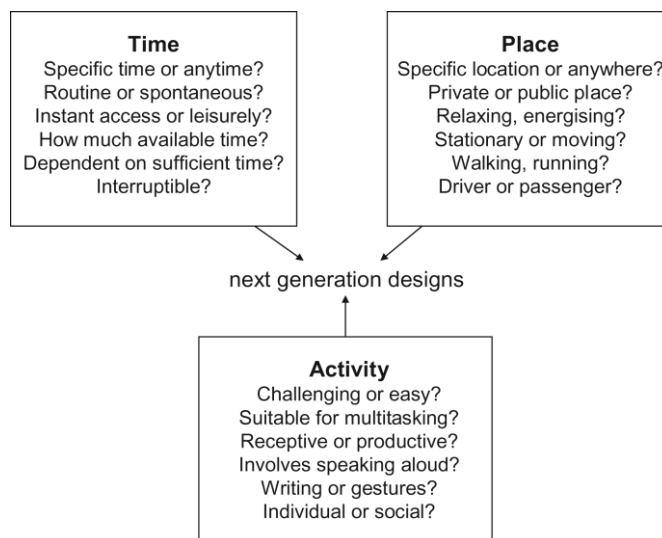


Figure 1. Conceptual framework for next generation designs for mobile-supported language learning in informal settings (adopted from Kukulska-Hulme, 2012)

## (2) Problems with MALL

Studies have shown that participants have a positive response towards learning with mobile devices and are motivated by their use (Chen, 2013; Demouy and Kukulska-Hulme, 2010; Kondo et al., 2012; Mayberry et al., 2012; Stockwell, 2007). However, Kondo et al. (2012) found that once instructors stopped assisting the students, the students' self-study decreased. Demouy and Kukulska-Hulme (2010) also reported that some students might not even use their devices as a studying tool even if an instructor recommends it. It will take more than recommendations and suggestions to encourage self-study. "If MALL is to encourage students to spend more time on self-study, teacher mediation in learning may have to go beyond the preparation of MALL study materials" (Kondo et al., 2012). During the early stages of autonomy, instructor guidance is a necessary factor in facilitating the learning process towards self-regulation with the use of mobile devices. Students may need assistance in recognizing the value of their devices and they can become aware of this value in the classroom. If students can recognize this value, it can have a positive effect on their intrinsic motivation. According to Ellis (2008), "while it is probably true that teachers can do little to influence students' extrinsic motivation, there is a lot they can do to enhance their intrinsic motivation" (p. 5).

## C. Self-efficacy

### (1) Motivation and Self-efficacy

The word "motivation" refers to an inner drive that moves one to a particular action (Dornyei, 2001). According some studies, motivation plays a key part in deciding the learners' achievement in the language learning process. Gardner (1985) and Dornyei (2001) noted that, second language achievement is associated with language attitude, motivation, and anxiety. They did some further research to find that achievement and motivation have a great influence on each other, especially in some affective variables (Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant, & Mihic, 2004).

Psychologist tried to define that constitute motivation (Dornyei, 2001). Of different theories, self-efficacy theory stands out since it is closely related to the confidence that a language learner gains during the learning process. According to Bandura (1993), people's cognitive performance is related to their self-efficacy, which is determined by one's previous performance, vicarious learning, verbal encouragement by others, and one's psychological reactions (e.g. pleasure or anxiety). That is to say, if people do not have a pleasant and rewarding experience in doing something, they may begin to doubt their ability to learn or succeed and may choose to give up. As Ames (1986) pointed out, successful learning is related to earners' beliefs and perceptions toward their own learning. A study by Tuckman and Sexton (1990) also disclosed a close connection between self-efficacy beliefs and academic achievements.

### (2) Computer Self-efficacy

When it comes to language learning through the computer or mobile devices, study showed that computer self-efficacy plays a significant role in affecting learners' perceived usefulness, ease of use and attitude towards the online resources or apps, thus influencing the users' intention to continue using the resources.

Computer self-efficacy proves to constitute a key intrinsic drive in motivation. Computer self-efficacy is defined as reflecting the user's beliefs about "the confidence in one's ability to perform certain learning tasks using an e-learning system" (Pituch & Lee, 2006, p. 226). Many studies show that computer self-efficacy has a significant influence on perceived ease of use (Davis, 1989; Park, 2009; Pituch & Lee, 2006). Besides, Lim (2000) and Liaw (2008) also found that computer self-efficacy influences involvement of adult students in a web-based learning system. In terms of usefulness, computer self-efficacy remained one of the strong determinants in computer assisted language learning. In other words, students who think the system is more useful and have confidence in working on it are more likely to adopt the system. Hence, the language instructors and program developers should try to improve the content and function of the e-learning systems to attract them and encourage them to use the systems.

### III. IMPROVING STUDENTS' SELF-EFFICACY IN MALL

To help the language learners achieve a satisfying outcome, it is important to accelerate their self-efficacy, or to boost their confidence, making them believe in their abilities to learn by themselves and to succeed in the end. But how? As achievement and motivation affect each other, we may try using achievement to promote motivation. In that case, a better result functions as a kind of extrinsic motivation. Unlike intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation may not be considered so favorable (Brown, 1994). However, some studies indicate that it is actually a positive impetus. Deci and Ryan (1985) found that the extrinsic stimulus can be internalized to match the intrinsic motivation. Tuckman (1999) argued that without self-efficacy, one may not have the confidence to accomplish an action to achieve and even lose confidence to continue or just try. Without this "drive" (for example a better score in an exam), there is a shortage of energy to push that action.

According to some researchers (Ellis, 1994; Gardner, 1985), second language acquisition is a cyclic process: strong motivation, positive self-efficacy, and effective learning efforts may lead to increased academic improvements and feelings of progress, which can in turn enhance motivation and facilitate further effort. That is to say, helping the students or learners achieve a better academic outcome is an effective way to improve their motivation and then to promote progress.

For two terms, I talked or interviewed tens of teachers, students and administrators for their feedback to the use of the mobile devices in the language teaching and learning. I paid particular attention to their opinions on the long-term and better effect of this self-regulated learning. Here is a summary of my research:

In the first place, instructors and administrators should make every effort to improve the students' computer self-efficacy. Special stress should be put on boosting their self-confidence. Before the students are suggested to use the e-learning system, it is suggested that a training session should be arranged in the classroom or in the computer lab to familiarize them with the learning system. Such trainings enable the students to be more receptive of the self-learning environment and help to remove the technological problems that they may encounter during the learning process. If the students have difficulty accessing the system, they may feel reluctant to accept it or use it.

The interest in the app list has shown an apparent awareness of ESL apps amongst the students; therefore, it is recommended that the students should be provided with a more comprehensive list of apps available to them. As certain technologies become more common, it may take more than just providing these students with a resource. Instructor guidance has shown to be an important factor in self-directed study, and implementation of these technologies might come to be a common tool in classrooms and instruction in the future, much like how computers are now. There is no denying that the influence and importance technology has become in an individual's life; therefore, taking advantage of technology's learning potential can be used as a tool in the direction towards self-regulation.

In the second place, so as to increase the students' acceptance and adjust to the development in technology, the system in these mobile devices should be developed to target changes in perceived usefulness. The instructors or administrators can then demonstrate to the students how the system would benefit the students' learning process and help to ease the grasp of the learning content. Therefore, it is critical that the system should be designed up-to-date and user-friendly.

One of the great advantages of MALL is that the learners can download and use many different learning apps instead of online platforms. Apps can engage students with entertaining and interactive activities that provide immediate feedback. Additionally, many apps are cheap or free and thus affordable to many students. These characteristics of apps can play a role in the changing of attitudes and the increasing of a student's intrinsic motivation. Based on Ellis' quote, apps can be one way for teachers to enhance students' intrinsic motivation.

After a summary of the current popular apps, I categorize them into three sets: the English skill apps, the test preparation apps and the productivity apps. The English skill apps include apps related to the categories of grammar, listening, pronunciation, reading, speaking, spelling/phonics, vocabulary, and writing. The test preparation apps are those for such tests as GRE, IELTS, TOEFL and CET (College English Test in China) etc. that prepare learners for a certificate or entrance to further studies. Finally, the productivity apps help students organize, plan, prepare, and be more productive with their studies and in class. The apps are categorized as dictionaries, homework scheduling, note-taking, translation, and typing. The instructors or administrators are supposed to sort out the appropriate apps in each category before recommending them to the students.

In the third place, the students or learners are encouraged to join MALL-related activities or groups to help each other and learn together. According to Chen (2013), student-centered activities and collaboration are fundamental to the increased opportunities for learners to take more responsibility for their studies. Collaboration is a social activity that can foster the development of self-regulated learning. In other words, the students need guidance for self-directed study to bring awareness to the learning potentials of their mobile devices because they are already using them in their everyday lives. They just need to be provided with more guidance, collaborative opportunities, and resources to further support their learning needs. Therefore, it is necessary to understand how this student population uses their mobile devices to, at the very least, direct them to the resources that can better assist them with their mobile learning needs. Since the English program, such as the ELP programs at many universities, encourages student self-directed study through resources such as the self-learning center, the teacher's goal is to become an additional resource to support this student population. It is important to promote current resources to students to help them develop their own learner autonomy in response to changing technologies.

On the other hand, some teachers, especially those who have some trouble learning the new technology, expressed their concerns in mastering these apps, not to say guiding the students. It is therefore critical to ease the anxiety of both the teachers and the learners. Besides developing a system that is more usable and user-friendly, it is also a good idea to ask some students who have grasped the apps as teaching assistants or just to share their experience with both the teacher and their fellow learners.

#### IV. DISCUSSION

With the popularity and wide use of mobile devices, it is inevitable that they are applied in the teaching and learning environment. Despite their flexibility and fast feedback in facilitate mobile assisted language learning, special emphasis should be placed on the learners' motivation and experience to help them obtain a sense of fulfillment. Self-efficacy, especially computer self-efficacy, can play a significant role in realizing this. In Mobile-assisted Language Learning, the teachers as well as the students and administrators should take this factor into serious consideration for a better result and persistent use of the apps. A good technology should attract the users to keep using it.

There is much to explore in the area of MALL. This research is conducted only through literature summary and some talks and interviews, more empirical studies need to be conducted to further research the role that self-efficacy plays and its correlation with MALL.

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# The Effect of Implementing Panel Discussion on Speaking Skill of Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners

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**Abstract**—Using practical vocabularies and phrases plays a prominent role in developing speaking skill. The current research was designed to analyze the effect of implementing panel discussion on speaking skill of Iranian intermediate EFL learners. It was carried out at Ghasedak language institute in Astara among 70 intermediate male learners with the age range of 16-24 through a quasi-experimental research. The participants were assigned into two groups. One experimental group and the other labeled as control group. First, the pretest was administered to each group. The test was taken from the book “American File”. At the end of 10 weeks, a posttest of speaking was given to both experimental and control group. Then learners’ accuracy in simple past, simple present and present perfect and their fluency in using practical vocabularies and phrases were assessed. Results showed that teaching speaking based on panel discussion through CLT had a significant effect on learners’ speaking skill.

**Index Terms**—panel discussion, speaking skill, CLT, turn-taking

## I. INTRODUCTION

Panel discussion is a kind of discussion where members of particular group talk about a topic from divergent perspective in front of audiences. They criticize an issue, try to solve problem through argumentation and brainstorming of ideas. (Stojkovic, N, 2015). Dillon (1994) has clarified the participants of panel discussion discuss and talk about an issue which is a question for them. In fact, in this process, people learn how to communicate with each other and enable them to achieve a high level of consciousness and activity (Schein, 1993; Stojkovic, N (2015)).

Students learn how to talk to each other in a turn taking conversational democracy. (Abdullah & Krishnan, 2013). As a matter of fact ,panel discussion trains student to concentrate on their Social Surrounding and setting of others who are listening .(Abdullah & Krishnan ,2013).It can help learner to improve his speaking ability with participating in interaction and can help those are reluctant to engage themselves in discussion.(Riasati & Nordin,2011).

Student-Centered approach is one of the Practical Procedure which is used in panel discussion. Teacher can be moderator and facilitator in the course of the class and can reach the goal of improving the students speaking ability (Abdullah & Krishnan, 2013). Furthermore, this can help learners to be autonomous learners but with the cooperation of the peers. peer review helps learner to be active in their learning. (Lui and Carless, 2006) . Thus, learners find Propensity to focus on their own objective views.

The role of communicative approach can be enhanced. Congman (2013) wrote that, The highly methodology of ELT was disagree with the locally d teacher-centered approach system where the authority of the teacher plays prominent role. It is not acceptable that teaching should be stabile. Illustrative alteration in teaching methodology can cause a total decline in language teaching. ESL/ EFL necessarily take a cross-national and multi-cultural aspect, which has to consider local needs and socio-economic conditions. Researchers and other stakeholders are keen to know its efficacy in Southeast Asian countries. Perception of the teacher from the theory and practice of CLT and rational utilization of this method in panel discussion play important role. Panel discussion is proper with language learning because it can prepare language learners to have self confidence and participatory democracy. Studies from Weikel & Mangram (1994) and Larson (2000) have examined the unique nature of discussion in general. Those studies represent that there are many types of discussion that are different in purpose, format and content. For this paper, the authors concentrate on students’ perceptions of participating in panel discussion in the English language lesson. (As cited in Abdullah and Krishnan, 2014)

Panel discussion is a replacement to the typical student-centered assignments that make students to react to online postings where they have a lot of reaction time before giving response. Moreover, students’ responses are rather difficult to obtain especially when they are not able to express their thoughts clearly because, they are shy. According to Riasati and Nordin (2011) language learners that feel they have lack of proficiency to communicate well would be more hesitate to begin communicating or be involved in communication. Having quick response in real life is crucial in

different examples, therefore, panel discussion is an excellent way to instruct students to stay attentive and serious to the topic at hand because they need to “support their opinions with evidence, where their ideas are subject to challenge by their classmates as well as the teacher, and where the teacher’s thoughts are equally open to criticism” (Engle & Ochoa, 1988). This encourages language learners to participate and keeps students on their toes as the audience (their interlocutors) can ask questions for clarification. (As cited in Abdullah and Krishnan, 2014).

As mentioned by Cazden (1988), “social aspects” of the classroom together with cognitive ability are practiced in the course of discussions. A rational and practical understanding and sensitivity of the topic by the panelists is important as their peers from the audience will share various views from those of the panelists and this is when “social aspects” of panel discussion come into play and become prominent. Panel discussion teaches students to be aware about their social surroundings and settings of others who are listening. Thus, the objectives of this study are to identify students’ realization of Panel Discussions and to examine their perception on peer review and feedback by classmates for a Panel Discussion. (As cited in Abdullah and Krishnan, 2014)

#### A. *Why Panel Discussion?*

Group tasks have tendency toward the social interaction in second language. Interactional competence, Kramsch (1986) conceptually attributed to Vygotsky’s (1978) sociocultural theory. He argued that successful interaction happens within internal context that is built through effort of interactional partners (p.367).

Lowman (1987) believed that two types of teacher-student interaction are sometimes called discussion. In one, the instructor lets the learners to modify substance and inquire for ideas on relevant issue. Moreover, teacher asks some questions requiring particular knowledge. As a matter of fact, student-initiated questions are prominent in discussion classes based upon their requirements and this matter help students in order to find the ability to speak spontaneously and at the moment.

Gage and Berliner (1988) mentioned that learners can practice expressing themselves clearly and accurately and learn the procedure of rational criticizing and evaluating rationally. Prominent matter in panel discussion is critical thinking. Simpson (2012) believed that, learner needs help in a reflective way with rational type of thinking which lead them directly to do things. According to Gardner and Jewell (1992), in addition to problem solving, critical thinking helps students to distinguish unfamiliar from familiar and strange from unclear matter within practical practice, such a way that, they realize the practices which lead them to think rationally. (Van Lier & Corson, 1997, p. 245).

Proficiency is the ability which allows learners to use language in real world in an automatic communication in acceptable and proper manner to native speakers of the language. Students with high proficiency find the ability in themselves to speak regardless of where and when or how the language was accumulated, such a way that, it is not important context must or must not be familiar; the evaluation of proficiency is not only based on content of a particular curriculum that has been taught or learned. In fact, learners find sufficient evidence for their thoughts and share with the class their ideas in a communicative way. As a result, language proficiency can be improved within panel discussion based on the levels which they are present in. language proficiency represents our competency in foreign language communication.

Panel discussion has some educational purposes because it is a determined form of learner talk that will help to the dynamic of the classroom. As a matter of fact, panel discussion needs language learners to talk with high cognitive and affective level about the related topic. Students speak with each other and use turn-taking in their conversation. Panel discussion is somehow similar to free discussion, but it is existed in a dynamic setting. Dillon (1994) has clarified that the topic which language learners are going to talk about, is a question for them. Their discussion consists of various suggestions over the topic.” Discussion can be a good teaching method for learners to develop their thinking skills that effectively allow them be able to analyze, operate and interpret information rather than focus again and again on details and facts. As a matter of fact, learners are the active receivers of information. Faust & Paulson (1998) demonstrate that Panel Discussions will be effective if it concentrates on all members in the class rather than individual. (As cited in Abdullah and Krishnan, 2014)

#### B. *Student-centered Learning*

Student-centered learning is a practical approach which involves learners in speaking and conversation process by utilizing panel discussion. This helps the instructor to achieve the goal of improving the students’ speaking ability. Student-centered learning requires planning, teaching, and assessment that concentrate on the abilities and requirements of the learners on how they learn, how they engage with their learning and peers and what they experience. In fact, student-centered learning is a classroom environment of shared knowledge and shared authority between the students and the teacher, with the teacher giving freedom to the students to experiment with their own learning. Student-centered models are derived from the theoretical perspectives of John Dewey and many other twentieth century progressive educators as well as on the theoretical perspective proposed by modern developmental and cognitive psychologists. In these views, it is believed that the idea of knowledge is not objective and fixed, but is somewhat personal, cultural and social. The students, through experience and discussion are able to construct and realize meaning (Arends, 2004). Arends (2004) also noted that a teacher requires many approaches in the classroom in order to meet learning objectives with a diverse population of students. The use of a single method or approach is no longer sufficient. There are enough choices for a teacher to select from the approaches that best help the teacher to achieve the objectives or the models that

can be used to promote the students motivation, achievement and involvement. (As cited in Abdullah and Krishnan, 2014)

## II. METHOD

This study is a quasi-experimental study with two individual groups of students. Because of assessing more reliable, internal validity and avoiding random assignment, this kind of research was done. Thus, Learners are given pretest in order to achieve comparability of the groups prior to their treatment and posttest to analyze the effect of treatment. The research was done at Ghasedak institute in Astara.

### A. Participants

Based on OPT, 70 participants were chosen randomly from 90 intermediate students of Ghasedak institute in Astara who have been studying English there for at least two years. They were divided into two individual groups of 35 members. These two groups labeled as experimental group and control group. The participants were in the age range of 16-24 and all were males with Persian mother tongue. The first experimental group taught English conversation through the implementation of panel discussion in CLT based method with Mat Clark book, however the control group taught English conversation through American File books.

### B. Research Instrument

#### 1. Oxford Placement Test (OPT)

For having two homogenous groups, Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was applied.

The test contained 90 questions which were divided into 80 grammar and 10 vocabulary questions. At the end students were asked for accomplishing a speaking task for the evaluation of learners' competence in tenses and vocabulary, and phrases. 90 minutes was the specified time for answering to the questions. Finally, 70 students were chosen as intermediate level students on the basis of the Oxford Proficiency Test.

#### 2. Pretest and Posttest

According to J Ventura, (2013) the prominent assessment of speaking is the oral interview. Rather than OPT, some descriptive questions based on different topics were asked like: Time Management, Advertisements, University, Television and Radio, Birds, History, Fruits, school, free time, Own idea, Bus and Taxi, Politeness, Daily Routine, Work/Study, Family. This interview was used as pretest and posttest in this study based on Mat Clark.

Session	Topics	Source
1	Advertisements	Mat Clark
2	University	Mat Clark
3	Television	Mat Clark
4	Flats or Accommodation	Mat Clark
5	School	Mat Clark
6	Free time	Mat Clark
7	Own idea	Mat Clark
8	Time management	Mat Clark
9	Daily Routine	Mat Clark
10	Work or study	Mat Clark
11	Sum up and panel discussion	-----
12	Different cultures	American File
13	Learning new language	American File
14	Seasons	American File
15	Foods	American File
16	Customs	American File
17	Traveling	American File
18	Entertainment	American File
19	Appearance	American File
20	Sum up and panel discussion	-----

Figure1. Topics and sources for every session

### C. Treatment of the Study

This study was administered in Winter 2019. It had a quasi- experimental design. Seventy intermediate EFL students were chosen as the participants of this study based upon their performance in the Oxford Placement Test (OPT), Then, they were randomly divided into two groups which were known as experimental and control group. Next, the pretest was designed. It was an interview piloted with a reliability index of 0.78. Then, the experimental group was treated by the implementation of panel discussion in speaking ability of intermediate learners.

The control group treated by engaging American File books for teaching English conversation. The book which was used as textbook for the experimental group is Mat Clark. After 20 sessions in 10 weeks, the posttest was designed to evaluate the learners' advancement. The pretest and posttest questions were alike. We used two teachers for teaching during the term to control fluency and accuracy of the learners. However, the students' answers were assessed in

vocabulary, , comprehension; but, Accuracy in pronunciation, simple present, simple past and present perfect was the prominent matter which we were looking for.

#### D. Data Analysis

The reliability of 60 items of the multiple choice Oxford placement test was approximated through a pilot study on 15 EFL learners. Moreover, the index of reliability was interpreted according to the reliability standards suggested by Barker, Pistrang, and Elliott (1994).

TABLE.1  
SUGGESTED STANDARDS (ADOPTED FROM BARKER, PISTRANG, AND ELLIOTT, 1994)

Interpretation of the findings	Reliability indices
Good	.80
Acceptable	.70
Marginal	.60
Poor	.50

The determined value of Cronbach alpha for the multiple-choice OPT equalled .796, which was acceptable based on the reliability standards suggested by Barker, Pistrang, and Elliott (1994). The results are presented in Table.2

TABLE. 2  
RELIABILITY STATISTICS FOR THE OPT TEST

	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items	N of sample
OPT test	.796	60	15

To make certain that the main subjects of the study were approximately at the same level of language proficiency, the Standardized Oxford quick placement test (version 1) was given to (n= 90) EFL learners who were studying English as foreign language at a language institute in Astara. The participants took three sections that included items related to grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension with a maximum possible score of 60 points. Thirty students whose score fell within the range 37-47 were selected as the main sample for the present study. Based on Oxford quick placement test direction, scores within the range of 10-17 are considered Beginners, 18-27 3 (Elementary), 28-36 (Lower intermediate), 37-47 (Upper intermediate), 48-55 (Advanced), and 56-60 (very advanced). The results of the OPT test for 90 students is available in the following table:

TABLE.3  
STATISTICS FOR THE GENERAL ENGLISH PROFICIENCY TEST

OPT Statistics		
OPT scores		
N	Valid	90
	Missing	0
Mean		40.9500
Std. Error of Mean		.89157
Median		38.0000
Mode		40.00 <sup>a</sup>
Std. Deviation		7.97448
Variance		63.592
Skewness		-.449
Std. Error of Skewness		.269
Kurtosis		-.058
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.532
Range		38.00
Minimum		27.00
Maximum		55.00
Sum		2956.00

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

Table.3 showed the results of group statistics and numerical information for the OPT test scores which was administered for selecting homogeneous sample out of (n= 90) EFL students. Measures of central tendency including the mean, the median, the mode and measures of dispersion namely the variance, and the standard deviation together with measures of distribution such as Skewness and Kurtosis were displayed for the OPT test. For the present study, the main sample included 70 intermediate participants who were selected based on Oxford placement test direction in order to select a group of intermediate EFL learners. Hence, the above descriptive statistics was informed for the (n=70) EFL students.

After homogenizing the sample population for the purpose of the present study, it was important to calculate the speaking interview test reliability. The reliability of 30 items of the speaking pre-test was approximated through a pilot study on 20 EFL learners. Moreover, the index of reliability was interpreted according to the reliability standards suggested by Barker, Pistrang, and Elliott (1994).

TABLE.4  
RELIABILITY STATISTICS FOR THE SPEAKING PRE-TEST

	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items	N of sample
Speaking pre-test	.780	30	20

The same test was applied for the post-test of speaking which included the same number of items with the same questions as the post-test. The determined value of Cronbach alpha for the speaking pre-test equaled 0.780 which was acceptable based on the reliability standards suggested by Barker, Pistrang, and Elliott (1994).

TABLE.5  
TESTS OF NORMALITY

Group		Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Score	Posttest experimental group	.147	35	.097	.904	35	.011
	posttest control group	.144	35	.114	.940	35	.092

Before running the descriptive statistics on the pretest and posttest performances of the two groups, it was necessary to decide upon the normality of the obtained data. As the table.6 shows, they are normal groups with the following characteristics. To recognize that, the data gathered were normal a Kolmogorov was run. Following prominent level of the first group scores for the class who had a treatment, the number was obtained sig=0.097 > 0.05 which is larger than 0.05 and proves the normality of our data. The control group received a significance level of 0.114 which is again larger than 0.05 confirming that the data has the characteristics of a normal population.

TABLE.6  
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE GROUPS PRE-TEST

Group Pretest Statistics					
	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
pretest scores	control	35	14.57	2.431	5.909
	experimental	35	14.17	2.451	6.006

Table.6 showed that there are not lots of differences between the means in the pretest of the experimental group and control group. The mean score for the control group equaled 14.57 while the experimental group received a mean score of 14.17. Moreover, it is revealed that the performance of the control group was more homogenous compared to the experimental group since the standard deviation of scores equaled (SD= 2.431) for the control group. It is evident that performance of both control and experimental group did not differ greatly at the beginning of the study. Additionally, both groups had almost the same performance in terms of homogeneity of scores regarding their pretest performances.

TABLE.7  
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE GROUPS POST-TEST

Group Posttest Statistics					
	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
posttest scores	Control	35	15.60	2.554	6.524
	Experimental	35	17.40	2.078	4.317

Table.7 shows descriptive statistics that was run on the post-test performances of the groups at the end of the study. The mean score of the experimental groups (17.40) was significantly higher than their pre-test performance while the control group did not reveal a considerable improvement (15.60). Regarding the homogeneity of the performances between groups, the standard deviation of the experimental group was lower (SD=2.078) which shows the scores were more homogenous in the posttest of the experimental group. It can be derived that the speaking performance of the experimental group improved which might be due to the treatment through panel discussion. In general, the experimental group performed better after the treatment based on the descriptive analysis of data.

#### E. Inferential Analysis of the Data

In order to answer the research question, i.e., whether teaching speaking through panel discussion has an effect on Iranian male intermediate EFL learners' speaking performance, an independent samples T-test was run to the results of the posttest scores of the speaking test for both control and experimental groups. This was run to examine the differences between the two groups in terms of their English speaking performance at the end of the study. The results are presented in Table .8

TABLE.8  
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST FOR COMPARING POSTTEST OF BOTH GROUPS

		Levene's Equality Variances	Test Sig.	fort-test for of T	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	(2-Mean Difference	Std. Difference	Error95% the Difference	Confidence Interval of
		F							Lower	Upper
score	Equal variances assumed	1.058	.308	3.403	58	.001	1.967	.578	.810	3.123
	Equal variances not assumed			3.403	56.912	.001	1.967	.578	.809	3.124

Levene's test was utilized for determining equality of variances that means whether the variation of scores was the same for both groups. Since the p value is larger than (.05), the first line of the Table 4.8 was reported. In other words, Equal variance assumed line was taken into account. The amount equaled 1.058 and this confirms the equality of variances.

The results represented that there was a statistically prominent difference in scores for experimental group and control groups  $t = 3.403$ ,  $sig (.001) < .05$ . This outcome confirmed that teaching speaking through panel discussion for the experimental group has had an effect which helped the language learners in the experimental group to outperform in the speaking test. Learning speaking by the help of CLT approach improved the speaking ability of the participants in the experimental group. As a result, the null hypothesis that panel discussion has no effect on improvement of speaking skill of Iranian male intermediate EFL learners', was rejected.

In order to investigate students' progress within groups, another statistical procedure was run. To find out the subjects' possible progress in pre-test and post-test, paired t-tests were also run. They are shown in Tables 4.9, and 4.10.

TABLE.9  
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS

Paired Samples Statistics					
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Control group pretest	14.57	35	2.431	.28268
	Control group posttest	15.69	35	2.554	.31571
Pair 2	Experimental group pretest	14.17	35	2.451	.35973
	Experimental group posttest	17.40	35	2.078	.36893

According to table.9, the performance of the control group has improved slightly since their pre-test performance mean score equalled 14.57 and changed to a mean score of 15.69 at the end of the study. On the other hand the experimental group has had a better performance than that of the control group since their pre-test performance mean score was 14.17 and improved to a mean of 17.40 after the treatment.

TABLE.10  
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST FOR SPEAKING TEST

		Paired Differences		Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		T	df	Sig. (2- tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation		Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Control group pretest - control group posttest	-.478	1.238	.2582	-1.013	.05726	-1.85	22	<b>.077</b>
	Experimental group pretest - experimental group posttest	-1.91	.949	.1979	-2.323	-1.502	-9.66	22	<b>.000</b>

As both tables in paired samples tests showed, both groups had a better performance compared to their pre-test performances. However regarding the statistical procedure of paired samples T-test, such a progress was statistically significant to the favour of the experimental group not the control group. This means that the experimental group provided a noticeable improvement as compared to the control group in the post-speaking evaluation.

### III. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter demonstrates the discussion and results of the study based on the previous chapter which represented that how panel discussion was helpful in improving speaking skill; some limitations of the study are explained and also these will be followed by further research and practical studies which would be helpful and suggested in this field. The main purpose of this research was to examine the effect of implementing panel discussion on speaking ability of intermediate EFL students. As it mentioned in previous section, students in both control group and experimental group did not differ greatly at the beginning of the study. Additionally, both groups had almost the same performance in terms of homogeneity of scores regarding their pretest performances, but after operating panel discussion the speaking performance of the experimental group improved through communicative language teaching. As it mentioned in chapter

three, some topics implemented within Mat Clark source in experimental group such a way that learners shared some prominent phrases from each topic in every session; trying to convey their ideas by utilizing phrases, discuss in a group in front of audiences and let them to ask questions. At the end, posttest demonstrated that learners significantly improved through using panel discussion. So that, control group which was trained by American File book improved slightly. In addition to, panel discussion helps learners to break their silent period and do not be solitary in the course of the class. Thereby, as it mentioned in chapter two, instructors have prominent role in operating panel discussion, so that they should motivate learners to enhance their self-confidence and give them an opportunity to find the ability in themselves to communicate and using practical phrases purposefully. This details which were done in the class helped the experimental group performed better. For more clarification, the whole study includes five chapters, the introduction, literature review, methodology and procedure, data analysis which emanate from methodology, discussion and conclusion of carrying out the thesis, the discussion of findings and the conclusion of the work.

The primary purpose of this study was to see the effect of implementing panel discussion on speaking ability of intermediate EFL students. This study comes to the conclusion that panel discussion has a great effect on English conversation to Iranian intermediate EFL learners; as a matter of fact, students get in progress in terms of utilizing practical and useful vocabulary and phrases and also improves learners' speaking accuracy in present simple, Past simple and present perfect particularly.

The next prominent attribution of the representing panel discussion in the class is concentrating on student-centered approach and communicative language teaching. In fact, it's not only keep all the learners active in the class, but also it helps students in order to improve their discussion and writing skill by using take-notes and make it into cohesive writing as well.

As mentioned above, communicative language teaching approach was held in the class in the course of the term. So, Learners' responsibility and team work was enhanced; Based on this point that everybody is responsible for his own learning but with the cooperation of each other, students achieve in self-esteem and absolutely self-confidence which is one of the most important factors of learning a language. Within CLT, panel discussion was represented in the class, learners shared their ideas with other groups and audiences; here the effect of listening can be mentioned\_ learners and audiences' interacts with each other during the class.

This research was intended to investigate the effect of the implementation panel discussion on speaking ability of Iranian intermediate EFL learners. The results of the study represent that the experimental group which were under treatment of communicative language teaching within panel discussion performed particularly better than the control group in conversation ability. As a matter of fact, students in panel discussion could make progress in speaking through practicing the use of phrases for debating and discussing, questioning, argumentation, and rhetorical skills practice. Moreover, they realized the use of indirect questions, reported speech, conditional sentences, and passive voice. The study findings also represent that panel discussion helped learners to have critical thinking. Utilizing the panel discussion in English conversation can improve the students' self-esteem and confidence in order to have an active role in real conversations and helps those learners who are not active in the course of the class. It improves students' fluency and accuracy within using the simple present, simple past and also present perfect. The participants were students of Ghasedak institute in Astara.

At the end the learners perceived and found the learning of English language really pleasurable with the high enthusiasm for carrying out easily and successfully. This study implied the quotation of Douglas Brown which narrates teaching as a mean of taking care of student self-confidence as a pre-requirement of teaching any input.

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# Research and Practice of Reform on College English Teaching under the Environment of Information Technology

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**Abstract**—The rapid development of information technology has provided a new opportunity for the development of college English teaching in China. Under the background of informationization, the reform of college English teaching can meet the students' demand for individualized and differentiated learning. This paper analyzes the current situation of college English teaching and English teaching mode of information technology, and puts forward the strategy of English teaching reform under the background of informationization, in order to improve students' English proficiency in all aspects and promote the rapid development of English education and teaching in colleges and universities.

**Index Terms**—information technology, college English, teaching reform

## I. RESEARCH BACKGROUND

### A. Literature Review

The application of information technology in the process of college English teaching has fundamentally changed the status quo of English teaching and broken the traditional teaching mode. It is reflected in the changes in the way of presenting knowledge and access channels, providing students with more tools for independent learning, acquisition, and cognitive exploration. The use of information technology to change the current problems in the process of college English teaching is a must for English teaching reform (Hu, et al., 2011). In the traditional English teaching mode, there has always been the problem of “theory is more important than practice.” The students being trained basically have very solid theoretical knowledge, but they have no communication ability of “listening” and “reading”. Therefore, it is necessary to change this teaching concept and use information technology to carry out laboratory construction and practice education. The reform of teaching content and methods is a part of the education reform (Lan, 2012). With the continuous popularization and development of information technology in the field of education, related teaching software is becoming more and more intelligent, and the use of information technology in college English teaching reform is an inevitable trend (Li, 2016). The transformation of information technology has brought many conveniences to education reform, and has also accelerated the process of college English teaching reform. In the context of information technology, we should explore the framework of constructing college English classroom teaching and improve the English ecological teaching system with the help of multimedia network environment (Dai, 2016).

### B. Research Purpose

With China's participation in the course of the international economy's deepening and development, China has occupied an increasingly important position in the international affairs and economic structure. More and more countries and international companies cooperate with China, which means that English is more and more important as the main communication tool. Therefore, it lays higher demands on the English ability of college students, especially the students' listening and speaking ability. However, the traditional English teaching mode pays attention to the theoretical knowledge of the students, and the cultivated college students have not prepared themselves for the development and needs of the new market. At the same time, with the continuous improvement of Internet technology, the “Internet Plus” model has emerged in our lives. Since taking advantage of the Internet greatly promotes the development of the industry, “Internet + Education” has become a popular trend in the field of education. It has been inevitable to carry out reform and innovation of college English teaching with the help of the Internet. In the context of information technology, the reform of college English teaching needs to change the traditional teaching mode and concept, and shift the roles of teachers and students. In the traditional teaching mode, teachers are instructors, guides and organizers of teaching. At the same time, they guide students to serve main parts in the class, mobilize students' enthusiasm for learning and self-motivation, and cultivate students' comprehensive quality. In addition, traditional teaching content and resources should be introduced into the new media teaching mode for sake of, integrating and improving network resources, and further improve the college English teaching system. The deep integration of Internet technology and education has become an inevitable path of education reform. We shall establish an information-based

teaching environment, optimize the teaching mode, promote the reform process of college English teaching, improve the teaching level and quality of colleges and universities, and cultivate composite English talents to meet the needs of the times.

## II. THE CURRENT SITUATION OF COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING

The English major is generally composed of three parts, namely, language learning theory, foreign language teaching theory and foreign language teaching technology. The three aspects should be carried out reasonably, at the same time, fully developed (see Figure 1). Although the current college English course is still one of the basic courses of the university, it is not the "main curriculum" in high school. The significance of university students and teachers to this course has been seriously reduced. The teacher has changed from the original "instructor" to the "leader" at present. The students have changed from the original passive receiver to the self-learning preferences, and the learning channels have become diversified. Students have more channels and ways to employ English resources and methods, increase their motivation of English learning, and have more opportunities to present e their learning outcomes in the classroom. At the same time, the learning and lifestyle under the students also have an important impact on learning. You can use your after-class time to study with network resources, such as online courses, learning forums, and English learning software. You can also communicate with classmates and teachers in real time through social software such as WeChat and QQ to improve the efficiency and quality of learning. The era of information technology is the era of "knowledge explosion". Students can learn through various channels and methods so that, learning becomes simpler and more convenient. However, it remains that many college English teachers use traditional teaching methods and methods in the process of teaching. In the traditional teaching mode, teachers occupy the main position of the classroom, and pay too much attention to the test-taking education to judge the students' learning results in English, and ignore the importance of practical and applied English education. Specifically, the problems are as follows.

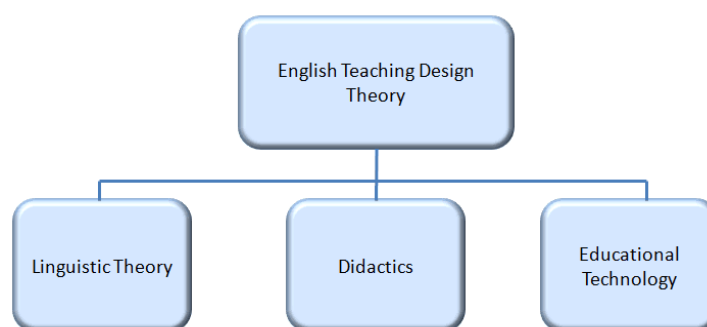


Figure 1. Composition of English Teaching

### A. Ignorance on Application Ability Training

In the process of college English teaching, teachers pay too much attention to the ability of exam-oriented education, whose focus is on the basic knowledge. All of the English test scores are the standard on the subject. And there is no targeted training and improvement on students' practical application ability. Such teaching goals and standards are no longer applicable to the needs of English talent in the new era. In the information technology environment, the standards for employing people in various industries are constantly upgrading. Students not only have to master basic theoretical knowledge, but also to possess a strong ability to comprehensively practice it, which puts higher expectations on students' English listening and speaking ability and practical ability. However, in the actual teaching process, the classroom mode mainly focuses on the study of grammar, words, and syntax, ignoring the cultivation of the actual operational ability of English (see Figure 2). This leads to students being "high-scoring and low-energy", that is, they only have theoretical knowledge, but they cannot put it into practice, and they cannot adapt to the development needs of society and affect their competitiveness in future work.

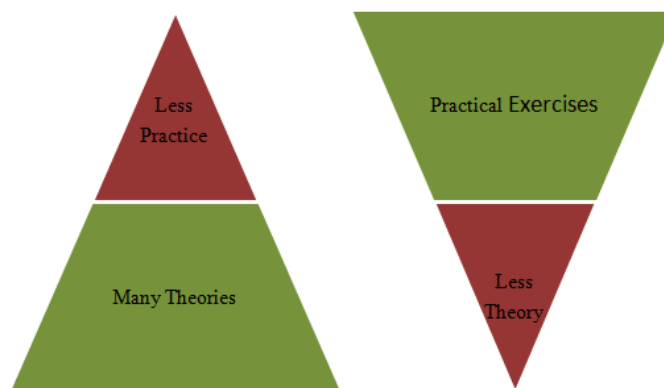


Figure 2. Traditional English Teaching Mode and English Teaching Mode Under the Background of Information Technology

### B. Insufficient Construction for Environment of English Listening and Speaking Practice

With the continuous development of China's higher education, the scale and intensity of enrollment has reached a new high, and more and more college students have put forward new requirements for the development quality of Chinese higher education. If a good learning environment for college English teaching can't be built, there is no chance to change the exam-oriented teaching situation and rote learning in the traditional English teaching mode, and it can't improve students' English comprehensive level in short time. In the current English teaching process, there is only a tiny English learning environment in the classroom for students. English listening and speaking ability is a practical training process. If there is no good environment to practice, it will inevitably cause "Chinglish" phenomenon, in the process of English communication, which would be a clear contrast with the new classroom model.

### C. Single Teaching Method

In the traditional English teaching mode, the blackboard presentation is one of the main teaching modes. Although it sometimes involves multimedia teaching, it also uses some electronic documents to display in form. There is no essential difference between these two. It is just a simple process but not take the advantages of multimedia teaching. In addition, there are still many excellent teaching models that have not really entered the college English teaching classroom. Teachers' utilization of network resources and information technology is still inadequate. In a certain sense, it has not really promoted the reform and innovation of college English teaching. It is still the old way. This traditional and single teaching mode can not stimulate the enthusiasm of students, and it is impossible to cultivate and improve the comprehensive ability of college students.

### D. Lack of Innovation in Curriculum

The college English courses are somewhat obsolete, and there still exists some unreasonable phenomena. For example, the proportion of theoretical courses is relatively large, in contrast, the number of practical courses is too few. This is also a problem in most colleges. In the classroom, teachers still use most of the practice time to require students to learn basic theoretical knowledge such as grammar, vocabulary, writing, reading, etc., ignoring the practical content of English listening and speaking ability, and the proportion of class hours is relatively low. Even if there is a listening and speaking ability, the training objectives are still biased. The focus is on the examination skills of CET4 and CET6, which is not from the view of the practical application. This unreasonable curriculum arrangement does not pay enough attention to the cultivation of students' comprehensive English ability. The students are generally of "high scores and low energy", who cannot apply the knowledge quickly and effectively to future work.

### E. Teachers' Informatization Ability Needs to Be Improved

Under the informationized teaching environment, some college English teachers lack informationized teaching quality in the classroom teaching process, so they are not likely to use modern information technology, such as PPT making, moocs, flipped classroom, etc., unwilling to accept the emerging network media, believing that the traditional teaching method is conducive to students' mastery of knowledge. Therefore, in order to improve the effectiveness of college English classes under the background of information technology, it is necessary to strengthen the training of English teachers on information technology, improve their awareness of using information teaching and the level of modern education technology, so as to better improve the effectiveness of college English classes.

### F. Students' Interest in Learning Needs to Be Improved

College English classroom teaching is not only vocabulary teaching or grammar teaching, but also the cultivation and improvement of comprehensive listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation skills, with emphasis on listening, reading and oral expression. In this way, students can not only master the background knowledge of English culture, but also lay a good foundation for future cross-cultural social work. However, many teachers turn English classes into grammar classes or vocabulary explanation classes without enough interaction, discussion and practice with students,

and students are not interested in it. Such classroom teaching is ineffective. Therefore, teachers should set up a good teaching plan and teaching links, so that students in the situation, group cooperation to enhance students' interest in learning college English.

#### *G. Students' Autonomous Learning Ability Needs to Be Improved*

In the information age, college English classroom teaching is not the traditional "teacher-centered" "cramming" teaching, but the "student-centered" self-directed learning, with teachers playing the role of "guidance" and "assistance". Only let students become the master of learning, teachers guide, students self-study, teachers with students, give guidance. Only in such a harmonious and happy teaching environment, the effectiveness of teaching can be maximized. However, at present, many college English classes do not reach such a level. Teachers also more with "indoctrination" knowledge, stay in the "teacher-centered" status, lest which knowledge point speak a leak, students do not understand. Students can not get the environment and space of independent learning, natural teaching effect and learning effect are not good.

### III. THE REFORM STRATEGY OF COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING UNDER THE BACKGROUND OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY

The application of information technology in the field of education can greatly improve the efficiency of teaching and the learning effect of students. Through the Internet, teachers can integrate more learning resources, and students can obtain more learning channels. In this way, the reform and innovation of college English teaching by means of information technology will achieve twice the result with half the effort. Information technology combined with English teaching mainly includes flipped classroom, MOOC, micro-lecture, and mixed teaching. The use of information technology means to carry out college English teaching reform mainly through the following ways.

#### *A. Establishing a Correct Concept of Talent Cultivation*

The reform of college English teaching must first establish a correct goal of English talent training, aiming at improving students' comprehensive English ability. In the traditional English teaching curriculum, the teacher is the "dominator" of the whole classroom. The main task is to teach the basic theoretical knowledge and assign tasks to the students. It is the main purpose of the classroom. The students only passively accept the knowledge and complete the task assigned by the teacher. This model is an important reason for students to produce "dumb English". Although many students have passed the CET-4, they still "can't understand" and "do not speak" in the actual application process, which seriously affects students' learning, initiative and enthusiasm. Therefore, college English teachers should change their training concepts, and improve students' comprehensive application ability as the primary goal. They should give classrooms to students, use information technology and methods to provide more learning resources and opportunities to learn and exercise listening and speaking skills for students. And they should provide opportunities to truly promote the reform and innovation of the English teaching model.

#### *B. Enriching Teaching Methods and Ways*

Under the background of information technology, the reform of college English teaching mode requires the use of online teaching platform. Colleges and universities should employ multimedia equipment, optimized multimedia technology, and English classroom assisted teaching. The multimedia teaching platform has many unique merits over the traditional teaching mode. Teachers should actively refer to these new teaching methods, and apply these teaching modes to teaching activities for, enriching teaching methods, promote the rapid development of teaching reform. At the same time, teachers must seize the opportunity, master the advantages of information technology and, improve the teaching level and quality, which not only can establish their own teaching advantages, but also promote the improvement of the overall teaching level and contribute to the teaching reform. The application of information technology can integrate many excellent teaching resources online and offline, give students more rich and diverse learning channels, stimulate students' enthusiasm and initiative, and improve students' learning efficiency.

#### *C. Strengthening the Cultivation of Teachers*

The rapid development of information technology also requires teachers to quickly learn and master new technologies so that they can, adapt to the requirements and changes of teaching in the new era, and establish the philosophy and goals of lifelong learning. Under the background of informationization, college English teaching reform requires teachers to own the ability to adapt to requirements of national teaching reform and development, the situation of the new university English system, and meet the needs of college English teaching ability in the multimedia environment. Therefore, college English teachers need to master certain information technology use methods, and can use various network resources and technologies to produce teaching courseware and resources, and contribute to the reform of college English teaching, thus promoting the development process of college English teaching reform. In addition, college English teachers should also actively update the teaching carrier. For example, teaching resources such as micro-lecture and network resources can be used to assist college English teaching.

#### *D. Increasing Infrastructure and Resource Investment*

In the context of information technology, the maintenance and operation of the facilities required for the use of

Internet technology in college English is a demanding and time-consuming cumbersome task, to operate and maintain. Multimedia is frequently used and is a public resource. During the use, teachers and students often use the same computer, and there are different storage devices connected. Therefore, professional technicians are required to conduct virus killing work regularly. At the same time, with the rapid update and iteration of information technology, software updates and system maintenance are also required to prevent from unnecessary damage caused by virus attacks. In addition, it is necessary to improve the safety awareness and protection awareness of the use of equipment by teachers and students, and to fundamentally prevent safety problems. Therefore, colleges and universities need to invest a lot of manpower and material resources to ensure the normal operation of multimedia systems. On the other hand, increase the capital investment of multimedia equipment, update hardware facilities and system software in time, and strengthen various aspects of professional operation and maintenance personnel. Professional training to ensure that the basic equipment and facilities could meet the requirements of the teaching reform and the latest situation. Increasing the investment in multimedia infrastructure is the foundation for ensuring the reform of college English teaching in the context of information technology.

#### *E. Improving the Ability of College English Teachers to Use Information Technology*

Under the information age, college English teachers, to strengthen the self learning, skilled use of information technology, such as making PPT, mu class, turning the classroom, with QQ, WeChat, nailing, interest in classroom teaching, strengthen the communication with the student extracurricular, undertake to the student individual coaching, etc., through the network to further enhance the effectiveness of classroom teaching. The professional level of teachers is very important to the effect of practical teaching. The operation ability, the practical experience, encourages the teacher to go to the enterprise to carry on the training, guarantees the teacher to bring the latest enterprise practical experience into the classroom.

#### *F. Arousing Students' Interest in Learning English*

In the information age, college English teachers can guide students to learn English and stimulate their enthusiasm for learning English through a variety of modern multimedia forms such as English movies, animation dubbing, English speech, English performance and English drama. Students can also be based on the winter level, learning ability, teaching in accordance with their aptitude to design a reasonable classroom teaching links, to meet the students' desire to learn. To guide students to study independently and inquiringly in groups, so as to promote teachers' effective teaching and make students better achieve the expected learning objectives.

In college English classroom teaching in the information age, in addition to teachers' excellent professional quality, awareness of information technology and awareness of cross-cultural Chinese culture, teachers also need to have the awareness of innovation, the innovation of teaching methods, and the flexible use of diversified multimedia teaching. More should use information way, such as QQ, WeChat, micro, nailing a second classroom guidance mode, can not only stimulate students' interest in learning, meet the rates and even zero zero after students' curiosity, to explore the psychological, let the teachers and students to build win-win cooperation in the realistic way of teaching and learning, maximize the efficiency of college English classroom teaching.

#### *G. Strengthening Teaching Organization and Innovate Teaching Methods*

In terms of teaching organization, teachers should reasonably arrange students' "classroom learning" time according to their acceptance ability so that students can truly learn knowledge. Teachers can guide students to collect English news reports and other materials related to their majors, combine the instrumental nature of language with the demand of their majors, and timely affirm the efforts of students and their social value to English learning. In addition, teachers should be good at summing up the diligent use of the brain, teaching methods are diversified, emphasize the students' main body, bold attempt, highlight personalized teaching.

#### *H. Innovating the Practical Teaching Mode and Paying Attention to the Cultivation of Students' Intercultural Consciousness and Chinese Culture's Going out Consciousness*

College English teachers, in the course of English classroom teaching, should not only speak the background knowledge of the foreign language culture, but more importantly, promote the Chinese culture to the world through students (that is, the future elites in various fields), and cultivate their patriotic spirit. We will guide students to read more literary classics and classics of traditional Chinese studies after class, and cultivate them into international talents with strong cross-cultural abilities.

#### *I. Strengthening the Training of Order Classes and Promoting the Cooperation and Exchange between Schools and Enterprises*

The implementation of talent order training, is the depth of cooperation between the school and the employer, the reservation or customization of a certain number of talents, the signing of agreements, the establishment of a long-term and stable school-enterprise partnership, the conditions, please more students into foreign trade enterprises for practical operation and internship. The school carries out characteristic training in a planned way according to the employment requirements of enterprises, and establishes an "employment-oriented" talent training mechanism, which can not only

ensure the quality of education, greatly arouse the enthusiasm of students in learning English, but also further strengthen the integration of schools and enterprises, enrich teaching cases and promote teaching reform.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

The in-depth development of information technology will definitely transform the college English teaching mode and teaching concept. Under the information technology environment, the reform of college English teaching mode has become an inevitable trend. Given the convenient use of information technology in the reform of college English teaching, it effectively compensates for the problems in traditional English teaching. In this process, universities are required to alter traditional teaching concepts and training objectives, and to put students' comprehensive ability in the first place. Colleges and universities should fully utilize the power of information technology to continuously enrich teaching methods and methods. Teachers should actively motivate their subjective and initiative to meet the requirements of teaching reform under the new situation. They should make great efforts to boost the reform of college English teaching, improve the quality of college English teaching and students' comprehensive quality proficiency of English.

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# A Study of Chinese-English Translation of Tourism Signs from the Perspectives of Skopos Theory

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**Abstract**—With the continuous improvement of China's overall national strength and the constant improvement of infrastructure, the national charm continues to increase. More and more foreign friends have been attracted to travel to China. The translations of public signs in scenic spots are of great importance for foreign visitors because of the language barrier and cultural difference existing between China and foreign countries. These translations should convey information accurately, providing the function of bringing convenience to visitors and spreading Chinese culture. However, in reality, there exist various problems among the translations of public signs in scenic spots, which will definitely make foreign visitors feel puzzled. So it is of great urgency to make the translation more standard. This study takes public signs of various scenic spots as the research material to explore the translation of the public signs of tourist attractions from the perspective of Skopos theory. This essay summarizes the errors and mistakes in the examples. By comparing and analyzing the unqualified translations in the examples and their polished versions, some specific translation strategies are proposed and explained in detail to provide useful guidance for the translation.

**Index Terms**—Skopos theory, tourism, public signs, Chinese-English translation

## I. INTRODUCTION

Since reform and opening up in 1978, China's inbound tourism has witnessed a rapid development. The translation of public signs is particularly important for foreign tourists, it belongs to a kind of cultural communication with special purposes. A successful translation should be able to convey information accurately, bring convenience to visitors and spread Chinese culture. However, the traditional equivalence theory turns out to be increasingly inadequate and the rigid "faithful" translation will often produce negative effect. This paper aims to study Chinese-English translation using Skopos Theory, which believes that the purpose decides the translating strategies and methods. In this paper, I will also use the comparison method and the wrong analysis is a must.

As for the translation of public signs, dozens of domestic and foreign scholars have discussed them from different perspectives in recent years, focusing on the general types of public signs, including store names, roads and traffic signs and so on. However, the Chinese-English translation of public signs in scenic spots still lacks systematic researches, which cannot meet the demand of the rapid development of China's tourist industry.

## II. OVERVIEW OF PUBLIC SIGNS

### A. The Definition of Public Signs

"Public Sign" refers to a type of language used to achieve a certain kind of communicative purpose and provides people with information or guidance in public places so as to bring more convenience to people. They can be found almost everywhere. And the features of it are concise, allowing the readers to understand a message in a limited time. Sometimes it is accompanied by pictures to make it more specific and easy to understand. The bilingual public sign seems like a business card of the city and represents the image of the city today.

### B. Classifications of Public Signs

According to the different purposes of public signs, we can divide the public signs into four categories based on the experiences of predecessors: Mandatory public signs, Promoting public signs, Restricted public signs and Directing public signs.

#### (a) Mandatory public signs:

The mandatory public signs have greater binding force on the relevant public. It demands that something must be done or must not be done with a forceful tone. Its tone is the strongest of all public signs and usually there is no room for other choices. It requires the public to implement, this kind of public signs often contain obvious words such as "禁止", "严禁", "务必", etc. And they are single, most of which are imperative sentences. More examples: "No Leaning"(请勿靠坐), "No climbing"(禁止攀爬)etc.

#### (b) Promoting public signs

As the name implies, these slogans often have the function of reminding people to pay attention, but they do not force the public to take corresponding actions. Such public signs do not have any special meaning, they mainly serve as a reminder for tourists and tell tourists what they should do and how to do it. Promoting public signs are not mandatory, visitors can choose to adhere or not according to specific situations. For example: "Beware: falling stones or landslides." (小心石落, 小心滑坡). Other relevant slogans within the scenic area, " Caution: Radiation "(当心射线), "Downstairs here"(由此下楼),"Attend, Children"(请照顾好小孩).

(c) Restricted public signs

Restrictive public signs put forward requirements or constraints on the behavior of the public. The tone is straightforward, but it won't offend people and are not discourteous. For example, "Disabled only" (残疾人专用通道),"No littering , please"(请勿乱扔垃圾), here "please", the tone is obviously very polite. More examples: "Hot! Avoid contacting!",(烫! 别碰!). This sign aims at reminding the public to avoid burns, it is marked for personal safety, although the tone is a little bit straightforward and it makes people feel cared for rather than being offensive.

(d) Directing public signs

Such signs in scenic spots are to provide visitors with the necessary information. It does not target specific or individual groups and could give direction to us all. They do not convey mandatory information. People can purposefully obtain information provided by public signs according to their actual needs. It should be simple and concise, often expressed in static terms so that visitors can understand it at the first sight. For example, " way in" (景区入口处), "ticket- checking" (入口验票), "Public Toilet"(公共厕所), "Information"(问询处).

### III. SKOPOS THEORY

Skopos is a Greek word for "purpose". Vermeer introduced it into translation theory in 1970. It reflects a general shift from predominantly linguistic and formal translation theories to a more functionally and socio-culturally oriented concept of translation. Just like any other human actions, translation has its own purpose or aim. Skopos theory is the most important one in functionalist translation theory. Hans Vermeer, Katharina Reiss, Jura Holz Manttari and Christiana Nord made outstanding contributions for the creation, development and improvement of the theory. It believes that there must be a clear purpose and intent before translating various texts. And three major principles are advocated, they are Skopos rule, coherence rule and fidelity rule. The Skopos rule is the first rule when translating, the other two rules must be subject to it. In other words, in order to achieve the purpose, translators can adopt strategies like rewriting, adding, deleting and sequencing flexibly and orderly.

#### A. *Three Principles of Skopos Theory*

Skopos rule is the primary principle of all translations. It means that we should enable the translation to function in the target context. Hans Vermeer classifies the purpose of translation into three types: the basic purpose of the translator, the communicative purpose of translation texts, and the purpose of the specific translation strategies. However, the term "Skopos" mainly refers to the communicative purpose of translation texts. (Nord,2001,p.27) According to Hans Vermeer, each translation is for a specific purpose and should achieve its purpose. To follow the Skopos rule in translation means that the translation should be able to meet the expectations of people in a particular cultural environment. Translation is just a kind of translation behavior based on the original text, translators should not see the original language and its function as standard, but focus on one or more communicative functions of the translation in the target language environment.

The second is the coherence rule. Hans Vermeer argues that a translation must meet the standard of "intra-textual coherence", the translation must be understood by the readers and be meaningful in the communicative context and in harmony with the reader's environment. Professor Changshuan Li (2012) believes that the coherence rule is to require "translation should be self-justifying" (p.11). This requires that the translator should fully consider the social and cultural background knowledge and psychological state of the target audience when translating, reducing the cultural barriers and making the translation comprehensible to the readers.

The last principle is fidelity rule. Vermeer believes that there is a corresponding relationship between the translation and the original text, he calls it "inter-textual coherence". It does not require the original text and the translation to be verbatim. The form and the degree of expression of fidelity depend on the translator's understanding of the original text and its purpose of translation. The translators have a moral responsibility to the recipients of the translations and must explain to them what they have done and the reasons for doing so. This is an aspect of fidelity. On the other hand, the principle requires the author to be loyal to the original author. The author should coordinate the target language and author's intentions on the basis of respecting the original author.

#### B. *The Relationship of Three Rules*

Skopos believes that the Skopos rule is the most important one, and it should be followed by all translations. If the Skopos rule requires that the original text and its translation to have different functions, then the rule of fidelity should not be applied. And the principle of coherence does not apply if the Skopos demands the translation not to be fluent (against "intra-textual coherence"). Therefore, inter-textual coherence is secondary to intra-lingual coherence and both



of them are subordinate to the Skopos. The Skopos rule is universally applicable, and the other rules belong to special rules.

They are difficult to be taken into account together when translating. A feasible demand that the Skopos rule takes priority over the other rules. If the translation complies with fidelity rule and coherence rule but against the Skopos rule, such kind of translation is not appropriate. In contrast, if the translation is in accordance with the Skopos rule but against other rules, is this translation feasible? The answer is yes. So when there is a conflict between Skopos and the others, we must obey the former.

In short, the Skopos cares less about the equivalence of the translation and the original text or whether the translation is "perfect". Instead, it stresses that the translation should understand the purpose of translation clearly on the analysis of the original text and then choose appropriate translation strategies when translating so as to achieve the intended purpose.

#### IV. SOME TRANSLATION ERRORS OF CHINESE-ENGLISH PUBLIC SIGNS

The well-known German functionalist Nord (2001) holds the opinion that if the purpose of the translation is to enable the translation to achieve a specific function, all the ingredients that impede this goal are translation errors. The author divides errors into three types below.

##### A. Pragmatic Translation Errors

A pragmatic error means that people cannot understand what the words mean. For instance, someone translates “正门” into “The positive Door”, but for the most part we use “positive” to modify attitudes and its antonym is “negative”. Foreigners will feel puzzled if they are allowed to enter this door, so we’d better translate it as “Front Door”.

Another example collected from Lijiang Scenic Area, the plaque of a silverware shop in the ancient city of Lijiang “民族银庄” was literally translated as “National Bank Village”. The word “银” in the original text refers to “silverware” and it has no relation with “bank”, and “庄” is actually a kind of store name, we can call it store or shop and it’s obvious that village and shop are irrelevant.

##### B. Cultural Translation Errors

Nord (2001) believes that “Translating means comparing cultures”. We should pay attention to cultural differences otherwise it will confuse tourists. For example, “寒山寺” is translated directly into “Cold Mountain Temple”, actually more Chinese cultural background will be conveyed if we translate it as “Han Shan Temple”. We can always find that the translations of quite a few signs in the scenic areas look very good, but there is no explanation about the background, it will become harder for foreigners to comprehend. In the meanwhile, public signs cannot successfully present our Chinese culture.

Another example, “民族园” is translated as “Racist Park”. The word “Racist” is full of racial discrimination and foreign tourists would feel disgusted at the first glance, let alone understand and accept it.

##### C. Linguistic Translation Errors

###### 1. Spelling errors

Spelling errors could be easily found among the C-E translation of public signs. Misspellings not only fail to achieve the intended purpose, what’s worse, these mistakes will not be conducive to the image of the scenic spot. Here are some examples collected in Fenghuang Ancient City:

“祖传手工银店” is translated as “Inherited ManuaSilvner Shop”. The words “Manua” and “Silvner” cannot be written together, and there is an error in the spelling of both words. The correct one should be “Manual” and “Silver”.

“小心碰头” “Watch Your Head” is incorrectly written as “Watch Your Herd”.

###### 2. Grammatical mistakes

There are even some translations that are not sentences at all in the collected examples. Specific grammatical errors can be divided into noun singular and plural errors, verb tense errors, improper use of articles, punctuation errors, relative pronoun errors and so on. Take the following signs collected from Xiangshan for example:

“亲水区” is translated as “Close water Area”. The so-called “亲水区” is a place where visitors to easily get access to the water (such as streams, lakes, rivers, and the sea). The translator’s thinking is correct, but it is not rigorous to simply put a verb and a noun together as an adjective. It is recommended to change it to “Close-to-water Area”. “可回收物” and its translations “Recyclable” are marked on the trash bins there. There are many types of recyclables, so the “Recyclable” here should be “Recyclables”

##### D. Causes of Errors

The author believes that the reasons for the translation problem can be analyzed mainly from three levels: the translator, the scenic spot, and the relevant authorities.

First of all, the translators play a crucial role in determining the quality of translation, and their language skills must be brilliant. From the numerous spelling and grammatical errors in the collected examples, it can be inferred that the

relevant translator's basic language skills are likely to be unqualified. The second reason is lacking relevant cultural background knowledge. Translation is a cross-cultural behavior and every language is closely linked to the culture behind it. Therefore, if you want to effectively communicate between different languages, you must understand the culture of both countries. Only in this way can translators accurately understand the original text and translate it accurately. Third, the appropriate translation theory and translation strategies also function in translation. Fourth, the vast majority of low-level language errors may not be placing most of the blame on translators' language skills but his attitude. A rigorous and serious attitude and a strong sense of responsibility are necessary qualities that a qualified translator should possess.

For scenic spots, it is impossible that they cannot afford to hire the qualified translators. Then the reasons can be classified into two groups. First, the scenic spot itself has no ability to judge the quality of the translation. The second is the insufficient attention paid to the translation of public signs. For the former, the scenic area can employ relevant professionals including native speakers for translation and proofreading. For the latter, the scenic spot has to strengthen the awareness that the translation of public signs is an important part of the scenic spot service.

So many kinds of errors exist in various tourist attractions. Obviously, the relevant tourism authorities are to blame. For authorities, they can take some actions such as formulate local translation specifications for public signs. There are many domestic cities that can serve as models, in those cities, the quality of translation has been taken into consideration when evaluating the level of scenic service. And they also mobilize the local college students to give suggestions on it.

## V. STRATEGIES FOR TOURISM SIGNS TRANSLATION

### A. Borrowing

Borrowing strategy is one of the most commonly used strategies for translating public signs. The history of usage of public signs in the western countries is longer than that of China, so some signs are more standard. Therefore, they can be borrowed directly if expressions with the same meaning and function can be found. Although there are great language and cultural differences between two languages, some similarities still exist. In this way the reader's reading comprehension barrier can be reduced so as to achieve the purpose of communication better, meanwhile it also does not violate the fidelity principle.

For example, “绿色通道” this public sign is common. It refers to a special channel setting for those people who need it. Therefore, we can borrow its corresponding expression “Priority Lane”.

Another example from Lingyin temple:

The original text: 花草有生命, 慈悲呵护。

The translation: Flowers of life, compassionate care.

Although the original tone of this example is very euphemistic, it is a restrictive public sign in essence. It is obvious that the translator consciously complied with the linguistic characteristics and requirements of the public sign, but he still translated it word by word. It is unsurprisingly that the translation could not achieve the purpose of communication. When translating, translators should not be constrained by the specific expression of the original text, but should extract the true purpose of the information. The real purpose of the original text is to inform tourists not to trample flowers. The best way is to borrow the existing usage of English conventions: Please Keep off the Grass.

One more example is the common “温馨提示” in Chinese Scenic areas, it is translated into "Warm Prompt" in most of the scenic area. The noun “prompt” has the similar meaning with “remind”. Actually public signs like “温馨提示” belong to the warning message. If you search for "warm prompt" in Google, you would find there is no example in any English-speaking country. The author also found such problems in the foreign net forums, this also confirms the word "warm" does not conform to the English habits and it makes people feel incredible. So if the original text belongs to warning information, it can be directly translated as “Warning” or “Attention”.

### B. No Translation

At present, some common Chinese public signs cannot find any traces in English-speaking countries. Some of the public signs are completely set for our own citizens. In this case, translators should consider whether it has the necessity to translate it. Such as “商品售出后一概不换” in the store, and “违者罚款” which can be seen in most places. Here the author lists some situations when we have no need to translate them.

The first type is “Call-to-action signs”. This kind of signs is set up for Chinese people. Translating it into English will make foreigners think that it is a request to them from the government, so we don't need to translate it. Such as “争创一流城市”, “全心全意为人民服务”, etc.

And the second type is the sign which is closely related to specific cultures. A sign is placed at the entrance of the parking lot of Tamsui Temple, a well-known scenic spot in Beijing: “Military vehicles without charge”. (军车免费). Obviously, this translation is terrible and there are many kinds of mistakes. We should translate it as "Free parking for military vehicles." We think about this carefully: Is it necessary or suitable to translate this brand into English? Will foreign military vehicles drive to Beijing? Will the foreigner's cars in China use military license?

What's more, in the store near the Nanjing Confucius Temple, there is a sign saying "本店无假货" We'd better not to translate such public signs. It is against morality and law to sell fake commodities. If such signs are translated, it will definitely impair the image of the country. Another example can be easily found in many restaurants is "谢绝自带酒水". This actually violates the rights and interests of consumers.

### C. Annotation

The scenic public signs of some historical sites may inevitably involve historical and cultural knowledge. In the process of such translations, we must always remember two points. First, translators should try to treat the original text from the perspectives of foreign tourists. In this way, we will find that foreign tourists are not familiar with many common backgrounds that we take for granted or are even hearing it for the first time. Second, most of these public signs have the function of education, bearing the function of presenting and spreading Chinese culture at the same time. It is quite different from prompting and restricted public signs which only provide information. Above all, it is still not enough to accurately translate the original text in such public signs. The translator should add some notes. Here the author list three situations that need to be noted:

The first situation is when involving the translation of the dynasty. Take“*龙华寺*”, one of the oldest temples in Jiang Nan region for example:

The original text: “*此寺在宋朝时期修建*”

The translation: “It was renovated during Song Dynasty.”

The name of the dynasty in this example, for Chinese tourists, we have a general concept of the order and time of these dynasties. However, foreigners never hear the expressions before. Therefore, we'd better add notes such as A.D. or B.C. behind the dynasty so as to make them understand better.

Second, when involving the name of the city in history, the current name should be added.“*中州汴梁*”is mentioned in Millennium City Park, it was translated into “*Bian Liang of Central Plains*” Historically, Kaifeng was once known as“*汴梁*”、“*沛州*”etc. Translations should retain the original name and add a note indicating that this was the name of Kaifeng at the time. So the better version should be“*Bian Liang of Central Plains*”(the name of Kaifeng in Song Dynasty)

The third type is involved with historical figure. “*张龙、赵虎、王朝、马汉*”are mentioned in the brief introduction of “*包公迎宾*”, a historical and cultural characteristic show in Millennium City Park. They are four guards in Kaifeng Mansion. However, the corresponding translation is “*Zhang Long, Zhao Hu, Wang Chao and Ma Han*”. It seems that they are ordinary people, and the foreigners will certainly feel curious about who these four people are and why they write their names one by one. Therefore, translations should add some explanations. Otherwise, it will fail to achieve the goal of cultural communication.

### D. Omission

Omission means we can omit some words in order to make the translations more clear and brief. English public expressions are usually concise, intuitive and clear. Foreigners care more about practicality. However, Chinese public expressions often contain more details and subjective emotions. The difference between the two determines that the translator should delete unnecessary Chinese information according to the foreigner's culture while translating. Here is an example from the Yuntai Garden:

The original text: *爱护花草，请勿穿行。*

The translation: *Protect flowers and plants, no passing through.*

The original text is antithesis which is commonly used in Chinese. It looks neat and beautiful and reads well. Regardless of the grammatical errors, the first half "protect flowers and plants" is obviously unnecessary, because all of us know that the prohibition of walking through is to protect flowers and plants, it will appear more authentic if omitted.

Another public sign in the Double Dragon Cave:“*青青花草，请勿践踏*”，it is translated as "Green Grass, Do not Trample", it is exactly the same problem as the first example. “*小草对您微微笑，请您把道绕一绕*”is translated as “Please Walk for other Ways instead of Trampling the Grass”. Compared with the first two cases, it is comforting the translator knows that there is no need to translate“*对您微微笑*”，but the translation of the latter part of the sentence is still too close to the literal translation, without trampling on the lawn, the only way is to detour, so " Please Walk for other Ways" is obviously a burden to understand.

The author discovered during the investigation that when depicting the scenery, the Chinese particularly like to use some gorgeous words and rhetoric. It's so nagging. If these descriptions are translated into English completely, there would be a lot of redundant information. For Chinese people, they tend to deepen the impression and gain artistic enjoyment, but for foreigners, these seem to be superfluous.

### E. Transliteration and Literal Translation

This strategy involves many terms with Chinese cultural information. This kind of public signs are conducive to cultural transmission. Transliteration alone or literal translation alone can not completely convey the language and cultural connotation of the original text, so we'd better combine them. Generally these can be divided into two

categories:

The first type is the name of the places of interest. For example, there is a public sign on the edge of the estuary of the Imperial River Scenic Area.

The original text: “集锦园、春花园、夏荫园、秋韵园、冬凝园”

The translation: Jijin Garden, Chunhua Garden (Spring Garden), Xiayi(Summer Garden), Qiuyun Garden (Autumn Garden), Dongning Garden(Winter Garden).

First of all, it is advisable to add Hanyu Pinyin so that foreign tourists can both enrich Chinese knowledge and understand Chinese culture more comprehensively. Secondly, in the translation in parentheses, the translator did not entangle with the correspondence of the words, namely“花”, “荫”and “凝”. Actually, what it wants to express is that there is a view of the four seasons in these gardens. The translator has accurately understood the original text and made a simple expression of information. The translated version presented is not only appropriate for Chinese cultural characteristics but also consistent with English expression.

However, in the actual investigation, the author found that most of the cases were only completely translated into English without pinyin. The author believes that if the translation aims to achieve its cultural communication effectively, it should be supplemented with Hanyu Pinyin. In this respect, the translations in the Palace Museum can be used as a benchmark for reference. The following examples are from the official website of the Forbidden City:

午门:Meridian Gate (Wu men)

乾清宫:Palace of Heavenly Purity (Qianqing gong)

The second type is the alias of a historical figure or other specific titles, some examples in the introduction of the Baogong Scenic Area:

原文:包拯被尊称为“包青天”。

译文:Bao Zheng is respectfully called "Bao Qingtian" (Justice Bao).

Bao Qingtian is recognized as the most famous figure in Kaifeng. In Chinese, "Qingtian" has a metaphor for honesty. Therefore, it is appropriate to translate "Bao Qingtian" into "Justice Bao". Combining it with transliteration can enrich and deepen foreign visitors' cultural experience.

原文:北宋一代，从这里曾先后考出过三十多名状元.....

译文:In the Song Dynasty, in this building there were more than 30 examinees becoming the Top Graduates who were called Zhuang Yuan in Chinese.

In this translation, the combination of transliteration and literal translation clearly convey the concept of "状元" in Chinese, which is smooth and clear.

## VI. SUMMARY

The translation of public signs plays a significant role in today's tourism. Compared with travel brochures, maps, leaflets, public signs are more noticeable. The quality of translation not only directly affects the tourists' feelings about the tourist destinations, but also affects the tourists' impressions of the place or the country, and indirectly affects the development of the tourism in the area or the country. It serves as an important indicator reflecting the service quality of scenic spots. Unfortunately various errors and problems still exist in the English translation of public expressions of scenic spots.

In conclusion, this paper analyzes the translation of public signs in scenic spots from the perspective of Skopos theory. First of all, it makes a brief introduction of the definition and the categories public signs. Second, the Skopos theory and its three principles are introduced clearly. Then the author classifies and analyzes translation errors in public expressions with explanation of their reasons on the basis of a large number of examples. Finally, the author proposes some appropriate strategies to solve problems based on the Skopos theory. The author believes that when translating, the purpose and requirements of translation are taken as the first issues to be considered, translators should abide by the three principles of Skopos theory and adopt appropriate translation strategies so as to make the translation of public signs in scenic area more appropriate and acceptable.

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# Reflexive and Reciprocal as Valency Decrease: A Morpho-syntax Study in Sasak

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**Abstract**—This research is a descriptive study that examines the constructions of reflexive and reciprocal of valency decrease using linguistic typological theory proposed by Dixon (2012). The results of data analysis revealed that in Sasak Kuto-Kute dialect, reflexive constructions can be formed through two techniques; namely verb derivation and combination techniques. The verb derivation technique involved the addition of a nasal prefix (N) to the verb functioning as reflexive marker (REF), whilst, the combination technique employed the addition of confix *n-* *-in* followed by the pronoun *diriqnya* 'him/herself'. The formation of reciprocal construction is carried out through three techniques: the use of reciprocal verbs, verb derivation and the use of reciprocal adverbs. The reciprocal verb used in the data is *tempur* 'meet'. Meanwhile, for verb derivation the addition of confix *meng-* *-an* on the verb *kaol* 'hug' makes the verb's meaning reciprocal. In the technique of using adverbs, the sentences that bear reciprocal meaning are formed by adding the word *saling* 'each other' appearing before the bases (affixless), verbs with suffix *-in* and confix *ke-* *-n*. From the overall data, it was found that the verb derivation techniques for reflexive is more preferred, while for reciprocals, the technique of using adverbs is more often used compared to the other two.

**Index Terms**—Sasak, reflexive, reciprocal, valency decrease, morpho-syntax

## I. INTRODUCTION

Medial diathesis consists of active sentences in which the subject is affected by the action or situation stated by the verb (Arenales, 1994, p. 1). Some constructions that fall into this category are reflexive and reciprocal. Reflexive sentences carry the message that S does something that the verb states to himself, whilst, reciprocal is the expression of symmetrical relation often shown through the use of reciprocal verbs (Dixon, 2012, p 147-149). According to Kridalaksana (1985, p. 56), reciprocal verbs are verbs whose meaning is related to reciprocity in which both parties are involved in an action or event. Reciprocal verbs occupy the predicate functions in sentences and demand the presence of plural NP functioning as S, who carry out acts of retaliation, or a single NP of S, who performs retaliatory actions with a compliment. Meanwhile, reflexivity is the relation between an argument and the argument itself (Kridalaksana, 1993, p. 186). Soames and Perlmutter (1979, p. 9) say that reflexivization occurs when the direct object of the verb correlates with the subject. Both constructions can be used as a mechanism to reduce the valency of a verb (Dixon and Aikhenvald, 2000, p. 20)

In various languages of the world, the marking of verbs in reflexive construction generally has somewhat different conditions of use than the marking of verbs in reciprocal construction. Heine and Miyashita (2008) note that 61.4% of the majority of languages in the world have similar cases. In Indonesian, for example, this can be seen in the following sentences:

- (1a) *Mereka menampar pipi mereka sendiri*  
3PL ACT-slap cheek REF  
'They slapped their own cheeks'  
(1b) *Mereka saling menampar pipi*  
3PL RECIP ACT-slap cheek  
'They slapped each other's cheek'

Based on the two given examples, it can be seen that sentence (1a) is a reflexive sentence and sentence (1b) is a reciprocal sentence. In sentence (1a) the use of the pronoun *mereka sendiri* 'their own' shows that the activity of 'slapping' is carried out by each person against himself (*Andi slaps his own cheek* and *Ali slaps his own cheek*), while

the use of the word *saling* 'each other' in the sentence (1b) shows that the activity of 'slapping' is carried out by each person against another person (*Andi slaps Ali's cheek* and *Ali slaps Andi's cheek*). The use of the pronoun *mereka sendiri* 'their own' and the adverb *saling* 'each other' are syntactic markings, which show that the sentences are reflexive and reciprocal. Therefore, it can be said that although the two constructions above use the same verb, the addition of the syntactic markers gives a different meaning.

Several writings discussing reflexive and reciprocal constructions were written by quite many linguists including Hendriks, Hoeks and Spender (2014), Haspelmath (2007) and Maslova & Nediaikov (2008). Hendriks *et al.* discussed the choice of reflexive forms (the weak form of *zich/sich* and the strong form of *zichzelf/sich selbst*) in Dutch and German employed in various sentence types with various verb classes. Haspelmath compared some reciprocal constructions in terms of how to express the reciprocal, reciprocal construction with anaphora and reciprocal with verb markers using data from several languages in the world such as Japanese, Yakut, Kolyma Yukaghir, English, Chukchi, and others. Meanwhile, Maslova & Nediaikov reviewed the reciprocal construction of several languages in the world, such as Cantonese, Kolyma Yukaghir (east of Siberia), Imbabura Quechua, West Greenland Eskimo, and others. The objective of the study on these languages conducted by Maslova & Nediaikov is to formulate the geographical distribution of reciprocal construction of languages primarily in terms of the type of polysemy associated with reciprocal-reflexive polysemy.

In Indonesia itself, an article on reflexive was written by Davies (2007) and several articles on reciprocals were written by Nardiati (1999), Kardana and Satyawati (2014), and also Udayana (2017). Concerning reflexive in Maduranese, in reference to Malay/Indonesian, Davies found that reflexivity in Maduranese is not a true anaphor and the form shares many properties with those found in Indonesian/Malay. On the subject of reciprocals, Nardiati analyzed Javanese reciprocals mainly from the type of verbs that formed the construction. Kardana and Satyawati studied the construction of the Balinese reciprocal morpho-syntactically. Meanwhile, Udayana discussed on how to establish reciprocal constructions in Indonesian. He stated that Indonesian reciprocal construction can be realized in several ways. When using verbal prefixes, the reciprocal meaning can be expressed by prefixes *ber-* and *meng-*. The followings are examples given by Udayana.

(3) *Mereka berpukulan*

3PL ACT/RECIP.hit

'They hit each other'

(4) *Mereka mencintai (satu sama lain)*

3PL ACT/RECIP.love RECIP

'They love one another'

As seen in examples (3) and (4), not only that the construction can be marked with verbal prefixes, the meaning 'reciprocal' can also be marked with a phrase *satu sama lain* 'one another/each other'. In addition to the phrase *satu sama lain*, there are adverbial lexicons that can show reciprocal meaning in a sentence, namely *baku* and *saling*. When marked with a particular prefix, the reciprocal construction of the sentence is morphologically marked. However, when marked with a particular lexicon, the reciprocal construction is marked syntactically. In addition to being morphologically and syntactically marked, reciprocals in Indonesian can also employed both markings at the same time (morphologically and syntactically/double marking). An example of this is the combination of lexicon *saling* with prefix *ber-* (*saling berpandangan* 'looking at each other').

By looking at the characteristics of reflexive and reciprocal constructions in some of these local languages, cross-linguistically, it would be very interesting to also see the formation of these constructions in Sasak Kuto-Kute dialect. The purpose of this study is to look at the forms of reflexive and reciprocal constructions in Sasak Kuto-Kute dialect in terms of valency decrease mechanism, which are limited to the list of 70 meaning verbs from Andrej Malchukov and Bernard Comrie (2010).

## II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theory applied in this research is linguistic typology from Dixon (2012). Linguistic typology is a theory used as a basis for language classification based on their structures (Artawa and Jufrizal, 2008, p.27). In line with this, Comrie (1988) specified that linguistic typological studies aim to classify languages based on their structural properties with the assumptions that all languages may have universal features, which can be used as a basis for comparison, and some languages have different features, which can be employed as grouping them into several types. Meanwhile, according to Whaley (1997, p 7), typological studies concerning linguistic typology is grouping languages or language components based on their common characteristics and formal behaviors. Based on the given definitions, it can be concluded that linguistic typology is a theory that can be used to analyze language constructions in comparison to other languages. Thus, the formation of reflexive and reciprocal constructions in Sasak Kuto-Kute dialect will be seen morpho-syntactically to figure out the set of rules employed by the dialect.

## III. METHODOLOGY

The research involved 7 villages in Tanjung district, North Lombok, Indonesia. The method used in this paper is a descriptive method with an inductive approach that explains a language phenomenon related to the forms of reflexive and reciprocal in Sasak Kuto-Kute dialect. The data was taken using the list of 70 verbs meaning proposed by Malchukov and Comrie (2010). The research data is in the form of sentences made from a list of 70 verbs. The collected data is then identified, grouped and analyzed using the theory proposed by Dixon (2012). The data is glossed per-morpheme and followed by free translation.

#### IV. DISCUSSION

According to Dixon (2012, p. 140-141), cross-linguistically, there are several grammatical profiles of languages that can be used to express reflexive or reciprocal situations. The most commonly found includes the following:

- i. Pronouns for reflexive and reciprocal constructions in transitive clauses: the pronouns used for reflexive and reciprocal sentences can be the same and can also be different. For example, the use of the same pronouns for both constructions are found in Iraqi languages, which uses the free pronouns *ti* or the use of bound pronouns in the form of suffix *-miny-* in Nyangumarta. For the use of different forms of pronouns, an example is found in the Koasati language which uses bound pronouns *ili-* for reflexive construction and *-itti-* for reciprocals.
- ii. Derivation verbs for reflexive and reciprocal constructions of intransitive clauses: markers attached to verbs used in reflexive construction can be the same as those used in reciprocal construction, but can also be different. The similarity of markers for both constructs is found in Maricopa language, which uses prefix *mat-* for both reflexive and reciprocal markers, while the use of different markers is found in Ainu language, which uses prefix *yay-* as reflexive and prefix *u-* for reciprocal markers.
- iii. Different types of constructions for reflexive and reciprocal sentences: the use of pronouns for reflexive construction and derivation of verbs for reciprocals. In this case, the formation of reflexive construction is carried out using a series of reflexive-free pronouns, whereas reciprocal construction can be formed through morphological processes employed to the verb. According to Dixon, many languages embrace this system. However, so far, no language has used this system in reverse; the use of pronouns for reciprocal and derivation of verbs to reflexive.

Apart from its grammatical profile, based on meanings, Dixon (2012, p. 145) says that reflexive and reciprocal constructions only apply to certain verbs if both arguments have the same type of reference. That is, if a verb has an A argument, which is lifeless and demands the presence of an O argument, which is also lifeless, then this type of verb cannot be used in reflexive and reciprocal constructions. For the formation of reflexive and reciprocal constructions, Dixon (2012, p. 156-185) proposes several techniques used cross-linguistically. The techniques are:

- a. Pronouns: is a technique that uses a pronoun that has the same reference as the controller.
- b. Verbal Derivation: is a technique of forming reflexive/reciprocal constructions through the process of verb derivation marked by affixes.
- c. Other Techniques: are other grammatical techniques that are used in a small number of languages in the world. These techniques include the use of sequential verbs, the use of transitive verbs in syntactically intransitive sentences, the deletion of O and the use of adverbs that are reciprocal (reciprocal adverb).
- d. Combination: is a technique that combines the use of pronouns and verb derivation techniques.
- e. Reflexive/Reciprocal verbs: is the use of verbs with reciprocal properties, in which its presence without the pronouns can still be recognized as reflexive/reciprocal constructions.

Reflexive construction can appear as intransitive and transitive sentences. However, because the focus in this study concerns the decrease in verb valence, therefore, the reflexive construction being discussed are forms that appear in intransitive and transitive sentences deriving from transitive and ditransitive verbs. The following are three examples of reflexive sentences found in the data:

(5) *Nina me-saluk leq julun kaca*  
 Nina ACT/REF-dress PREP front mirror  
 'Nina **dressed** in front of the mirror'

(6) *Ia meny-eboq kon mudin bale*  
 3SG ACT/REF-hide PREP behind house  
 'S/he **hides** behind the house'

(7) *Beaq nu n-ampè-in diriqnya kadu kereng*  
 Anak DEF ACT-cover-i REF with sarong  
 'The child **covers him/herself** with sarong'

Sentences (5) and (6) are intransitive reflexives, while sentence (7) is transitive reflexive. *Mesaluk* 'dressed' and *menyeboq* 'hiding' are intransitives deriving from the transitive verbs *saluk* and *seboq*. Unlike the two verbs, the verb *nampèin* 'covering' is a transitive verb deriving from the noun *tampèn* 'blanket', in which when used as a verb semantically falls into the category of ditransitive verb that requires three semantic roles (agent, target and manip/manipulative role).

From the data, it can be seen the intransitive reflexives of (5) and (6) in Sasak Kuto-Kute dialect are formed through verb derivation techniques. The addition of a nasal prefix (N) to each verb does not only function as an active marker



(ACT) but also as a reflexive marker (REF). In this case, the marker of REF signifies that the action carried out by S (Nina and s/he) in both sentences was against her/himself and for her/his own sake. For data (7), which is a transitive reflexive, its construction uses a combination technique. When the transitive verb is used to form the reflexive construction, the verb must be combined with the use of the pronoun 'him/herself', which in this case has the same reference as the controller/S. The appearance of the pronoun that functions as O must be presented after the verb, because if a different pronoun appears after the verb then the sentence becomes a non-reflexive sentence.

Generally, reciprocal construction can reduce the valency of a verb. To figure out the techniques used in Sasak Kuto-Kute dialect, below are the reciprocal constructions found in this dialect, which show the decrease of the bases' valence.

- (8) *Nina men-tempur kanca odos bosnya*  
 Nina ACT/RECIP-meet with former boss-POSS  
 'Nina **met** her former boss'
- (9) *Ia pada meng-kaol-an leq lapangan*  
 3PL ACT/RECIP-hug-an PREP field  
 'They **hugged** on the field'
- (10) *Kami saling peta kon pante*  
 1PL RECIP Øsearch PREP beach  
 'We **were looking for each other** at the beach'
- (11) *Ia pada saling binoq*  
 3PL RECIP Økill  
 'They are killing each other'
- (12) *Ia pada saling pangkot-in*  
 3PL RECIP scream-ITE  
 'They **are screaming at each other**'
- (13) *Bebeaq nu saling ke-lelè-n*  
 PL-child DEF RECIP ke-laugh-ITE  
 'The children **are laughing at each other**'
- (14) *Amir dait Ahmad saling lako-en jawaban*  
 Amir with Ahmad RECIP ask-ITE answer  
 'Amir and Ahmad **are asking** for answers to **each other**'
- (15) *Tetangga-tetangga saling beng kengkenan pas lebaran*  
 Neighbors RECIP Øgive foods during Eid  
 'The neighbors **are giving** foods to **each other** during Eid'

Sentences (8) - (12) are the reciprocal intransitive sentences where the verbs derived from transitive verbs. The five sentences above use different techniques in forming their reciprocal constructions. For sentence (8) the reciprocal construction is formed using a reciprocal verb. In this sentence, the verb *mentempur* 'meet', which originates from the word *tempur* 'meet' is a verb that bears a reciprocal meaning. Thus, it can be said that sentence (8) means that 'Nina met her former boss' and 'Her former boss met Nina', although it was possible that the meeting does not take place intentionally. This means that both parties are involved in the same (reciprocal) action. The NP *Nina* in that sentence acts as S and the NP *odos bosnya* 'her former boss' is a compliment.

In data (9), the reciprocal construction is formed using the verb derivation technique. The use of confix *meng- -an* added to the word *kaol* 'hug' makes the verb's meaning reciprocal. The verb *kaol* 'hug' verb is a non-reciprocal verb because if the verb stands alone it will form a transitive verb with non-reciprocal sentence construction. The plural NP *ia pada* 'they' apparent in sentence (9) in this construction functions as S.

In contrast to data (8) and (9), the data in examples (10) - (12) are reciprocals constructed using a different technique: reciprocal adverb *saling* 'mutually/each other'. From the example above it can be seen that the adverb *saling* must be placed before the verbs, and the verbs used in the reciprocal construction are the bases (affixless) and verbs with suffix *-in* as used in the word *pangkotin* 'shouting'. These three verbs, when used alone and are not preceded by the adverb *saling*, the sentences are considered as non-reciprocal sentences and the structures become ungrammatical. The use of adverb *saling* before the intransitive verbs also pointed out that the NP, which is the S of the sentences, must be in plural form (PL). Note that the suffix *-in* in data (12) is an iterative marker (ITE).

For data (13), the reciprocal construction derived from the extended intransitive verb. The verb *lelèq* 'laugh', based on its semantic meaning, is an extended intransitive verb that requires the presence of one core argument and one extended core argument. When the verb is used to form reciprocal construction, the original S is changed to the plural and the extended core argument in O position is deleted. The addition of the adverb *saling* 'each other' is also placed before the verb. Notice that the verb form used is the verb with confix *ke- -n*. Likewise, suffix *-n* pada data (13), which is an allomorph of *-in*, is also marked as ITE.

Reciprocal construction can also be formed with transitive verbs derived from ditransitive verbs. The examples can be seen in data (14) and (15). The verbs *lakoq* 'ask' and *beng* 'give' are ditransitive verbs that require three core arguments (A, O1 and O2). Decreasing the valency of the two verbs through reciprocal construction can be done by adding the adverb *saling* before the verbs and changing the actual number of A, which was originally in the singular

form to a plural form. The change is then automatically followed by the deletion of one O in the form of a human. In the data, the transitive verbs appear in the derived form with the suffix *-en* and base form (affixless). Similar to others found within the data, suffix *-en*, which is also an allomorph of the suffix *-in*, is a marker of ITE.

## V. CONCLUSION

From the data analysis, it was found that in Sasak Kuto-Kute dialect, reflexive constructions can be formed through two techniques, namely verb derivation and combination techniques. In the verb derivation technique the formation of reflexive construction is done by adding a nasal prefix (N) to the verb as a marker of REF, while the combination formation technique is conducted by adding confix *n-* *-in* to the ditransitive verb to form transitive derivation, and then the verb is combined with a pronoun the 'him/herself' that appears in the position after the verb. As for reciprocal, the constructions were formed through three techniques: the use of the reciprocal verb, derivation of verbs and the use of a reciprocal adverb. The use of the reciprocal verb, in this case, is represented by the verb *tempur* 'meet'. Through the verb derivation technique, it was found that confix *meng-* *-an* added to the verb *kaol* 'hug' makes the verb's meaning reciprocal. Meanwhile, in the technique of using an adverb, sentences that bear reciprocal meanings are formed by adding the adverb *saling*, which appears before the verbs. In this case, the constructions use intransitive and transitive verbs appearing as bases (affixless) or verbs with the suffix *-in* and confix *ke-* *-n*. Overall, it was found that the usage of the derivation technique in reflexive is more preferred, and the word *saling* as reciprocal markers within the data of Sasak Kuto-Kute dialect is used far more often compared to the other forms.

## APPENDIX. ABBREVIATION

1PL	first person plural	3SG	third person singular	3PL	third person plural
A	Agent	ACT	active	CAUS	causative
DEF	definite	ITE	iterative	O	Object
PL	plural	PREP	preposition	POSS	possessive
RECIP	reciprocal	REF	reflexive	S	Subject

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# Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

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*TPLS* carries original, full-length articles and short research notes that reflect the latest developments and advances in both theoretical and practical aspects of language teaching and learning. We particularly encourage articles that share an interdisciplinary orientation, articles that bridge the gap between theory and practice, and articles in new and emerging areas of research that reflect the challenges faced today.

*Areas of interest include:* language education, language teaching methodologies, language acquisition, bilingualism, literacy, language representation, language assessment, language education policies, applied linguistics, as well as language studies and other related disciplines: psychology, linguistics, pragmatics, cognitive science, neuroscience, ethnography, sociolinguistics, sociology, and anthropology, literature, phonetics, phonology, and morphology.

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Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 15 to 30 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

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- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
  - Submission of extended version
  - Notification of acceptance
  - Final submission due
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