

Theory and Practice in Language Studies

ISSN 1799-2591

Volume 10, Number 9, September 2020

Contents

REGULAR PAPERS

- A Socio-pragmatic Perspective of Spanish and Persian Greeting 1009
Ali Elhami
- Teaching and Learning English as a Second Language in Nigeria: Examining Evolving Approaches and Methods 1015
Adebola Adebileje and Aderonke Akinola
- Job Interview: An Analysis of Communication Strategies Used by Thai Prospective Employees 1025
Prathomwat Suraprajit
- Motivational Orientation and Language Acculturation Experienced by English Speaking Adults Learning Arabic in Saudi Arabia 1032
Safaa M. Abdelhalim and Mss. Hajar Abdulrahman Alqubayshi
- The Construction of China's Images through Multimodal Metaphor: A Case Study of China-related BBC Documentaries 1044
Ping Tang, Kelin Quan, and Jianbin Zhu
- An Analysis of the APEC News in Washington Post from the Perspective of Engagement System Based on Appraisal Theory 1054
Xiaorui Huang
- The Verb "ha" in Laki Language from the Perspective of the Head-complement Parameter; A Typological Approach 1060
Foroogh Kazemi
- A Study on College English High-efficiency Class Based on Blended Teaching Mode of Flipped Classroom 1066
Yong Wang
- English Tense Teaching in Junior High School Based on Prototype Theory—Taking the Simple Present Tense as an Example 1072
Lei Guo and Junhua Wang
- Linguistic, Cognitive, and Psycholinguistic Perspectives on Metaphors 1078
Nafilah M. Aloairdhi and Nouredine Kahlaoui
- The Influence of Multi-assessment Model on the Motivation of Adults' English Listening and Speaking Learning 1086
Zhencong Liu, Ting Li, and Huiying Diao
- Analysis of Pragmatic Functions of English Euphemism from the Perspective of Pragmatic Principles 1094
Yujuan Cao
-

Flipped Classroom as a Supporting Plan for Iranian EFL Learners' English Improvement in Super Intensive Courses <i>Mustapha Hajebi</i>	1101
Intertextuality Theory and Translation <i>Yi Long and Gaofeng Yu</i>	1106
A Study on the Language Features of Celebrities' Microblogs from the Perspective of Register <i>Qixia Liang</i>	1111
Saudi Female EFL Learners and Collaborative Writing: Attitudes and Challenges <i>Nada Abdulaziz Alkhalaf</i>	1118
A Cognitive Study of Double-object Constructions in English and Chinese <i>Yuanmei Li</i>	1128
A Study on the Problems, Countermeasures and Reflections in the Practice of English Teaching in Junior Middle School — Based on the Teaching Practice of Jinfeng Experimental School <i>Xin Ma</i>	1135
Neuro-linguistic Programming and Its Implications for English Language Learners and Teachers <i>Neda Hedayat, Reza Raissi, and Solmaz Azizzadeh Asl</i>	1141
The Narrative Style and Voices in <i>The Waste Land</i> <i>Feiyue Zhang</i>	1148
Translation Strategies of <i>The Strange Days</i> Under Skopos Theory <i>Yumin Gong</i>	1153
English as a Foreign Language Teachers' Assessment Competence at Taibah University <i>Abdulrahman Olwi</i>	1158
Problems and Countermeasures of Cooperative Learning in Business English <i>Juan Gu</i>	1167
Euphemism Translation from the Perspective of Skopostheorie <i>Shumin Wang</i>	1173

A Socio-pragmatic Perspective of Spanish and Persian Greeting

Ali Elhami

Universidad Autónoma de Madrid (UAM), Madrid, Spain

Abstract—Due to an increasing number of migration of Iranians to Spain and language and cultural problems they might face in the new society, a model of socio-pragmatic contrastive analysis was used with the intention of comparing the Spanish and Persian verbal and nonverbal greeting forms with the aim of helping Iranian immigrant in Spain for having a better understanding of cultural differences in greeting forms. In this study, the naturalistic context was used for both Spanish and Persian forms of greeting. This study shows two Spanish and two Persian patterns for greetings to show the differences and similarities between Persian and Spanish greeting to be a help for Iranian immigrants who are newcomers in Spain to be able to adapt themselves to Spanish culture which greeting is a part of it.

Index Terms—Socio-pragmatics, Immigration, Speech act, Greetings forms, Cross-cultural, Contrastive linguistics

I. INTRODUCTION

True communication engenders better cross-cultural understanding and relationships. People in different countries, based on their cultural traditions and language, communicate differently which this dissimilarity can give rise to misunderstanding and also sociopragmatic failure. The goal of this study is to ferret out the fact about verbal and non-verbal differences between Madrilenian Spanish (MS) and Tehrani Persian (TP) forms of greeting. Also to find out if the greeting (verbal and non-verbal) behaviors change in different relationships to facilitate the acculturation process of Iranian immigrants in Spain and also to improve the sociopragmatic knowledge of Iranians in Spain in the context of greeting as well as avoiding cross-cultural pragmatic failure. In this essay, a socio-pragmatic approach will be used to reveal the dissimilarities of Persian and Spanish greeting behaviors.

II. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Migration is a decision people of different ages make to change their lives for finding better job opportunities, having an easier life, or studying in universities around the world, and many other reasons. During this way, they face many problems such as racism, understanding cultural differences, and going to the target country's social gathering (Elhami, 2020a). But they may be able to lessen those types of difficulties by learning sociopragmatic knowledge, which the first and the most important one in every communication is greeting (verbally and non-verbally).

Here it is essential to consider the definition of sociopragmatic which is an important area in cross-cultural contact. Sociopragmatics could be defined as the use of language in a social situation (Nodoushan, 2007) or in another word it studies the relationship between social context and discourse (Holmes and King, 2017), for example, friends (same-sex and different-sex), family members or people who see each other for the first time use distinct forms of greeting, in different societies. Also, the way of communication may change in different situations, for instance, the way of greeting between a father and a son or a couple in a formal setting might be different from the way they greet in an informal setting. Here this shows a need to be explicit about exactly what is meant by the word "situation", based on Nodoushan (2007) situation is a setting that communication takes place.

As this paper is a sociopragmatic study we need to focus on linguistic and sociological categories. Sociopragmatic is connected to the notion "Speech act", hence, we need to take the "speech act" which first invented by Austin (1962) into consideration. The speech act is defined as different ways to convey a message (Searle, 1977; Ibrahim, 1995). In fact in speech act communicators express two kinds of meaning, propositional and illocutionary meaning. The former is the normal and basic meaning of the utterance, for example, give me a glass of water, whereas the illocutionary meaning that is a deeper meaning of the sentence, for example, I am thirsty, in this situation the speaker wants the hearer to receive the meaning and give him/her something to drink.

Nodoushan (2007) defines conversation as using different types of speech acts. Speech act can be classified into five categorizations which are commissive, declarative, directive, expressive, and representative (Searle, 1977). The first one (commissive) which is a type of treat or promise means to commit the listener to doing something. For example, I will buy you a gift tomorrow (promise) or I will buy you a gift tomorrow if you do your homework well (treat), this type (treat) could be seen between parents and children, teachers and students, and generally, it is used to motivate someone. The second one (declarative) is another type of speech act that makes a great change, such as you are a mother now, you

passed your exam, you are accepted in Harvard University, or even it can be in a negative form, you lost your child, or you are not allowed to leave the country. Speech act that makes the listener do something can be seen in imperative statements such as go out, come in, eat your food, do this, or in form of negative, such as do not eat this food or do not wear these shoes. However, expressive speech act which is about conveying the feeling such as love, hate, apology, or thanking someone, the examples of this type are, I love you, I hate this food, thank you for letting me in, etc. And the last one, representative speech act, which is about describing an event or reporting something, for instance, this is a Persian tradition, or a Spanish omelet, or an Italian pizza. Representative speech act can be observed among migrants and the target group in abundance. Generally speaking, majority and minority groups are keen on introducing their traditions and aspects of cultures to each other, for instance, eating habits, greeting forms, dress code, etc. spending time in a cafeteria is a Spanish habit, this is Spanish Churros, this is Spanish food, this drink is Spanish, are those many immigrants in Spain might hear from a native speaker.

The conversation usually shapes with the greeting of the utterances. Indeed, greeting is a key to start up social interaction. Sacks (1975) implies two main characteristics of greeting, which firstly happens at the first of conversation, and secondly, all speakers participate in this part of the conversation. In greeting forms age, gender, context, relationships, etc. matter, for example, teenagers might have a different form of greeting from elderly people (in the same society), or males might have different forms from females. Concerning gender, in a study about greeting forms among male and female Persian speakers by Dezhara, Rezaei, Davoudi, & Soltani Kafrani (2012) found that there is a significant difference between male and female greeting form, they observe that men are more informal whereas women show more feeling toward each other in a friendly conversation. Context is another important point that might have an effect on types of conversation and the formality or informality of the sentences people use, for instance, a conversation between two friends in an academic context might be different with the same conversation in a park, in short, people in different contexts might have different types of greeting with the same interlocutor. Another important factor which was mentioned above is the relationship, which could force or motivate people to use more formal or less formal vocabularies while greeting or conversing, relatedly in a study about greeting forms, Krivonos and Knapp (1975) found that greeting verbal and nonverbal behavior varies in accordance with the relationship between interlocutors. For instance, a wife and a husband, mother and daughter, teacher and student, two friends, and seller and customer all have different forms of greeting.

Time in greeting is an issue that we need to take it into account, which sometimes becomes complicated for immigrants, for instance in Iran at about 12 (noon) people use "Zohr be kheir" which in the USA or other English language countries "good noon" seems meaningless to the English native speakers, and those Persians, with a lower level of language, who use word for word translation to communicate might face problems. In point of view of Halliday (1979), the greeting is classified as time-free and time-bound. "Hola" in Spanish and "Salaam" (Hello) in Persian or "¿cómo está?" in Spanish and "chetori?" (How are you?) in Persian are examples of the time-free form of greeting, which can be used in any time of the day or year, in contrast, the time-bound form of greeting can be daily and seasonal, and time plays an important role in using them, for example, "Buenos días" in Spanish and "sobh bekheir" (Good morning) in Persian are examples of daily time-bound and "sale no mobarak" in Persian and "Feliz año nuevo" (Happy new year) in Spanish are examples of seasonal time-bound greeting, this is important to mention people do not use greeting in all contexts, there are some situations that conversation does not start with greeting (Coulthard, 1985) for instance asking a direction, or time on the street.

Another aspect of starting up a conversation which should be taken into consideration is introducing someone to another. In this situation culture plays a very important role, for example in Persian culture, people use title and also the last name for introducing someone whereas in Spanish culture people usually use the first name without a title.

There is an example of a very short conversation between 3 Persians:

Parviz: "aghaye salaami, ishoun mohandes kamali hastand"

آقای سلامی ایشان مهندس کامالی هستند

(a:qa:-ye Salami ɪʃu:n mɔ:hændes Kamali hæstænd)

Mr. Salaami, this is engineer Kamali.

Hasan Salami: "mohandes Kamali as molaghat shoma khoshbakhtam"

مهندس کامالی از ملاقات شما خوشبختم

(mɔ:hændes Kamali æz mɔ:ləqatʃ: ʃoʊmæ kɔ:ʃbæktæm)

Engineer Kamali nice to meet you.

Javad Kamali: "Man ham as molaghat shoma khoshbakhtam aghaye doctor"

من هم از ملاقات شما خوشبختم آقای دکتر

(mæn hæm æz mɔ:ləqatʃ: ʃoʊmæ kɔ:ʃbæktæm a:qa:-ye dɔ:ktɔ:r)

Nice to meet you Mr. Doctor

As the above example shows, in the Persian language two titles or a title and a job usually come together in formal situations such as Mr. Doctor, Ms. Engineer, Mr. Professor, or Mrs. Teacher, to show more respect to the interlocutor or/and the listener, what is noteworthy is that not using the title in the workplace, such as school, university, or company, especially between professor and student(s), professor and professor, teacher and student(s), teacher and teacher, manager and employee(s) is considered impolite. Indeed jobs with a higher social position such as engineer, doctor, and lawyer are considered titles which should be used with another title such as Mr., or Ms. in formal contexts. Using these jobs only as a title is considered rude and used humorously, for instance, when calling someone an engineer means he/she is not clever or done something wrong.

III. STATEMENT OF THE STUDY PURPOSE

Iranians, like many other nationalities, prefer English language countries, such as the UK, the USA, Australia, and Canada, for migration, due to different reasons that one of the most important ones is decreasing their linguistic problems they might face in a new society. However, due to difficulties for immigrating to those countries such as the long process of receiving Visa and financial issues (as the cost of living in those countries is expensive), Spain is another destination for those groups of Iranians who are seeking for good weather, lower cost of living, and faster visa process (Elhami, 2020b). Since immigration to Spain does not require any language certificate, those who immigrate to Spain might face more problems than those who chose English language countries as their destination. As mentioned, Iranians move to Spain to work, live and/or study not only might face language problems, but they may face cultural differences in many aspects which one of them is greeting in Spain.

The main purpose of this paper is firstly for both Iranians and Spaniards to understand each other's greeting behaviors, and secondly for Iranians who want to adapt themselves to the Spanish culture and to initiate a better and more successful type of conversation (face to face, on the phone, formal, and informal). Addressing people, which is using a title for people, or using first name or last name plays a very notable role in greeting. For example in a face to face interaction in Iran using a title is a must in most of the places even between friends or couples, for example, at the workplace, or formal gatherings a wife and a husband use title while talking to each other to show respect, and using the first name in the workplace (e.g., hospital, school, university, company, and bank) is considered impolite and is not recommended, in contrast, using the title in Spain is not very common, and titles normally are used for elderlies. These differences between Persian and Spanish culture in using title can lead to a misunderstanding between communicators.

Different types of articles have been written about different behaviors in greeting in different cultures such as English and Arabic greeting (Al-Khafaji, 2009; Almegren, 2018). And many studies between English and Persian language and culture (Nodoushan, 2007; Farsi & Zarei, 2013; and Moradi & Chen, 2018), however, with the increasing tendency among those Iranians who plan to leave their country and chose Spain as their destination there is a need for studying and informing newcomers (Persian) about Spanish greeting form. Hence, this study is going to find the verbal and nonverbal differences of greeting between Persians and Spaniards in different situations. In the following part of this article, different forms of Persian and Spanish greetings in different situations will be presented.

IV. THE DATA

In this study, we focused on 552 time-free and time-bound greeting behavior of Iranians in Tehran in different situations between middle-class people and different genders, and also 453 greeting behavior of Spaniards in Madrid between middle-class people and different genders from Madrid.

A. Persian Greeting Forms

While talking to people from different societies, and cultural backgrounds, we might face different ways of speech act and greeting forms. For example in Iran (Tehran), people with different social-class, age groups, genders, education levels, and jobs, communicate differently. One should bear in mind that it is not possible to generalize the forms of greetings (verbal and nonverbal) for both Persians and Spaniards. Persian greeting form could be divided into two time-free and time-bound categories.

Following are some examples of time-free and time-bound greeting in Persian:

Time-free greeting examples:

1. sæ'la:m (?æ'leikəm) [Hello/Hi] سلام
2. ?æ'leikəm-ə-sæ'la:m [Hello/Hi] (Said by the hearer in return) عليك سلام
3. (?æz mo'la:qa:t ba: shomaa/mo'la:qa:t-e-sho'ma:) xoshbæxt-æm. [Glad to meet you] از ملاقات شما/ملاقات با خوشبختم
4. (?æz didæne shomaa/mo'la:qa:t-e-sho'ma:) xoshbæxt-æm. [Nice to see you] از دیدن شما /ملاقات شما خوشبختم
5. ha:l-e ta:n/sho'ma: che'tore? [How are you?] (plural you) حال شما چگونه؟
6. 'ha:l-e-t che'tore? [How are you?] (singular you) حالت چگونه؟
7. che'tori? [Are you OK?] چگونه؟

Time-bound greeting (daily and seasonal) examples:

1. Sobhe sho'ma: be'xeir. [Good morning] (Daily, more formal) صبح شما بخیر
2. Sobh be'xeir. [Good morning] (Daily, less formal) صبح بخیر
3. Shæbe sho'ma: be'xeir. [Good night] (Daily, more formal) شب شما بخیر
4. Shæb be'xeir. [Good night] (Daily, less formal) شب بخیر
5. Ru:ze sho'ma: be'xeir. [Good day] (Daily, more formal) روز شما بخیر
6. Ru:z be'xeir. [Good day] (Daily, less formal) روز بخیر
7. Tævælude sho'ma moba:'ræk. [Happy birthday to you.] (Seasonal, formal) تولد شما مبارک
8. Tævælodæt moba:'ræk. [Happy birthday to you.] (Seasonal, less formal) تولدت مبارک
9. ?i:de sho'ma moba:'ræk. [Happy your feast (new year)] (Seasonal, formal) عید شما مبارک
10. ?i:d-æt moba:'ræk. [Happy your feast (new year)] (Seasonal, less formal) عیدت مبارک

In Iran, the common form of greeting when people see each other is "sæ'la:m." (HELLO), which is used in both formal and informal contexts. In more formal contexts both "sæ'la:m." which is time-free and a time-bound form may

be used such as "sæ'la:m Ru:z be'xeir. " (Hello, good day) or sæ'la:m Sobh be'xeir (Hello, good morning). The interesting point about Iranian greeting form is that generally they use Sobh be'xeir. [Good morning] when they get up in the morning and Shæb be'xeir. [Good night] when they want to go to bed at night.

B. Spanish Greeting Forms

Time-free greeting examples:

1. Holla [Hello/Hi]
2. Adios [goodbye]
3. ¿Cómo est ás? [How are you]
4. ¿Cómo est áusted? [How are you] (more formal)
5. ¿Qu étal? [What's up?]
6. Hasta luego [see you later]
7. Hasta pronto [see you soon]

Time-bound greeting examples:

1. Buenos d ás [Good morning]
2. Buenas tardes [Good afternoon]
3. Buenas noches [Goodnight]
4. Feliz cumpleaños [Happy birthday]
5. Feliz Año Nuevo! [Happy new year]
6. Feliz Navidad! [Happy Christmas]
7. Felicidades [Congratulations]

V. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Observations in this study show that Spanish greeting form the same as English greeting form lacks "'zohr-e sho'ma:be'xeir" which means (good noon). Likewise, in Persian "Sobh be'xeir", "Shæb be'xeir", "Ru:z be'xeir", etc. generally used in more formal situations and sæ'la:m [Hello/Hi] is used in all situations whereas in Spanish which those are used in daily greeting form. "Sobh be'xeir" in Persian is used to greet after waking up in the morning and "Shæb be'xeir" is used to greet before going to bed and sometimes means goodbye (at night). Greeting form among Persians normally starts by shaking hands (girl/girl. Boy/boy, and for less religious families, girl/boy), whereas Spanish form which starts with two kisses (normally girl/girl, or boy/girl), that this cultural difference makes a complex situation for Iranian immigrants in first days of their entrance, also for those religious people it might seem disrespect towards Spaniards who are not familiar with Islamic religion and Persian culture. In Persian, using a title is a very important part of communication behavior and must be used at the workplace, street, and family for elderly people, while in Spain title is mostly used for elderly people to show respect.

In observations, I saw Iranians try to be more formal in the workplace and academic environments (e.g., universities, language schools, and schools) and they never use the first name in the workplace such as a bank, and office that may consider rude and impolite, while in Spain using the first name is not considered rude or disrespectful. Another important greeting behavior which is different among Persians and Spaniards is related to the nonverbal greeting. In Iran, standing up when someone enters a place is a sign of high respect. Some examples for this situation are, when grandparents(s) enter to the room younger generations should stand up for them, when a teacher or professor enters his/her class students must stand up for them when a boss comes to a place others stand up for them when guest(s) enter to the home the host and other guests who came before them stand up, and this form of greeting (nonverbal) normally happens before the verbal greeting.

A. Example One

Persian:

This conversation happened in Iran in a bank between a banker and a customer.

Banker: sæ'la:m, che'tor mi:tu:næm kəomæketu:n kəonæm?
(Hello, how can I help you?)

سلام چطور میتونم کمکتون کنم؟

Customer: sæ'la:m, mi:kha:stæ:m hesAb bAFAM bAZ kə:ni:d.
(I wanted you to open an account for me)

سلام میخواستم حساب برام باز کنید

Spanish:

The same situation in Spain

Banker: buenos d ás. ¿en qu éle puedo ayudar?
(Good morning, how can I help you?)

Customer: Buenos d ás. Me gustar á abrir una cuenta, por favor.
(Good morning, I would like to open a bank account please.)

In examples above we see both Iranian banker and customer used the plural form in the verbs during the conversation, (kəomæket (help you) [singular form of the second person] kəomæketu:n (Help you) [plural form of the second person] and kə:ni: (you do) [singular form of the second person] kə:ni:d (you do) [plural form of the second person] to show

respect, whereas Spanish one in which both interlocutors show their respect by the intonation they use and also by "por favor" (please), and the banker uses "Le" in the sentence. ¿en qué le puedo ayudar? instead of "Te" to show respect to the customer.

B. Example Two

Persian:

This conversation happened between two friends (boys) who met each other on the street.

Reza: sə'la:m, che'tor-i?

سلام چطوری؟

(Hi, how are you)

Kamran: sə'la:m. qor'bunet, to che'tor-i? (qor'bunet usually used among boys in Iran which literally means the teller wishes to scarify himself for the other).

سلام قریونت تو چطوری؟

(Hi, Thanks a lot, how are you?)

Spanish:

The same situation in Spain

Carlos: Hola tío, ¿que tal?

(Hi, How are you?)

Javier: bien, todo bien. ¿Y tu?

(fine, everything is fine, and you?)

VI. CONCLUSION

The present study shows that newcomer Iranian immigrants in Spain, based on their native language, while talking in Spanish, tend to use more polite forms, such as using titles and plural form to show their respect which in Spanish culture and language generally using title and plural form are used for elderly people or those who have higher social positions. Using polite forms by Persians in Spain can be viewed and judged from two perspectives (for Spaniards), the first one is to show the respect which usually is judged by elderlies which could be the positive side of Persian greeting in Spain, and the second one is to annoy the communicator, that means for example when university students use the title for their young professor or supervisor that is generally used for elderlies and could be count for the negative side of Persian greeting in Spain. To make the long story short, the Iranian form of politeness may annoy Spaniards and may cause a wrong impression by Spaniards. This issue in which misunderstandings in cross-cultural communication shapes is called cultural "pragmatic failure" (Thomas, 1983). Spanish politeness behavior is different from Iranian one, therefore Iranian immigrants' behavior (using the polite form) in Spain seems to be a breach of social norms. And as a result of this failure, they may not be able to have effective communication, and/or to be accepted in Spanish social gatherings, which can disrupt adaptation and acculturation of Iranian immigrants in Spain. Therefore, learning social-appropriate norms seems important for immigrants to be accepted by Spaniards and as a result of this acceptance, they might have more first-hand and continues contact which leads the immigrants to have changes in for example behavior or lifestyle, which is called acculturation (Berry, 2006; Sam, 2006; Sam & Berry, 2006; Berry, Sam & Rogers, 2006).

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Ali Elhami (Tehran, Iran, 1982) is doing his Ph.D. in Philosophy and Language Science at the Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Spain. His research interests are intercultural contact, language learning, language teaching, and cross-cultural studies.

He has worked for reputable language academies in Tehran, Iran for more than 10 years as an English language teacher, and published some articles related to language teaching and learning, intercultural contact and communication accommodation theory (CAT), also he has attended as a presenter in different international conferences around the world such as Indonesia, Thailand, and Italy, and was a session chair in two international conferences.

Teaching and Learning English as a Second Language in Nigeria: Examining Evolving Approaches and Methods

Adebola Adebileje

Department of English, Redeemer's University, Nigeria

Aderonke Akinola

Department of English, Redeemer's University, Nigeria

Abstract—This paper examines language teaching and learning theories in a bid to consider evolving and appropriate approaches and methods for efficient teaching and learning English as a second language in Nigeria. While traditional approaches do provide a solid foundation for effective language teaching, they do not always address students' situational and current needs. Hence, the study reveals that strategies and methods are evolving especially, in this hi-tech age, to meet such additional needs. Since no one theory or method is the best, the study recommends a principled eclectic approach for the effective and functional teaching and learning of English in Nigeria. It also suggests processes that could enhance teaching and motivate learning in the ESL classroom.

Index Terms—language teaching theories, language learning theories, English as a second language (ESL), methods, and approaches

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is an instrument of thought which binds human society together in communities and linguistic groups. Linguists in different ages have variously defined it; Sapir (1921) sees it as a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires utilizing voluntarily produced symbols. To Asiyabola (2012), language is "a human vocal noise or the graphic representation of that noise used systematically and conventionally by a group of people in a community." Therefore, language is solely a personal property. Crystal (2010) asserts that language belongs to everyone; hence, the diverse views about it. Although several studies (e.g., Akindele & Adebite, 2009; Banjo, 2016) have been carried out on the subject of English as a second language in Nigeria, little attention has been accorded to teaching and learning processes for the English language in Nigeria. It is on this premise that the present study attempts to examine different theories of language teaching and learning, in a bid to identify appropriate teaching and learning processes for the English language in Nigeria.

Although the advent of English in Nigeria was not ascertained, several studies (e.g., Kachru, 1995; Gut, 2004) had, however, suggested that harmonious business relationship had existed between Nigeria and Europe in the 16th century as they traded in, particularly, ivory and slaves. Records show that the initiation and retention of English as the language of communication in Nigeria could be traced to some historical periods - the Industrial Revolution that started in 1750, the era of missionaries in 1846, the abolition of Slave Trade in 1883 and the outcome of Berlin Conference of 1884 and 1885 (Adetugbo, 1984; Awonusi, 2009). Presently, Nigeria has been said to be the third-largest speakers of English in the globe aside from India and the United States of America (Ethnologue, 2009). A total number of 79,000,000 of Nigerian population speak English, while the number of L1 speakers is estimated at 4,000,000. English in Nigeria performs the role of language of education, instruction, educational evaluation, the media, government, politics and law and legal documents, and so on. It, therefore, becomes pertinent to focus on the processes of teaching and learning the English language in Nigeria.

The question is, how is a language learned? Several studies (Crystal (2010); Krashen (1987); Skinner (1957); Wilkins (1972)) have revealed that learning a language, especially a second language, effectively is premised on language teaching and learning theories.

II. THEORIES OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Communication, as the key to knowledge, has always been important for individuals desiring to learn more about the world they live in and to be "able to access and use information in a number of languages," especially, English. This section focuses on the theories of second language (L2) learning in relation to the approaches to L2 acquisition theories propounded by Skinner (1957), Chomsky (1959), and other views that emerged afterward. Every approach to language revolves around the theories of language (Xia, 2014), which include: behaviouristic and cognitive theories. The two

primary methods attempt to offer ideas on how a language can be learned or acquired.

A. *Behaviourist Theory*

Behaviouristic or imitation or reinforcement theory was proposed by Skinner in 1957 and prevailed between the 1920s and 1960s. Behaviourists patterned the language learning process after Pavlov's idea of conditioning, which centres on three procedural stages of stimulus, response, and reinforcement. Essentially, the theory suggests that learners become proficient in the usage of a language, like a mother tongue, by consistently imitating his/her teacher and constant practice followed by positive reinforcement (rewards) from the teacher (Bell, 1981, p. 24). However, there is more to language learning than the theory has explained because if a student waits for rewards before he/she would learn a language, then he/she will spend eternity to learn a language. Therefore, Wilkins (1972) believes that "carefully planned schedules of reinforcement are unnecessary since learning will take place whether or not the student is reinforced" (p. 172).

B. *Cognitive Theory*

Reacting to the behaviouristic approach, Chomsky (1959) declares that the theory is "at least incapable of explaining our ability to learn and use our mother tongue." To him, language is a complex rule-governed system, which emanates from the innate property (Wilkins, 1972) of a learner to learn a language. Chomsky (1966) refers to the innate knowledge as Language Acquisition Device (LAD). Essentially, according to Wilkins (1972), the theory holds that:

...everybody learns a language, not because they are subjected to a similar conditioning process, but because they possess an inborn capacity which permits them to acquire a language as a normal maturational process" (p. 168)

The cognitive or mentalist theory holds that learning is socially-oriented. The LAD features the power to distinguish one speech sounds from the other, organize and classify linguistic events, filters the possible linguistic system from the impossible ones, and the ability to select data with constant evaluation. By this, the learner would become competent in the knowledge of the grammar of the language (Harmer, 1983). To Cognitivists, therefore, language learning is a function of appropriate usage of the data processed by the brain through the senses. The theory, therefore, submits that language learning is a mental process (Bell, 1981; Titone & Danesi, 1985).

However, critics of this theory held that language learning could not be divorced from the social environment. More so, no one can learn to speak if there is no one around; thus, language acquisition is a function of learn-by-doing. It would be difficult to subscribe to the submission of the idea that "the social factors have virtually no role at all" (Wilkins, 1972) in language learning.

C. *Humanistic Theory*

Humanistic theory, influenced by Rogers (1961), is another approach to language learning. From this point of view, language learning should be interpersonal and student-oriented following integrated and eclectic methodologies. The proponent maintains that the learner's personality is vital in the learning-teaching process, whereby an interpersonal relationship is established between the learner and the teacher. In all, Titone & Danesi (1985) conclude that:

...some language learning tasks may require a behaviouristic approach (e.g., articulation); others, a more cognitive one (e.g., word order); still others may require an interpersonal approach (e.g., free speech exercises (p. 60).

However, since none of these theories seemed to adequately provide a clue to language learning, several other theories of language learning have since emerged as the offshoot of the trio – behaviouristic, cognitive and humanistic theories of language.

D. *Habit Formation Theory*

This theory holds that learning is a function of habit formation. It is patterned after Skinner's (1957) behaviouristic approach, which accounted for learning through the conditioning of the mind, formed as a result of consistent stimulus, responses, and reinforcements through reward. It followed the audio-lingual and audio-visual teaching methods of the nineteenth century, which focused on provisions of the receptive and productive skills of listening experience followed by speaking; and reading experience followed by writing. The approach was informed by automatic responses to linguistic stimuli, such as mimicry, memorization, and structural drilling, which were expected to impart "native-like" ability. In this regard, communicative and learning systems were synthetic rather than authentic, and strictly teacher-influenced. The learning system was constructed totally to the teacher's perception of the learner's needs.

E. *Intellectual Capacity and Logic Theory*

This theory emphasizes the capacity of the learner to reason. It was rooted in Chomsky's (1959) cognitive or 'mentalist' theory and explained by Rivers (1988) that:

...human beings come into the world with innate language learning abilities in the form of a language acquisition device (LAD) which proceeds (to acquire language through) by hypothesis testing...Language is thus rule-governed behaviour which enables speakers to create their utterances which conform to the rules they have internalized (p. 77)

Contrary to the concept of passivism in the habit formation theory, the learning systems here allowed the learner's conscious and active involvement in learning the language, consequent upon which Chomsky's idea of competence and performance is put to play.

The changes in linguistic theory till the 1970s saw a shift away from the study of language seen purely as a formal system towards the study of language as communication; a shift towards sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, semantics, speech act theory, and pragmatics. This had a major impact on language teaching, culminating in the so-called communicative approach to second language teaching, which was a reaction against the predominant formalistic view of language teaching. Its initial impact was on syllabus design. Wilkins (1976), influenced by Halliday's functional approach to language and Austin's speech acts, produced a notional syllabus that took the language teaching world by storm (Van der Walt, 1992).

F. Learner Motivation Theory

Harmer (1983) defines motivation as "...some kind of internal drive that encourages somebody to pursue a course of action." From the humanists' point of view, learner's mental state is of paramount importance in the concept of language learning. Studies (Krashen, 1982; Widdowson, 1984) have shown that factors such as the learner's personality, which include intellect, background, ability, goal, and motivation, are essential to the learning process.

The desire to satisfy the various needs of language learners has informed the diverse teaching theories, which shall be examined in the next section of the study.

III. THEORIES OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

According to Rivers (1986),

Emphases in language teaching tend to swing from a preference for one approach to a growing attraction to the other, as successive generations of teachers seek to correct any imbalance which may have developed from the particular preoccupations of their producers. The de-emphasis or re-emphasis of one or the other of these approaches is basic to many of the controversies, switches and changes which sweep through the language teaching profession from year to year (p. 21)

Going by this assertion, various theories have been propounded for language teaching over the years. Parrotts (1993) remarks that teachers need:

...to take account of the ways in which their students are predisposed to learn and to recognize the range of different predispositions which may be found in most groups of learners (p. 1)

This study attempts to examine many of these theories with second language acquisition approaches to come up with some appropriate processes of teaching the English language in Nigeria.

A. In the Beginning

Mackey (1965) reports that some speakers of the Latin language claimed to have learned it without rules, but agreed that learning the rules had aided their fluency and proficiency in the use of the language. For over 2,000 years, the prescriptive approach to language teaching prevailed. It holds that a variety of language be accorded a higher value than others, and be imposed on the users of the language. The proponents of the prescriptive approach opine that appropriate rules with illustrative examples must guide the teaching of any language. On the other hand, the descriptive approach to language teaching cares less about standards but sees all forms of usage as equally reasonable and acceptable (Crystal, 2010). It encourages students to investigate language on a deeper level and enables them to see the language in real use, instead of teaching them isolated prescriptive rules. Nevertheless, the two approaches are essential in language teaching and learning since they satisfy the condition of acceptability and intelligibility. Over the years, methods of language teaching had continued to vary, and teachers had attempted to overcome the controversies that emerged from the earlier approaches of prescriptivism and descriptivism. To this end, Jacobovitz (1974) comments:

...the development of language methods...swing from the active oral use of Latin in ancient and Medieval times to the learning by the rules...back to oral activity...back to grammar rules...and back again to the primacy speech in the Direct Method.

B. The Twentieth-century Language Teaching Theories

As teachers are enjoined to think critically towards several ways through which their students would understand whatever they teach, approaches to language have since changed whereby new theories, though related to the existing ones, have emerged.

C. Traditional Grammar-based Theory

This theory, as the oldest approach to L2 teaching (Mackey, 1965), is based on earlier grammars of classical languages like Latin and Greek and applied to some language that is sometimes inappropriate (Xia, 2014). The theory is rooted in the prescriptive approach, which emphasizes written language but neglected its oral form (that is, speaking skills). It reduces language to the grammatical system by emphasizing the memorisation of the prescribed rules of morphology, phonology, syntax, and grammar. The influence of this theory on language teaching informs a method

referred to as the 'grammar translation' method. The method is employed in teaching L2 with the teacher as the absolute authority, while the students are only encumbered with writing down in detail whatever the teacher teaches them. Chastain (1976) informs that,

...it is a mixture of grammar and translation activities. So, learners are required to learn and memorize the rules of grammar deductively and in detail. Along with these rules, learners must memorize lists of vocabulary. Translation is used as a test of learners understanding of the rules of grammar and vocabulary. Learners must translate reading passages into and from the native language. It is also a common practice to ask learners to state the rules (p. 35).

The main emphasis is on the translation of the written form and the grammar aspect of the target language into the native language, as a result of which students of the target language lag behind in its spoken form or communicative aspect. A major defect of the grammar-translation method – reading more than training in speaking creates room for a new approach to language teaching.

D. Structuralism

As the name implies, it concerns itself with the teaching of the structure of a language. Rivers (1964) states that "the learners learn to manipulate structures to the point of automatic response to a language stimulus," which suggests that the theory is patterned after Skinner's operant conditioning. Contrary to traditional grammar, it gives credence to mastery of structures, speech, the formation of language habits, the teaching of one item of language per time, learner's and teacher's involvement. The theory gives room for all the students to participate in learning the language. Hence, no student is left behind. For example, each student, as a matter of habit, first listens to the teacher, then speaks to repeat he/she has learned, then writes it down, after which he/she reads out. It implies that all the communication skills are deployed into the structuralists' teaching approach. It is not Greek or Latin-inclined; hence, it is more scientific than traditional grammar. No doubt, the theory is of great benefit to both teachers and learners of L2. However, the approach seems to be cumbersome as it requires a lot of practice, which might present the process as too mechanical and wearisome. The weakness in the structuralist approach invariably led to Chomsky's transformational generative grammar theory.

E. Transformational Generative Grammar Theory

The Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG) theory holds that competence in a language is innate as a result of the language acquisition device (LAD), which is inborn and could be developed through correct and suitable practice. The LAD is said to consist of a hypothesis-maker, linguistic universal, and an evaluation procedure. The proponent of the theory emphasises that it does not require explicit teaching for a child to learn or acquire his/her mother tongue, and the child progressively attains competence even in sentences that are not familiar to him/her. Further, according to TGG, in contrary to structuralists' approach, "a system of rules that in some explicit and well-defined way assigns structural descriptions to sentences" (Hu & Wangqi, 2002). The theory probes into the discovery of underlying meaning, which is deeper than the surface structures of a language. Chomsky (1957) explains that the concept of language as the medium of meaning communication goes beyond the analysis of the syntactic features. However, the theory generates a lot of controversies, emphasizing that the position of the theory on language competence is not convincing enough to give interpretation to the concept of language.

F. Audio-lingual Theory

The theory evolved from the descriptive and behaviouristic approaches. It, therefore, encompasses the concepts of linguistic patterns and habit formation. The approach has its roots in language patterns and psychological theory (Brown, 1994) as well as the direct method. Its primary goal was to create communicative competence in its learners; hence, it focuses on the development of the native-like ability in them. It is audio-lingual because it encourages the use of tapes, language laboratories, and visual aids. The theory depended much on dialogue memorization of phrases, mimicry, pattern and repetitive drills, pronunciation, with a considerable effort to produce error-free speeches. This aims at conveying the linguistic systems of the target language on the premise of the insight from the structural linguists into the minds of the students in a manner that feedback would become spontaneous and customary. However, a critical examination of the audio-lingual theory created a room for language manipulation and neglect of content.

G. Functional-notional Theory

The theory assumes that a language is a tool for conveying meaning in an appropriate matter that suits the context of use. Earlier theories had concentrated on grammatical rules and emphasised the need to teach the whole spectrum of grammar. Still, the functional-notional theory is concerned with the specific and relevant functions that language is meant to perform within the contextual needs practically. The theory, therefore, holds the view that the language learner is exposed to services of the language used in real life so that it becomes easier for him/her to engage in the everyday language activities. To this end, teaching linguistic forms is essential. Still, it is more important to show the learner to be conversant with the various linguistic functions in daily use and have the knowledge of diverse contexts in which they are used (Xia, 2014, p.563).

H. Natural Theory

The Natural Approach to second language teaching was developed by Krashen and Terrell (1983) in the early eighties. The theory focuses on meaning rather than form; hence, except the learner engages in errors that may affect the meaning, correction is withheld during oral communication. Like the Direct approach, the learning process is not interrupted by the teacher, and the teacher uses the target language to communicate from the onset. However, it allows learners to use their MT alongside the TL during the learning process. The theory also subscribes more to language acquisition than language processing, so a lot of input is expected from the teacher. It is believed that the notion of advocacy for a 'silent period' to wait for vocal production to 'emerge' at its own stipulated time was the new effort to create an "expansive and overall approach" instead of a "specific method." However, the critics of the Natural theory believed that it would be challenging for the teacher to manage the classroom except he/she is highly skilled. Many of the criticisms led to another communicative approach.

I. Communicative Theory

Littlewood (1981) describes the communicative theory as a language teaching approach that "pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language, combining these into a more fully communicative view." Canale (1983) further explains that the dominant principles of the theory of communicative competence involve an "unpredictable and creative social interaction which occurs in discourse that has socio-cultural context." The approach features the two parts or aspects of the language to teach and how to teach them. Here, the teacher teaches linguistic features, meanings, and functions and how to apply them in real communication in real life. The learner is inspired to communicate in the target language, for instance, to write an application letter, etc. The theory is authentic rather synthetic, as the teacher shall not interrupt the process. Canale and Swain (1980) also state that the teaching theory comprises the grammatical, sociolinguistic discourse, and strategic competence. It also consists of the identification of the learner's communication needs, learner's interests in the L2 system; the provision of realistic and meaningful communicative competence, as well as the provision of adequate information and practice of the experience required in L2 situations.

However, as much as the grammar would enable the learner to understand the fundamental instruments for using and practicing the language, communication would also provide the best opportunity for the learner to produce in spoken form the rules he/she has learned. In essence, both are essential in realistic contexts. The communicative theory is said to be the most scientific of all the language teaching theories. However, it cannot be said to be a perfect approach (Xia, 2014).

J. Eclectic Theory

Eclectic theory, also known as the active or compromise method due to its heterogeneity, was propounded to bridge the gap between the existing approaches to language teaching. Expounding on this observation, Yardi (1994) submits that

...this method makes use of the learner's mother tongue when necessary, accommodates teaching of formal grammar, makes use of situations for presenting teaching material and freely uses audio-visual aids.

Consequently, the theory involved the oral practice of sounds, reading aloud, the use of questions and answers in the target language to test their comprehension of the spoken form. It also visualized tests to check the understanding of the students, trained them in the use of vocabulary, and explained grammar deductively. In essence, the theory advocates the blending or combination of the best techniques in the language teaching theories for effectiveness and effectiveness.

It is on this basis that the present study seeks to do an overview of language teaching methods for the English language in Nigeria.

IV. METHODS OF TEACHING ENGLISH

Different teaching methods are premised on or derived from the various language theories of teaching or learning processes enumerated earlier in this study. Each method has a different focus or priority in practical terms in the classroom. The principal methodologies are listed below in sequential order of their formation in time (as cited in Taylor, 2020):

1. **Grammar Translation Method**– the classical method
2. **Direct Method** – discovering the importance of speaking
3. **Audio-lingual Method** – the first modern methodology
4. **Humanistic Approaches** – a range of holistic methods applied to language learning
5. **Communicative Language Teaching** – the current standard method
6. **Principled Eclecticism** – fitting the method to the learner, not the learner to the method (Taylor, 2020).

The table of traditional and evolving language teaching methods with their focal points and characteristics designed and presented by Alex Taylor of TJ Taylor (an academic outfit) is adapted and presented thus:

	Methods	Focal Points	Characteristics
1.	Grammar Translation	Written literary texts	(i) Translates from English into learners' native language (ii) It revolves around topics considered useful for learners (iii) Learners are made to learn the grammar and vocabulary teachers think they need to know
2.	Direct Method (also called Natural Method)	Everyday spoken language	Students learn by directly associating meaning in English
3.	Audio-Lingual Method	Sentence and sound patterns	Students listen and speak by pattern practice in English only
4.	Cognitive Code Approach	Grammar rules	Students deduce English grammar rules and apply to the context
5.	Humanistic Approaches – 4 accepted examples:		
	(i) The Silent Way	Student interaction rather than teacher	Students are allowed to understand how English works while the teacher is silent
	(ii) Suggestopedia	Meaningful texts and vocabulary	Students are put in a relaxed atmosphere, with music to encourage subliminal learning
	(iii) Community Language Learning	Student interaction	Students are engaged in active interactions for the understanding of English
	(iv) Comprehension Approach (Natural Approach, the Learnables, and Total Physical Response)	Listening comprehension	English speaking by students is delayed until students are ready; meanings are clarified through actions and visuals
6.	Communicative Language Teaching	Interaction, authentic communication and negotiating meaning	Students are made to understand English through active interactions such as role-plays, games, etc
7.	Content-based, Task-based, and Participatory Approaches	What is being communicated, not the structure of English	Teaching is content-based and relevant to students' lives: topics, tasks, problem-solving
8.	Learning Strategy Training, Cooperative Learning, and Multiple Intelligences	How to learn	Students' different intellectual levels determine learning strategies, cooperation

Fig 1: Language Teaching Methods. Culled from *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching* (Oxford University Press)

V. TEACHING AND LEARNING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE (ESL) IN NIGERIA

Several studies (Adebileje 2013, 2014, 2017) show that the majority of the ESL learners, most importantly, in public schools, cannot competently express themselves in English. But, it is not so in privately owned schools, which suggests that the method of teaching could be faulty in public schools. It is apparent that without communicative competence in English, opportunities for a better life remain elusive, and the poverty level of young graduates deepens abysmally despite being educated. One major cause of this incompetence is due to improper English language teaching by unqualified teachers (Opoola & Fatiloro, 2014). If it is not well taught, it certainly cannot be correctly learnt and competently used by learners. For many years now, results of secondary school students in English in public examinations such as West African School Certificate Examination (WASCE) and Nigeria Examination Council

(NECO) have been persistently poor (Ogundele, Olanipekun, & Aina, 2014). It is, therefore, necessary to carry out a study on the theories and methods of teaching and learning English for better results.

Notwithstanding, the teaching and learning of ESL can be very problematic, especially when the first language sounds are similar to English sounds but used in different contexts (Young, 1996). Also, there is more to learning English than vocabulary and grammar (Cummins, 1979, 1980, 1981; Snow, 1992). Also, learners' social background of their mother tongue, which is always complex, presents challenges to proficiency and easy comprehension of the English language. In corroboration, Cummins (1979) believes that children learning a second language have a communicative competence barrier. To this end, Robert (1964) states:

A person knows to use a language when he can use its structure accurately for communication, with attention focused on the content, recalling automatically the units and patterns as needed, and holding them for a normal memory span at conversational speed, noticing any errors that occur.

It takes a lot of skillful teaching for English learners to reach this level of competence as explained by Robert. As a result of the learners' problems enumerated above, learners are unsure of the target language functions as well as the correctness of language usage within specific contexts (Xu & Drame, 2008). Therefore, both teachers and learners could get stressed and frustrated with these types of challenges (Gillanders, 2007).

A. *What Is the Best Teaching Method for Learning English?*

Linguists are of the opinion that there is not one single best method for all learners in all contexts and that no one teaching method is inherently better than the others (nankonyo.blogspot.com). Besides, the application of the same teaching methods to all learners with different levels of understanding of the language is not appropriate and effective. For greater effectiveness, language teachers are expected to apply the most proper methods to take care of learners' needs. Depending on the most suitable techniques, a trained language teacher is expected to adopt a principled eclecticism approach that will address learners' specific objectives and needs. Hence, in the last four to three decades, methods of teaching English have evolved in order to solve some language teaching problems. Based on the existing language teaching and learning theories, the study, finally, suggests some modern approaches for teaching and learning the English language in Nigeria as recommended by Fluentu, 2020.

B. *Task-based Approach*

The task-based approach as described by [fluentu.com](http://www.fluentu.com) is the direct opposite of the traditional curriculum design. It signifies a significant paradigm shift from focusing on content to emphasizing skills and competencies. So, planning and design are not about what is taught, but why it is taught (www.fluentu.com). This approach according to ([fluentu.com](http://www.fluentu.com)) isolates individual skills and competencies to explain the areas or aspects students need to know to meet their goals and objectives. The task-based method involves more of students' input as they feel comfortable with what they are involved in and can relate with. Instances in the day to day activities of learners that could be regarded as task-based and used for teaching include placing an order in a restaurant, requesting a hotel room, or perhaps more advanced tasks like reviewing a movie or voicing their opinions about politics ([Fluentu.com](http://www.fluentu.com)). In this approach, the language taught revolves around the task itself, not the other way around. For this method to work, teachers must understand their students' needs and expectations in order to design lessons that help their students succeed (www.fluentu.com). There is a need for teachers to ask the question, "Why are my students learning English?" Teachers must then look at ways to help their learners achieve their personal and/or professional goals. The answers to these questions will help language teachers create a teaching plan that is relevant to students' needs (www.fluentu.com).

C. *Project-based Approach*

Much like the task-based approach, the project-based approach is meant to address students' real needs by adapting language to the skills and competencies they truly need personally and professionally (www.fluentu.com). The application of this approach begins by determining the one global objective that the individual or group of students have. This can be achieved by doing a need-assessment, such as looking at what learners are interested in and what topics they really need to know. This assessment will lead to the design of one overarching project that will become the end result of the class, term, or course. The project can be anything from an oral presentation to a large-scale production, such as a class play. Whatever the case, the plan must comprise individual tasks that lead students to the goals in the assessment (www.fluentu.com).

D. *Lexical Syllabus Approach*

While the previous two approaches focus heavily on the skills and competencies that learners need to develop, this approach focuses on content and what language they actually need to produce (Fluentu, 2020). In particular, the actual words that students need to understand in order to conduct specific tasks are the focus of the class. This approach is based upon the core language that students need to know according to their needs. Also, professional students need precise vocabulary used by different disciplines and professions, that is, register.

E. *Use of Technology Approach*

At this tech age, many readily available aids can be used in the classroom to enhance teaching and learning.

Smartphones, for example, have become a part of modern life. Since just about everyone has internet access or data plan, school authorities could take advantage of smartphones as a useful teaching tool instead of seeing them as a distraction. Both teachers and learners can be creative with the use of smartphones. For instance, smartphones provide many useful tools for students, such as a dictionary, translator, and grammar reference apps. Much like computers, students need to understand that their phones are not for play or personal use, but to be used as learning tools. Aside from translations, Word Reference is an app that has a thesaurus, an English dictionary, and a forum where other users can comment on difficult words or expressions. Learners can be asked to browse through websites to find the information they need to write essays or complete some write-ups. Students can also use their devices to access free, online exercises that reinforce language and skills seen in class. Other uses can involve students recording their activities (sourced from <https://www.fluentu.com/blog/educator-english/new-methods-of-teaching-english/>).

While traditional approaches do provide a solid foundation for effective language teaching, they do not always address students' current needs. The task-based approach focuses on the skills and competencies students need. The project-based approach builds on the task-based approach using specialized activities. The lexical syllabus provides students with the content they will need in different linguistic situations. All these approaches, combined with the effective use of technology in the classroom will result in an engaging technique that cannot be ignored.

VI. CONCLUSION

Adebileje (2014) submits that a competent user of a language should exhibit the four skills of speaking, writing, listening, and reading competently. Therefore, it suffices to assert that only one method or approach will not provide this competence in a learner. Grammar, vocabulary, and language skills are just the vehicles that enable students to achieve their outcomes.

Thus, this study has critically examined different theories of language teaching and learning, which include behaviouristic, cognitive, humanistic, habit formation, intellectual capacity, and learner motivation learning theories. The teaching theories examined include formal and functional, traditional grammar-based, structuralism, transformational generative grammar, audio-lingual, functional-notional, direct method, natural, communicative, and eclectic theories.

The study discovers that each of the theories is said to be appropriate depending on the purpose, goals, and contexts of use. It also establishes that none of the theories is perfect in all situations. It, therefore, becomes expedient to identify, select the best techniques in the theories, and blend them to suit the students' needs to achieve the desired results.

In conclusion, for practical and engaging classes, teachers are encouraged to consider the following teaching processes:

- (1) be familiar with the backgrounds of the students;
- (2) design the teaching style in line with the students' needs and context;
- (3) use a variety of approaches to achieve the best result in the course of teaching;
- (4) involve the students directly in conversation activities;
- (5) make use of different techniques, such as critical thinking, debates, etc.
- (6) use audio-oral and audio-visual aids (e.g., video clips, tapes, etc.) in which native speakers of English are involved in conversations'
- (7) engage students in humorous events, such as jokes, problem-solving adventures, etc.
- (8) encourage students to read texts and materials in class;
- (9) encourage students to interact with speakers of English;
- (10) do not be too critical, too much correction can be counterproductive; and
- (11) learn to tolerate errors that are not likely to cause meaning change.

It is suggested that learners could also consider the following learning processes for a more fulfilling class:

- (1) build up skills that improve personal learning and self-assessment;
- (2) learn through visual, audio, and kinesthetic media;
- (3) sit where the teacher can be seen and heard;
- (5) take numerous detailed notes;
- (6) consider errors as a necessary aspect of learning; and
- (7) ready to be corrected.

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Adebola Adebileje is a Professor of Applied English Linguistics. Her areas of interest are English as a Second Language, Nigerian English, English Syntax, Sociolinguistics, and Onomastics. She attended University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria where she had her BA (Ed) Eng, (1989), MEd Eng, (1995) and PhD (English Language Education) in 2002. Her research focus largely dwells on actual language use in which she compares and examines processes, patterns and structures (Syntax) among languages, especially, indigenous languages and the English Language; and identifying challenges in the actual use of language (English as a Second Language) by students, teachers and the Nigerian society (social influence) at large. Her current collaborative research, *Diachronic Evolution of English in Nigeria* is being sponsored by Redeemer's University, Ede, Nigeria. She is a member of the following Professional bodies, Nigerian English Studies Association (NESA) now English Scholars Association of Nigeria (ESAN); Linguistic Association of Nigeria (LAN); Reading Association of Nigeria (RAN); American Association of Applied Linguistics (AAAL); and Linguistic Society of America (LSA). She is the Vice President; Society for the Study of Names in Nigeria (SSNN). Professor Adebola Adebileje loves teaching and mentoring students. She strongly believes in teamwork for building a great and successful organisation. She is a Pastor in the Redeemed Christian Church of God and happily married to Pastor Olusegun Adebileje. They are both blessed with children and grand children.

Aderonke Oladunke Akinola was born in Akure, Nigeria and had her Master's degree in English Language, 2019 at the Redeemer's University, Ede, Osun State, Nigeria. She is presently a doctoral student in the Department of English in the same University. Her major field is Corpus Phonology with a special interest in Applied Linguistics. She lectures Phonetics and Phonology, The English Language in Nigeria, History of the English Language, Techniques of Writing and Spoken English at the Redeemer's University, Ede. She has published a paper with two others under peer-review in reputable journals. Her current research interest is Phonological study of Free Variation in Nigerian English. Mrs. Akinola is a member of the English Scholars' Association of Nigeria (ESAN), Association of Phoneticians and Phonologists in Nigeria (APPN) and a Fellow of Ife Institute of Advanced Studies (IIAS).

Job Interview: An Analysis of Communication Strategies Used by Thai Prospective Employees

Prathomwat Suraprajit

Faculty of Management Sciences, Kasetsart University Sriracha Campus, Thailand

Abstract—Communication strategies play a crucial role for all employees who use English as a second or foreign language. The present study then analyzed the communication strategies employed by the prospective Thai employees who participated in the job interview activity at a Thai university. An in-depth job interview was conducted for gaining the qualitative data. The data were later analyzed by using descriptive statistics. Related to the mixed taxonomy of Tarone (1980), Faerch & Kasper (1983), and Dornyei & Scott (1997), the results showed that the most frequently used strategies employed by Thai participants during the job interview were compensatory strategies (intra-actional strategies) followed by compensatory strategies (interactional strategies) and avoidance strategies. In addition, when grouping into sub-types, the findings indicated that the three most frequently used strategies were code-switching, asking for repetition, and message abandonment, respectively.

Index Terms—communication strategies, job interview, compensatory strategies, avoidance strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Interview is an essential part of any recruitment processes (Keith, 2018). It is the first step for entering the real working world for the new graduates. And, it is the challenging step for the experienced job seekers who look for new opportunities for developing their working experiences. In the other words, it means that before becoming a new employee in the company or institution, a person must attend a job interview which is generally conducted in English language. However, the abilities and techniques in expressing ideas or answering the interview questions in English language are not easy for those whose English language is not their first language. Used in both government sections and private institutes worldwide, English is usually used in a job interview for testing the ability in using English language among the job applicants. Therefore, by exploring the strategies in using English for communication in the job interview questions among the L2 learners, the result would present some communication strategies (CSs) and suggest the future job interviewees some vital techniques which are beneficial for job interview.

A. Communication Strategies in the Job Interview

In the present state of the global economy, the knowledge of English is necessary for many people around the world. The people use English at school, college, and workplace. In the workplace, all four skills are necessary for all workers who use English for communication in their daily works both internally and externally. Acting as the medium language for international business, commerce and trade (Charles, 2007; Neeley, 2012; Reddy, 2016; Ahmad, 2016; and Ojanpera, 2014), English is unavoidable language for companies trying to compete in an international market. However, the situation in Thailand is opposite from its picture in the world economic stage. That is because the competence of English usage of Thai people is critical, especially comparing with those who are from the other countries in Southeast Asia. Although Thai people spend 12-15 years in learning English at school or college, they still face difficulties in using English, especially the ability in speaking. According to the world's largest ranking of countries and regions by English skills, the report from EF English Proficiency Index showed that the level of English skills of Thai people touches a low-level by ranking 64 out of 88 countries worldwide, and appears 16th out of 21st in Asia (EF, 2018). By considering deeply in speaking skill, English oral communication has been the big problem for Thai people though they are in the modern age (Jarupan, 2013).

In the business world, many employers expect the high quality of English skill for communication from the job applicants. Thereby, the job interview is challenging for the applicants in selling their abilities in using English language. However, speaking English during job interview is not an easy task for many Thai applicants (Jaemjedrio et al., 2015). That is because they may face some problems during interviewing such as the responses to the interview questions and the use of English. The more difficulties may be that they may face problems of English comprehension, then they thought the things like complicated questions, the interviewers' accent, and the interviewer speaking too fast were the common problems which made them unable to understand and answer the questions (Jaemjedrio et al., 2015).

To overcome the stated threats, communication strategies is a key. That is because it can help the job applicants getting across with the speaking difficulties. It may also help them stay in a conversation and on the track though they still do not have the right answers at that time. To deal with the communication problems, the job applicants tend to rely on some sorts of strategies in order to help deliver a message to the interviewer(s) accurately and successfully.

Therefore, it is worth to investigate the CSs employed by the senior Thai university students who are going to have a job interview after their graduation. That is because English is widely used for the job interview in Thailand. And, the benefits from the present study could help the job seekers acknowledging some communication strategies used in job interview. The results could also be applied for the pedagogy and future research.

B. The Concepts of Communication Strategies

Several researchers and scholars gave various definitions of communication strategies (CSs). Firstly, Selinker (1972) thought of CSs as one of the processes affecting second language acquisition. Tarone et al. (1976) then discussed CSs as a systematic attempt by the learner to express or decode meaning in the target language, in situations where the proper systematic target language rules have not been formed. Next, Corder (1978) defined CSs as a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his own idea when faced with some difficulties. Later, in 1983, there are lots of comments toward CSs. Bialystok stated CSs as all attempts to manipulate a limited linguistic system in order to promote communication. Canale mentioned CSs as a tool for encouraging the interaction effectiveness. Faerch & Kasper defined CSs as the potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal. Stern (1983) demonstrated CSs as the techniques of dealing with difficulties in communicating in an imperfectly known second or foreign language. Then, in 1989, Poulisse comment on CSs as the strategies that a speaker used to solve the communication problem caused by the lack of right forms in the mental lexical. The speaker compensates either by going to the conceptual stage or by trying out alternative linguistics formulations. In addition, in 1994, Ellis thought of CSs as the procedural skills which learner used to overcome the inadequacies of their interlanguage resources. And, in 2004, Cohen considered CSs as a systematic attempt by the learner to express meaning by a target language in which the suitable systematic target language rules have not been formed.

II. LITERATURE REVIEWS

There found many earlier studies related to the field of communication strategies (CSs) worldwide. Yarahmedzahi et al. (2015) from Iran examined the CSs among Iranian learners and found that the learners employed compensatory strategies the most, and the proficiency plays role in the degree of strategy used. Then, they are the studies from Turkey. Yaman et al. (2013) investigated both speaking and listening strategies used by EFL students in Turkey. The results revealed that the participants delivered negotiation for meaning, compensatory and getting the gist strategies when they communicated. Elyildirim (2017) also investigated the CSs among forty Turkish students. The findings were that the learners avoided some structure when writing. Next, it is the evidence from Tunisia. The work of Ounis (2016) found that achievement strategies were the most frequency used when the participants spoke, whereas non-verbal strategies, negotiation for meaning and getting the gist were the most frequently used while listening. In Nepal, Manzano (2018) investigated the CSs among Nepalese adult learners in a speaking skill. The findings showed that the participants employed both verbal and non-verbal strategies by appearing avoidance strategies (in verbal) and achievement strategies (in non-verbal) the most frequently employed. In Vietnam, Thu & Thu (2016) worked on the CSs among Vietnamese non-English major students. The results showed that compensatory was the highest used strategies. However, most students did not even know what CSs was. The another work from Vietnam was found in the study of Yanju & Yanmei (2016) which found that modification devices was the most frequently used. In Mexico, Lopez (2011) explored the oral strategies employed by students in higher education. The CSs that they employed were asking for repetition, use of paraphrasing or synonyms for unknown words, and asking for message clarification. And, they tended to use the strategies according to their proficiency. Moreover, there are many works related to the CSs studies in Malaysia as found in Hua et al. (2012); Ugla et al. (2012); Zulkurnain & Kaur (2014); and Yanju & Yanmei (2016). Hua et al. (2012) explored the CSs employed among international students in Malaysian University. The findings reported that code switching was the most employed strategy. Ugla et al. (2012) then worked on CSs used by fifty Malaysian ESL learners. The results showed that the most used of direct CSs was retrieval strategy, whereas use of fillers was found the most employed for indirect CSs. Zulkurnain & Kaur (2014) next discussed the types of oral CSs used by the diploma level ESL students. The findings showed that social-affecting strategies are the most used. And in Thailand, Suraprajit (2017); Binhayearong(2009); Chuanchaisit & Prapphal (2009); and Mongkolkeha (2008) also detected the communication strategies employed by Thai people with the various results.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. The Participants

In the present study, 66 senior Thai university students (52 females and 14 males) majoring in Management studying at the Faculty of Management Sciences in one public university in Thailand were recruited. They all registered and participated in the “English for job application and job interview” activity which was organized by the Faculty of Management Sciences during academic year 2018. The activity aimed to offer the senior Thai students a simulation to try the job interview in English before facing with the real situation in their future job interviews. The students from the Management major were chosen because they volunteered to participate in the stated program in which all senior

students were welcome to consult in the issues related to the job application together with having a job interview. The selected participants were those who answered all questions being asked. For those who cannot answer some questions or at least one question were not considered.

B. Instrument

In order to get the qualitative data on how the participants cope with the oral job interview in English, the in-depth job interview using unstructured open-ended questions which are a tool for collecting the data was conducted in English (L2) instead of Thai (L1). By doing this, an in-depth understanding of the strategies employed by individuals would be revealed. These questions were chosen because they were the most frequently asked questions found in the general job interview. Some interview questions used in the present study are as follows;

- 1) Can you introduce yourself?
- 2) Why did you choose to study Management major?
- 3) Which job position would you like to apply for?
- 4) Why do you want to work in this position?
- 5) Why do you want to work with our company?
- 6) Can you tell me about your university life?
- 7) Can you talk about your strengths and weaknesses?
- 8) Can you tell me about the activities that you like to do in your free time?
- 9) Can you tell me about the activities that you gained during your study at the university?
- 10) What do you see yourself in five years?
- 11) What is the most achievement in your life?
- 12) What do you like and dislike the most while studying at the university?
- 13) Why should we hire you?
- 14) What does make you different from other people?

C. Data Collection

Before proceeding the data collection, the pilot study was conducted by presenting the job interview questions to the university students who enrolled in the business course which included the job interview session in its lesson in order to check the suitability of the topics, period of time using for individuals, or whether there was some mistakes with the context or not. After that, all oral interview questions were rechecked for more accuracy.

After that, the participants were invited to join the activity “English for job application and job interview” which was held during academic year 2018. The program was promoted via the faculty’s website, Facebook, and announcement boards. The students who were interested in the project, then registered to participate in. After that he or she made an appointment with the interviewer for having a job interview.

On the interview day, each participant came to the interviewing room where 30 – 60 minutes was spent for each interview. The researcher, acting as an interviewer, then informed the rules and condition of the program. Next, the interview was started with a small talk in which the interviewer asked the general questions such as the background of each participant, their hobbies, their interests, etc. The interviewer then went down to the business by asking the listed questions and discussing on the topics related to their applied position. The main purpose of this section was to encourage them to share their facts and opinions toward the stated interview questions by using English. All students who took part in this activity were asked the same questions. Acting as the interviewer, the researcher informed the participants who acted as the interviewees that their performances would be recorded by the cell phone and be shown them at the end of the activity in order to comment on their strong and weak points while interviewing. After that, the recordings were transcribed for analyzing.

D. Data Analysis

The qualitative data were then clarified by the types of CSs that were used. To identify the frequency of strategies used by the senior Thai university students, number of usage and percentage were detected.

The stage of data analysis could be summarized as follows:

- 1) Replaying the recording interview.
- 2) Transcribing the interview recording.
- 3) Checking the interview data script in detail.
- 4) Clarifying the CSs or making a list of CSs employed by Thai senior university students.
- 5) Grouping all CSs based on its characteristics. At this stage, two main CSs were found.
- 6) Identifying the two main CSs into its sub-categories.
- 7) Summarizing the total numbers of CSs in each sub-categories together with its percentage.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

After the data were analyzed, the results of overall CSs employed by the senior Thai university students during the job interview were shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES USED BY PARTICIPANTS IN JOB INTERVIEW

Strategy	Frequency of use	Percentage
1) To stop in mind utterances	42	15.107
2) To mumble with audible/inaudible voices	26	9.352
3) To switch English to Thai without bother to translate	92	33.093
4) To adjust Thai to English phonologically and/nor morphologically	1	0.359
5) To repeat words or phrases of one's own speech	1	0.359
6) To translate words from Thai to English	3	1.079
7) To request direct or indirect help from the interlocutor	21	7.553
8) To ask for repetition when having comprehension difficulties	63	22.661
9) To request confirmation that something is understood correctly	2	0.719
10) To laugh when don't understand	27	9.712
<u>Total</u>	278	100

As displayed in Table 1, the results from the English oral interview indicated that the total numbers of CSs used by the participants were 278. Then, they were grouped into ten strategies based on the similarities of their characteristics. Later, the findings demonstrated that the most frequently used strategy during the job interview was “to switch the language (L2: English to L1: Thai)” with the number of usage as 92 (33.093%), followed by “to ask for repetition when having comprehension difficulties” with the frequency of use as 63 (22.661%), and the third most used strategy was “to stop in mind utterance” with the total of use as 42 (15.107%). In contrast, the least used strategies found in the present study were “to adjust L1 (Thai) to L2 (English) phonologically and/nor morphologically” and “to repeat words or phrases of one's own speech” with the same number of use as 1 (0.359%), and the third rank was “to request confirmation that something is understood correctly” with the frequency of use as 2 (0.719%).

TABLE 2
COMMUNICATION GROUPED BY MAIN AND SUB-CATEGORIES

Strategy	Frequency of use	Percentage
1. Avoidance strategies		
1.1 Message abandonment: To stop in mind utterances	42	15.107
2. Compensatory strategies (Intra-actional strategies)		
2.1 Mumbling: To mumble with audible/inaudible voices	26	9.352
2.2 Code-switching: To switch English to Thai without bother to translate	92	33.093
2.3 Foreignizing: To adjust Thai to English phonologically and/nor morphologically	1	0.359
2.4 Self-repetition: To repeat words or phrases of one's own speech	1	0.359
2.5 Literal translation: To translate words from Thai to English	3	1.079
3. Compensatory strategies (Interactional strategies)		
3.1 Appeal for help: To request direct or indirect help from the interlocutor	21	7.553
3.2 Asking for repetition: To ask for repetition when having comprehension difficulties	63	22.661
3.3 Asking for confirmation: To request confirmation that something is understood correctly	2	0.719
3.4 Facial expression: To laugh when don't understand	27	9.712
<u>Total</u>	278	100

According to Table 2, after the CSs had been grouped into its category based on the mixed taxonomy of Tarone (1980), Faerch & Kasper (1983) and Dornyei & Scott (1997), it appeared two main categories which were avoidance strategies and compensatory strategies. Discussing on the avoidance strategies, the only one sub-category found was message abandonment. Considering the compensatory strategies, it could be divided into two sub-categories which were intra-actional strategies and interactional strategies. Then, the sub-types strategies of intra-actional strategies were mumbling, code-switching, foreignizing, self-repetition, and literal translation. And, appeal for help, asking for repetition, asking for confirmation, and facial expression were those belonging to interactional strategies.

The most used strategies employed by the senior Thai university students during participating in the job interview were “compensatory strategies: intra-actional strategies” followed by “compensatory strategies: interactional strategies” and “avoidance strategies”, respectively. By using compensatory strategies: intra-actional strategies, the participants tried to solve the communication difficulties by themselves, without looking for help from the interlocutor. In the other words, the interviewees preferred using their own resources or tactics, rather than appealing for assistance from the others when they encountered difficult situations while interviewing. It indicated that the participants attempted to have a smooth conversation by keeping their interaction with their interlocutors (Thu & Thu, 2016). The findings from the present study were consistent with those found in the study of Binhayearong (2009) which reported that intra-actional strategies were used more frequently than other strategies. Then, compensatory strategies: interactional strategies were the other popular category. These strategies were employed to ensure that their interlocutors understand their intended messages completely and accurately. When some problems or difficulties occurred during the communication, the use of interactional strategies encourage the communicators expand their conversation through smooth turn-takings and then they can deliver the completed comprehension of the intended message. These strategies were extensively employed by many participants from various studies (Maleki, 2010; Lopez, 2011; and Yanju&Yanmei, 2016). And, the third most used strategies were avoidance strategies. This strategy is widely used among L2 learners when their limited knowledge of grammatical rules get them in trouble (Elyildirim, 2017), but not beneficial for learning a second language (Zhang, 2007). The learners could learn nothing when they try to skip with the problem, either by changing the communication purpose, evading the communication, or even cutting the communication short (Abunawas, 2012). The participants adopted these strategies when they could not transmit their intended message or get it across so that they avoided these problematic messages. However, the learners may get some benefits of these strategies. By using these strategies, the people can further their conversation even though they faced some problems or difficulties because of some reasons. Then, the participants could avoid making mistakes and increase fluency in conversation (Yanju&Yanmei, 2016).

Classified into the sub-categories, the three most frequently used were code-switching, asking for repetition, and message abandonment, respectively. For more explanation, the results showed that code-switching was really popular among the senior Thai university students. Being the strategy which is employed by the bilinguals to deliver their interlocutor the genuine meaning of the intended message, code-switching is a widespread phenomenon in bilingual speech (Riehl, 2005) which requested a great deal of bilingual competence (Muysken, 1995). Then, most ESL learners have positive attitudes toward code-switching. They believe that it helps them to understand the target language and enables them to be more confident in mastering English (Nordin et al., 2012). Moreover, Thai teachers agreed that this strategy could make the comprehension among the students together with helping them getting a clear idea of the subject matter (Promnath & Tayjasanant, 2016). The finding of the present study was consistent with the work of Chaiwichian (2007) who found that Thai learners switched more English to Thai when they are outside classroom. Another issue to be considered was that code-switching is more used by the low proficiency learners (Xiaoji, 2017; and Shanehsazzadeh & Darani, 2017). In the other words, it showed the lack of target language proficiency among the participants who employed this strategy during their job interviews. Then, the participants used the strategies of “asking for repetition” the second most used. According to Somsai & Intaraprasert (2011), the participants asked for repetition from the interlocutors when they could not understand the message clearly due to their unfamiliarity with an English accent or their limited linguistics knowledge. It is also possible that the participants were afraid of making mistakes. They might think that it would be better to ask someone else than to misunderstand the question. The participants then tried to handle the problems cooperatively by asking for repetition in order to have a mutual understanding with their interlocutors (Dabao & Martinez, 2007). In the other words, employing these strategies is likely to help promoting mutual comprehension of the message in the interview. The result of the present study was consistent with those found in Mongkolkeha (2008). Moreover, the third most used strategy is message abandonment. This strategy is employed when the speaker begins to talk about a concept, but is unable to continue and stops in a mid-utterance because of language difficulties which might be about lacking vocabulary, facing difficulties in arranging the structure of their utterance, confusing to continue due to their nervousness, and being worried of making mistakes. Lots of scholars (Ounis, 2016; Chen, 2009; Uгла et al., 2013; Chuanchaisit & Prapphal, 2009; and Nakatani, 2006) found and suggested that message abandonment is the most popular among the low proficiency L2 learners or less fluent speakers. This implies that the participants in the current study who employed the strategy of message abandonment may have a low proficiency in using English.

V. CONCLUSION

The objective of the present study was to investigate the communication strategies employed by senior Thai university students during their job interviews. In the current study, the participants relied on various strategies to cope with the problems or difficulties while having the interview. The overall strategies found in the present study revealed that the participants used most compensatory strategies and avoidance strategies when they faced problems or difficulties during their job interview. Grouped into sub-categories, the results showed that code-switching followed by asking for repetition and message abandonment were the most used strategies among senior Thai students during interaction with the interviewer. In the other word, the findings from the study suggested that Thai learners preferred the

passive strategies rather than active strategies in order to further their conversations in the foreign language. In addition, the future study should focus on the active strategies which support the learners to communicate with the foreign interlocutors more effectively.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my colleagues at the faculty of Management Sciences, Kasetsart University for their valuable guidance throughout this work. Also, my thanks go to my grandfather, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Udom Piriying, for his inspiration and love.

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Prathomwat Suraprajit is an assistant professor at Faculty of Management Sciences, Kasetsart University Sriracha Campus. His research interests are English language teaching and ESP.

Motivational Orientation and Language Acculturation Experienced by English Speaking Adults Learning Arabic in Saudi Arabia

Safaa M. Abdelhalim

College of Languages and Translation, Al-Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud Islamic University, KSA

Mss. Hajar Abdulrahman Alqubayshi

Arabic Language Teaching Institute, Al-Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud Islamic University, KSA

Abstract—This study aimed to explore in-depth the process of second language acquisition in a broader context than classrooms and gain a greater understanding of language acculturation process abroad. It mainly examined the influence of various factors on the language acculturation strategy adopted by L2 learners, including socio-demographic data, language proficiency level, motivational orientation for learning L2, and perceived language acculturative stress. The study targeted a sample of fifty English-speaking bilingual female adults learning Arabic as a second language in Saudi Arabia. Data were collected with the use of three scales: motivational orientation for learning Arabic as an L2, language acculturation within the hosting society, and language acculturative stress. Also, a semi-structured interview was used to gain a deep understanding of the language acculturation process as experienced by the research sample. Quantitative results proved that, first, participants' integrative orientation to learning Arabic was higher than instrumental motivation; second, participants were more adjusted to their native culture with the majority having a little of language acculturative stress. Regression analysis revealed that only age and nationality had a statistically significant effect on the language acculturation level. The results of the interview showed parallelism with some of the quantitative results of the study. Some pedagogical implications and future research issues are discussed.

Index Terms—second language acquisition, motivational orientation, acculturation, acculturative stress

I. INTRODUCTION

Second language acquisition (SLA) field, based on post-constructivism theories, has witnessed a massive interest in investigating the relationship between the learner and the target language as well as its context. Advocates of these theories believe that linguistic competence results mainly from practicing in different social and cultural situations rather than being just a step that precedes linguistic performance. On this view, Hall, Cheng and Carlson (2006) stated that SLA is not attained inside the human brain only; it mainly takes place through participation and communication in interactive situations using different cultural tools in a complex social and cultural context that needs study and analysis. In other words, social and cultural factors are considered crucial in second language teaching and learning, as language, culture, and community are inextricably connected and mutually linked (Alareik, 2016).

Moreover, SLA research findings have indicated that some second language (SL) learners turned out to be more advanced at acquiring the target language than others even though they are following identical processes and materials. As an interpretation for this phenomenon, Dörnyei (2005) and Olivares-Cuhat (2010) stressed the importance of investigating the influence of learners' characteristics as indicators of the ultimate success in SL learning; these characteristics are defined in four categories: cognitive factors; affective factors; meta-cognitive factors; and social/demographic factors. Affective and social factors are considered the key factors that determine success in the multi-faceted process of second language acquisition (Gardner 2006; Nosratinia, Abbasi & Zaker, 2015).

In the context of learning a second language abroad, learners often are more sensitive to the feelings and experiences they perceive in the surrounding environment of the hosting culture. Thus, many relevant research studies in various contexts (Alamaj, 2019; Dewaele and Al-Saraj, 2015; Midraj, Midraj, O'Neill & Sellami, 2015) stressed that learner's motivation and attitudes are key concepts in second language research.

On the other hand, L2 researchers have come to acknowledge increasingly the impact of the language learning environment (context) and cutbacks of psychologically-based approaches that rely mainly on individual learner's self-report about their motivation (Temples, 2013). Although the effort and commitment L2 learners exert in learning the target language depend to some extent on their interest in the language itself or the process of language learning, the current study aims to manifest that the desire to learn an L2 is also well associated with social context and especially to the communities in which that language is valued. Ozer and Schwartz (2016) declared that due to increasing globalization and instant intercultural contact nowadays, acculturation has become a complicated and multifaceted issue that is imperative to address.

Being a highly synthetic and multidimensional process, there is no single theory that can help in getting a comprehensive understanding of SLA. Thus, instead of full dependence on one approach, all approaches should be correlated in dealing with SLA to better understand this phenomenon, (Atkinson, 2011). One of the main driving forces behind L2 acquisition in the context of the hosting society could be attributed to the complex relationship between motivational orientation and adopted acculturation strategy.

Accordingly, understanding the correlation between motives, goals, and acculturation could be essential in the context of learning an L2 abroad, as this requires learners to interact in a different culture, live unfamiliar experiences and try to some extent to adapt to the hosting culture (Bluestone, 2015; Rubinfeld, Sinclair, & Clément, 2007). Yet, up to the researchers' knowledge, no study has taken into account the motivational orientation, acculturation, and perceived acculturation stress associated with learning Arabic as one of the highly critical languages by English speakers living in the Saudi community.

Most research studies in the field of learning Arabic as a second language (ASL) abroad targeted either learners' motivation from psychological perspectives or social factors. Research has hardly addressed the complex social and cultural influences on their learning processes. Drawing on Schumann's (1978, 1986) acculturation model theory and Gardner's (1985, 2001) socio-educational model of second language acquisition as a theoretical lens and data on ASL learners studying in Saudi Arabia, this study seeks to investigate the interaction between social and affective factors on the part of second language learning (SLL). The primary purpose of this study was to explore language acculturation process experienced by multicultural English speakers learning Arabic in Saudi Arabia. It also examines the influence of various factors on the language acculturation strategy adopted by the participants; including socio-demographic data, language proficiency level, motivational orientation for learning Arabic, and perceived language acculturative stress.

A. *Questions of the Study*

To achieve this aim, the study revolved around answering the following questions:

1. What is the level and type of participants' motivational orientation (integrative – instrumental) towards learning ASL?
2. What kind of strategies can be adopted by ASL learners in the process of socialization and acculturation in Saudi society?
3. What is the level of language acculturative stress perceived by the participants?
4. In what ways do participants' socio-demographic data (cultural background, age, & length of residence in the hosting society), Arabic language proficiency level, motivational orientation toward learning it, and perceived acculturative stress correlate to their language acculturation strategy in the hosting society?

B. *Significance of the Study*

The results of this study can contribute to the SLA research filed by highlighting the significance of developing cultural diversity, intercultural competence, and empathy within the context of SL instruction. Besides, aiming to enhance second language learning proficiency, the study provides essential information to L2 syllabus designers and educational administrators about vital cultural and psychological aspects of language learning to be included in materials, classrooms, and programs. The results of this study can also assist ASL as well as other L2 instructors all over the world in understanding what affective and social factors to foster to help learners better achieve language attainment and avoid any sense of ambiguity in the acquisition of the targeted language.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Learning Arabic as a Second Language*

Arabic is described as a condemnatory language due to its importance at international political and economic levels. It has gained more popularity among foreign language learners, as it becomes one of the most extensively spoken languages all over the world over the last ten years (Jackson & Malone, 2009). Described as a critical language that has geopolitical significance worldwide, Arabic language has an important instrumental value (Al-Batal, 2007).

One reason behind the increase in learning Arabic as a second language (ASL) in gulf area is the state of massive economic development that the area is witnessing, thus attracting expatriates from different foreign countries. Also, As Saudi Arabia is the center for all Muslims all over the world for learning about Islam, a dire need to learn Arabic Language among foreign Muslims has emerged. Depending on such an intriguing interest in studying Arabic, researchers have started to investigate the motivation behind this growth and its consistency (Allen, 2007)

B. *Difficulties of Studying Arabic as a Second Language*

Arabic as a synthetic rather than analytic language has features that distinguish it from English or other Indo-European languages. According to Ryding (2006), along with the range of Arabic spoken varieties in different countries diglossia, as a sociolinguistic feature, is at the top of the difficulties that face ASL learners; as in order to master the language, they have to study two distinct varieties of it: Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) is used for formal written communication, while Colloquial, or dialect forms, that differ from reign to another, are used for spoken communication. Between these two distinct varieties, there exists a variety of intermediary Arabic called Educated

Spoken Arabic (ESA), resulted from the standard and colloquial blend and thus containing elements of both spoken and written Arabic.

Such dual use in Arabic language constitutes a problem to learners of ASL in having two varieties of the language and double sets of vocabulary items to learn. There is a firm opposition from many AFL researchers to using colloquial varieties in teaching Arabic to non-Arabs (Madkour and Haridi 2006). They argue that MSA must be the medium for teaching Arabic because it is the common variety all educated people across the Arab world use. On the other hand, Wilmsen (2006) argued that focusing solely on MSA in language classes causes students frustration as they do not have the chance to master communicative competence in a natural way.

Other difficulties facing ASL learners include the Arabic orthographic system (depending on a constant system, Abjad, instead of using alphabetic writing system), and the wide difference between English typology and Arabic language in terms of number of syntactic, morphological, and lexical features. Thus, ASL learners feel overwhelmed by the number of rules that they have to learn to speak Arabic. The impact of these difficulties on the process of acquiring Arabic as a second language has been identified and observed but still need to be studied in depth depending on either sociocultural or cognitive approach to second language learning (Temples, 2013).

C. *Acculturation and L2 Acquisition*

Based on the theory of second language acquisition (Schumann, 1978, 1986) and socio-psychological adaptation in cultural diversity, acculturation pattern has been postulated to function as a predictor of success in second language acquisition (Mohamed & Othman, 2015; Waniek-Klimczak, 2011). However, one perspective sees that SL acquisition itself as a component of the acculturation process. This simply means the more positively oriented and psychologically integrated into the target language community, the more successful SL learner be in the process of acquiring the target language (Mei, Raymond, Tracy & William, 2009).

The acculturation process is highly variable following moderating factors relating to both groups and individuals. Personal factors such as age, gender, education, and socioeconomic status are said to affect the acculturative adaptation. Moderating factors relating to the group include cultural distance, social support, prejudices, and the reason for intercultural contact. Time is also regarded as an important factor, as the temporal progression of the acculturation experience indicates different phases of stress and adaptation. It has been stressed that all these factors should be included in a proper acculturation psychological study; however, no study has incorporated all the aspects of the framework, indicating room for advancement (Berry, 1997).

Reviewing related literature, it became clear that there are three main leading models for investigating the effects of social context on SLA: Schumann's Acculturation Model (1978, 1986), Giles's and his associates Inter-Group Model (Beebe & Giles 1984; Giles & Byrne 1982), and Gardner's Socio-Educational Model (Gardner, Lalonde & Pierson, 1983). Each of these models has some specific points of strength and weakness (Graham & Brown, 1996, p. 238).

Bluestone (2015) declared that the main difference between Schumann's acculturation model and Berry's model is that Schumann's model postulates that social contact between L2 learners and target culture members is basic, whereas Berry's model allows for the probability of limited or no contact between groups. Rudmint (2009), who is a prominent acculturation researcher, highlighted that depending on multi-dimensional scales for measuring acculturation is misleading and leads to confusing results. Based on this premise the present study adopted Schumann's acculturation model (host cultural involvement (integration) versus heritage culture preservation (separation)) as a theoretical background for interpreting results.

D. *Schumann's Acculturation Model for L2 Acquisition*

Schumann's (1978) acculturation model theory investigates SLA from a social-psychological point of view; it mainly describes the process of L2 learning in natural contexts of majority language setting by members of ethnic minorities coping with the culture in their new surrounding society. In his model Schumann (1986, cited in Zaker 2016) identified two key sets of variables that explain differences in L2 acquisition: social variables represented in the social distance that L2 learner has towards the target language group or the degree of actual contact within the TL community, and affective variables (psychological distance) represented in individual's response to the language learning experience; how comfortable the learner is towards the surrounding social factors and to what extent he/she wants to acculturate with the hosting culture.

Schumann places both social and psychological variables on similar scales lying along a continuum running from social-psychological distance to social psychological closeness with L2 speakers and posited that success in L2 learning depends primarily on the degree of reducing the social and psychological distance between the home culture and mainstream culture. Schuman (1978) assumed also that the effect of both factors on SLA is not equal; with affective factors, mainly motivation, probably having more influence than social factors.

Moreover, Schumann (1975) identified five affective variables that directly impact the psychological distance: motivation (the degree and type of desire (integrative/instrumental) experienced by the learner to acquire the L2), Ego permeability (accepting the idea of having a new identity associated with the belonging to a new speech community), language shock (to what extent does learning the TL linguistic system make the learner disoriented?), culture shock (the extent to which the learner feels confused and stressed due to interacting in a new culture) and Culture stress (Prolonged culture shock and questioning self-identity with extended residence in a new culture). A point of strength in

Schumann's model is integration; as it focuses on the socio-cultural context of SLA without abandoning the individual role in the L2 acquisition process.

Based on the wide variation in linguistic and cultural experiences encountered during study abroad, previous research on SLA and acculturation within the cultural context of the target language has documented extensive variation in the amount of contact students have with members of the local community as well as in their linguistic outcomes. Gursoy's and Kunt's (2019) study addressed the acculturation process experienced by a sample of university students studying EFL in Northern Cyprus. It focused mainly on the role cultural and motivational factors play in acquiring an L2. The sample of the study included ten participants of Turkish, Azeri, Uyгур (China) origin, and Palestinian students. In-depth interviews reveal that all students involved in the acculturation process display a separation strategy, with Turkish students as an exception, as they have more motivation to integrate with the host culture. The study findings assured two main points; first, the closer the students' culture to the culture of the target language and host culture, the better the acculturation process will prove to be; second, cultural background and motivation are closely interrelated in the learner acculturation process.

Ndika's (2013) study aimed at investigating the acculturation coping strategies of first-generation Nigerian immigrants in the United States. Through Discrimination Function Analysis (DFA) five coping strategies were detected: integration, assimilation, separation, assimilation and separation, and integration and assimilation. Assimilation and separation strategies were the most frequent while integration was the least reported. In his study, Waniek-Klimczak (2011) focused on studying the correlation between the chosen acculturation strategy and proficiency level in English as a second language. Sample of the study were recent Polish immigrants to the UK. Results of the study questionnaire were analyzed in terms of socio-affective factors and language proficiency. Findings revealed that proficient language users tend to adopt an assimilation strategy rather than integration. L2 learners' attitudes towards the host culture are related to their proficiency level in the target language in a more cautious way.

A study by Rose (2008) investigated the nature of the relationships between foreign language anxiety, acculturation, and acculturative stress as it is experienced by adult Spanish speaking immigrants living in the United States. Combining questionnaire results with the analysis of six semi-structured interviews, final results indicated that language acquisition in the adopted country when accompanied by the regular processes of acculturation may produce higher levels of language anxiety. The study recommends, focusing on language attitudes and beliefs, as to how those attitudes and beliefs are intertwined with acculturation and acculturative stress may produce a deeper understanding of language acculturation anxiety.

The majority of these studies (Gursoy & Kunt, 2019; Rose, 2008; Waniek-Klimczak, 2011) targeted populations whose home language belongs to Indo-European language and learn English as SL including cases from both study-abroad and at-home contexts. Since English belongs to the same language family, acquiring it can be quite different from learning a language of a different family. On the contrary, the current study investigating those who speak English (as an Indo-European language) and learn Arabic, a different language family, abroad; thus, a significant but neglected bilingual population was explored in the current study.

Within the context of ASL, previous related studies focused mainly on either investigating linguistic identity, and forms of imagined communities among ASL learners or the cultural and social factors affecting Classical Arabic language teaching and learning. A study by Al-Sobait (2019) investigated the nature of the linguistic identity, level of language investment, and forms of imagined communities among learners of Arabic as a second language. The sample of the study included 40 female ASL learners in Riyadh city, KSA. Two main instruments were used: a questionnaire and an interview. Results revealed that there was a conflict between language and the home culture as well as language and target culture concerning values, behaviour, and customs which in turn result in a kind of conflict in the learner's identity.

Alareik's (2016) study aimed to first, identify the cultural factors related to teaching foreign languages in general and Arabic language in particular and their effect on language acquisition; second, investigate the social factors affecting Classical Arabic language (Alfushaa) teaching and learning; these social factors cover the type of the language and social adaptation level, the attitude towards the target culture and reversed opinions as well as the social role in language dissemination. The sample of the study consisted of ASL learners in the Arabic Institute, King Saud University, KSA. The study used a ten-item questionnaire. Results revealed that there is a kind of social isolation that those learners live in the hosting culture that in turn slow the process of language acquisition and there is no active participation from the target community to support the social integration of those learners in the society. Pre-formed concepts or imagined pictures about the target culture affects negatively second language acquisition.

Temples (2013) tried to explore the complexity of the ASL learning process by linking L2 learning, identity construction, and biliteracy challenges and implications for Arabic learners from a range of backgrounds. The sample of the study included a group of ASL learners at a public charter middle school in the southeast U.S. the study depended on three main instruments: interviews with five focal families, class observations, and surveys. Results revealed that social context affects literacy development as well as identity construction for heritage learners. Trentman (2013) used three theoretical concepts, investment, imagined communities, and communities of practice, to explicate data obtained from Arabic as a second language (ASL) students studying abroad (in Egypt). Findings revealed that though ASL students started the study abroad experience with a desire to get involved in an imagined Middle East community

through demonstrating the identities of cross-cultural mediators and dedicated language learners, the real communities of practice provided distinctive and dissimilar chances to demonstrate these identities. Thus, there was a clear area of alignment and misalignments between what was imagined and reality. Moreover, the large-scale dissimilarities in students' adopted strategy to approach TL speakers (Egyptians) and their use of TL can be attributed to the extent of the alliance between students' expectations and the real world they lived in.

These studies have corroborated the complexity of studying Arabic as a second language abroad and the multi-factors affecting this process at both linguistic and social levels. This study instead focused on how individuals' motivations for learning Arabic as L2 interplay with their acculturation coping strategy, rather than specific individual or program factors, to explain variation in language acquisition and engagement in the host culture.

E. Motivational Orientation and Second Language Learning

The orientation towards mastering a second language usually stems from a wide range of deeply valued motivations. Within the L2 literature, there are two interrelated concepts: motivations, "why" learners trace a particular goal, and goals, "what" goals are traced. Sheldon, Deci, and Kasser (2004) state that understanding these two concepts are "two of the most important theoretical and empirical forces of motivation" (p. 447 as cited in Rubinfeld et al., 2007 p. 311). Moreover, in his socio-educational model of second language acquisition, Gardner (1985, 2000) referred to these two concepts as motivations and orientations. According to Gardner, motivation refers to behavior and efforts individuals exert to pursue learning an L2 as well as, a desire to learn that language and positive attitudes toward the learning process; whereas orientation refers to a person's reasons for learning a second language.

Gardner classified motivation in SLA context into two main categories, integrative and instrumental motivation that has been considered as essential foundations of the acculturation model. Choosing between these two categories depends mainly on the learner's goal, desires, and attitudes towards the target language community; accordingly, the learner tends to be integratively motivated when s/he held positive attitudes towards the target language community and values its culture.

A considerable amount of research demonstrated connections between attitudes, motivation and SL proficiency. A study by Alamaj (2019) aimed at exploring the cognitive, affective, and behavioral attitudes of ASL learners towards learning it and to what extent their linguistic level will affect their attitudes. The sample of the study consisted of 22 female students studying a general Arabic language course at Princess Nourah Bint Abdulrahman University. The findings of the study revealed that participants' behavioral attitudes were dominantly represented in their desire to communicate with female home speakers, followed by cognitive attitudes, and the affective attitudes. This study was taken into account in designing the motivational orientation for learning Arabic as an L2 scale as well as discussing the results of the present study.

A study by Alosaimy (2011) investigated ASL learners' perceptions towards themselves as second language learners, successful learning of the Arabic language, and nature of the Arabic language in terms of difficulty and easiness as well as the learning context. The sample included 142 ASL male learners, in the institute of teaching Arabic language, Imam University, Saudi Arabia. The results revealed that participants perceive themselves as knowledge seeker, and successful learning of Arabic language depends on communication with home speakers. This study was beneficial to the present study since it focused on exploring ASL learner's perceptions, as perception is part of the cognitive component of attitudes that is essential in developing positive attitudes and modifying the negative ones.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Overall Design of the Study

Though it is a descriptive research in nature, this study is also considered to be correlational, as it investigates the correlation between second language acquisition, motives for learning Arabic as a second language and adaptation in the foreign culture (Saudi culture) as well as cultural stress experienced in the hosting society. As features related to L2 learners, including motivational orientation, and factors related to the learning environment cannot be fully addressed by the "snapshot" view that survey methods usually produce (Temples, 2013), mixed-method was utilized to get more reliable results and eliminate any possible inclination.

B. Participants

The participants of the study included a sample of 50 female bilingual English-speaking adults learning Arabic as a second language (ASL) in Saudi Arabia. They were living in Saudi Arabia as family members. They have different cultural backgrounds which do not share any linguistic, cultural similarities as well as geographic proximity with Arabic context in Saudi Arabia (see Table 1 for a summary of participants' demographic information).

TABLE 1.
SUMMARY OF PARTICIPANTS' SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Variable		Category	N	percentage
Age		20-30	12	24%
		30-39	24	48%
		40-50	14	28%
Nationality (Cultural background)	Europe	Italian	4	8%
		French	3	6%
		Ukrainian	5	10%
		Spanish	4	8%
	America	American	4	8%
		Nicaraguan	2	4%
		Guatemalan	2	4%
		Venezuelan	2	4%
		Argentinian	4	8%
		Mexican	4	8%
	Asia	Indian	5	10%
		Pakistani	4	8%
		Turkish	3	6%
Malaysian		3	6%	
	Japan	1	2%	
Length of residence	1-5		36	72%
	6-10		10	20%
	More than 10		4	8%

All participants were enrolled in a non-intensive ASL program in the Arabic Language Teaching Institute, Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud Islamic University, Riyadh. After consulting the teaching staff and program coordinator, it was determined that only students at higher levels (3 and above) would be capable of completing the study scales.

Participants' level of Arabic language proficiency (based on pen and paper placement tests) was accepted 'pre-intermediate' in the program at the time of the study. Yet, the present study focused on using participants' self-perceived proficiency level, based on their capability of interacting successfully in daily life situations in the Saudi community. The rationale for this is to explore the actual level of their oral language proficiency level based on their authentic interaction experiences with native speakers. Results revealed that there is a great range in scores with the majority (40% - 20%) reporting beginner and post-beginner levels; 14 % reported pre-intermediate level, and only 8 % reported that they are at upper intermediate level.

C. The Study Context

This study was conducted in one main state in Saudi Arabia, namely Riyadh, where approximately 300 multicultural students from more than 11 different countries join programs for studying Arabic as a foreign language at governmental universities. The main mission of Arabic Language Teaching Institute, Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud Islamic University, where this study was conducted, is targeting non-Arabic speakers in Riyadh from all nationalities to enable them to produce oral and written language that is accurate, fluent and high in quality. For admission, the student must have a high school certificate or equivalent; students should take admission and placement tests administered by the Institute. The institute presents intensive and non-intensive programs. The non-intensive program that the study participants join includes eight levels delivered over three years. Each level lasts for three hours per day, two days a week, for 8 weeks (72 hours). Standard Arabic is the variety of Arabic taught in the institute.

D. Data Collection Instruments

1. Motivational Orientation for Learning Arabic as a Second Language Scale

The questionnaire includes two sub-scales of motivational orientations (integrative and instrumental). The development of the questionnaire was based on the research questions and review of existing literature previously conducted in this field. The questionnaire items were adapted from instruments from previous studies (The Motivation and Attitude Questionnaire developed by Dörnyei (1990); the Language Learning Orientations Scale (LLOS; Noels et al., 2000); Midraj et al., (2015); Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2013) that had been conducted in fields similar to this study.

The questionnaire in its final form consisted of two main Sections. Section one: (4 items) dealt with socio-demographical data such as age, nationality, length of residence in Saudi Arabia, and one item about respondents' self-rating of Arabic language proficiency level. Section two: included 37 statements on a 5-point Likert-type attitudinal scale about motivational orientation (integrative 21 items & instrumental 16 items) towards learning Arabic as a second language.

2. Acculturation scale

The acculturation scale was used to measure participants' acculturation progress in two dimensions: Separation/adjustment to the ethnic society (AES) and Integration/adjustment to dominant society (ADS), respectively. The scale was adapted from The Stephenson Multigroup Acculturation Scale (SMAS; Stephenson 2000) as well as questionnaires used by other related studies such as Gursoy & Kunt, 2019; Mei, et al., 2009; Ndika, 2013; Rubinfeld, et al., 2007. The scale included 32 items on a four-point Likert scale from 1 (false) to 4 (true). Fifteen items measure participants'

integration in the hosting Saudi society and seventeen items assess participants' adjustment to their home society. The scale items represent a wide range of attitudes and behaviors related to language and social interaction.

3. Scale of Language Acculturative Stress

The scale consisted of 35 statements, measured on a five-point Likert scale from 1 (nothing of stress) to 5 (Very much stress). Each phrase presents social interaction situation; participants have to read each phrase and decide if they experienced the situation in the last four months, circle 'YES'; then circle the number that best represents the degree of stress they felt in that situation. The scale items were formed in light of the research aim, questions, and reviewing questionnaires used in other related studies e.g. the Multidimensional Acculturative Stress Inventory by Rodriguez, Myers, Mira, Flores, and Garcia-Hernandez (2002).

Validation of research instruments

To validate the three scales, they were submitted to 5 specialized jury members. They were asked to provide their opinions in terms of the extent to which the scales were suitable for application and deciding whether some items needed to be modified, added, or omitted. Their suggestions such as rewording some items for clarity and defining a few terminologies were used to improve the scales. As for reliability, the Cronbach's alpha index (Cronbach, 1951) was calculated to determine the internal consistency of the different items in each scale; that is, how closely related the set of items were in the scale. The reliability coefficients showed that the three scales had acceptable internal consistency within each section (at .85 and .83 for the Motivation scale; 0.87 for the entire acculturation scale, 0.95 for the integration items and 0.92 for separation items; and 0.89 for the acculturative stress scale). To prevent misunderstanding and increase the reliability of the study, participants received both English and back-translated Arabic versions of the three scales.

4. Semi-structured interview

To elicit information and obtain in-depth data about participants' motivational orientation, beliefs, cultural experiences, and underlying factors affecting their language acculturation process, a follow-up semi-structured interview with eleven participants (who agreed to participate) was used. The participants were selected from the main research sample using the stratified random technique to ensure having a well-rounded sample. Participants had to answer five open-questions focusing on reasons for learning Arabic language, language learning experience, and difficulties encountered; acculturation problems they experienced, and their selected coping strategy. Participants had the choice to be interviewed in English or Arabic. Participants set for the interview after receiving a detailed description of the interview aim, procedures and content, as well as ethics rules.

IV. RESULTS

A. Quantitative Results

Quantitative data analysis through descriptive statistics of frequency and central tendency was used to analyze the data of the study scales and answer the research questions, as follows:

1. Participants' Motivational Orientation towards Learning ASL

To answer the research first question, descriptive statistics were used to calculate the percentage and mean score for the general motivation level and each type (integrative & instrumental). See table (2)

TABLE 2.
PARTICIPANTS' MOTIVATIONAL ORIENTATION LEVEL AND TYPE

Motivational type	Level of motivation	Frequencies	Percentages	Mean	SD
Integrative	Low	4	0.08	68.7500	6.75154
	Moderate	32	0.64	99.7813	6.49434
	High	14	0.28	117.6429	5.24195
	Total	50	100	102.30	14.144
Instrumental	Low	18	0.36	39.6111	9.72044
	Moderate	23	0.46	55.4348	3.94077
	High	9	0.18	70.2222	2.99073
	Total	50	100	52.40	12.805
General level	Low	4	0.08	102.2000	21.27675
	Moderate	36	0.72	153.3714	10.01788
	High	10	0.20	185.6000	8.73308
	Total	50	100	154.70	24.453

Table (3) shows that participants' motivational orientation level towards learning the Arabic language was generally moderate (0.72%, m_153.3714). As for type of motivational orientation, participants' instrumental scores had a significant lower mean (m_52.40) than integrative scores (m_102.30). Furthermore, for detailed analysis of participants' integrative and instrumental motivations, frequencies and percentages related to low, moderate and high were calculated. Results revealed that 14 (0.28%) of participants demonstrated a high level of integrative orientation, and 32 (0.64%) had a moderate level. On the other hand, only 9 (0.18%) participants reported a high level of instrumental orientation, and 36 (72%) reported a moderate level of instrumental orientation. Results revealed also that there was a significant relationship between the two types of motivation (integrative and instrumental), $t(0.646)$.

2. Participants' Language Acculturation Level and Strategy in the Saudi Society

To answer the research second question, descriptive statistics were used to calculate first, the mean score for each item of the acculturation scale, then percentage, mean and SD for general acculturation level and each coping strategy. See table (3).

TABLE 3.
PARTICIPANTS' ACCULTURATION LEVEL AND TYPE

Motivational type	Level of motivation	Frequencies	Percentages	Mean	SD
integration	Low	8	0.16	24.50	4.472
	Moderate	33	0.66	36.73	5.101
	High	9	0.18	51.44	4.187
	Total	50	100	37.42	9.296
separation	Low	3	0.06	25.00	6.928
	Moderate	14	0.28	46.93	5.757
	High	33	0.66	60.30	4.172
	Total	50	100	54.44	10.698
General level	Low	4	0.8	53.75	14.592
	Moderate	24	0.48	86.00	6.400
	High	22	0.44	105.18	7.015
	Total	50	100	91.86	16.383

Table 4 shows that participants reported a moderate level of acculturation (m_91.86). On the acculturation scale subtests (integration & Separation), results revealed that participants' mean score was 37.42 (SD = 9.296) concerning adjustment to the hosting Saudi culture (Integration), and 54.44 (SD 10.698) concerning adjustment to home culture (Separation).

3. Participants' Perceived Acculturative Stress Level

To answer the research third question, descriptive statistics was used. See table (4).

TABLE 4.
PARTICIPANTS' PERCEIVED LEVEL OF ACCULTURATIVE STRESS

acculturation stress level	Frequencies	Percentages	Mean	SD
Nothing of stress	6	0.12	35.00	0.000
A little of stress (low)	35	0.70	49.37	9.082
Some stress (medium)	7	0.14	82.00	10.182
A lot of stress	2	0.04	123.50	7.778
Very much stress	0	0.00	0	0
Total	50	100%	55.18	20.938

As shown in table 5, all participants reported that they do not experience very much stress in the Saudi cultural context; with the majority of the participants reported a little of acculturative stress (0.70%_ m= 49.37).

In light of preliminary analyses, demographic information about nationality, age, length of residence in an Arabic-speaking country and self-perceived level (self-rating) of Arabic language ability were used as covariates in all analyses after adjusting degrees of freedom (DF) and estimating values of partial correlation. The correlations between the study variables revealed that the variables with the strongest correlations with language proficiency level were length of residence, and age (b-.342; -.458). The second strongest correlations with language proficiency level were motivation level, nationality, acculturation level, and acculturative stress (b -0.27, -.053-. -.079-. ,093- t (46)-1.97, p.0.05. The variable with the strongest inverse correlation with acculturation level was perceived acculturative stress (-.280-), general motivation level and integrative motivation (-.271-, -366).

4. Multiple regression analysis

Trying to answer the research fourth, after testing the correlation among variables, multiple regression analysis step was done using language acculturation as the dependent variable and all the other variables as independent variables. To examine to what extent the independent variables shared variance and to declare what set of factors best predict language acculturation level in the hosting society. See table 5.

TABLE 5.
CORRELATION AND COEFFICIENT RESULTS OF THE CORRELATION BETWEEN ACCULTURATION AND OTHER STUDY VARIABLES

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations		
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part
(Constant)	102.612	24.522		4.184	.000			
Length of residence	-.388-	.868	-.086-	-.447-	.657	-.164-	-.069-	-.062-
Age	.090	.356	.042	.02	.800	-.115-	.039	.036
Nationality	-.387-	.798	-.087-	-.041 -	.657	-.162-	-.065-	-.061-
Language Level	-2.583-	2.418	-.217-	-1.068-	.292	-.207-	-.163-	-.149-
Integrative	.290	.272	.250	1.065	.293	.073	.162	.149
Instrumental	-.315-	.271	-.246-	-1.161-	.252	-.012-	-.176-	-.162-
Stress	-.241-	.124	-.308-	-1.950-	.058	-.280-	-.288-	-.272-

a. Dependent Variable: Acculturation

Table 6 shows that while t values of some independent variables (length of residence, language level, motivation and acculturative stress) are above 0.05 [$F(1.313) = 0.268b$, $p > 0.05$], variables of age and nationality got 0.04 and 0.2; thus, it can be said that only age and nationality had a statistically significant effect on the explanation of variance in the dependent variable (acculturation).

B. Qualitative Results (Results of the Interview)

The three main themes emerged from the interview were as follows:

1. Motivational orientation towards learning ASL

Asked about their reasons behind studying the Arabic language most of the participants (55%_ more than half) reported that their main aim is to be able to communicate in Arabic and understand Saudi people as well as introduce themselves to this culture; one of the participants stated that "I live in Saudi Arabia, so it's useful and important to know the local language"; another participants said "I want to communicate with Arab people in a much easier way and have a better social life". The second reason (36%) was to learn the language of the Quran. One of the participants reported "I want to learn Arabic to read the Quran in the original language. The third reason was being interested in learning a new language (27 %). The least reported reason (18 %) was for further education and a better job; stated by only two participants. This suggests a great deal of consensus among the participants regarding the integrative value of learning Arabic. This section of the interview indicates parallelism with the quantitative data of the study.

2. Language Learning Experience

The second question of the interview focused on participants' experience as language learners (speaking anxiety, feeling their identity). Asked about situations that make them feel uncomfortable in speaking Arabic, more than half of the participants reported they feel uncomfortable when they communicate with Arabic speakers who use the local dialect 'Amaya' not Standard Arabic 'Fusha' that they study in the institute. One participant stated, "I cannot let them understand me; when I don't find the exact word that I need". Asked about the identity they feel when speaking Arabic, more than half of the participants reported that they feel different personalities when speaking Arabic; one participant reported: "I have an alter-ego when I'm speaking Arabic". Others reported that they feel their ethnic identities. As for their recommendations for SL teachers, participants agreed on the benefits of receiving immediate feedback with some sort of visual reinforcement, teacher's friendly personality and attitude, speaking only Arabic in class, and differentiated instruction depending on students' learning speed, not the content. They also stressed on integrating colloquial Arabic in class communication to help them communicate effectively in daily life situations.

3. Social Context and L2 Acquisition

Asked about their language acculturation experience in Saudi society and in what ways the daily communication is similar or different to their home societies, participants' responses (87%) suggest fairly positive feelings towards interacting within Saudi society. One of the participants stated that "although Saudi Arabia is often a misjudged country in the western world when I had the chance to experience on my own its culture, traditions and people, I started to love and appreciate it, in some ways even more than western countries.". They stated some reasons for these positive feelings: Saudi people being very friendly and generous, social life with religious atmosphere and behaviours including homosexual acts, and the way women are treated with the respect of their modesty and rights;

Asked about challenges they face in their acculturation process in Saudi society as L2 as non-native speakers of Arabic and how they cope with them. Most participants (88%) reported that language barriers and cultural differences are the two main causes of acculturative stress; some participants (42%) responded that they used to have difficulties communicating with people, but now at pre- intermediate Arabic language level they could communicate with others and understand people speaking in Arabic, and that this had helped them cope with many problems. One participant said "I was always too shy to negotiating with store/shop workers. Now, in certain places, I have improved my ability to be more assertive to avoid being overcharged. After I learned how to communicate in Arabic, I feel like people take me more seriously." As for the acculturation coping strategies, most participants (83%) reported that they try to understand the Saudi traditions to speak and behave appropriately in social situations whereas they maintain their home culture.

V. DISCUSSION

An important aspect of the present study is the use of instruments (three scales) that are based on adapting relevant questionnaires with the study population in mind instead of just a mere translation of instruments adopted from previous research that might result in culturally inappropriate or irrelevant instruments. Based on the quantitative data, the study results revealed that participants are quite eager to learn Arabic as a foreign language with the majority reporting a moderate level of integrative motivation. According to the qualitative data of the interview, most respondents, aiming to achieve what Kramsch (2006) refers to as 'self-fulfilment', reported their desire to introduce themselves to Arabic culture.

Results revealed also that general motivation as well as integrative motivation levels had the second strongest positive correlation with language self-rating proficiency level. This result is inconsistent with Gardner and Lambert's theories, which stressed that integrative motivated L2 learners surpass those who are instrumentally motivated in terms of language proficiency level, as well as the findings of previous related studies (Dornyei, 2005; Midraj's et al., 2003) which proved a significant positive correlations between SL achievement level and willingness to spend time on learning it (integrative motivation).

According to the results of the interview, while most of the participants (55%) reported that their main motive for learning Arabic is to learn colloquial Arabic varieties and use newly acquired vocabulary in street/informal authentic situations, some participants (36%) reported that they aim to learn Standard Arabic to read the Holy Quran correctly. This discrepancy reflects one of the major challenges that face ASL teachers/learners, the dual use of Arabic language (diglossia). Therefore, it is essential for ASL courses designers and teachers to find ways to increase learners' exposure to the two varieties of the language in a balanced way to meet their real needs.

Quantitative results of the language acculturation scale indicated that participants were without exception still more adjusted to their home culture than to the Saudi culture. This result is consistent with the results of Alareik's study (2016), which revealed that there is a kind of social isolation that ASL learners live in the Arabic community that in turn slow the process of language acquisition. Yet, finding contrasts with the qualitative data of the interview.

This contradiction is explained by Kim (2009) who declared that during the process of acculturation, people with multicultural backgrounds might tend to develop what is called 'identity flexibility' that might help them to accommodate more readily and respect the differences between their home culture and the hosting culture. Also, Bilingualism can be considered as a variable in enhancing participants' expertise in language acculturation in the Arabic society; especially that their bilingualism was between very different language families, cultures (e.g. Turkish – English, Japanese-English). One more possible interpretation is gender (all females). Females have a sociable character and tend to build relationships with others. Also, most of the participants are housewives; thus, acculturation to the host country's language (Arabic) may be seen as a solution to the many practical problems of living abroad for a long time. According to Van Deusen-Scholl (2003) Arabic is a commanding language, important for cultural and interpersonal aims among families and individuals live in the Arabic speaking community and for whom it is a binding force.

Multiple regression analysis proved that only participants' cultural background (nationality) and age had a statistically significant effect on the explanation of variance in language acculturation process. Mainly European got the highest correlation followed by home Americans and Japanese. This can be referred to what Schumann called 'social distance' between participants' home cultures and the hosting culture. The more similar the two cultures, the more likely there will be social contact and thus language acquisition.

The insignificant correlation between other socio-demographical data and acculturation was not unexpected. This can be returned to the wide variation in participants' age. Previous research proved that differences in age are clearer only when comparing younger populations (MacIntyre, Clement, Baker & Conrod, 2002) rather than considering a heterogeneous population. We were, however, surprised that the length of residence was not linked to the language acculturation process, as previous research has shown that integrative acculturation is linked to longer residence periods (Dewaele, 2010). But again this can be attributed to the complexity of the Arabic language

VI. CONCLUSION

Overall, this study added to the study of L2 learning abroad, motivational orientation, and language acculturation in a novel context like Saudi context with a multicultural background sample. It sought to highlight the sociopsychological factors of SL learners in multicultural environment; thus, provide effective implications concerning the importance of developing L2 learners and teachers' intercultural competence and cultural diversity. Although rich data have been cumulated in this study, further research can be conducted with larger sample using different predictors, such as gender, type of socioeconomic status, identity type, academic and cultural backgrounds, religion. Also, investigating the degree of cohesiveness to the hosting society by L2 learners and how this affects their pragmatic competence, needs more research. Finally, the qualitative data of the interviews with a small sample size my presents only a 'flash light' reference of the underlying factors affecting L2 acculturation process in the hosting society. Future studies are suggested to increase the sample size of the interviews or include other measures (e.g., think-aloud and reflective journals) for getting more in-depth data.

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Safaa M. Abdelhalim Professor of applied linguistics/ TESOL, Faculty of Education, Helwan University, Cairo, Egypt (February, 2000 – present). Currently, she is working in College of Languages and Translation, Imam Mohammed Bin Saud Islamic University. She is an author of 14 research articles and three books in the field of applied linguistics and TESOL. Her research interests focus on teaching English as a foreign language, reflective teaching, autonomous learning strategies, second language acquisition and assessment, intercultural and cross-cultural communication, intelligent computer-assisted language learning, and second language writing.

Hajar A. Alqubayshi, lecturer (Teaching Arabic as a second language to speakers of other languages/ TASOL) at Arabic Teaching Institute, Al-Imam Muhammad Bin Saud Islamic University (2015- present). She holds a master's degree in Applied Linguistics from Al-Imam Muhammad Bin Saud Islamic University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia (November 2019). Her master's thesis is in Computational Linguistics specifically, and its title is "Building an Algorithm for Arabic Morphological Disambiguation of the Plural of Paucity".

The Construction of China's Images through Multimodal Metaphor: A Case Study of China-related BBC Documentaries

Ping Tang

School of Foreign Studies, Guilin University of Technology, Guilin, China

Kelin Quan

College of International Education, Guilin University of Technology, Guilin, China

Jianbin Zhu

School of Foreign Studies, Guilin University of Technology, Guilin, China

Abstract—Complementing three theoretical frameworks, conceptual metaphor theory (Lakoff and Johnson 1980) and critical metaphor analysis (Charteris-Black 2004; Musolff 2006, 2016) and multimodality from a cognitive viewpoint (Forceville and Urios-Aparisi 2009; Perez-Sobrina 2017), this study addresses the topic of China's images unfolded in six BBC documentaries that are related to Chinese economy, social life, education, history, folklore, and cuisine respectively. This paper analyzes in detail how the theme metaphors are manifested multimodally through verbal, visual and aural modes and sub-modes with particular focus on how multimodal metaphors construct China's images through the choice of source domains and metaphorical mapping. The significance of the study lies in showing how various modes and sub-modes are used in the source domains as an overall persuasive strategy to manipulate the public's conceptualization of China. In addition, by examining the metaphorical entailments (Lakoff 2002; Johnson 1993, 1983), it illustrates how the media use of conceptual metaphors may become a powerful tool for conveying evaluative ideologies.

Index Terms—multimodal metaphor, critical metaphor analysis, BBC documentary, China's images

I. INTRODUCTION

As it is playing an increasingly dynamic role in the international arena, China has become a focus of world media. The BBC is well-reputed as one of the most authoritative media and its documentaries are hugely influential worldwide. However, documentaries not only involve artifice and craft, but also embody “social and political critique, ideology and propaganda” (Aitken, 2006, p. 2).

Some studies have attempted to explore how China's images are built up in BBC documentaries from three perspectives: cross-culture communication (Song 2018); journalism (Xuan and Wang 2019; Xu 2015) and critical discourse analysis (Zhu and Huang 2017). As shown, while the macro scopes like theme, content, plot, narrative characteristics, filming techniques and viewers' reception have been explored to illuminate the relationship between BBC documentaries and China's images, the impact of the micro perspectives such as the utterance of the hosts, background music, colors, captions, graphs and others on the in-depth explanation were largely underrepresented.

Since the ubiquitous use of metaphor is the nature of press communication (de los Ríos, 2010, p. 81-107), those micro elements could be metaphorical. Modern metaphor theory categorizes metaphor as a mechanism of understanding rather than its traditional role as a mere stylistic ornament. In the revolutionary monograph *Metaphors We Live By* (1980), Lakoff and Johnson provided systematic linguistic evidence that metaphors structure the understanding by a cross-domain conceptual mapping, as proposed by Conceptual Metaphor Theory (Lakoff 1993; Lakoff and Johnson 1980, 1999). Later, Forceville (2006) extends verbal metaphor to multimodal metaphor because metaphorical thought should manifest itself via various modes of communication. Besides the cognitive aspect of metaphor, some scholars strive to investigate the ideological function of metaphor. Charteris-Black (2004) suggests critical metaphor analysis, which gives an insight into the “political and ideological motivations” (p. 29). Maalej (2007), Hart (2008), Musolff (2012) reveal the covert and possibly unconscious intentions of language users at the level of verbal metaphor. Some studies investigate multimodal metaphors from the critical multimodal metaphorical/ metonymic discourse analysis (Hidalgo-Downing and Mujic 2011; Catalano and Wangh 2013; Zhao and Feng 2017).

Thus, an analysis of multimodal metaphors in the documentaries can give an insight to not only how the BBC constructs China's images but also how it influences its audience to perceive China and its people. In this paper, a country's images are a total cognitive and evaluative structure of a country portrayed by outside powers.

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the investigation is to answer the following two questions:

- 1) How do different modes of metaphorical representation contribute to the conceptualization of the images of China?
- 2) What are the ideological evaluations rendered from the multimodal metaphors?

A. Data Collection

The data for this study are collected from six China-themed BBC documentaries released since 2012. The researchers contentiously chose the data according to the following criteria:

- 1) Each documentary should be centered on one specific theme;
- 2) Each documentary should be well-received by the viewer according to IMDb ratings (>7/10). IMDb is one of the world's most popular and authoritative movie and TV review platform. Then the collection is narrowed down as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
MATERIALS FOR THE PAPER

Title	Release time	channel	Runtime	Theme	Rating
<i>Exploring China: A Culinary Adventure</i>	Aug 2012	BBC 2	4 episodes (4*60 min)	Cuisine	8.3
<i>How China Fooled the World</i>	Feb 2014	BBC 4	1 episode (1*60 min)	Economy	7.0
<i>Are Our Kids Tough Enough? Chinese School</i>	Aug 2015	BBC 2	3 episodes (3*60 min)	Education	7.2
<i>Secrets of China</i>	Aug 2015	BBC 3	3 episodes (3*58 min)	Social life	8.7
<i>The Story of China</i>	Jan 2016	BBC 2	6 episodes (6*59 min)	History	8.2
<i>Chinese New Year: The Biggest Celebration on Earth</i>	Feb 2016	BBC 2	3 episodes (3*59 min)	Folklore	7.6

B. Theoretical Framework

Inspired by the previous endeavors (Charteris-Black 2004, Hidalgo-Downing and Mujic 2011; Musolff 2012; Catalano and Wangh 2013, 2016; Zhao and Feng 2017; Perez 2017), the present research is to examine how China's images are built up through BBC documentaries based on the framework of critical multimodal metaphor analysis:

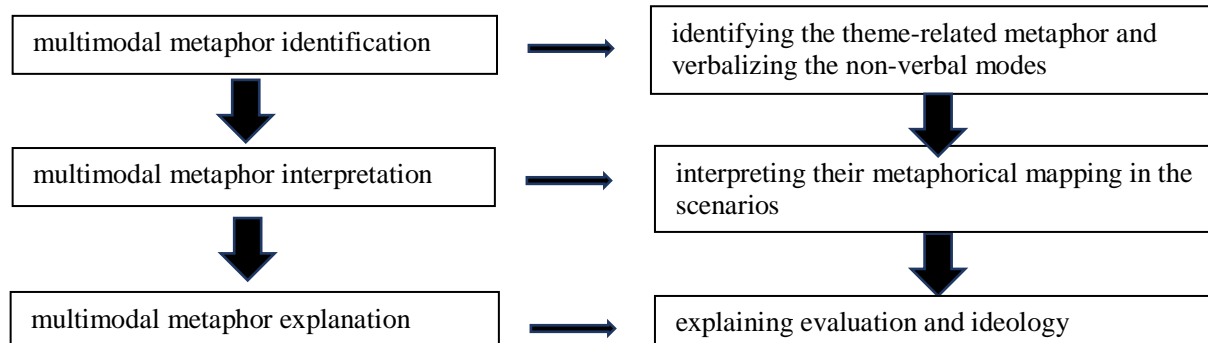


Figure 1. Framework of critical multimodal metaphor analysis for the present paper.

The identification phase lays the foundation for the analysis to follow, so for the sake of reliability, a pilot experiment was conducted among the three researchers. First, one researcher introduced the metaphor identification procedure presented by Perez Sobrino (2017). After that, the five analysts independently annotated the metaphors in *How China Fooled the World* and then contrasted each other's annotations. Cases of disagreement were resolved through discussion. Finally, the criteria for identification and verbalization were agreed upon:

1) Identification of target domains

The question to formulate this step could be: *What aspect of China is being shown?* In documentaries, the target domain is usually explicitly represented, which is contrastive to the case in verbal discourse. As for verbalization, one criterion was that only theme-based metaphors were included in a database for later quantitative studies. For example, in *Exploring China: A Culinary Adventure*, despite various metaphors relating to economy, social events and even history, the researchers exclusively added the cuisine-related metaphors to the self-built corpus.

2) Identification of source domains

The second step looked for modes or submodes that convey China's image, or answers the question *What is being said about China?* This step incorporated the insights of the independent researchers and the similarly-reached analyses were included in the corpus.

The above protocol was applied to the identification process in the other five documentaries. Then, one researcher verbalized all the consensus metaphors before additional checks and discussions were held to build the corpus of the study.

In the interpretation phase, statistics were drawn from the distribution of different types of metaphors classified by the interaction of different modes and the metaphorical mapping. Hence, a number of distributions and percentages were calculated for the investigation of these theme multimodal metaphors in ninety-one differential settings. In an additional note, it was necessary to acknowledge the crucial role that metonymy played in the data and thus a brief discussion of the metaphor & metonymy interactions would be found in the paper. Since this paper's purpose was to highlight the importance of metaphor, the focus was on the metaphors.

Finally, in reference to the representation and mapping characteristics of the specific genre concluded above, the researchers determined how the identified multimodal cognitive devices help shape ideology. The theme conceptual metaphors were evaluated to examine the negativity of China's images and the misreading of Chinese culture. To avoid the subjectivity, triangulation occurred among researchers.

III. METAPHORICAL REPRESENTATION OF MULTIMODAL METAPHORS

After brain-storming and triangulation, seventeen theme metaphors are summarized in ninety-one different settings. For the sake of fluency and observing the principle of economy, the verbalization of those metaphors in different arenas is provided in the Appendix. Concerning the fact that different directors had their preferences for creating artistic and dramatic effects, frequency is calculated not based on the metaphors but settings so as to obtain a more comprehensive and objective view of the multimodal representation of metaphors in the particular genre of documentary. All the metaphors are analyzed through identification of source domain, target domain, mappings across relevant modes, which in this paper arrives at the following list: 1) the verbal mode, involving the speech of presenters, interviewees and voice-overs; 2) the visual mode, including moving images, pictorial signs captions, colors and camera perspectives; 3) the aural mode, i.e. non-verbal sound, including background music, dubbing sound and natural sound. The categorization is based on what modes are involved in the two separate domains.

A. Overview of Multimodal Metaphorical Representation

In reference to classification method of multimodal metaphors employed by Yu (2013) and Liu (2017), the researchers analyze the corpus and summarize the main metaphorical representation in BBC documentaries (see table 2).

TABLE 2
THE MULTIMODAL METAPHORICAL REPRESENTATION IN BBC DOCUMENTARIES

Category	Representation	Instantiation
Type I	verbal, visual, aural(S)—verbal, visual (T)	CHINESE ECONOMY IS MOVEMENT CHINESE ECONOMY IS DOWN CHINESE INVESTMENT IS BINGE CHINESE CREDIT IS GAMBLE CHINESE MARRIAGE IS SHOW CHINESE LIFE IS FLOATING WATER THE WEST IS KNOWLEDGE WHILE CHINA IS ILLITERACY
Type II	verbal, visual, aural(S)—implied(T)	THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN CHINESE AND BRITISH EDUCATION SYSTEM IS CONFLICT CHINESE WOMEN EAGER FOR MARRIAGE ARE DOLLS
Type III	verbal, aural(S)—verbal, visual (T)	CHINESE SCHOOL IS MILITARY CAMP
Type IV	verbal, visual(S)—verbal, visual, aural (T)	CHINESE KITCHEN IS BATTLEFIELD
Type V	verbal(S)--verbal, visual(T)	CHINESE MARRIAGE IS BUSINESS CHUNYUN IS MIGRATION NEW YEAR CELEBRATION IS PARTY
Type VI	verbal, visual, aural (S)--verbal, visual, aural (T)	CHINESE HISTORY IS CYCLE
Type VII	verbal, aural (S)--visual, aural (T)	CHINESE CLASS IS REPETITIVE DRILL
Type VIII	verbal(S)—verbal, visual, aural (T)	CHINESE GAMING IS ESCAPING
Type IX	verbal, visual, aural (S)-- verbal (T)	CHINESE CREDIT IS GAMBLE
Type X	implied(S)—verbal, visual, aural (T)	CHINESE GAMING IS ESCAPING
Type XI	implied(S)—verbal, visual(T)	CHIESE WOMEN EAGER FOR MARRIAGE ARE DOLLS

In a total of ninety-one metaphor settings where there are eight mono-mappings and eighty-three multi-mappings (see the Appendix), the percentage of multi-modal mappings is 91%. It is safe to conclude that metaphors in BBC documentaries are a multimodal phenomenon. For these multimodal metaphors, they are distributed as the following charts:

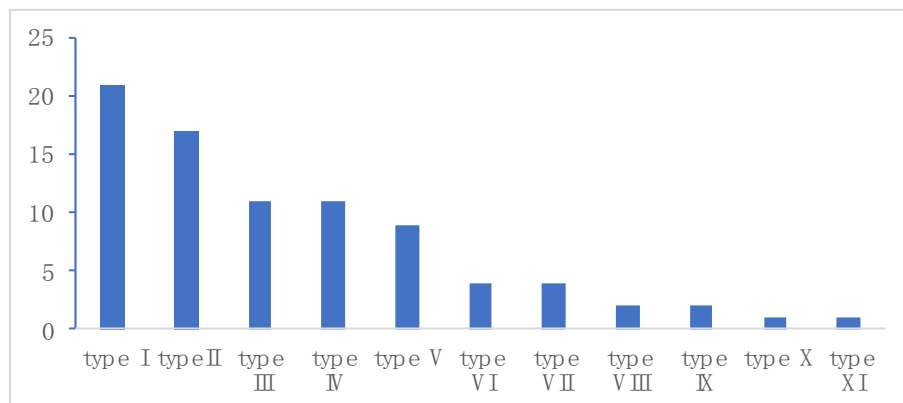


Figure 2. Tokens of different representations

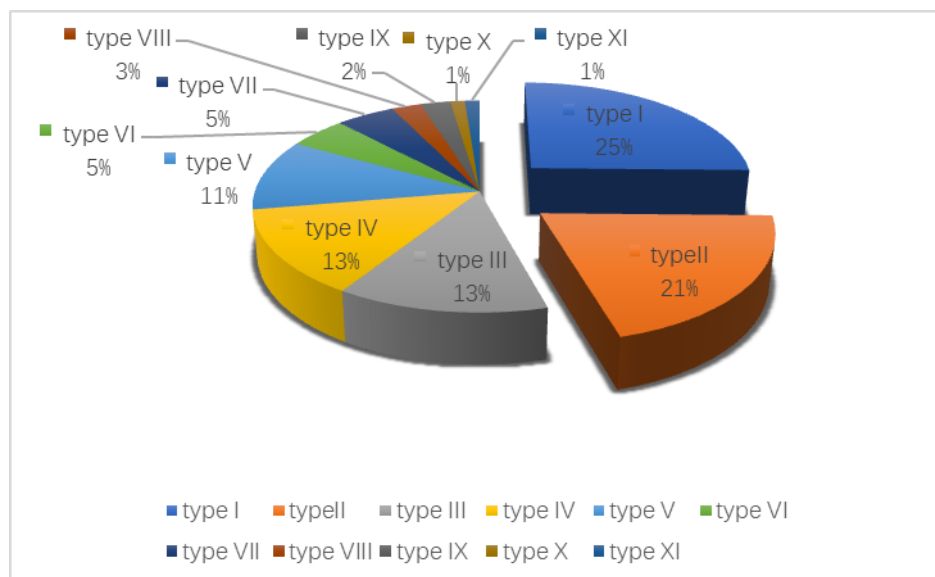


Figure 3. Percentages of different representations.

As is described in the data, in terms of domains, 53% multi-mappings rely on interplay of the verbal, visual and aural modes to trigger the source domain whereas the target domain is mainly depicted through the mixture of verbal and visual modes, accounting for 51%. In terms of representation of source domain, type I stands out as the most salient representation, accounting for one fourth of the total, which is closely followed by type II. The other three types, type III, type IV of three-mode mapping and type V of two-mode mapping each occupies more than 10% of the total representation. The lowest percentages are type X and type XI.

The representation of the target may echo the goal of the specific genre of documentaries where the topic is generally unveiled explicitly by the presenter and the images at the very beginning of each documentary. On the contrary, the source domains might be hidden in music, camera shots, angles cutting and editing. In the verbal mode, presenters' speaking greatly contributes to the source domain.

B. Instantiation of Multimodal Metaphors


To answer the question how multimodal metaphors are manifested cross-modally, this paper is going to explore in details the categories whose percentage above 20%. Namely, type I and type II are to be elaborated with typical examples in terms of representation of their source and target domains. Each type of metaphor is to be explored with introduction of its synopsis, interaction of different modes and relationship between domains.

1. Analysis of Type I

The most pervasive representation is the three modes of the source interplaying with verbal and visual modes of the target, with a portion of 25% in all multi-modal mappings.

An illustrative case is to be found in an excerpt from *How China Fooled the World*. On 9 November 2008, in face of global financial crisis, the State Council of China approved a plan to invest 4 trillion yuan in infrastructure and social welfare in the next five years. The selected clip concerning the economic stimulus plan can be seen in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
ELEMENTS OF THE CM: CHINESE INVESTMENT IS ACCELERATOR BUTTON.

Place	Settings	Verbal	Visual	Aural
<i>How China Fooled the World</i> 11:33—13:48	China unveiling its 4000 billion rescue plan in 2008	commentator: “hit the accelerator button”	low camera angle of buildings; interviews with experts	fast-paced music
		presenter: “off the scale”; “construction binge”	building construction with a time lapse effect	
		voice-over: “a new skyscraper every five day”; “more than 30 new airports”; “metro systems underway in 25 cities”; “over 6000 miles of high-speed railway track”; “the three longest bridges”; “26000 miles of motorways”		ominous music, rhythmical and more quickly

To start with, the presenter is interviewing some experts on economy, one of whom articulates “They just hit the accelerator button on investment”. Soon the image is shifted to the skyscrapers in Wuhan with low angles. The special low angles give the buildings an overpowering feeling making them larger than life, indicating excessive investment rather than necessary. Subsequently, by compressing a long period of house constructions into a few seconds, the clip maps the characteristics of “insanity”. Later, when the images of investment on public facilities construction change rapidly with an urgent voice, the motion of camera is accelerated and *The Dark Knight* theme music quickens like crazy to increase the thrill of speed. Finally, motorways appear, all means of traffic hastening and background color dimming.

The abstract idea of ECONOMY lies in the various means of transportation like metros, airports and motorways, i.e. CHINESE ECONOMY IS TRANSPORTATION. With the aid of articulations of experts and economists, camera perspectives and background music, the theme metaphor CHINESE INVESTMENT IS ACCELERATOR BUTTON (FOR TRANSPORTATION) is formed. The relationship between domains can be concluded as follows:

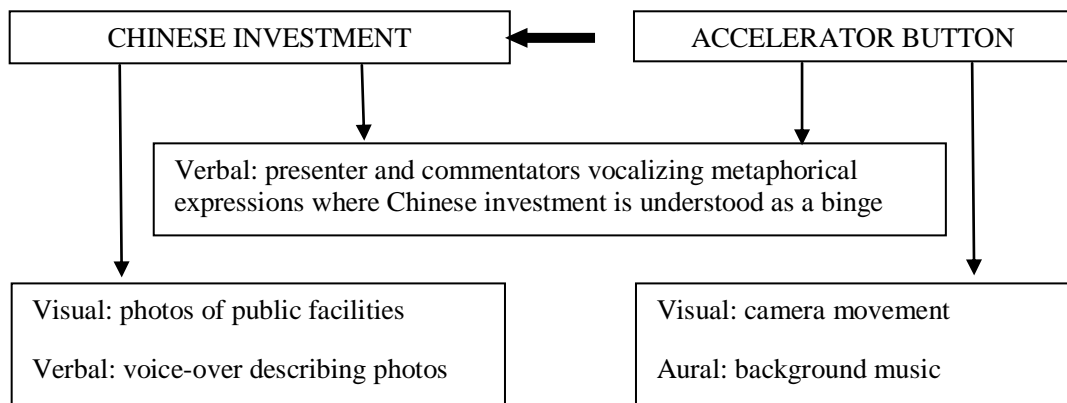


Figure 4. Interplay of modes in CHINESE INVESTMENT IS ACCELERATOR BUTTON.

Visually, the images of constructions of metros, airports and motorways are presented, which seem realistic and objective. Nonetheless, it is not the case when sub-modes are carefully examined. In the first shot in Table 3, the train in the tunnel is running speedily with the time lapse effect, which resembles an explosion as a whole. Similarly, in the second shot, the viewer watches the train accelerating from the perspective of low angles, which exaggerate the speed of the train. In order to account for all the potential meaning of acceleration, the initial metaphor CHINESE ECONOMY IS TRANSPORTATION (receptor metaphor) is enriched with the conceptual structure provided by

GAINING POWER IS MOVING FORWARD (donor metaphor), thus producing a metaphoric amalgam (for amalgamation, the reader may refer to Perez Sobrino 2017) ECONOMY GAINING POWER IS TRANSPORTATION MOVING FORWARD. AS the viewer might observe, the enriched version allows Chinese economy to inherit the negative attributes that go beyond the scope of those borrowed from the domain of transportation. According to Evans and Green’s (2006) typology, the tunnel and track in the above images are containers. Since the contents keep gaining power, the containers might face the danger of being exploded. So far, the metaphor can be recapped: CHINESE ECONOMY IS OUT (OF CONTROL).






The other submodes ---- dimming background color and ominous background music added in post-production express the producer’s denial attitude towards Chinese economy. Moreover, in the interview the words of economists sounded more reliable and convincing than those of the host. Here, the interviewed economists are metonymic for economy (HUMAN FOR NON-HUMAN). However, the six economists shown are unexceptionally western; therefore, Chinese economy is a subject of “otherness”. The viewer might “receive” the negative evaluation without realizing the ideological bias.

2. Analysis of Type II

The second most frequent mapping is type II (verbal, visual and aural representations of the source mapping onto the implied target), as in the case of the following example.

A second instantiation is the conceptual metaphor CHINESE WOMEN EAGER FOR MARRIAGE ARE DOLLS in the second episode of *Secrets of China*. The situation under discussion happens in an underground shopping mall in Beijing. Table 4 includes the manifestations of the metaphor.

TABLE 4
ELEMENTS OF THE CM: CHINESE WOMEN EAGER FOR MARRIAGE ARE DOLLS

Place	Settings	Verbal	Visual	Aural	
the 2 nd episode of <i>Secrets of China</i> . 14:37—15:20	a shopping mall in Beijing	presenter: “childish tat”; “babyish”; “obsessed with being a white baby”			song: “He only wants you when you’re 17.”
					
the 2 nd episode of <i>Secrets of China</i> . 15:25—16:50	the presenter’s hotel in Beijing	presenter: “Lolita-ish vibe”; “pretty sick”; “like a doll”; “incredibly uncomfortable”; “like a child”; “fully-fledged Chinese girl”; “an extreme look”; “like an anime character”			song: “Stayin’ in my place pretend/ Where the fun ain’t got no end...Need someone to numb the pain”
					

The focal point of the episode “Desperate for Love” is that young Chinese people are longing to get married. Derived from the context, it is no difficult to identify the target domain CHINESE WOMEN EAGER FOR MARRIAGE. Nonetheless, the source domain is developed step by step in three real scenarios. The first scenario chosen by the presenter is an underground shopping mall selling a variety of female gadgets. As the camera foregrounds the baby-face phone covers, a doll with nipple in mouth and a baby-face bleaching mask, the correlation between girls for marriage and babyish dolls is established. During the whole process, Ladytron’s song *Seventeen* is playing now and then. Later in the second scenario, the presenter herself even goes great length to wear contact lens, eyelashes, butterfly hair band and to take selfie stick to claim her in full dress as a “fully-fledged Chinese girl”, accompanied by the background song *Stay High*. The format of the interplay of the three modes in type IV can be drawn as follows:

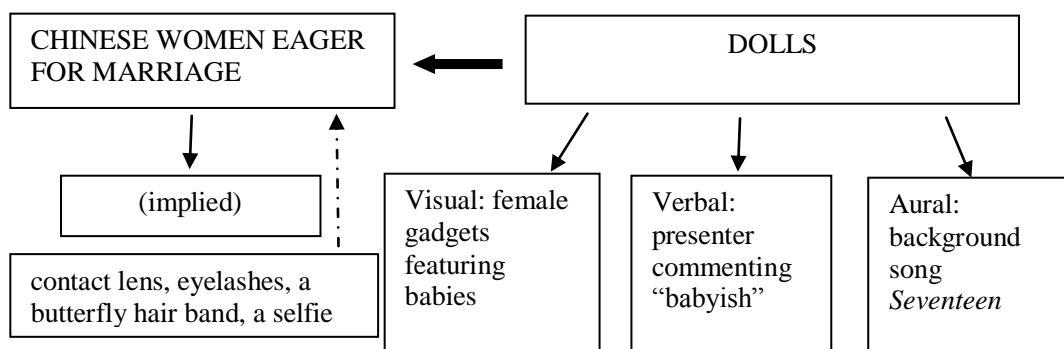


Figure 5. Interplay of modes in CHINESE WOMEN EAGER FOR MARRIAGE ARE DOLLS.

The above scenarios, though real, are deliberately selected. In the first one, there is a variety of commodities in the underground shopping mall but visually naïve female gadgets are chosen exclusively to appear in the documentary. Those selected scenarios are in line with the definition of a metaphor scenario “about ‘typical’ aspects of a source-situation, for example, its participants and their roles, the ‘dramatic’ storylines and outcomes, and conventional evaluation of whether they count as successful or unsuccessful, normal or abnormal, permissible or illegitimate” (Musolf, 2006, p. 28). Hence, these scenarios present an opportunity to better analyze the attributes of metaphors. Visually, the participant (Billie JD Porter pretending to be a Chinese woman) tries contact lens, eyelashes, butterfly hair band and selfie stick. Besides the visual mode, what the presenter comments as “childish” or “babyish” adds more impact to the source domain, which echoes the criterion concluded by the presenter at the beginning of the episode that guys are after girls in their early 20s. In aural mode, Ladytron’s song *Seventeen*, originally denouncing the phenomenon that teenagers are manipulated as a commodity, is a special indictment of a commodity of disposable dolls. From the intended metaphor, the entailed message is that Chinese women are dolls to be played and disposed by their future husbands, which is an abnormal view of marriage, a rigid stereotype towards Chinese people.

C. Summary

Based on the analysis of multimodal manifestation of the cases in the self-built corpus, this chapter discovers that the representation of multimodal metaphors in the specific genre of documentary manifests themselves with some unique properties.

First, 91% metaphors in the corpus are conveyed via multiple modalities, which supports the claim that communication rarely happens via one channel only, especially if more modes are available, as in case with documentaries. Second, of eighty-three multi-mappings, two-mode interaction occupies only ten whereas the other seventy-three belong to three-mode mappings involving visual, verbal and aural modes. Among the three-mode mappings, the most typical representations are type I (verbal, visual and aural representations of the source mapping onto verbal and visual representations of the target) and type II (verbal, visual and aural representations of the source mapping onto the implied target). At the same time, the least fractions are type X and type XI where both the source domains are absent. It proves documentaries tell not necessarily the truth, but a reconstruction. Since the constructive message in the sources is intended for the viewer, the metaphors that draw on absent sources are rare. Forceville (2007) notes that “apart from their greater degree of comprehensibility, metaphors drawing on images, sounds, and music... have a more intense, immediate emotional impact than verbal ones” (p. 15-34). Therefore, the documentary exploits various visual, aural and verbal elements that are interactive with and dependent upon each other to impress the viewer and finally influence what they think.

IV. IDEOLOGICAL EVALUATION OF MULTIMODAL METAPHORS

As is analyzed previously, the working mechanism of those identified metaphors suggests that potentially the reality is reconstructed in media. The questions, then, are “What are the underlying messages in the press discourse, and whose interests do these messages serve?” These are fundamentally questions about ideology because they suggest that media are places where certain ideas are effectively hidden or highlighted. Ideology in this paper is not just about politics but gives people an understanding of how they should decide more specific issues.

When decoding the construction of China’s images in those BBC documentaries, two characteristics of conceptual metaphors should be taken into consideration: 1) metaphor is evaluative; 2) metaphor is culturally-embedded. This paper is going to reveal ideologies subtly hidden behind the metaphorical veil by examining the choice of source domain and then determining whether the metaphorical entailments are positive, neutral, negative or culturally misreading. This method of reasoning has been carried out for all seventeen metaphors (see Table 5).

TABLE 5
ENTAILMENTS OF THE THEME METAPHORS IN THE CORPUS

Metaphors	Entailments	Polarity
CHINESE KITCHEN IS BATTLEFIELD	A Chinese kitchen is chaotic, unfriendly and wild; Cooking in a Chinese kitchen is dangerous and brutal.	negative & culturally misreading
CHINESE ECONOMY IS MOVEMENT	Chinese economy has such an explosive growth that it gets out of control.	negative
CHINESE INVESTMENT IS BINGE	The speed and scale of Chinese investment is so excessive that it is doomed to fail.	negative
CHINESE CREDIT IS GAMBLE	It is risky for the credit to control Chinese economy; Chinese credit is sinister.	negative
THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN CHINESE AND BRITISH EDUCATION SYSTEM IS CONFLICT	Chinese education is boring, rigid and ruthless while British education is interesting, lively and motivating; Chinese and British education are incompatible.	negative
CHINESE SCHOOL IS MILITARY CAMP	In a Chinese school, discipline and conformity are stressed; Chinese students are trained to be respectful and obedient through extremely harsh schooling.	negative
CHINESE CLASS IS REPETITIVE DRILL	Chinese students' personality and autonomy are ignored; Chinese students learn passively.	negative
CHINESE GAMING IS ESCAPING	Chinese people game to refrain from study, work, reality and social system	negative
CHINESE MARRIAGE IS BUSINESS	Chinese people get married for material lives, not necessarily for love; There is an uncertainty of risk in marriage when competition is open.	negative
CHINESE MARRIAGE IS SHOW	Chinese couples present their marriage to the best advantage to show off their wealth and status but it is usually not true	negative
CHINESE WOMEN EAGER FOR MARRIAGE ARE DOLLS	In order to increase the potential of getting married, Chinese women endeavor to please Chinese guys' taste in young ladies.	negative
CHINESE HISTORY IS CYCLE	Each dynasty rises to a peak and then falls, only to be replaced by a new dynasty.	neutral
CHINESE LIFE IS FLOATING WATER	Chinese people in history led unpredictable and instable lives.	neutral
THE WEST IS NEW KNOWLEDGE AND CHINA IS ILLITERACY	Chinese tradition is nothing compared to Western invention; The British were open-minded while Chinese people were ignorant.	negative
CHUNYUN IS MIGRATION	A massive number of Chinese people are on the move during the Spring Festival travel season.	neutral & culturally misreading
CHUXI DINNER IS PARTY	Chinese people reunite, talking, drinking and eating on <i>Chuxi</i> .	neutral & culturally misreading
NEW YEAR CELEBRATION IS PARTY	Chinese people go out to have fun in a carnival and entertaining atmosphere.	neutral & culturally misreading

As is seen above, of seventeen theme metaphors summarized from six China-related documentaries, five are neutral and twelve are negative. Although there is a trend for the BBC to assume a neutral attitude towards Chinese culture and history, the images constructed by BBC documentaries are still largely negative from the choice of source domain and metaphorical mapping: madly-growing Chinese economy posing a threat to the world, militarized Chinese education producing students with sharp memories, standardized social mainstream leading to a lack of freedom, competitive marriage market driving young people to go extreme, etc.

At least two reasons account for the negativity. First, bias has been a feature of the mass media since its birth. To satisfy the curiosity of viewers who do not know much about China, the BBC may deliberately exaggerate the distinction between the West and China. For instance, *Are Our Kids Tough Enough? Chinese School* highlights the rotting learning to such degree that it deletes all the scenes of interaction and cooperation between teachers and students. In *Exploring China: A Culinary Adventure*, the presenters use the verbs which do not normally appear in a cuisine program to impact the viewer. Second, to be in line with the long-stereotyped images of China, the BBC may consciously or unconsciously manipulate the documentaries to appeal to the viewer, especially the Westerners. For example, the title *How China Fooled the World* could be seen as being manipulative since the documentary clearly has an agenda to oppose Chinese economy. No matter what efforts the Chinese government has made to rescue China from the crisis, Chinese economic growth is labeled as greedy and menacing. Also, in *Secrets of China*, the presenter directly asks the interviewee the question "Do you think that the lack of freedom here leads to people being unhappy?" In fact, throughout the episode no sign suggests that people are unhappy. In this way, the negative image of China could easily resonate in western viewer, who holds prejudices against the heterogeneous culture out of cultural hegemonism.

Even for the neutral metaphors, they are mainly simplistic and superficial expression of Chinese image. In *Chinese New Year: The Biggest Celebration on Earth*, the source domain PARTY is used for both *Chuxi* dinner and New Year celebration, shielding viewer from deep significance of Chinese New Year. And in the metaphor CHUNYUN IS

MIGRATION, the movement of a number of people is highlighted but the family-oriented value is hidden. In a word, Chinese New Year is still the new year in others' eyes, not Chinese people's.

V. CONCLUSION

Firstly, the present paper investigates the unique characteristics of representation in the specific genre of documentary. In most occasions, the tension of a metaphor lies between literal source domain and underlying target domain; however, the research data in this paper prove that the target domains are directly pinpointed while the source domains are craftily designed in the documentaries. The cognitive operation of the metaphors suits the specificities of documentary as a genre.

Secondly, the analyses have demonstrated that various sub-modes such as editing, music, dubbing sound, colors and camera perspective are used in the source domains as an overall persuasive strategy. Those sub-modes are always considered as the carrier of additional elements that help the formulation of the conceptual metaphors; however, the data suggest that they have their own power to structure one concept in terms of another. Music is always considered as the carrier of additional elements that help the formulation of the CMs but the data in this paper suggest that music has its own power to structure one concept in terms of another. For instance, without the filmic theme music of *The Great Escape* and *The Dam Busters*, the source domains such as "conflict", "military camp" or "military drill" will not be cued. All in all, the sources are largely dependent on the non-diegetic efforts to deliver the values.

Thirdly, with the choices of source domains and the mapping mechanism, most multimodal metaphors in these selected documentaries present China with negative narratives (negative metaphors accounts for 71% of the entire data): an irresponsible economic superpower, a regiment with a draconian education system, a civilization with constant emergency of social problems. The BBC may intentionally or unintentionally highlight certain negative attributes mapped to the images of China, which ultimately lead the public to conceptualizing China negatively. Decoding the use of multimodal metaphors can raise consciousness about how press discourse contains underlying ideologies and on the other hand avoid the stereotype and bias of the images of a particular country. The ideological analysis of multimodal metaphors provides a window onto what kinds of ideas circulate through media and how they are constructed, displayed and sometimes reworked.

The entailments of some multimodal metaphors drawn from these documentaries might generate misunderstanding of Chinese culture. For instance, in the case of *Exploring China: A Culinary Adventure*, the intense atmosphere of a Chinese kitchen is highlighted but the connotation of *hong huo* is ignored. Also, during *Chinese New Year: The Biggest Celebration on Earth*, both *Chuxi* and Chinese New Year celebration are oversimplified as PARTY, whereas the core ideal of family value does not reach the viewer. Those misinterpretations may be excluded if documentary producers look at culture from a cognitive perspective.

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Ping Tang was born in Hunan, China in 1984. She received her Master's degree in Linguistics and Applied Linguistics from Guilin University of Technology, China, in 2018.

She is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Studies, Guilin University of Technology, China. Her research interests include cognitive linguistics and multimodality.

She has published articles in some peer-reviewed Chinese journals.

Kelin Quan was born in Guangxi, China in 1974. He received his Ph.D. in international studies from Nanjing University, China in 2002.

He is currently dean and professor at the College of International Education, Guilin University of Technology, China. His research interests include English language and culture, and translation studies.

Dr. Quan is an executive member of China Association for Studies of Translation History.

Jianbin Zhu was born in Sichuan, China in 1978. He is a PhD student in the School of International Studies at University of International Business and Economics, and an associate professor of linguistics at Guilin University of Technology.

His main research interests are in cognitive linguistics, discourse studies and multimodality.

Mr. Zhu is the principal investigator of Guangxi Philosophy and Social Science Research Program (Grant No. 18BYY005) and Innovation Project of Guangxi Graduate Education (Grant No. JGY2019099). He has published articles in *Multimodal Communication* and some other peer-reviewed Chinese journals.

An Analysis of the APEC News in Washington Post from the Perspective of Engagement System Based on Appraisal Theory

Xiaorui Huang
Shanxi Normal University, China

Abstract—This paper uses the engagement system of appraisal theory to analyze the news about APEC summit held in Papua New Guinea from the Washington Post, in which the proportion of dialogue expansion and dialogue contraction of engagement resources is 47 and 53, and the contraction resources are slightly higher than the expansion resources. In order to explain that in news discourse, the author refutes other viewpoints while actively expressing his views on the incidents, and also extracts other viewpoints that have reached the objective and reliable information, thus convincing potential readers.

Index Terms—appraisal theory, engagement system, APEC summit, dialogue expansion, and dialogue contraction

I. INTRODUCTION

The Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC), or APEC, is an important economic cooperation forum in the Asia-Pacific region and the highest level of inter-governmental economic cooperation mechanism in the Asia-Pacific region. From November 12 to 18, 2018, the twenty-sixth informal leadership meeting of the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation was held in Port Moresby, the capital of Papua New Guinea (PNG in short). PNG hopes that through this meeting, it can promote its own economic development and establish good trade links with other member states. Regarding this meeting, the Washington Post in the United States published news related to the meeting. This article selected one of them to analyze its language from the engagement system of evaluation theory.

Appraisal theory is a new development of Halliday's systemic functional linguistics by Martin et al. The "system" is the center of this theory, the "appraisal" is the focus, and the language is the means in the system. It can be used to express the attitudes, positions and opinions of language users through the analysis of corpus. The evaluation theory not only expresses the attitude, but also expresses the author's discourse resources and these merits. The author selects various evaluation resources with strong interpersonal functions from the language system, which is to strategically implements attitude expression, expands the verbal interaction space with the audience to enhance the language means of the interpersonal negotiation function, and successfully persuades the audience to accept a certain kind of viewpoint and position to achieve the communicative purpose of discourse.

The paper is divided into three parts excluding chapter I Introduction and chapter-V Conclusion. In chapter II, it makes a general review on Appraisal Theory, and gives a brief introduction to APEC. Chapter III is devoted to giving a detailed description on Appraisal Theory. Chapter IV, as the core part of the whole paper, adopts the qualitative and quantitative analytical approaches to investigate the news in the light of the Engagement System of the Appraisal Theory.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Appraisal system is based on systemic functional linguistics and expands the lexical level of interpersonal meaning research. As the evaluation theory of the semantic system, through the use of the author or the speaker in the process of communication, the position is determined and the attitude is expressed to achieve the final communicative purpose. At present, many scholars have analyzed news from the perspective of evaluation theory, and studied the communicative purpose of the ropeway. The previous studies on news reports are presented in this part, and the introduction of APEC is done in the last section.

A. Previous Studies on News at Home and Abroad

In recent years, many Western scholars have made great achievements in the study of news discourse. As a language evaluation method, appraisal theory is widely used in discourse analysis. The greatest achievement achieved by applying this theory is the analysis of news discourse. As early as the 1990s, some members of Australian systemic functional linguists turned their attention to the study of news discourse. They observed that news reporters, correspondents, and commentators, and media workers have different identities, and they also have different types of evaluation resources, narrative styles, and ways of voice intervention. Therefore, researchers began the process of

applying appraisal theory to news discourse. The earliest application of appraisal theory to studying news discourse began with White's doctoral dissertation. White fully explained the interpersonal types of news discourse, social assessment of news reports and texts, and the attitudes of authors and readers related to these meanings. (White, 1998) Rich Iedema, Susan Feez, and White attempted to study the objectivity and subjectivity of news texts. They discussed the difference between arguing and persuasive news genres, and also analyzed the different types of author voices in news texts. (Rich Iedema, Susan Feez & White, 1994)

With the increasing maturity of appraisal theory, at home, the trend of applying appraisal theory to studying news texts has continued unabated, and has achieved fruitful results. For example, Dong Shirong, guided by the theory of evaluation, analyzed the intervention resources in the discourse of the US presidential election debate, and explored how the intervention resources in the special discourse of the presidential television debate regulate interpersonal meaning. (Dong Shirong, 2011) Xi Xiaoqing studied the intervention resources in the inauguration speech of the US President and pointed out that the speakers in the text achieve the purpose of persuading the audience through a large number of intervention resources. (Xi Xiaoqing, 2012) A Study on Donald Trump's Twitter Discourse on China from the Perspective of Appraisal Theory was written by Li Fang (Li Fang 2018), which examined languages from the perspective of the system of Attitude, Engagement and Graduation. The paper examined the distribution of appraisal resources in Trump's twitters containing word of China or Chinese from 2011 to 2017. Therefore, there are few researches on domestic APEC conference news discourses based on appraisal theory, mainly focusing on the use of appraisal theory to study presidential campaign speeches or television debates. So, this paper will analyse a piece of news report in Washington Post from the Perspective of Engagement System of Appraisal Theory.

B. A Brief Introduction of APEC

The Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC), or APEC, is an important economic cooperation forum in the Asia-Pacific region and the highest level of inter-governmental economic cooperation mechanism in the Asia-Pacific region.

The first ministerial meeting of the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation Conference was held from November 5 to 7, 1989, marking the establishment of the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation. In June 1993, it was renamed the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation. In November 1991, China was a sovereign state, and Chinese Taipei and Hong Kong, China, formally joined APEC as regional economies. APEC has 21 members. In October 2001, the APEC meeting was held in Shanghai, China. This is the first time that the APEC meeting has been held in China. In 2014, the APEC meeting came to China again after 13 years. As of September 2014, APEC had 21 full members and three observers. The objectives of the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation are to maintain economic growth and development, and to promote economic interdependence among members, and to strengthen an open multilateral trading system, and to remove regional trade and investment barriers, and to protect the common interests of the people of the region.

From November 12 to 18, 2018, the twenty-sixth informal leadership meeting of the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation was held in Port Moresby, the capital of Papua New Guinea. Papua New Guinea's "National Daily" and "The Courier Post" reported on October 9th that the Prime Minister of Papua New Guinea, who attended the 2013 APEC Leaders' Summit in Indonesia, announced that Papua was officially allowed to host the 2018 APEC Summit. O'Neill said that APEC members cover nearly half of the world's trade and business volume, and joining the APEC organization has made Papua rich. The 2018 APEC meeting will give PNG a unique historical opportunity to showcase cultural and investment opportunities. O'Neill also expressed confidence in organizing the APEC summit. The leaders of the member states delivered an important speech at the meeting, but did not issue a joint declaration, the first time in 26 years since APEC history. The evaluation of the meeting was that the Ministry of Commerce spokesperson's summit replied that the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs has elaborated on this, and Gao Gang stressed that the just-concluded APEC leaders' informal meeting was in host Papua New Guinea. Thanks to the joint efforts of other members, it was a successful meeting and the parties have achieved important and positive results in many fields. China has always insisted on promoting the final consensus through consultations. However, individual members tried to impose their own priorities on all members and were opposed by many members, especially developing members. Since the self-interest has not yet been reached, the defamation of the Chinese side in the relevant news is indispensable.

The paper selects a related report from the Washington Post and uses the engagement system of appraisal theory to analyze the communicative purpose of the report.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This part will introduce the development and the categories of appraisal theory.

A. The Development of Appraisal Theory

The concern on Appraisal in linguistic field began from the research conducted by Martin on Wright It Right program in 1990s. Over the past decades, linguistics has probed into this phenomenon from different perspectives. Although the terminology to name it varied from person to person, such as evaluation, intensity, hedging, stance, Martin et.al used APPRAISAL.(White 1998; Martin & White 2005) These words are in great semblance since they virtually depict the same linguistic phenomenon.

In systemic functional linguistics (hereinafter referred to as SFL), people's deviation from interpersonal textual semantics is usually based on grammatical clause-level interpersonal systems, such as mood and modality, which are the starting points for the development of speech function and exchange structure. Martin documents a complementary perspective founded on evaluative lexis on aspects of interpersonal meaning apart from the grammar of dialogic exchange. (Martin, 2000, p142) Appraisal Theory brings more lexis into this semantic evaluation framework to study, depict and explain how the speakers employ language in the texts to evaluate, make attitude-positioning and conduct negotiations. Its preliminary impetus is from the research in the 80s and 90s for the Wright It Right project of the New South Wales Disadvantaged School about the literacy requirements of the discourses of science, technology, media, history, English literature studies, geography and the visual arts, which were carried out by a group of researchers led by Professor James R. Martin of the University of Sydney, and then together with Peter White, Rick Iedema and Joan Rothery, Caroline Coffin, Susan Feez, Sally Humphreys, Henrike Korner, David McInnes, David Rose, Maree Stenglin and Robert Vee, Martin developed the Appraisal System or Appraisal Theory. Among the various projects under NSW projects, the semantic interpersonal issues are the prime emphasis. Initially, it was restrained on the evaluation of the narratives and the literature comments. (Yang Weiting, 2018)

With the expanding development, the on-going research scope is extending to other texts, mainly in written ones, such as the media texts, technology and historical ones. During the discourse analysis, focus will be not only shift to the evaluative lexis but also comprehend the interpersonal and the social relationship implied within the evaluative lexis. Therefore, Appraisal is the semantics of evaluation, which study the evaluative meaning embedded within the texts.

B. The Categories of the Appraisal Theory

The linguistic domain of Appraisal, in Martin's analysis, is the semantic resources used to negotiate emotions, judgments, and valuations, alongside resources for amplifying and engaging with these evaluations." (Martin, 2000, p145)

Appraisal, broadly speaking, concerns negotiable attitudes emerging in the text. These evaluative resources are theorized under three interacting domains: Attitude, Engagement and Graduation, concerning with the discourse semantic resources mapping the interpersonal meaning. The system of Appraisal Theory set out in Figure 1. (Manin & White, 2005, p38)

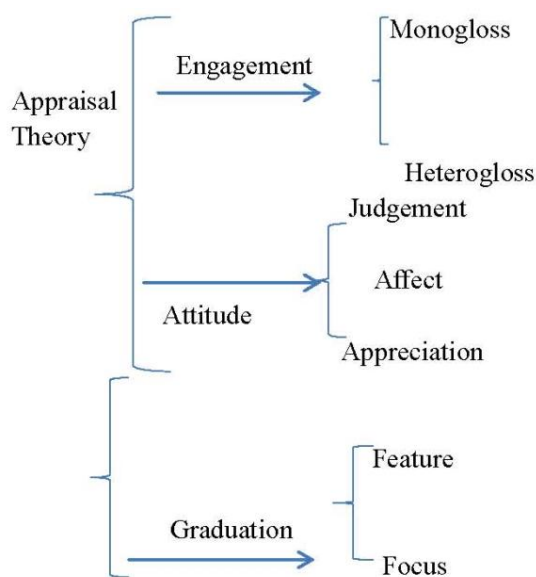


Figure 1

Engagement is the diverse range of resources dealt with the inter-subjective positioning, it provides the means for positioning the speaker's/author's voice with regard to the various propositions and proposals in the text.

Attitude, evaluative use of language, is seen to perform the function of attitudinal positioning. It encompasses three semantic subtype categories: affect (emotion); judgment (ethics); appreciation (aesthetics).

Engagement System

Martin's definition of engagement can be traced back to Bakhtin's interpretation of language dialogue and later Kristeva's interpretation of textual intertextuality. Bakhtin believed that all discourses were related to each other and to each other, and dialogue was the basic attribute of all discourses. (Bakhtin, 1981) Later, Kristeva developed Bakhtin's dialogue theory. She believed that all discourses were composed of quotations, and each discourse was the result of absorbing or transforming other discourses. (Kristeva, 1986) Therefore, any discourse essentially had intertextuality. Martin introduced language dialogue and textual intertextuality into the engagement system, and believed that communicators used language to intervene in resources to negotiate and adjust the dialogue potential between the

various voices inside and outside the text. The engagement system embodies the game of various viewpoints in and out of the discourse, and how the author establishes alliances with the readers. It is divided into heterogloss and monogloss shown in Figure 2. (Martin, 2005, p104)

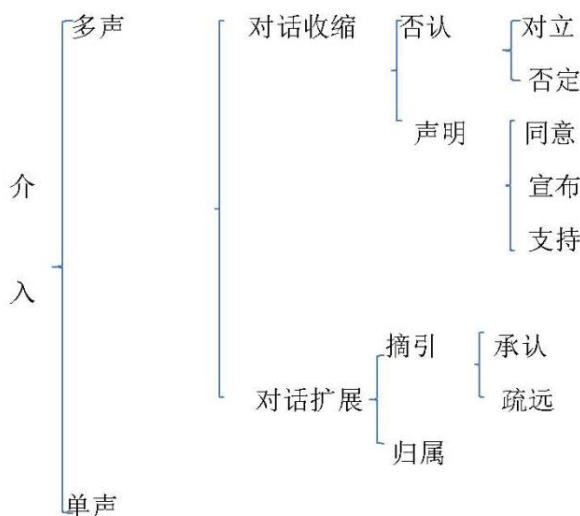


Figure 2

When the discourse creates a dialogue space for multiple sounds or viewpoints, it is heterogloss; a text is monophonic when there is only one voice or opinion. Heterogloss systems contain two main intervention strategies: dialogic contraction and dialogic expansion. The former refers to the restriction of some of the sounds after the introduction of multiple sounds in the text to narrow the dialogue space. The latter refers to the fact that the text introduces a certain voice and actively evokes other voices to expand the dialogue space. Dialogic contractions include disclaims and proclaims. The “denial” strategy directly rejects or refutes a point of view to compress the negotiation space, often through negative words such as “not” or “no” or “turning” words such as “but” and “still”. The “declaration” strategy explicitly supports a point of view and indirectly suppresses other positions in order to tighten the space of dialogue. The vocabulary means include “obviously” “no doubt” and “confirmation”. Conversation extensions include entries and attributes. The “trigger” strategy implies that a viewpoint (usually the author’s point of view) is just one of many viewpoints. It is willing to include other voices in the dialogue space for equal consultation. The common vocabulary means “may”, “should” and “I think”. The "extraction" strategy clearly indicates that a certain point of view comes from an external voice, is a retelling of other people's words, and is also one of a variety of voices, thereby expanding the space for dialogue and negotiation. The vocabulary means "speak", "claim", "represent", etc.

IV. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The corpus selected in this article is a news article published by the Washington Post on the Internet on November 20, 2018, called PORT MORESBY, PAPUA NEW GUINEA. The author is anonymous. This year's news is about the member states of the 2018 APEC Leaders Summit held in Papua New Guinea. This article expresses the US defamation and accusation against China through the use of various interventional resources. The role of the intervention system is to regulate and pass on the responsibility of speaking. For the objectivity and persuasiveness of the article, the author tries to avoid using pure, absolute assertions too high. This paper mainly analyzes the resources from the perspective of intervention. The body length is 1154 words. This discourse contains 28 cases of interventional resources. (As shown in Figure 3).

System	Heterogloss	Occurrence Number	Percent
Dialogic Contractions		16	57%
Engagement	Dialogic Expansion	12	43%

A. Dialogic Contraction

There are 16 conversational contractions in this article, accounting for 57% of the intervention resources. Convergence in dialogue means that the discourse intermediaries challenge, counter or limit other voices and positions, including "disclaim" and "proclaim." "Negation" means that the sound in the text is directly opposite to a certain sound. “Declaration” means that the author has a positive attitude towards the proposition in the discourse, while denying other different voices and suppressing other voices.

(Web Transcription Tool. <https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/josh-rogin> Accessed 29/11/2018)

The use of “could not” in Example 1 further embodies the final result of the meeting, which strongly indicates that the failure of the United States to address this joint speech is entirely attributable to China’s opposition and secretly condemns China’s failure of the summit. Responsibility is all waived to China, and it does not matter to others, causing other countries to believe in the second discussion. The “not” in example 2 shows that the author thinks Chinese official is selfish and private for their own benefits, and the other views that are different from his on Chinese is denied.

The ‘agreed to’ in Example 3 expresses the author’s affirmative attitude, which is a potential support and endorsement. The author agrees the China caused the failure of the joint statement. ‘This is especially true’ in example 4 also shows the certainty of the conclusion that the behavior of Chinese officials is brazen, and any explanation is refused.

B. Dialogic Expansion

There were 12 dialogue expansions in the text, accounting for 43% of the resources involved. “Expansion” means that the intervention in the discourse more or less triggers other voices or positions in the conversation, including entertainment and attribution. The propositions that are triggered are based on connections with other propositions, thus indicating one of many voices. The excerpt is a guide that uses the views of other authors, and is divided into direct and indirect references.

For example 5: Chinese tactics included being thuggish with the international media, busting into government buildings uninvited, papering the capital city of Port Moresby with pro-Beijing propaganda and possibly (entertain) even using cyber attacks to stifle the message of Vice President Pence, the U.S. delegation leader.

For example 6: Second, the paranoid and oversensitive nature of much of China’s behavior is a clear indication that the government feels under threat from the United States and its allies. This is something we should (entertain) be aware of (and sensitive to) as we deal with Beijing.

For example 7: When the time ran out and therefore the summit had officially failed, the Chinese delegation stationed in a room near the main session broke out in applause, a U.S. official said (attribute).

For example 8: “This is becoming a bit of a routine in China’s official relations: tantrum diplomacy,” a senior U.S. official involved in the negotiations told me. (attribute)

(Web Transcription Tool. <https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/josh-rogin>, accessed 29/11/2018)

In Example 5, the author used possible to illustrate the horror of Chinas strategy, thus convincing the reader that China’s strategy was ultimately to not support joint statements, and at the same time, to avoid too subjective evaluations and leave room for other views, the authors only expressed one of a variety of sounds that represent his or his thoughts. In example 6, ‘should’ shows that one of the views is that China’s behavior is hegemonic, and there are many other opinions.

The words ‘said’ in example 8 and ‘told’ in example 9 indicate that the author has drawn a clear distance from the point of view. At the same time, the words have left the possibility for other opinions, and also enhanced the objectivity of the article, making the article more convincing. And they persuaded readers to support author’s ideas, and built a solid relation with readers.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper takes the appraisal system in systemic functional linguistics as the theoretical framework, and analyzes the news selected in the famous American publication "Washington Post", mainly from the perspective of engagement system to explore relationship between the author-reader and the news. The interpersonal orientation and its linguistic means reveal the construction of interpersonal meaning between authors and readers in various engagement resources in news, and explore how journalists can interpret resources to show their posture, build readers, and alienate or close to the reader and establish a relationship with the readers. The appraisal theory is a new vocabulary-grammar framework based on the research process of Halliday’s functional grammar interpersonal meaning. The appraisal theory focuses on the various attitudes negotiated in the discourse, the intensity of the emotions involved, and the various ways in which the value and the readers of the union are expressed. Appraisal theory is widely used in discourse analysis, including newspaper discourse. Journalism is dedicated to guiding and disseminating a point of view, convincing the public to agree and support this view. In this paper, due to the limitation of space, the author only discusses and analyzes the application of interventional resources in political news, and the materials analyzed are from the American Press, the Washington Post and the APEC Summit on November 16, 2018. The study found that the intervening resources were regularly distributed in the discourse; even in the subsystem of engagement resources, and the author mainly analyzes it by means of multiple angles. In the analysis of this news, the dialogue shrinks more than the use of dialogue to expand resources. This shows that journalists have retained their own positions and refuted other viewpoints without losing the objectivity of the article. At the same time, they have joined the readers and, in turn, persuaded the readers to win space for dialogue between subjects. The study of intervening resources in political journals provides a new perspective for the construction of interpersonal meanings of authors and readers in discourse. In order to explore the reporter’s position in the discourse, he strives for an interpersonal space to express his own views, establish and maintain the relationship between readers with different views, and provide reference for the discourse layout. The evaluation theory, especially the intervention system, has great significance for the development and application of functional linguistics.

This paper analyzes the resources of political journalism from the perspective of evaluation theory, hoping to provide a new perspective for current research, help political news reporters to improve their insight, grasp the role of intervening resources in the construction of articles, and good understanding of how the author opens the space for interaction and negotiation through the reader-author interpersonal orientation.

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Xiaorui Huang was born in Shanxi, China in 1995. She will receive her Master's degree in English linguistics from Shanxi Normal University, in 2021.

She is currently a graduate student in her second year, and majors in Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics in Shanxi Normal University in Lin Fen, China. Her research interests include translation and language teaching practice.

Ms. Huang has published one paper about translation, named *An analysis of the Translation Style of New Cyber Words Based on Cultural Translation Theory*.

The Verb “ha” in Laki Language from the Perspective of the Head-complement Parameter; A Typological Approach

Foroogh Kazemi

Department of Linguistics, Central Tehran Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tehran, Iran

Abstract—The present article examined the function of one of Greenberg's implicational universals in the Laki language from a typological point of view and studied the word order in sentences with adposition in this language. In data analysis, the unique function of the verb “ha” became the main focus of the research. The analyses illustrated that, unlike other verbs of this language, in the sentences with adposition, in some grammatical features, this verb has the character of verb-final. In order to study this phenomenon, the article first identified and determined different linguistic elements that are the source of this unique function in different contexts. Then, referring to some important explanations of language typology, it explained the cause of this linguistic phenomenon and indicated that some motivation or forces are involved in explaining the different behavior of the verb “ha”.

Index Terms—head parameter, verb-initial, verb “ha”, typological explanations, Laki language

I. INTRODUCTION

In typology, the subject of implicational universals that is studied in the area of word-formation and syntax, was introduced by Joseph Greenberg. He states that implicational universals differ from unrestricted universals in that they do not assert that all languages belong to one type. That is, they indicate the situation for only some types. In fact, Greenberg speaks about a systematic diversity of languages and introduces implicational universals. He shows that in this type of universals, there is a relationship between “if” and “then”. For example, if a language is SOV, then it is postpositional (Croft, 2003, p. 53). Implicational universals in typology are equivalent to parameters in Generative Grammar (While unrestricted universals in typology are equivalent to the principles in Generative Grammar). These parameters or implicational universals are the basis for classifying languages into different groups.

In the classification of languages based on the head parameter, linguists pay more attention to the verb phrase and the order of the sentence components. Accordingly, languages such as English and French are considered as the head-initial, and languages such as Japanese and Korean are considered as the head-final. In head-initial languages, the verb is placed before the object, the complement, and the adjuncts. Whereas, in head-final languages the verb is placed after the object, the complement and the adjuncts (Rezaei, 2011). Most of the linguists consider Persian to be the language of the head-final because of the structure of the sentence and the verb phrase in it. There are arguments for and against this issue. For example, Moinzadeh (2005) considers Persian to be the language of the head-initial. But Karbaschi and Darzi (2009) in the article “the position of the head of the Persian inflectional phrase” illustrate that the inflectional phrase is at the end of the sentence.

Moinzadeh (2005) believes that most of the syntactic groups of Persian language such as noun phrases (NP), adjective phrases (AP) and adverbial phrases (adv. p) with prepositional phrase (PP) are considered as the head-initial and are analyzed on this basis, however, most of the grammarians and linguists have considered this language as the head-final based on the sequence of constituent elements that produce the SOV construction. Given the fact that most Persian language phrases (XPs) are head-initial, he argues if an analysis can be made for verb phrases, which does not give a significant advantage to the SOV sequence over the SVO, Persian can be analyzed primarily as the language of head-final. (Rezaei, 2011) concludes that at the beginning of the evolution, Persian was probably a complete head-final language (in harmony with its mother Indo-European language) and now in a systematic process of change, it is moving towards a head-initial language.

It was observed that in terms of the position of the head (verb), there is no consensus on the Persian language as the most important language of Iranian languages. Now, the main purpose of writing this article is to examine another language from the sub-branch of Iranian languages, Laki. It is registered as an independent Iranian language. According to linguistic studies, this language variety, has earned the title of “language”. Laki has different dialects and accents. This language belongs to the northwestern languages of the sub-branches of Iranian languages (Kazemi, 2005).

According to one of Greenberg's implicational universals, if a language is SOV then it is postpositional, and it seems that in Laki language, the position of the verbal heads in sentences that have a prepositional phrase is mainly verb-initial. But the verb “ha” in Laki is controversial in this respect and it behaves in a special way. Therefore, in this article, the author intends to answer the following questions that firstly, what is the status of Laki language in terms of the verbal

head parameter and how is the verb "ha" different from other Laki verbs? Secondly, in which linguistic elements can these differences be seen and finally, what is the probable cause or reasons for this particular performance? Therefore, the present study is conducted in an analytic method and is explained in the framework of language typology by providing examples and evidence from Laki language.

II. RELEVANT STUDIES

Some studies on the place of verb in the verb phrases have been conducted in various languages, especially in the languages of the Indo-European family. Kiparski (1996) states that the OV word order has been mostly replaced by VO, while its reverse form is rare in languages. In fact, a change to VO has happened in some branches of the Indo-European family, and Finno-Ugric. He indicates that the Germanic languages have also conformed to this trend. Zwart (1992) believes that SOV languages are head initial. Mohammad Ebrahim Jahromi (2004) has examined the structure of verb phrases in standard Persian. She considers the verb to be an element that has many morphological, syntactic, and semantic features and it is these characteristics that create the verb phrases.

However, in the case of Laki language, two researches have been done related to the subject of the article, the first of which is Moradkhani (2009) and the second is Jahani (2013). In her master's thesis, Moradkhani (2009) has examined the morphology and syntax of Laki Hersini's language (one of the Laki accents used in Harsin). In the syntactic review section, Moradkhani has shown that the verb structure in the Laki language of Harsin is the head-final by mentioning some examples. This study is one of the few studies done on the position of the verb phrases in the Laki language but apart from dialectal differences (Laki Harsini, Noorabadi and Kuhdashti, etc.), it seems that the structure of the verb in Laki language casts doubt on this conclusion. Jahani (2013) is another study that has been done in this regard. Describing some of Laki's structures based on the X-bar theory, she shows that this theory confirms the three levels of v'' , v' and v in Laki language and she has shown that this theory works well in the Laki language syntax. She concludes that in unmarked situations, the verb is in the final position.

III. HEAD PARAMETER

There are two types of universals in languages, which are principles and parameters. Principles are common to all languages. But as mentioned in the introduction, the parameters are not universal. Each parameter has two values. One of these two-value parameters is the head-complement parameter. Based on this parameter, there are two types of structures for world languages, according to which some languages are head-initial and others are head-final. There seems to be only two different possibilities and every language must either be the head-initial or the head-final. But the fact is that in different languages, the position of the head cannot be determined with certainty. In head-initial languages, the verb is placed before the object, complement, and adverbs, and the preposition is usually used. In head-final languages, the verb is placed after the object, the complement and the adjuncts, and mainly the postposition is used (Dreyer 2001, quoted by Rezaei, 2011). Greenberg raises the issue in the form of one of his implicational universals on the use of adposition and states that languages that are verb-final in the sentences with the prepositional phrases use the postposition.

We will now take a brief look at the types of verbs to examine the Laki language based on them. Farahzad (1389) divides the main sentences of the Persian language into three categories based on the verb. Sentences with intransitive verbs, sentences with transitive verbs and sentences with linking verbs (p. 17). The first type of sentences do not need an object. The second type of sentences require an object or a complement and the third type of sentences have linking verbs. The same types are seen in Laki's sentences. Zomorodi, et al. (2014) believe that linking verbs include the following two types: static verbs such as "is" indicate a fixed state of an attribute or state and dynamic verbs such as "become" that express a change of adjective or mood.

IV. THE HEAD PARAMETER FOR VERBS IN SENTENCES WITH PP

A. Verbs in Sentences with PP

In the Laki language, prepositional phrases play an important role in sentence construction, as sub-categories of the verbs. Our goal is first to determine the position of the verb in the sentences with the prepositional phrase so that we can then examine the verb "ha". Therefore, in this section, we provide the following evidence. For each sentence, the function or meaning of the words is mentioned below them and then the translation of the sentence is written. We first examine the sentences that have a prepositional phrase and their verbs are intransitive:

1-	owen	čē-n	ere	sinema
	they	went -3p pl	postposition to	cinema

(They went to the cinema.)

2-	æli	hæt	ere	mal
----	-----	-----	-----	-----

Ali came postposition to home

(Ali came home.)

Sentences 1 and 2 are verb-initial. Here are some examples of transitive sentences:

3- me toop - æ - m ayšt ær hawa

I ball - def- 1p sg throw postposition in to air

(I threw the ball in to the air.)

4- reza sæg - æy - æ mor-e: e dær

Reza dog his def take-3p sg postposition to out

(Reza takes his dog out.)

5- sara gol- æ ney-ay e goldon

Sarah flower-def put-3p sg postposition in vase

(Sarah put the flower in the pot.)

These three sentences indicate that the pp is placed after the verb, and that the Laki language uses the postposition in these cases. Here are some sentences with linking verbs:

6- me ha - m e kelas

I is - 1p sg postposition in class

(I am in the class.)

7- Pænir e yaxçal bi

cheese preposition in fridge was

(The cheese was in the fridge.)

8- reza e mal ni- yæ

Reza preposition in home not- is

(Reza is not at home.)

9- me ær e:ræ bi - m

I preposition in here was - 1p sg

(I was here.)

Sentences 6 to 9 have a linking verb. Sentence 6, like the previous sentences, is the verb-initial and the sentence has a postposition. But sentences 7, 8 and 9 show the verb-final character and the postposition is used in them. In all sentences, the same verb is used (is/was) and the difference between these three verb-final sentences and sentence 6, which is verb-initial, is only about tense and polarity. Many of Laki's verbs were examined in the same way to determine the position of the verb in this language.

30 most common verbs were analyzed in the sentence and the analysis in this section showed that sub-categories of verbs play a role in determining the position of the verb and when there is a pp in a sentence, the position of the verb is not the verb-final. If we consider such sentences as the verb-final, they will inevitably become ungrammatical. The following sentence has become ungrammatical for this reason:

10- * me ketaw - æ æ æli - m da

I book- def preposition to Ali - 1p sg gave

(I gave the book to Ali.)

But it is grammatical when it is verb-initial:

11- me ketaw - æ - m da æ æli

I book- def - 1p sg gave preposition to Ali

(I gave the book to Ali.)

Therefore, it can be said that the intransitive, transitive, and linking verbs with pp create the verb-initial character and the pp moves to the position after the verb. This fact was confirmed by examining the verbs. Of the total sentences, 18 were verb-initial, 12 cases also had both verb-initial and verb-final characters. But no verb-final was observed in the

corpus (Except for the verb "ha", which is the main purpose of the study). Therefore, it can be said that some verbs, together with the prepositional phrase, have the feature of the verb-initial and others have both verb-initial and verb-final features and they can be categorized as follows:

TABLE 1:
THE HEAD-COMPLEMENT PARAMETER FOR VERBS IN SENTENCES WITH PP

row	head-complement	verbs	number
1	head-initial	če:n (to go), hæten (to come), berden (to carry), aweden (to bring), ræsin (to receive), down (to run), basten (to tie), dayn (to give), dayn (to beat), neyayn (to put), rešonen (to pour), pašonen (to sprinkle), šekonen (to break), qaronen (to shout), qizonen (to scream), čerikonen (to scream), gerten (to take), gerten (to get),	18
2	head-final	-	0
3	head-initial and head-final	hwæten (to sleep), veten (to say), hwarden (to eat), di:n (to see), xerin (to buy), šošten (to wash), kolonen (to cook), xanin (to laugh), ayšten (to throw), persin (to ask), ništen (to sit), kišayn (to pull)	12
total			30

The results of this part of the study showed that whenever verbs come with a pp, they have the same behavior in terms of the verb-initial and verb-final. But the most important linking verb, "ha," behaves differently. This verb, together with the prepositional phrase, is head-final and only in certain contexts (the positive present tense and future tense) is head-initial. We are now trying to answer the question that is the main question of the article, why does this verb behave differently?

B. The Verb "ha"

In Laki, the verb "ha" that means "is" in the simple present tense has the following inflectional features:

TABLE 2:
INFLECTIONAL FEATURES ON VERB "HA" IN PRESENT TENSE

person	number	
	singular	plural
1 st	hæ-m (I am)	hæ-ym (we are)
2 nd	hæ-yn (you are)	hæ-yno (you are)
3 rd	hæ-se (he/ she/ it is)	hæ-n (they are)

According to the above table, this verb is used in the form of "hæ". But it can be seen in the form of "ha" in the sentences with pp.

TABLE 3:
INFLECTIONAL FEATURES ON VERB "HA" IN PRESENT TENSE IN SENTENCES WITH PP

person	number	
	singular	plural
1 st	ha-m (I am)	ha-ym (we are)
2 nd	ha-yn (you are)	ha-yno (you are)
3 rd	ha (he/ she/ it is)	ha-n (they are)

C. Comparison with Persian

Laki language is spoken in Iran. Laki and Farsi are both subdivisions of Indo-European languages. Here we have compared the use of the verb "ha" with its equivalent in Persian, which means "is" and we see it in the table below:

TABLE 4:
COMPARISON OF THE USE OF THE VERB "HA" WITH ITS EQUIVALENT IN PERSIAN

row	Laki sentences with adposition	Persian sentences with adposition	meanings
1	imæ ha-ym e mal	ma hastim (tu) xune	we are at home
2	*imæ e mal hæ-ym	ma (tu) xune hastim	we are at home
3	imæ e mal ni-men	ma (tu) xune nistim	we are not at home
4	*imæ ni-men e mal	ma nistim (tu) xune	we are not at home

It can be seen that all 4 sentences are grammatical in Persian. But the second and the fourth sentences of Laki are ungrammatical. If the second sentence is produced in the form of verb-final, it is ungrammatical. That is, in the simple present tense, it cannot be verb-final. The fourth sentence is also in the simple present tense, but in negative form. So, it cannot be verb-initial.

D. More Evidence

To show how the verb "ha" is different from other verbs, we refer to more examples. The following table shows some

examples of the use of the verb "ha":

TABLE 5:
EXAMPLES OF USE OF THE VERB "HA" IN LAKI LANGUAGE

row	Laki sentences	meanings
1	ketaw-æ ha sær me:z	The book is on the desk.
2	æli ha lo hæ:sæn	Ali is with Hassan
3	pænir-æ ha nom yaæxçal	The cheese is in the fridge.
4	owen ha-n e mal	They are at home.
5	æli ha nom mašin ?	Is Ali in the car?
6	æž e: vazeiyat-æ razi hæ-y ?	Are you satisfied with this situation?
7	ailæl e park ni-yen	The children are not in the park.
8	æli e kelas ni-yæ ?	Is n' t Ali in the class?
9	reza e madresæ ni-yæ	Reza is not in the school.
10	to æž e: mozu-æ xošhal nin ?	Aren't you happy about that?
11	æ:mæd e bazar bi?	Was Ahmed in the market?
12	æ:mæd e bazar no-wi?	Was n' t Ahmed in the market?
13	Kaškay to e mal bo-ya -yn	I wish you were at home

By examining the above sentences, it became clear that the verb "ha" in the following cases is different from other verbs. This verb in the emphatic situation (emphatic question) is a verb-final (Sentence 6). This negative verb also has the characteristic of the verb-final (7 and 9). In the form of a negative question, it is also verb-final (10). In past tenses, it is also verb-final (11 and 12). In optative mood, it is also verb-final (13). Therefore, it can be said that the features of tense (all past tenses), mood (negative indicative and optative), polarity (negation) and emphatic state (negative-question) affect verb-final order. The verb "ha" only at the positive simple present tense (and future whose form is like the present tense) is head-initial. Now that we have identified these effective factors, we will try to find out why this linguistic phenomenon occurs and explain the reason for the different behavior of the verb "ha" with a typological approach. We will do this in the next section.

V. DISCUSSION

According to Croft (2003) a principle is related to the expression of function in form. It is called iconicity or iconic motivation (p. 102). Iconicity refers to one to one correspondence between forms and functions. More semantically, is represented by more morphologically (Spencer, 1991, P. 225). He states the principle that semantically more implies morphologically more, is called construction iconicity. Spencer writes natural morphologists believe that historical changes will take place in the direction of less iconic toward more iconic. Therefore, according to Table 5 in these sentences, first an attempt is made to achieve the principle of iconicity. This language adds a negative maker morpheme to make the negation of the verb. Sentences 7 and 9 in Table 5 confirm this. It also adds two morphemes to the structure to make the past tense of the verb negative, and also to show the optative mood, it adds two morphemes to the structure. Sentences 12 and 13 of Table 5 show this. As a result, the structure of the verb becomes more complex and longer. This is done to achieve the principle of iconicity. But there is another typological principle called text frequency. According to Zipf 's Low, high frequency is the reason of small magnitude and Haiman (1985) believes that text frequency is economic motivation. In fact, the verb "ha" is short and frequent and like other common verbs, it is seen as a verb-initial. But in contexts of emphatic-question, in question-negative, and in past tenses and in optative mood, it has the feature of head-final. The verb "ha" only in the positive simple present and future tense is the head-final. Therefore, the reason for this behavior is due to the principle of frequency and the long forms of the verb remain head-final.

Economy is a principle that linguistic expressions shall be minimized where possible (Croft, 2003, p. 102). Therefore, in the case where the verb "ha" is still positive, and no negative suffix is added, and no past tense morpheme is also added, it is more economic and like other verbs, it is seen as the head-initial. When these suffixes are added, the negative verb and the negative-question verb become naturally longer and heavier. So, they are seen in the form of verbs-finals. As a result, positive question sentences are verb-initial and question-negative sentences are verb-final. It is worth mentioning that the common verbs of Laki are usually composed of one or two phonemes and have a short form and confirm the economic principle. Some of them are: æ (is), dæ (quiet), se (look), be (give), ne (don't give) that confirms this. Finally, about the function of the verb "ha" in sentences with the preposition we should say that the common verb allows the prepositional phrase to go to the post-verb position to make processing easier and better. The more economical the language, the better the processing. Croft (2003) states that economy is a processing consideration. Processing efficiency for speakers and hearers is increased by shortening the forms (p. 116). So, we can say that the verb "ha", which is both high frequency and economical, tries to achieve the principle of processing.

VI. CONCLUSION

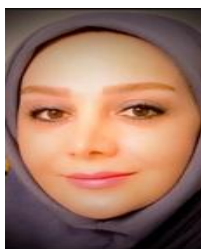
The present article examined the head-complement parameter with emphasis on the position of the verb in the Laki language, specifically the verb "ha" and studied the verb and its place in sentences with the prepositional phrase. This article shows that in this type of sentences, the head-complement parameter about the verb is often the verb-initial.

Observing both verb-initial and verb-final character in many sentences with the prepositional phrase indicates that this phenomenon may be due to the transition from the feature of the verb-final to the characteristic of the verb-initial over the time. Therefore, it can indicate the transition stage. Hence, it can be argued that in this respect, Laki is similar to other Indo-European languages and the obtained results are in line with the results of Kiparski's (1996) study on German languages and Rezaei (2011) on Persian language.

The findings of this paper also showed that the function of the verb "ha" in sentences with pp in the Laki language differs from other verbs in this language in terms of the position of the verb. After reviewing and determining the cases that show the different performance of this verb, we tried to find out the reasons for these differences. From a typological point of view, the findings of this study show that the verb "ha" is the head-initial only in the positive simple present and future, to achieve the three principles of text frequency, processing, and economy. But in the above-mentioned grammatical features, it is seen as the head-final to achieve the principle of iconicity. In other words, the verb 'ha' to follow these three motivations or three important principles, has the verb-initial feature. But in some special contexts, to achieve iconicity, has the characteristics of the verb-final. These motivations are constantly competing to prove themselves and explain the linguistic phenomenon in question so that they have also been called competing motivations.

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Forough Kazemi was born in Iran in 1974. She is associate professor of linguistics in Central Tehran Branch, Islamic Azad University in Iran. She has published 61 articles (most of them cited in google scholar) and 15 books in linguistics. She has been teaching at graduate and Ph.D. levels in linguistics. Dr. Kazemi has been advisor, reader and referee of many linguistic theses and judge of articles in journal of linguistics. She is a member of research council in faculty of foreign languages at Central Tehran Branch. She is also a member of editorial board, quarterly of language and literature: *Parneyan Kheyal*. Her areas of interest are functional linguistics, sociolinguistics, language typology and discourse analysis.

A Study on College English High-efficiency Class Based on Blended Teaching Mode of Flipped Classroom

Yong Wang

School of Foreign Languages, University of Ji'nan, Ji'nan, Shandong, China

Abstract—Under the background of Internet+education, college English, as a compulsory course for non-English majors, urgently needs a new teaching mode and teaching reform. Aiming at the existing problems of college English teaching, new teaching model of college English course based on blended teaching mode of flipped class will expand the depth of high-efficiency classroom, adding difficulties of the class teaching content, improving students' academic challenges, and forcing the students to change from passive learning to active learning, thus to enhance the students' interests in learning, and promote the formation of students' individualized learning methods and the development of students' autonomous learning ability.

Index Terms—flipped classroom, blended teaching mode, college English, high-efficiency classroom

I. INTRODUCTION

College English teaching is an integral part of higher education. As a compulsory course for non-English majors, college English teaching reform has advanced with the Times and made some achievements in recent years, but the classroom, as the main front of teaching, has not become the focus of the reform, and the teaching effect has not been substantially improved. Under the background of diversified and personalized network digital teaching methods and learning methods, college English teaching and learning urgently need a new teaching model and educational reform (Bi, 2019). How to improve the efficiency of classroom teaching, which is the main link of the teaching reform, how to expand the depth of the curriculum, and how to promote the formation of students' personalized learning methods and independent learning ability has become an urgent problem to be solved.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Concept of Flipped Classroom

Flipped classroom is the reversed process of transferring knowledge in class and internalizing knowledge after class in traditional teaching. That is to teach knowledge out of the class. Teachers create course videos and let students watch the teaching micro video before the class, who could read the related teaching materials and grasp the importance and difficulty of the course before hand. At the same time teachers provide appropriate exercises to check the students' learning result; then teachers internalize the knowledge, and focus on solving the problems that students fail to master before class (Han, 2018). In the whole reversed process, cooperation and communication between teachers and students, students and students, are created so as to achieve better teaching effect.

B. Concept of Blended Teaching Mode

Blended teaching mode, which developed from the popularization of information technology, is a new teaching mode which appears in education area. Blended teaching mode was first put forward by Cooney and Laughlin (2000) in the study of preschool children's education. It integrates the advantages of real classroom teaching with the merits of digital or online teaching. Blended teaching mode enables teachers to fully perform their duties to guide, enlighten and monitor the teaching process. It also aims to fully inspire the autonomy, enthusiasm and creativity of students who act as the master of their own study.

Blended teaching mode is an elevation of teaching ideas, which will change students' cognitive styles and teachers' teaching methods and roles (Driscoll, 2002). This kind of change requires not only the change of form, but also the analysis of each student's needs, teaching modules and actual teaching environment, making full use of the complementary advantages of online teaching and classroom teaching to improve students' cognitive effect.

In recent years, with the ongoing promotion of internet and the innovation of education in China, teaching methods based on information technology have been gradually used in college English teaching. Compared with the traditional teaching mode, multimedia teaching in the network environment does bring benefits. College English, as a language learning subject, needs students to show higher autonomy and creativity in the process of learning. Hence, combining online teaching with traditional teaching and designing blended teaching mode in a new way will better meet the needs of college English teaching (Huang, 2006).

C. *The Connotation of High-efficiency English Classroom*

The so-called high-efficiency class is a kind of teaching mode which is opposite to the low-efficiency and ineffective class. In the process of constructing high-efficiency English class, multiple teaching methods are adopted in strict accordance with the syllabus, and the students become the performers in diverse classroom activities, which fully embodies the essence of education. Teachers actively guide and encourage the students to participate in the independent study and the innovative discussion, and perform the high-quality and high-standard tasks in a certain time. It can be said that through the construction of high-efficiency classroom, it is beneficial to realize the high-level teaching goal of education.

III. ANALYSIS

A. *Requirements of the Nation and the Society*

The teaching goal in National College English Curriculum requirements (2007) is to cultivate students' comprehensive English application ability and enhance their self-learning ability. The teaching mode should adopt the English teaching mode based on computer and classroom, fully respect the leading role of teachers and the dominant position of students, and promote the formation of students' unique learning methods and the autonomy of students' learning.

The Outline of the Medium and Long Term Development Plan for National Educational Reform (2000-2020) clearly points out that it is necessary to regard education as the fundamental requirement of educational work and view reform and innovation as powerful driving forces for educational development.

In view of the educational reform, the 18th National Congress of the Communist Party of China (CPC) further put forward that quality education should be carried out on all sides, comprehensive reform in the field of education should be deepened, and the quality of education should be raised, and the students should be nurtured to create a new spirit (Chen, 2013).

At the 11th China university teaching forum held in Guangzhou in November 2018, Wu Yan, director of the higher education department of the ministry of education, said that "curriculum is the core element of talent cultivation. The most direct, core and effective thing that students benefit from university is the curriculum"[3]. At the same time, Wu Yan put forward the "golden class" standard, which can be summed up as high level, innovation and challenge.

From the social aspect, at present, the demand for students in the society is to be a all-around talent with practical ability and innovative spirit. However, overemphasizing exams stifles students' creative thinking. If the current teaching mode could not be changed and the crammed lecturing still dominates the class, it will be difficult to cultivate talents who will make great contributions.

From the school aspect, as the follow-up stage of senior high school and the preparatory stage before entering the society, it is of necessity to implement teaching reform. Classroom design and efficiency directly affect students' mastery of knowledge and cultivation of ability, which is an important part of teaching reform.

B. *The Deficiency of Current College English Teaching Mode*

Although the college students' English level has had a certain foundation after learning for at least 6 years in schools, it does not mean that the students no longer need to learn English. At present, college English education is mainly classroom-oriented, but because of the differences in students' learning ability and learning methods, the indoctrination-based teaching method is not suitable for every student's learning, and a single teaching process cannot meet the needs of students at different levels. Therefore, contemporary college English teaching needs to update teaching ideas and teaching methods constantly, and change the past infusion teaching mode. It is necessary to gradually change the teacher-oriented classroom mode into a student-centered classroom teaching mode.

English Learning includes listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating. Although the traditional classroom teaching methods are constantly innovating, but listening practice, the most important link in English learning, is not enough, and listening practice in traditional English class is mainly listening to English recordings, watching films and television materials. There is not so many practical materials for listening. Also, the training of speaking mainly focuses on answering the teachers' questions and role-playing in class, and the enthusiasm and total amount of students' participation could not be guaranteed. Reading materials for reading materials are mainly the original texts lacking practical information. Writing and translation practice are mainly some homework left by the teacher, and the exercises after class are far from enough. Therefore, a learning way that can greatly increase classroom efficiency and promote students' autonomous learning after class is urgently needed, in order to make up for the shortcomings in teaching, and to increase the opportunities for students to express themselves and practice after class.

The limitation of traditional teaching mode lies in that the teaching space is too narrow, only limited to the classroom. But the online teaching breaks through the limitation of space, enriches the content of classroom teaching and enhances students' interest in learning. And according to the learning ability of different students, different learning programs after-class can be conducted.

C. *The Benefits of Blended Teaching Mode Used in College English Class*

Blended teaching mode benefits not only students, but also teachers. In the meanwhile, blended teaching mode

diversifies evaluation methods and makes assessing procedure more rational and fairer.

1. Benefits to students

Firstly, Blended teaching mode benefits students. Blended teaching mode can inspire students' autonomy of learning and improve their academic performance. In America, Doctor Canola. Twigg established a Programming Course Redesign to study that whether blended teaching mode is more useful than traditional classroom teaching method. The program got 880 million fund supports from Pew Charitable Trusts and it gave these supports to 30 different schools to adopt blended learning. From 1999 to 2004 the outcome showed that of 30 courses, 25 courses witnessed the significant improvement of students' learning. Besides, they also found out that students could complete more curriculum than ever and they acquired positive learning attitude. This research proved that blended learning reduces the dependence on teachers and arouses autonomy: Students themselves search information online to do their assignments instead of waiting for teachers to tell them everything. It is valuable firstly because they acquire the awareness of autonomous learning and after owning this consciousness, they will learn actively. Students study online to get more information to fully understand the topic that teachers have mentioned. In the process of searching the topic, students think more and have a deeper understanding of the topic. For example, the foreign teacher Robert Cettl in University of Jinan adopts such a blended learning system. When he gives students a certain topic, they search much information online to understand the topic. Then they discuss in groups and compare notes, which can not only help them learn new things but also enhance their awareness of cooperation.

Another example is worth attention: Yan Yan, a student at Central China Normal University, is preparing a class presentation of language teaching and learning principles next week. During the process, not only did he have to prepare for the teaching material in advance, read the online materials uploaded by teachers, but also had to sum up and extracted the essence even rehearsed in the dormitory. Thus students have more independent thinking, which does good to their development.

2. Benefits to teachers

Blended teaching mode is good for teachers to find everyone's potential. If students have questions, they can contact teachers online. In the face-to-face classroom there may be fewer chances for students to communicate with teachers, but online communication both can have more interactions. Rather than playing the role of a dominator – as they did in a traditional classroom – teachers can now give their instruction to help all students develop their full potential.

Blended teaching mode improves academic performance and assists teachers in teaching and help teachers improve themselves. Blended instruction is good for teachers to renew the concept of education, diversify teaching methods and eventually become teaching experts. In China, teachers are usually centers of the whole teaching process and students passively receive what teachers says as authorities, which have been existing for a long time. This traditional mode does cause some problems, such as, students lack self-learning awareness and teachers also don't diversify and update their teaching methods.

But blended teaching mode greatly solves these problems. With the help of the blended teaching mode, teachers play roles of being an organizer, conductor and helper. These roles require them to pay attention to each student and take more efforts to improve their teaching.

Teaching philosophy of paying attention to the brand-new guidance of teaching and advocating innovation puts higher requirements for teachers' work. A teacher in Central China Normal University said that the time spent in teaching is two to three times more than that of the previous period, but it is worth it. First of all, the teaching ability is promoted. Secondly, in the situation of attaching great importance to scientific research and ignore teaching in many colleges and universities, the school has its own innovation in the assessment system. The two most obvious changes are the Central China Normal University decides to start an evaluation programme of "teaching-type professors". The first prize is 100,000 yuan, and the first prize course will become the innovation demonstration course of the reform. A number of young teachers grow up and stand out, thus blended teaching benefits teachers as well.

3. Benefits to teaching assessment

Furthermore, blended teaching mode diversifies evaluation methods and makes assessing procedure more rational and fairer. Since the reform of school teaching, most of the subject assessment methods have been changed. In the past, the final examination results were given priority to. Now, attendance, class discussions, forum speeches, assignments and quizzes are recorded through the "cloud classroom platform". The teacher could make observation on the whole process. Thus, the new assessment is fairer and more reasonable.

IV. DISCUSSION

A. Principles of Applying Blended Teaching Mode into College English Class

First, changing the traditional teaching mode which focused on teaching and adopting a new teaching mode which pays more attention to learning are necessary. One of the biggest characteristics of online teaching is to give full play to the enthusiasm, autonomy and creativity of students, thus teaching can really become student-centered. Teachers can only act as organizers, helpers and promoters throughout the teaching process. According to Ma (2002), as far as college English teaching is concerned, references can be made to the following teaching procedures. This teaching process is divided into four links: (1) In order to facilitate students' self-study, teachers should tell students the teaching progress and class hours of each unit in advance. The learning steps can be used as a reference for students. (2) After learning

through online courseware or listening to online teaching, they will feed back the difficulties and doubts they encounter to the teacher. (3) After receiving the feedback of students, teachers can go back to the traditional classroom to answer questions and solve questions, and at the same time check the learning effect of students. (4) Students return to the study of network courseware, review what they have learned earlier, and do the relevant exercises and self-test questions assigned on the courseware. Also, the students with higher capacity can start the preview part of the next unit courseware ahead of time.

Secondly, the teaching mode of teacher-centred should be changed. And cooperation between teachers is advocated. Specifically, it means that experienced and influential teachers could be in charge of online teaching, young teachers in charge of classroom teaching. At present, there are lots of foreign language teachers who have profound professional skills and rich teaching experience. However, in traditional classroom teaching, due to time and energy constraints, they can only afford to teach two or three classes, and the number of students in the class is so limited that greatly limits teaching effect of beneficiary students. In the meanwhile, it also caused the loss of teacher resources. While in online teaching, the background knowledge, language points, and text analysis can be made into the relevant network teaching courseware (such as PowerPoint). In this way, not only has the teaching effect been greatly improved, but also, more importantly, the number of beneficiary students has been expanded. It avoids the waste of teacher resources and realizes the sharing of superior resources.

B. Strategies of Blended Teaching Mode Used in English Class

In order to apply blended teaching mode into practice to improve college English class efficiency, teachers should give students the opportunities to learn independently and some basic requirements should be exploited.

1. Combining traditional teaching with online teaching

The main place of college English teaching is still the classroom. In order to improve the teaching efficiency and teaching effect in the classroom, establishing a good relationship between teachers and students seems more crucial and an active learning atmosphere is needed. During the teaching process, the teacher records the problems existing in the students' learning process by summing up the students' learning characteristics. In this way, the formulation of network teaching objectives and plans are more targeted, so as to achieve better teaching effect.

2. Interacting under multimedia network

As a language, English needs students to have synchronized vision and audition in the process of learning. The traditional teaching mode can not meet the needs of current learning needs. With the ongoing development of multimedia technology in the network environment, multimedia teaching has been widely used in the process of English teaching, and the teaching effect is obvious. The application of multimedia technology in English teaching can realize the synchronization of students' vision and audition, and improve the efficiency of English teaching to a great extent through the application of teaching courseware. There are two main forms of multimedia technology in network teaching. On the one hand, multimedia demonstration teaching is adopted. The main teaching form is to integrate the teaching content into multimedia courseware, which can steadily reduce the workload of teachers and enhance the teaching effect. The sounds, images and photos used in courseware can help students synchronize vision and audition better. It can effectively help students remember language points. It is superior to the traditional English teaching mode.

On the other hand, online interactive teaching is applied. In the multimedia teaching environment, a large number of information is transmitted to students in the form of images or sounds or words, and the communication between students and teachers is realized at the same time. The teacher arranges the teaching content scientifically by analyzing the result of the students' study. Through the monitoring technology, teachers can know the learning dynamics of students at any time, as a result of cultivating students' autonomous learning ability, and other abilities to analyze and approach problems by themselves.

3. Adopting three learning styles

Under blended teaching circumstances, three learning styles are required. First, autonomous learning is required. Language learning is highly demanding for autonomous learning, and the realization of autonomous learning requires students to have independent learning ability and positive learning enthusiasm. Although the teaching under the network media is the simulation of the real teaching occasions, it is also the actual existence of teaching. Through the comprehensive application of sound, image and text, the reading, translation and explanation of the text can be realized, and the online practice and troubleshooting in the classroom can also be realized, thus the students' comprehensive English level can be improved in an all-round way.

Secondly, interactive learning should be implemented. Different from other subjects, the ultimate goal of language learning is to realize the application in life, so the learning of English should realize the communication of language, that is, interactive learning. The teaching under the network environment can realize this characteristic of the language discipline very well.

Thirdly, cooperative learning should be advocated. Cooperation can be realized among students through online learning, such as in some short English conversations, in classroom impromptu language expression. Students do not need to cooperate in groups like traditional classroom teaching. Through the network platform, group cooperation could be achieved and complete the exercise together. Learning in the network environment responds well to the requirements of the new curriculum teaching standards. Students simplify the tedious questions through cooperation. In the process of cooperation, students can experience the fun of learning English, which can improve students' enthusiasm for learning,

and improve students' cooperative ability, so as to better adapt to the society.

C. The Concrete Construction of High-efficiency College English Class

The core content of the efficient classroom teaching reform should take the students' learning as the fundamental starting point to achieve the purpose of building a good classroom teaching soft environment (Liu, 2017). For this reason, classroom teaching consists of four links:

1. Previewing online and study independently before Class

Online learning can give full play to students' autonomy in learning. In this link, students become the main body of teaching. Based on this, this model requires students to learn the course content (especially the teaching topic) actively by video watching, data collection, online query, sketch drawing to preview the text and complete guide learning sheet of the teaching content for further study of classroom teaching.

Before each class, the teacher releases the learning task on the network platform, the students work on the pre-class tasks according to the learning content arranged by the teacher, and study the network resources with the question or learn to master some grammar points through quizzes.

2. Situational exploration and class presentations

On the basis of students' self-study before class, teachers guide students to conduct self-interpretation and self-exploration of teaching contents by presenting teaching cases (or creating teaching situations). Class presentation is an important part of this model. In class, students should review the learning situation of this section by individuals or groups, and demonstrate and communicate with the whole class. During the process, each student will be a thinker, and a quiet listener. The classroom presentation can be given in the form of written or dubbing works, songs, mind maps, etc., to summarize and show the achievements, opinions, consensus and problems that still need to be discussed in the next class. During this process, students can exercise their cooperative learning ability.

3. Flipping the Classroom teaching

Flipping the classroom teaching begins by reviewing the problems that exist in the former class. Teachers mainly teach the important and difficult parts of the course in the classroom, so that the students can quickly master the knowledge of the course. Teachers arouse students' enthusiasm for learning through group discussions, speeches, debates and other classroom activities. They encourage students to give full play to creative thinking to explore problems, and promote students' acquisition of English language. This teaching method has also given full play to the leading role of teachers in the classroom. Before the class is over, both teachers and students should evaluate the reversal effect of the classroom in order to understand the learning effect and promote the classroom teaching.

4. Feedback and effect evaluation

After-class feedback is an essential part of the blended teaching mode of college English. In the off-class online learning link, teachers can provide extended resources to assist students in learning further (Wen, 2014). Teachers can communicate with students online and reflect on how to teach better. Moreover, students can also interact and exchange ideas with their classmates to ensure the implementation of students' online learning effect.

The blended teaching mode evaluation includes teachers' self-evaluation, students' self-evaluation, phase evaluation, comprehensive evaluation and so on. Under the blended teaching mode, the diversified evaluation system can play a significant role in promoting the perfection of teaching evaluation system in higher education.

In addition, the construction of the blended teaching mode must have certain conditions: First, teachers should have certain professional knowledge and modern information technology, and can make certain micro-class videos. Secondly, schools should have an online teaching platform, through which students can obtain free learning resources and exchange information with each other.

V. CONCLUSION

Blended teaching mode of flipped classroom is a new emerging topic and it is attracting increasing attention from many countries. It is an innovation of teaching method influenced by the development of information technology. The current deficiencies in college English class also require us to update the teaching mode. Now, it should be widely accepted that blended teaching mode will be used in college English class. This paper just makes a skin-deep study of it. More studies of other scholars are expected.

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Yong Wang was born in Jining, China in 1977. He received his Master degree in linguistics from University of Jinan, China in 2012.

He is currently an associate professor in the School of Foreign Languages, University of Jinan, Jinan, China. His research interests include teaching and intercultural communication.

English Tense Teaching in Junior High School Based on Prototype Theory—Taking the Simple Present Tense as an Example

Lei Guo

School of Foreign Languages and Literatures, Chongqing Normal University, Chongqing, China

Junhua Wang

School of Foreign Languages and Literatures, Chongqing Normal University, Chongqing, China

Abstract—Simple present tense, an indispensable part of grammar, is the first tense that junior high school students need to grasp in China. In fact, the time things happen does not always correspond with the speech time. Therefore, in the process of teaching, there are some difficulties which would exert great negative influence on students' understanding of tense. There are five usages of simple present tense: state, habitual, instantaneous, past and future usage. On the basis of the prototype theory of categorization, these five usages in simple present tense are all members of this category. Moreover, the present-connectiveness, as the family resemblance, combines these five usages into the present tense category. It is necessary and meaningful for teachers to integrate prototype theory with tense-teaching. In other words, teachers can help students establish a network system which holds all usages of this tense. It can greatly ease students' burdens in comprehension and memory with the forms and usages of the simple present tense. Eventually, the teaching efficiency can be improved to some extent.

Index Terms—simple present tense, prototype theory, family resemblance, tense-teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

English tense, as an important part of grammar, has been studied by many linguists and grammarians. Teaching tense is the key point of grammar-teaching. Just as the simple present tense represents the current time, the past tense describes something happened in the past and the future tense refers to the events will happen in the future. However, there are some special usages that cannot be explained clearly and distinguished easily in this way. For example, simple present tense is not only used to express something happens at present, it can also refer to something happened in the past and will happen in the future. Prototype theory, appeared in the 1970s, can be applied in tense-teaching. It can be considered that all the usages of this tense belong to same category. In the case, prototype category theory would provide more plausible explanations about the usages of tense.

II. ABOUT THE TENSE

A. *The Definition of Tense*

The term of tense, has been derived from the Latin words “tempus” which means time. Tense is an important part of the grammar. Verbs have many forms that show the time, continuance, completion of any action or state that is expressed by the verb. In fact, tense has been intensively studied by a lot of scholars at home and abroad. Some linguists believe it is through the role of tense that we can have a better understanding of the correlation between the verb form and our cognition to the specific time presenting in the past or future as well as present. Zhang Daozhen (2001) argues that tense indicates different finite verb forms showing the time of actions or events.

Through the comprehensive comparison and analysis of the English tense, it can be concluded that time is the content of tense, and tense is the grammatical form of time.

Although there are some differences between the scholars' views, they basically hold that tense is in the category of grammar and it can be combined with time to convey the multiple meanings and functions of the verb.

B. *The Importance of Tense-teaching in English Teaching*

Teaching tense is essential and cannot be ignored in English teaching. For one thing, tense can help students master four basic skills of English, namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing. Listening and reading are the skills of input. Speaking and writing are the skills of output. The effective and comprehensible output also requires the correct usage of tenses, because correct usage of tenses helps students communicate with others precisely and improves students' writing proficiency.

English and Chinese differ dramatically in expressing time and time relationships with events. Owing to the negative

transfer of mother tongue, Chinese students are inclined to make mistakes easily when they learn English tense. In fact, the forms of Chinese verb are always the same. To express different forms and time relationships with events, Chinese often add “着、了、过” which follow at the end of the verbs, while a native speaker of English uses different forms of verb to express the time relations. Tense teaching becomes more essential to help the students make fewer mistakes in the process of learning English in China. Additionally, tense is complicated, there are a lot of infinite forms of single verb in English. For example, “take” doesn’t only have the forms of “took, takes, taking, taken, will take” but also the forms of “is taking, has been taking, have been taking, was taking”. Such multi-forms of a word make it difficult for students to master all usages of tense. Therefore, for Chinese students, tense-teaching is a hard nut to crack. Without tense-teaching, students would make some mistakes which will hinder their efficiency of learning. Therefore, much importance should be attached to the tense-teaching.

III. PROBLEMS WITH TENSE-TEACHING IN MIDDLE SCHOOLS

A. *Too Much Emphasis on Communicative Ability, But Undue Attention to Grammatical Rules*

Nowadays, many English teachers value the communicative ability of students while ignoring the grammatical knowledge. CLT is popular in China. However, there are many teachers who cannot grasp the real meaning of this teaching method and some of them think grammar is of little importance. In practice, they provide a multiple of communicative chances for students but rarely mention the usages of tense in class. If one student can fluently speak with others and give responses naturally, teachers will deem that their teaching aims are achieved. Students cannot produce completely correct sentences because lacking of sufficient grammar knowledge. In a sense, a learner cannot avoid making mistakes concerning the grammar. Thus, paying more attention on grammar teaching is essential to the students’ English learning.

B. *Teacher’s Incorrect Recognition of Tense*

Students’ learning efficiency greatly depends on teachers. English teachers have to get a good understanding of tenses so that students can learn it with less effort. It’s widely observed that quite parts of teachers misunderstand that the function of tense is to denote time just as what they have learned before. And for a long time, they have had such a wrong understanding of tense which would naturally have a bad influence on students’ tense-learning. Unfortunately, teachers would meet some special usages of tenses, namely, time does not always correspond to tense. In that case, teachers would explain them as “fixed usage” and ask students recite these rules at the same time. In fact, teachers cannot completely convince students because they cannot accept such an explanation, which leads to the bewilderment of students after learning. When students do some exercises, they are often confused because not all questions can be solved by the rules they recited. What’s worse, it also brings one potential threat that students would be bored with tense learning. Above all, teacher’s incorrect recognition of tense would have negative effects on students.

C. *Students’ Incorrect Recognition of Tense*

Actually, many junior school students can remember the basic usages of tense which is not difficult for them. However, they cannot appropriately master all usages of tense in some certain contexts because they lack cognitive abilities. For example, students cannot choose the right form of verbs in doing the multiple-choice exercises and there are many forms of verb that they cannot distinguish. Under this situation, students are often confused about the tense and mistakenly understand the tense. It is caused by their incorrect recognition of tenses. Students believe that tenses are only used to describe time and the forms of the verb, and it has to correspond with the time. The reason of this may be related to the development of students’ cognitive competence. They often memorize the rules and forms of the tense, but they are not capable to reorganize a model of the tense or classify the usages of tenses. Gradually, students have difficulty in telling the correct form of verb from similar ones, which directly leads to their poor mastery of tense.

IV. THEORETIC FRAMEWORK: PROTOTYPE THEORY

A. *The Introduction to the Prototype Theory*

The word of category stems from the Greek and means “identify”. It is related to the concept of categorization. Ungerer & Schmid (2008) argues that the mental process of classification is now commonly called categorization, and its products are categories. Categorization refers to the human’s ability to categorize or judge whether a thing is the instance of a particular category or not and this ability has become an indispensable aspect of our cognition. From this view, we can get the view that categorization exists in human beings’ daily life and it is a good approach for us to classify concrete things as well as abstract things. Category theory, as an important theory of cognitive linguistics, dates back to the philosophy. Aristotle, the advocator of classic theory, deems that there is a clear boundary in different categories and different entities are classified into a category according to their commonness.

In the last decades, there are more scholars who explored the theory of category and they made some findings in the light of some experiments. In 1953, the anthropologist Ludwig Wittgenstein put forward the principle of family resemblance. In the 1970s, the famous American psychologist Rosch who first brought forward the terminology “prototype” that provides plentiful evidences for the future research. As far as prototype theory is concerned, it holds

that all members of a category may be related to one another without all members having any properties in common that define the category (Ungerer & Schmid, 2008). The boundary of categories is fuzzy and all members of one category have different statuses. Some of them may share all or most attributes of category which are called prototype while others are less typical even marginal or peripheral.

Above all, the prototype category theory is studied by the scholars all the time and it does make great contribution to the development of society. In fact, human beings can use the prototype theory to classify different entities in the world. At the same time, the process of cognition of the language is similar to the non-verbal concepts, so it can be assumed that language can also be studied by using this theory.

B. The Analysis of Simple Present Tense in the Sight of Prototype Theory

In 1978, Rosch pointed out that all the categories established by human beings are, in fact, prototypical categories. The grammatical categories, as a member of man-made categories, should be prototypical. In fact, there is one person, Taylor who has analyzed the usages of the past tense in a cognitive way in 2001. It is obvious that we can analyze the simple present tense based on the corpus in the cognitive way.

According to the BNC (British National Corpus), there are about 60 contexts with the usage of simple present tense. By analyzing the corpus, the most frequently used one is the state usage which is also the prototypical one.

Eg1: The moon turns round the earth.

Eg2: The sun rises in the east.

Eg3: He is a boy.

From the above sentences, it is known to us that this usage often describes the objective facts or states. Actually, these facts or truths stand for one kind of state that could continue all the time and would never be changed as time goes by. It is true all the time, no matter in the past, at present or in the future. It is certain that the actions happened in the past, and can continue in the future beyond the present time. In the first example, moon turns round the earth, this state holds the speech time. At the point of speaking, the moon is turning around the earth. So, it is quite obvious that the event time coincides with the speech time even though it is not restricted. According to Rosch, "each item has at least one, and probably several, elements in common with one or more other items" (Rosch, 1975: P.575). In the third example, when the speaker talks and he was a boy in the past and he will be a boy in the future. From the perspective of cognitive linguistics, the state usage is the prototype in the category of simple present tense because it has many family resemblances and all share some similar attributes of this category. The state usage, easy to master, is used by people frequently so it is in the central position of this category.

Indeed, there are several usages of simple present tense except state usage. According to the BNC, they are listed depending on the frequency of their usage. It is worth of attention that these usages can be classified into the non-prototypical category. It doesn't mean that they are different completely. On the contrary, there are some links or similarities between them. There are some examples:

1. Habitual usage of the simple present tense

Eg1: He walks to school every day.

Eg2: Mrs. Simpson regularly goes to church on Sunday.

From these two examples, it is clear that it is similar to the state usage. To some extent, the speaking time is not in accord with the event or action time. In the first example, "going to school by foot" is his habit and it doesn't mean that he walks to school only at the speaking time. In the second example, it means that Mrs. Simpson goes to church other than Sundays, maybe he went to the church in the past and he will go to the church in the future. Therefore, the action time cannot correspond to the speaking time. Comrie claims that "sentence with habitual meaning not only refers to a sequence of situations recurring at intervals, but rather to a habit, a characteristic situation that holds all at times" (Comrie, 2005: P.39). Indeed, the action of going to church is not always happening on the speaking time, it is also true in the past and future. However, it should be admitted that the action is consistent with the time when the speaker meets Mrs. Simpson who is on the way to the church. From this perspective, it can be consumed that the habitual usage of simple present tense has some attributes shared by prototype although there are some differences. It is the member of the usage of the simple present tense category.

2. Instantaneous usage of the simple present tense

More specifically, it is used for actions in a time which are happening now, the present point of time. Thus, the following sentences can be good examples: (1) I declare the meeting open. (2) I pronounce you man and wife. (3) I sentence you ten-year imprisonment. (4) Michael passes the ball to Tim. Tim moves out to 3-point range, he shoots. In the first sentence, it means the action of "open" happens when the speaker speaks. In the second sentence, this is the declaration of a priest on wedding. And the third sentence, this comes from the judge. As for the last one, it is the saying of a sports commentator. In fact, these sentences are used rarely in human's daily life. Above all, these sentences all describe the event or action occurring at the present moment, namely, the time that speaker speaks. So this kind of usage is transient. It is clear that the present tense basically expresses something which happens at the present time. From this point, it can be said that the instantaneous usage shares some attributes of the state usage. On the basis of this analysis, the instantaneous usage shows the intimate link with the action and the present time. More importantly, it can be concluded that the instantaneous usage should belong to this category.

3. Past usage of the simple present tense

According to BNC, simple present tense is often used in the state and habitual contexts, but it can also refer to events or actions which happened in the past time in practice. There are some examples as following:

Eg1: Alice tells me you're entering college next year.

Eg2: I hear poor old Mrs. Smith has lost her son.

In these two examples, verbs are "tells" and "hear" instead of using "told" or "heard", which is a little bit difficult to understand. In fact, it is the special usage of the simple present tense. In the first sentence, the speaker just repeats what Alice said. The action "you enter college" will happen in the next year and it is not conform to the speaking time. In the second sentence, "my hearing of Mrs. Smith has lost her son" happens earlier than "my retelling of this event". In fact, the event time isn't accord accordance with the speech time. It is obvious that this phenomenon can be analyzed from the cognitive perspective. It can be said that it is related to the speaker's psychological distance. In other words, the speaker speaks with this tense out of his own purpose. The speaker can shorten the distance between the event and his performance of speaking in this way. Apparently, this event leaves an unforgettable impression on the speaker, so the speaker wants to make the listener or the reader easily experience the event which happened in the past. It can make them feel that the scene is truthful and vivid. Not surprisingly, it seems that this usage shares little similarity with the prototypical usage of simple present tense, the state usage can also refer to the event happened in the past as "The sun rises in the east". And it also has the present-connectiveness in some degree. At this point, the historic usage also belongs to the category of simple present tense although it is not the best examples of this category.

4. Future usage of the simple present tense

Undoubtedly, simple present usage can also indicate the event which will happen in the future, it is the special usage as the historical usage.

(1) The train leaves at 6:30, so we have enough time to prepare.

(2) If it rains tomorrow, the sports meeting will be canceled.

We can learn that the event time is after the present moment from the first sentence. But here is "leaves" rather than "leaving", the train doesn't leave at the speech time. Many grammarians think that is often used in some contexts in which the event must happen and hardly be changed. It is the plan or the arrangement which was arranged in advance. In the second example, it is clear that there comes a conjunction "if", which introduces adverbial clauses of condition. In such sentences, some events might happen or might be true. In tomorrow, it will be rainy. But one thing we have to notice is that future tense will be used in the main clause of this context. On account of such reasons, this point becomes difficult to teach and learn. Although the event time isn't in accord with the speech time in these contexts, there are some similarities with the state usage, it also has family resemblance and it is the bad examples of this category.

Above all, the simple present tense is analyzed from the cognitive view. The simple present tense is basically used to refer states or at present which is easy to understand. Learner can master this kind of usage at first. It is not surprising that state usage is the prototype of this category, while there are four usages of simple present tense which are non-prototypical. In these four usages, habitual and instantaneous usages have some similarities with the state usage, and they are good examples of this category. Besides, the past and future usages seem to be bad examples. It can be said that they are the special usages of the simple present tense, in which the event time has no direct link with the speech time. It seems that they are hard to grasp. Although they are different from the prototypical usage, they have some similarity with the state usage and are the bad examples of this category.

V. THE APPLICATION OF PROTOTYPE THEORY IN TEACHING SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE

From the 1980s, cognitive linguistics has become popular in English. And many scholars deem that it can be used in teaching vocabulary, reading, listening and grammar. However, it is a question need to explore that how to put the prototype category theory in the practical tense teaching in junior high school. In fact, there are two aspects of teaching tense, which are all of vital importance, one is the form of the simple present tense, and the other is the meaning and the usage of it.

A. Teaching the Form of Simple Present Tense

It is mentioned that the form and the tense are not consistent, but we have to recognize that the forms of the simple present tense are crucial. Without it, students cannot know the frame of this tense; they cannot describe the things or something they want to express. There are two forms of the simple present tense, the first one is "be", including three forms, "am, is, are". Although they would be used in different contexts, they are all in a network or a category. "be" is the super-ordinate category of "am, is, are". Students often make some mistakes when they do exercises. For example, many students tend to use "be" in some sentences, "There be 40 students in the class". Thus, it shows that students are inclined to memorize the basic form of the simple present tense while neglecting how to change "be" into "am, is, are" in different sentences. For one thing, it is caused by students' carelessness. For another, it is because their cognitive ability is in a low level in junior school. English teachers can do something to improve students' learning ability. The explanation of the form should be valued and the way of explanation should be changed. Teachers could take the cognitive view when they teach the usage of "be". "Am, is, are" are the subordinate of "be", but these four words are not the same. This way would be beneficial to students' cognition, so that they can understand that "am, is, are" are not separated but have some similarities. Importantly, they should be used in different contexts.

Another one is the verb, including auxiliary and notional verbs, namely, “do” or “verb”. In reality, this is the most difficult point for students to grasp. The third person singular is involved in the usage of verbs in the simple present tense. Junior high school students often forget to change the form of verbs. English teachers can also explain to students by taking the category theory. “do” is the simple form and “does” is the variant of “do”. Although they are different in some degree, they are in the same category. If teachers can introduce the basic form, students can find a lot of variants of this form then master these forms with less effort. In addition, Teachers’ own recognition should be changed. They have to ask students to understand the basic form of the simple present tense because the prototypical form is easy for students to understand and remember. To conclude, category theory, as an effective way, can be adopted by teachers when they teach the forms of the simple tense.

B. Teaching Meaning and the Usages of Simple Present Tense

From section 4.1, we know that teaching the form of simple present tense is important. Simultaneously, the meaning and the usage of this tense are vital, especially the usage. Without the practical usage, the knowledge of the tense cannot be applied and everything would be meaningless. The usage of simple present tense is various, it is necessary to find a way which can provide some useful information for English teachers. According to the prototypical theory, there are some suggestions.

1. Emphasizing the teaching of the basic usage of simple present tense

Now that the usage of the simple present tense can be regarded as a category in which one member is link with another, English teachers can teach simple present tense from this perspective. They can try to help students master the basic usage, i.e. the prototypical usage. This is very important. In section 3.2, the writer analyzes the state usage which is prototypical. In this case, the state exists at present or a longer time, so it is not difficult for students to understand. When teachers explain this kind of usage, they must realize its importance. In practical teaching, the teacher can ask students to grasp this usage firstly. Undoubtedly, teachers must focus on the state usage in teaching. They also should tell the students that the state usage is basic which can provide some help for the following learning. At the beginning of the tense teaching, teachers had better not introduce other complicated usages of this tense. In brief, teachers are supposed to develop students’ consciousness that state usage is the center of this category—the usage of simple present tense. Based on the state usage, teachers should help students turn to a deeper level. Besides, teachers have to give up the previous ways that students just recite the rules of simple present tense. Reciting rules cannot solve all problems. Only realize the prototypical usage of the tense in contexts that can students grasp the essence of this tense and learn other usages with less efforts.

2. Extending other usage of simple present tense based on prototype

It can be said that there are some ways if the teachers want students master all usages of simple present tense completely. In other words, teachers can improve students’ cognitive ability based on the prototypical usage. In the process of tense teaching, teachers can develop students’ cognitive ability that could promote their understanding of other usages. In section 3.2, it describes other four non-prototypical usages of simple present tense. Teachers should have a correct recognition of these four uses and they must help students form a correct recognition, too. And they should help learners establish a radical network which includes all usages. From the analysis in section 3.2, we know that habitual usage and the instantaneous usages have more similarities with the prototypical usage. In the past, teachers always ask students remember these rules mechanically, which is futile. Teachers can help students develop their own rules system by establishing the category system. So the teachers can take advantages of this point. For example, they can explain the similarities between these three usages and compare the differences in the process of teaching, so that students can have a clear understanding. The habitual usage and instantaneous usage are the best examples in this category and they have some similar attributes, so students can learn them easily based on the prototypical usage.

Definitely, the past and the future usage of the simple present are also the members of this category although they are bad examples. Explaining these two usages is not easy and students cannot accept them without confusion. They have one similarity with the prototypical usage — the state usage, so they should be included in this category. Just as mentioned in section 3.2, the past usage includes the speaker’s own purpose that he wants to shorten the distance between the event time and the speech time. Teachers should ask students to compare the past usage with the state usage; the state usage can also be used to refer to the previous state. In this respect, they are connected with each other. Although students cannot understand the past usage until the teacher introduce the prototypical usage — state usage, they can connect it with each other. Similarly, the future usage also has some attributes which are involved in the state usage. State usage can refer to the state which exists in the future time so teachers should explain the future usage after teaching the state usage.

All in all, according to the category theory, teachers can find some instructions about how to teach simple present tense from this view. They should emphasize the basic usage of this tense at first. Then, based on the prototypical usage, they can help students establish a system that other four usages can be learned. Consequently, students can learn the simple present tense with less efforts and the teaching efficiency can also be improved.

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper introduces tense, the importance of tense-teaching and the problems of it in junior high school. These

problems are connected with several factors: teacher's overemphasis of communicative ability, teacher's incorrect recognition of tense and students' incorrect recognition of tense. This paper analyzes the simple present tense from a new perspective — prototype category theory and finds out the family resemblance of all the members of this category. The various usages of the simple present tense have a similar attribute: they are all present-connective although some are direct, some are not. Based on the prototype category theory, there come some useful instructions which are beneficial to tense-teaching. In practical tense-teaching, forms and the usages of the tense are of equal importance. Teachers can help students grasp the basic form of simple present tense, and then students can understand the variants of the prototypical form. When teaching the usage of this tense, it would be better to help students construct a category network which holds all usages of the simple present tense. Thus, students can master the simple present tense completely with less effort and the teaching efficiency can also be improved. However, there are some deficiencies and limitations in this paper, further studies on this topic need to be carried out in the future.

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Lei Guo was born in Sichuan, China in 1995. Now, he is a postgraduate student in linguistics in Chongqing Normal University, China. His research interests include foreign language teaching and cognitive linguistics.

Junhua Wang was born in Nanchong, China in 1995. She is currently a postgraduate in the School of Foreign Languages, Chongqing Normal University, Chongqing, China. Her research interests include second language acquisition and English teaching.

Linguistic, Cognitive, and Psycholinguistic Perspectives on Metaphors

Nafilah M. Aloairdhi*

Department of English Language and Translation, College of Arabic Language and Social Studies, Qassim University, Qassim, Saudi Arabia

Noureddine Kahlaoui

Department of English Language and Translation, College of Arabic Language and Social Studies, Qassim University, Qassim, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—Language is full of metaphors by nature. Metaphors have been heavily studied in relation to language. However, less attention has been paid to metaphors in relation to cognition and psycholinguistics. This article begins by looking at the idea of metaphors in a general sense. It then considers three perspectives on metaphors as follows: 1) the linguistics perspective, 2) the cognitive perspective, and 3) the psycholinguistic perspective. The aim is both to understand different perspectives on metaphors and to provide more insights about how cognitive and psycholinguistic developments have contributed to the linguistic study of metaphors. This article adopts a descriptive approach in which the focus will be on the theoretical descriptions and explanations. It is hoped that the insights and recommendations shown at this article may contribute to deep understanding of this topic.

Index Terms—cognition, linguistics, metaphors, psycholinguistics

I. INTRODUCTION

For decades, one of the most popular concepts in the figurative language literature is the concept of metaphors. Metaphors, thus, are directly related to how people use their languages. It is suggested that language is constructed of dead metaphors (Holcombe, 2015). However, recent cognitive and psycholinguistic developments have revealed that metaphors are not only language-specific devices, but also related to humans' conceptual system. Many researchers and scholars have studied metaphors (e.g., Al-Hajaj, 2013; Citron et al., 2020; Hendricks, 2018; Joue et al., 2020; Mashal, 2013).

The different views and theories regarding metaphors have motivated us to explore them deeply. To this end, this article will try to give more details about linguistic, cognitive, and psycholinguistic metaphors. The aims are twofold: the first is to demonstrate different perspectives on metaphors. The second is to shed more light on how cognitive and psycholinguistic developments have contributed to the linguistic study of metaphors. It is hoped that this article provides some insights for those interested in metaphor study.

II. METAPHORS FROM A LINGUISTIC PERSPECTIVE

A. What Is a Metaphor from a Linguistic Perspective?

Language can be classified as literal or figurative. The figures of speech that can be used in the figurative language include hyperbole, simile, idiom, irony, indirect requests, rhetorical questions, understatement, and metaphors (Kreuz & Roberts, 1993). Metaphors are extremely important and frequently used in any language.

In language study, a metaphor can be defined as “the use of language to refer to something other than what it was originally applied to, or what it ‘literally’ means, in order to suggest some resemblance or make a connection between the two things” (Knowles & Moon, 2006, p. 3). Based on this definition, Al-Hajaj (2013) assumed that the metaphors of a given language cannot be “*divorced and isolated*” from that language (p. 84, emphasis in original). In the same vein, she stressed that there are many arguments regarding metaphors. These arguments have their diversity from Aristotle's view that sees metaphors as a “gift of genius and cannot be taught” to Shelley's view that considers language as “vitally metaphorical” (Ricoeur, 1977, p. 92).

B. Why Are Metaphors Important?

Metaphors are important to languages in two principal ways (Knowles & Moon, 2006). First, they make languages rich as they are important parts in the process of formation of words and words meaning. Second, metaphors are vital

* Corresponding author

and basic components in the discourse as they perform “explaining, clarifying, describing, expressing, evaluating, entertaining” functions (p. 4).

C. How Are Metaphors Working from a Linguistic Perspective?

In language, metaphors are considered to work in a specific way. Linguists have different considerations to these ways. For example, Black (1982) considered metaphors as constituted of two elements. One is the *frame* which represents the context of the metaphor, and the *focus* which represents the word that is used metaphorically. Another view that considers metaphors in two elements is that of Beekman and Callow (Newmark, 2001). They considered metaphors as the *topic* that represents the item that has been described by the metaphor, and the *similar point* between the topic and the word that was used metaphorically.

There is another view that considers metaphors in three elements. Linguistic metaphors, either novel or conventional, are characterised in Richards’ terms of *tenor* (or more recently *topic*) and *vehicle* (Avis, 1999). In this sense, tenor represents the conceptual meaning, while vehicle represents the concrete comparison (Al-Hajaj, 2013). However, Avis (1999) has some concerns regarding this division. He preferred discussing linguistic metaphors as “*occasions*” of metaphors and viewing these occasions through “*images*”. In this way, both occasion and image will “comprise the total event of metaphor” (p. 83).

Newmark (2001) characterised metaphors by five elements. First, the *object* by which the metaphor will be described. Second, the *image* which is the element “in terms of which the object is described” (p. 85). Third, the *sense* which represents the Richards’ tenor or Beekman and Callow’s similar point. Fourth, the *metaphor* which is the word understood from the image. Finally, the *metonym* which is a “one-word image which replaces the object, which may later become a dead metaphor” (p. 85).

D. What Are the Types of Metaphors?

There are many different types of metaphors. Generally speaking, metaphors can be classified in three kinds (Yaseen, 2013). First, metaphors are classified according to the verbs in which they are represented. This category, according to Yaseen (2013), contains concretizing, animating, synaesthetic, and personifying metaphors. Concretizing metaphors can express qualities by using abstract items. Animating metaphors are used to add sense to nature. Synaesthetic metaphors are “the transmission of senses” (p. 58). Finally, the personifying metaphors which are used to describe what is not human as human.

The second category of metaphors divides them in terms of their circulation and usage (Yaseen, 2013). This category includes absolute, active, cliché complex, compound, dead, dormant, extended, implicit, mixed, original, recent, and root metaphors. Table 1 represents these types with their definitions.

The third category to classify metaphors is based on the concepts of the speech of people’s experience (Yaseen, 2013). Therefore, this category can be called conceptual metaphor, Yaseen (2013) asserted.

TABLE 1
TYPES OF METAPHORS WITH THEIR DEFINITIONS (BASED ON YASEEN, 2013)

Type of metaphor	Definition
1. Absolute metaphors	These metaphors are used when there is no obvious similarity between two items.
2. Active metaphors	These metaphors are not considered as parts of everyday language.
3. Cliché metaphors	These metaphors are those that have become idioms and proverbs.
4. Complex metaphors	These metaphors “blend uniform over another” (p. 61).
5. Compound metaphors	These metaphors shed light on the multiple similarities between two items.
6. Dead metaphors	“Originally, they are words that used as metaphors, then their literal meaning had disappeared and integrated into the language and lost all its technical features” (p. 61).
7. Dormant metaphors	These metaphors can be considered as in the middle between live and dead metaphors as the relationship between them and the original idea they express has been lost.
8. Extended metaphors	These metaphors are used to describe one subject by a number of comparisons.
9. Implicit metaphors	These metaphors have “borrowed name to it which is not authorized, but is understood implicitly” (p. 63).
10. Mixed metaphors	These metaphors can be used when there is a logical relationship between two or more metaphors.
11. Original metaphors	These metaphors represent poetic and creative metaphors.
12. Recent metaphors	These are the new and recent metaphors found, for example, in media.
13. Root metaphors	These are the “metaphors that their roots are extended deeply in humanitarian thought and their metaphorical concept just specify the cultural background of the recipient” (p. 64).

E. *What Is beyond Linguistic Metaphors?*

As has been clarified, metaphors are essential to any language. Our languages are full of metaphors. The question that can arise from this fact is that: Are metaphors only linguistic items? It is suggested that in addition to be parts of languages, metaphors are also related to cognitive linguistics and psycholinguistics fields. These details will be shown in the next sections.

III. METAPHORS FROM A COGNITIVE PERSPECTIVE

A. *What Is a Metaphor from a Cognitive Perspective?*

Metaphors can be defined from a cognitive perspective as “understanding one conceptual domain in terms of another conceptual domain” (Kövecses, 2010, p. 4). Kövecses (2010) gave examples of such metaphors as when people talk about life as a journey, arguments as wars, or theories as buildings. He stated that it is convenient to capture this view in terms of conceptual metaphor. Thus, there is a difference between the linguistic expression of a metaphor and the conceptual metaphor.

To distinguish linguistic expression of metaphors from conceptual metaphors, one can think of the former as a way of talking and the latter as a way of thinking (Kövecses, 2010). Therefore, the linguistic expression of metaphors makes the conceptual metaphors explicit. Moreover, the conceptual metaphors that structure humans’ thoughts are reflected in a language by the linguistic metaphors (Nacey, 2010). It is worth noting that the notion of conceptual metaphor was firstly introduced by Lakoff and Johnson in 1980 (Kövecses, 2010).

B. *How Are Metaphors Working from a Cognitive Perspective?*

As metaphors have specific way to work in the linguistic view of metaphors, they also have a specific way in the cognitive view. Löhner (2002) considered metaphors as items borrowed from one domain (i.e., source domain) to describe other items in another domain (i.e., target domain). Therefore, the metaphorical language can be understood as using things (i.e., items such as notions, concepts, pictures, or models) from the source domain to talk about their similar things in the target domain (Löhner, 2002). Kövecses (2010) suggested that source domain items can be expressed by concrete concepts, while target domain items can be expressed by more abstract concepts.

According to Kövecses (2010), for the relationship between the source and target domains to be understood, it is suggested that there are “systematic correspondences” between them (p. 7). These correspondences represent mappings.

C. *Lakoff and Johnson’s Conceptual Metaphor Theory (1980)*

Gilbert (2006) once said:

Giovanni and I have such a good time teaching each other idioms in English and Italian. We were talking the other evening about the phrases one uses when trying to comfort someone who is in distress. I told him that in English we sometimes say, “I’ve been there.” This was unclear to him at first – *I’ve been where?* But I explained that deep grief sometimes is almost like a specific location, a coordinate on a map of time. When you are standing in that forest of sorrow, you cannot imagine that you could ever find your way to a better place. But if someone can assure you that they themselves have stood in that place, and have now moved on, sometimes this will bring hope.

—“So sadness is a place?” Giovanni asked.

—“Sometimes people live there for years,” I said. (p. 71, emphasis in original)

What Gilbert has done is explaining what a metaphor is according to the Conceptual Metaphor Theory (Nacey, 2010).

As has been stated, the notion of conceptual metaphor was introduced by Lakoff and Johnson. Al-Hajaj (2013) pointed out that the metaphorical use of a language has been studied by Lakoff and Johnson’s Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT). In their theory, Lakoff and Johnson contradicted the traditional view of metaphors that considers metaphors as a “matter of words rather than thought or action” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 13). They stressed that metaphors are frequent and common in people daily lives, not only in language use, but also in actions and thoughts. They asserted that the human’s conceptual system is metaphorical by nature.

Lakoff and Johnson (1980) provided a complete description of the metaphor: “ARGUMENT IS WAR”. Some examples were provided in the analysis representing how one can express “arguments” in terms of “war” (pp. 13-14, emphasis in original), these examples include:

Your claims are *undefensible*.

He *attacked every weak point* in my argument.

His criticisms were *right on target*.

I *demolished* his argument.

I’ve never *won* an argument with him.

You disagree? Okay, *shoot!*

If you use that *strategy*, he’ll *wipe you out*.

He *shot down* all of my arguments.

Al-Hajaj (2013) clarified that CMT goes beyond linguistic level of metaphors to investigate thoughts and cognition. Additionally, it tries to discuss how metaphors are established and formulated. Furthermore, it follows the linguistic

structuring of metaphors to their launching point that is located in thoughts and cognition. Thus, metaphors “operate on both the linguistic and conceptual levels simultaneously” (Nacey, 2010, p. 10).

1. Types of Conceptual Metaphor

There are three types of conceptual metaphor (Yaseen, 2013). First, structural metaphors which bring an experience in terms of another experience by using particular concepts. Second, orientational metaphors which organise “a whole system of concepts with respect to one another” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 22). Third, ontological metaphors which are used to consider abstract things as concrete ones to make them more tangible to human’s mind (Yaseen, 2013).

2. Tenets of Conceptual Metaphor Theory

Conceptual metaphor theory has some basic tenets in how it is related to the language. Lakoff and his colleagues believed that people are aware of many abstract topics such as love and death by metaphors (Deignan, 2005). In this sense, it can be said that metaphors structure thinking (Al-Hajaj, 2013).

Lakoff and Johnson (1980) stressed that “[i]n actuality we feel that no metaphor can ever be [be] comprehended or even adequately represented independently of its experiential basis” (pp. 26-27, emphasis in original). Therefore, metaphors cannot be isolated from experience (Al-Hajaj, 2013). In the same vein, Deignan (2005) pointed out that metaphors are not only beneficial to humans’ conceptual system, but also they are important in developing their knowledge. Thus, it can be said that metaphors structure knowledge (Al-Hajaj, 2013).

As has been mentioned, it is observed that metaphors are frequently used in the language. Moreover, metaphors refer in one of their dimensions (or domains) to abstract things. Deignan (2005) justified this frequency as a lack of literal words that can reveal what a metaphor can. He insisted that this is the reason why conceptual metaphor theorists argued that “not only . . . linguistic metaphors are very frequent, but . . . some abstract subjects cannot be talked about without them” (p. 18). Hence, it can be said that metaphors are essential to abstract language (Al-Hajaj, 2013).

IV. METAPHORS FROM A PSYCHOLINGUISTIC PERSPECTIVE

Psycholinguistics field studies language and brain. It provides explanations about how language is comprehended and produced, how words are stored and used, and how language is acquired (Field, 2004). However, Field (2004) assured that psycholinguistics is traditionally a challenging area to be studied.

The reason may be attributed to the fact that linguists and psychologists may have different views on language, as “[l]inguists and psychologists talk about different things . . . Grammarians are more interested in what could be said than in what people actually say, which irritates psychologists, and psychologists insist on supplementing intuition with objective evidence, which irritates linguists” (Miller, 1990, p. 321). In this section, metaphors from a psycholinguistic perspective will be discussed.

A. How Are Metaphors Working from a Psycholinguistic Perspective?

1. Bergen’s Metaphorical Simulation Hypothesis

It is suggested that metaphors provide a good way to talk about abstract concepts in terms of concrete ones. Bergen (2012) suggested that the abstract concepts may be understood through embodied simulation. In other words, he suggested that people use metaphors to describe an abstract thing in terms of a concrete thing. Thus, it is perhaps that people understand those abstract things in terms of their corresponding concrete ones. He called this proposal Metaphorical Simulation Hypothesis (MSH).

To test MSH, Bergen (2012) started to look at the metaphorical language to identify which concrete things people use to describe abstract ones. Then, he tried to know if people really simulate these metaphors or not. Several experiments have been done to this end.

In one experiment, the participants were required to perform an action (e.g., grasping) just before showing a metaphor that contains the same action applied to an abstract thing (e.g., grasping an idea or concept). The results showed that performing an action that corresponds to the metaphor is helpful in speeding up the comprehension process of that metaphor. Bergen (2012) interpreted this result as the comprehension of the metaphors “activates the motor apparatus responsible for performing the same action” (p. 200).

Later, Bergen (2012) hypothesised that imagining an action would bring the same results as doing it in reality. This hypothesis was tested in the same design as the first one, but instead of asking participants to do an action, they were asked to imagine that they are doing it. The results were consistent with the first study. It was suggested that comprehending metaphors involves embodied simulation of abstract and concrete domains.

In summary, by showing these and other experiments, Bergen (2012) was trying to say that people comprehend metaphorical language depending on embodied simulation of concrete things they use to describe abstract things. Also, he suggested that comprehending a metaphor can be facilitated by the activation of the specific part in the motor system that corresponds to it.

2. Comparisons-Based Theories of Metaphor Processing

Many researchers emphasized that metaphors require a relationship between two domains, and stressed the important role of the context (Nacey, 2010). Thus, it is obvious that the interpretation of figurative and literal meanings is determined by both their context and individual linguistic elements.

Littlemore and Low (2006) assumed that when a metaphor is involved, then the relationship between the two domains of that metaphor is comprehended through a comparison between some features of the source domain and some other features of the target domain. Therefore, comparison-based theories suggested that “when processing a nominal metaphor . . . , we align the properties of the target term . . . with those of the base term . . . and look for an overlap” (Gokcesu, 2009, p. 567).

3. Categorization-Based Theories of Metaphor Processing

As many researchers believed that metaphors are processed based on making comparisons, many other researchers believed that metaphors are better discussed in terms of categorization. One popular model that accounts for this view is Glucksberg and Keyser's Class-Inclusion Model (Glucksberg & Keysar, 1990).

Class-Inclusion Model supposes that there is a superordinate category that consists of shared attributes by the source and target domains (Glucksberg & Keysar, 1990). People create this category that encompasses both the term of the source domain and the term of the target domain with one as a more prototypical member (Gokcesu, 2009). Therefore, Glucksberg and Keysar preferred viewing metaphors as “understood by a process of ad-hoc categorization” (Steen, 2007, p. 53).

4. Bowdle and Gentner's Career of Metaphor Theory

Bowdle and Gentner (2005) integrated the two controversial views of processing metaphors (i.e., comparison and categorization) into one theory. They maintained that metaphor processing can be related to either comparison or categorization. They claimed that novel metaphors are processed by comparison, while more conventional metaphors are processed by categorization. They asserted that the interpretation of novel metaphors “involves sense creation”, while the interpretation of conventional metaphors “involves sense retrieval” (p. 231). Hence, they considered the level of conventionality as a base to comparison or categorization to be involved (Nacey, 2010).

B. *Metaphors and Brain*

As has been stated in this article, metaphors are not only related to the language, but also to human's thoughts and cognition. Recent brain studies have investigated a lot about many claims related to metaphors and brain.

1. Lakoff's Neural Theory of Metaphor

One major development has happened in the study of conceptual metaphors is Lakoff and Johnson's Conceptual Metaphor Theory in 1980. Recently with the development of brain and neural sciences, Lakoff and Feldman have built their Neural Theory of Language (NTL) (Kövecses, 2010). This theory includes Lakoff's Neural Theory of Metaphor (NTM) (Lakoff, 2008). Lakoff continued to consider metaphors as going beyond their linguistic level to the mind, body, and brain (Kövecses, 2010).

Kövecses (2010) provided a thorough description to the Neural Theory of Metaphor. First, he started with the more general theory of language. Basically, a human's brain is made of neurons. In NTL, there are neuronal groups that are patterned as nodes. Every neuron is able to function in various neuronal groups. In this sense, scientists consider semantics as a simulation. Consequently, they attribute the basic role to the mirror neurons. These mirror neurons will fire when one is performing an action or imagining performing that action.

Thus, in this view, the meaning of concrete concepts is considered to be mentally simulated. In other words, one will activate specific neurons that will be required to imagine or perform an action. If a node's activation activates the entire neural simulation, then it can be said that this node is meaningful.

Thoughts happen when two neuronal groups fire simultaneously and their “activation spreads outward along the network links connecting them” (p. 87). While learning, this activation will be strengthened. When this activation from the first neuronal group meets the activation of the second one, a link between them will be made. This link can be stronger the more both neuronal groups fire simultaneously. By this, several kinds of neural circuits will emerge.

As Kövecses (2010) mentioned, there will be different types of neural circuits. One type is linking circuits. This type is responsible for metonymy. Another type is two-way linking circuits, which is responsible for grammatical constructions and vocabulary. However, the type that is important in this article is that of metaphor. The type of neural circuits that characterises metaphors is mapping circuits.

According to Kövecses (2010), the mapping circuits contain two groups of nodes related to source and target domains. In addition, they contain several linking nodes that link elements in the source domain to the elements in the target one. Therefore, the mapping circuits that relate the two nodes will establish a metaphor.

However, Kövecses (2010) pointed out that NTM made a number of significant predictions. First, it predicts that the conceptual metaphors that are based on people's experience in the world are easier to be learned and understood than metaphors that are not related to people's experience. Second, it predicts that nodes related to source and target domains are linked by brain circuitry, thus metaphor processing will activate both nodes. In this way, the metaphor processing will be involved in both of them at the same time. This means that metaphor processing will not take longer time than literal language processing. Kövecses (2010) asserted that number of experimental studies have confirmed both of the above predictions.

2. Different Views on Metaphor Processing

There are some other views on how a metaphor is processed. One of them is the direct approach that supposes that the metaphor processing and literal language processing will happen simultaneously (Gerrig, 1989). Another view is the indirect approach that supposes that the access to metaphors is available when speakers or listeners failed to find a

logical literal meaning to a linguistic utterance (Amanzio et al., 2007). However, more recent studies have suggested that it is the degree of saliency that determines whether the interpretation of a linguistic utterance, whether figurative or literal, is successful (Giora, 2002).

3. What Do Researchers in Psycholinguistics Say about Metaphor Processing?

It seems that psycholinguistic studies have revealed inconclusive results regarding metaphor processing. However, this section will try to review some results about metaphor processing.

In language processing, it is commonly known that the left hemisphere is prominent. However, Diaz and Hogstrom (2011) pointed out that patient, neuroimaging, and behavioural studies have suggested that the right hemisphere can be responsible in figurative language processing. Furthermore, some studies have explained that the context in which a language is involved can “modify language processes and facilitate comprehension” (p. 3586).

Kacinik and Chiarello (2005) have tried to examine cerebral asymmetries in metaphor comprehension. They suggested that processes in both left and right hemispheres could support metaphor comprehension, but they are not done in the same mechanisms. They asserted that their results are inconsistent with the view that right hemisphere is the “preferred substrate” to comprehend metaphors (p. 188).

In another study, Schmidt and his colleagues (2005) have conducted three experiments to identify whether the right hemisphere is involved in the metaphor processing due to metaphoricity or another part of semantic processing. They varied the familiarity of both literal and figurative sentences. They found that the right hemisphere is involved in unfamiliar sentences processing, while the left hemisphere is involved in familiar sentences processing, regardless of the type of the sentences (i.e., literal or figurative).

Amanzio and her colleagues (2007) conducted a study to investigate nonliteral language comprehension in probable Alzheimer’s disease patients. The patients were unimpaired in comprehending conventional metaphors, but they may have some problems regarding comprehending novel metaphors. The results suggested that the impairment in patients’ verbal reasoning can be related to the comprehension of conventional and novel metaphors. Also, it was suggested that the poor performance of patients in comprehending novel metaphor can be attributed to the executive impairment. Based on their findings, the researchers suggested a role of prefrontal cortex in comprehending novel metaphors.

To summarize, it was tried in this section to provide an insight that psycholinguistic studies have shown mixed results about metaphor processing. However, more studies are needed to help both linguists and psycholinguists to come to clear conclusions.

V. CONTRIBUTIONS OF PSYCHOLINGUISTICS TO LINGUISTICS IN METAPHOR STUDY

Psycholinguistics can enrich linguistic studies and go much deeper in understanding different phenomena. Psycholinguistics, especially with the recent developments in research methods in brain study, can give us an excellent way to understand how we produce and comprehend our languages. By focusing on psycholinguistics, we may know how every word is processed in our brains. As psycholinguistics has provided a lot to the languages, it also has given good explanations to illustrate how specific language components and devices and figurative language are processed.

This article tried to shed more light on the study of metaphors. Thus, it was observed that linguistics, cognitive sciences, and psycholinguistics contribute to more understanding of metaphors. First, linguistic studies gave the basis, as we need theoretical assumptions to be able to go a step further. Thus, linguistics defined metaphors, categorised them, and clarified how they are working. Cognitive sciences extended this understanding of metaphors as only linguistic devices to say that they are a matter of cognition and thoughts. After that, psycholinguistics tried to explain how metaphors are processed in our brains, how we can understand abstract things in terms of concrete things, what makes these abstract things clear to us, why we use simulations, and many other issues.

It seems that psycholinguistics has contributed to linguistic study of the metaphors. First, we think it opens many windows to all researchers and scholars to start thinking on metaphors in many different ways. They are not used only to communicate or say something, but to do a much deeper thing. By metaphors, humans are able to understand what is life, love, death, happiness, grief, and all these abstract concepts. By metaphors, we are able to share our “abstract” experience with others, as Gilbert’s (2006) “I’ve been there”. By these words that constituted a metaphor, she was able to tell someone else that she went through what he is going through, although both do not exactly have an idea of what a grief is, except that it is a place.

Second, as Lakoff and Johnson stated, our languages are metaphorical by nature. Taking this into account, psycholinguistic studies on metaphors provided much not only to metaphors, but also to the entire language. By psycholinguistic studies on, for example, patients, we may guess and observe how they process metaphors. Thus, we may come to more interesting and promising findings about metaphor processing in both patient and healthy people.

Third, it is thought that psycholinguistic studies on language acquisition can provide a lot of insights on metaphor acquisition, comprehension, and production since metaphors are very popular and commonly used in English. It is believed that findings of such studies can give more opportunities, establish new strategies, and develop a new understanding of language acquisition through learning and acquiring metaphors to second or foreign language learners.

Fourth, as metaphors are stressed to be important, and as confirmed by psycholinguistic studies that they are part of our bodily, cognitive, and linguistic experience, it is thought that we have to notice their existence. In other words, as acquiring linguistic, strategic, or pragmatic competence is a sign of success in a foreign language, it seems that

metaphoric competence is also an important one to acquire. It will not only help foreign learners to learn a language, but also to be parts of the foreign culture. By being competent in using metaphors, learners can share their experience, understand foreign abstract concepts, and know how foreigners think.

Finally, it is thought that one important contribution of psycholinguistic research is that of how metaphors are processed in different subjects. In other words, psycholinguists have studied metaphor processing in patients, healthy people, and different language speakers. By making comparisons, we may come to interesting conclusions about how metaphors are different from culture to culture. Also, we may know how people from different cultures simulate abstract concepts and understand them.

In summary, psycholinguistic research provides much to the linguistic study of metaphor. It helps linguists to see their theoretical assumptions from a different angle.

VI. CONCLUSION

As metaphors are an integral part of any language, studying and identifying them would be crucial. Metaphors have been studied and discussed from linguistic, cognitive, and psycholinguistic perspectives. It was shown that a metaphor is not only a language-specific item, but also, as Lakoff and Johnson stated, a matter of thoughts. Psycholinguistic research, in its turn, establishes its scientific bases into this area. Yet, it seems that we have a long journey to discover more about metaphors and how they are working.

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Nafilah M. Aloairdhi is an MA student in applied linguistics program at Qassim University, Saudi Arabia. She received a bachelor's degree in English language and translation from Qassim University.

Noureddine Kahlaoui is Assistant Professor of linguistics at Qassim University. He received his Ph.D. from the University of Montreal.

The Influence of Multi-assessment Model on the Motivation of Adults' English Listening and Speaking Learning

Zhencong Liu

School of English Language, Culture and Literature, Beijing International Studies University, China

Ting Li

School of English Language, Culture and Literature, Beijing International Studies University, China

Huiying Diao

School of English Language, Culture and Literature, Beijing International Studies University, China

Abstract—Due to the long time away from campus, the difficulty in ensuring study time, and poor psychological condition, adults have much difficulties in learning English. The study of adult English learning motivation helps to understand the main purpose of adult English learning, and then from the actual needs of students, to improve the strategies to stimulate adult English learning. Based on the adult English listening and speaking course, this paper takes the third-grade students from Beijing International Studies University (Continual Education Institute) as an example to establish a multi-assessment model of self-assessment, peer assessment and teacher assessment, along with interview and reflective journal to explore the influence of multi-assessment model upon adult English learning. The result has shown that under the multi-assessment model, the motivation of adults to learn English is gradually changed from external factors driving to internal factors driving, from personal development to intrinsic interest. That is, they changed from being forced to learn English gradually to autonomous learning. This study further broadens the scope of the participants of the multi-assessment model and offers suggestions for adult English education in China.

Index Terms—multi-assessment, adults' English learning, English listening and speaking, learning motivation

I. INTRODUCTION

In order to provide more applied and compound talents for the society, adult English learners choose to continue learning English further. Due to the low proficiency of English language and the cognitive development of adult English learner, we have to change traditional assessment model into multidimensional model and attempt to guiding learning and teaching in a better way. Besides, in light of the reform of college English teaching, interaction and independency were attached much more importance in English teaching education and practice. However, many teachers failed to apply multidimensional assessment model into guiding teaching practice. Thus, the current study aims at setting up a framework of multidimensional model in teaching adult English listening and speaking.

Assessment is a very important part in education. It can be divided into assessment of learning, assessment as learning and assessment for learning in terms of evaluation purposes. Assessment is used to improve both teaching and learning, experience a sense of achievement and build up confidence. In China, the most important one is the first category, which is the final evaluation with the purpose of examining the learning effect and checking the completion of the teaching objectives. The result is usually in the form of grades or scores to report to teachers and students. The second type of evaluation is carried out in the learning process. Its main form is the self-evaluation of students based on metacognition theory. The content and method of evaluation itself help teachers and students to improve their understanding, adjust their classes and improve their teaching methods. The third category, referred to as the promotion evaluation, is to track, monitor and give the feedback during the entire learning process, including the starting point evaluation and the formative evaluation conducted during the learning process.

As it is mentioned above, assessment is one of the key sections in education practices. As for empirical studies, many domestic scholars have contributed a lot in this field. They have already proved the acceptability of multi-assessment in English education. It can be broadened into adult English learning research.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This part is going to give a brief summary of previous studies on English learning motivation. English learning motivation has been studied widely both empirically and theoretically. Li and Shao have been summarized the previous studies by employing different methodology. Li gave a quantitative and qualitative summary of the research subjects,

contents and preference, while Shao proposed current problems and solutions of English learning motivation in China. Also, Qiu has discussed the previous studies from two major schools. Their findings will be illustrated specifically as follows:

Based on the papers on foreign language learning motivation published in 18 Chinese foreign language journals from 2004 to 2013, Li (2015) gives a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the research on foreign language learning motivation in the decade in China from the perspectives of research trends, subjects, contents and methodologies. She and her partner concluded the four results as following: the amount of papers about English learning motivation keeps increasing on the whole; the research perspectives are multi-disciplinary; empirical studies account for a large part, while theoretical studies account for a small part; the subjects are foreign language learners of different educational backgrounds and ages; the samples become larger and more refined; dynamic longitudinal studies develop faster than static cross-sectional ones. She discusses the limitations of the research area: the effectiveness of research achievements needs to be validated, comparisons between different learners are not enough, research perspectives should be broadened, and research trends abroad should be followed closely. Finally, the paper also proposes the directions and prospects for future research on foreign language learning motivation in China.

Meanwhile, another scholar Shao and Liu (2016) proposed the problems and solutions of domestic studies of English learning motivation. He concluded the problems from research subjects, research methodology and research contents. He found that, the study conducted about English motivation can be summarized from two perspectives: horizontal and vertical aspects. On the one hand, from the horizontal aspects, previous studies conducted among postgraduates, undergraduates, vocational school students and middle school students. On the other hand, from the vertical aspect, stay-at-home children, English majors and non-English majors, bilinguals and those who have difficulty in studying have been the research subjects. Then, from the research contents, he summarized different category of learning motivation, such as, inside and outside motivation. Gao (2003) has concluded seven kinds of motivation, they are: interests, scores, study abroad, learning situation, social responsibility, personal development, and information motivation. Besides, Shao (2016) also concluded that Wang (2003) has analyzed the influencing factors of learning motivation, inside and outside factors. About inside factors, there are gender, previous knowledge, and psychological states; for outside factors, they are more complex, such as, social environment and family background, campus and classroom environment.

In addition, according to Qiu (2005) in the summary of development of English motivation study in China, there are mainly two divisions of motivational study in psychology, namely socio-psychology and mainstream motivational psychology. In his study, it presents the features of Gardner's integrative motivation theory, along with some appraisals on it. Besides, some other main theories in this field are also referred to with a presentation of the empirical studies in the past few years both at home and abroad. Furthermore, the study also points out at last that few systematic researches have been carried out on Chinese students' motivation in learning a foreign language in the primary and middle schools.

Above all, the previous studies on English learning motivation and multi-assessment model have been summarized. We can see that scholars have been discussed the categories of English learning motivation, the current trends of studies in this field and potential problems and future expectations. However, research conducted on adult English motivation is limited, compared with other participants, especially from the assessment perspective. For the sake of better development of continual education and special learning status of adult English learners, they should be attached much more attention. Thus, this study is based on listening and speaking English class of adult English learners and employed the multi-assessment model. This paper is to figure out the influence of multi-assessment upon adult English learners and to provide suggestions for adult English education in China.

III. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND METHODOLOGY

In this part, theoretical background and methodology will be given, including research design and research questions.

A. *Theoretical Background*

Recent educational developments such as constructivism and multiple intelligence theories as well as society requested new trends engendered to radical change in traditional approaches of instruction and assessment. For this reason, alternative assessment approaches, compared with traditional ones derived from single assessment pattern and subject, are needed in assessing both learning process and learning product.

Multiple intelligence theory as the assessment of foreign language education has provided a new visual angle. It was proposed by Professor Howard Gardner of Harvard University in the United States in 1983 in the book "*The structure of Intelligence*" (1983, 1993). There are eight types of intelligence that can be scientifically defined: linguistic intelligence, logical-mathematical intelligence, visual-spatial intelligence, bodily-kinesthetic intelligence, musical intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, intrapersonal intelligence and natural-environmental intelligence. Everyone has different type of potential intelligence biologically. Thus, to evaluate students from one standard is not scientific and acceptable.

The foreign language assessment reform under the guidance of MI theory fully respects the individual differences of students, helps students to form learning strategies that are compatible with their own intelligence and learning styles; exerts the students' intelligent advantages, enables students to gain a sense of accomplishment in language learning; mobilizes them the potential for independent learning and collaborative learning. At the same time, teachers have truly

realized the identity expansion from simple knowledge transfer and classroom controllers to classroom organizers, facilitators, and assessors. (Pei, 2007).

For assessment, there are many forms of assessment, such as diagnostic assessment, formative assessment, terminative assessment, subjective assessment, and objective assessment, etc. Traditionally, students are evaluated. Teachers are authoritative and unique. The diversification of foreign language assessment include the standard of educational assessment, the object of assessment, the subject of assessment, the method of assessment, and so on. Multiple intelligence theory provides a theoretical framework for the assessment reform of foreign language teaching and learning. Under the guidelines of this theory, every student can be assessed fairly and objectively.

B. Participants

This paper takes the third-grade students from Beijing International Studies University (Continuing Education College) as an example to establish a multi-evaluation model of self-evaluation, mutual evaluation and teacher evaluation. Totally, there are two classes (about 25 students) take part in the experiment. They are from grade three, majoring in English. They have different aims and targets in learning English. Certainly, they differ in English speaking and listening proficiency.

C. Research Design

The current study takes the third-grade students from Beijing International Studies University (Continuing Education College) as an example to establish a multi-evaluation model of self-evaluation, mutual evaluation and teacher evaluation. Totally, there are two classes (about 25 students) take part in the experiment. They are from grade three, majoring in English. They have different aims and targets in learning English. Certainly, they differ in English speaking and listening proficiency.

D. Research Questions

There is one key research question in the study, “can the optimized multi-evaluation system improve the motivation of students’ listening and speaking learning?” Then, it follows with three specific research questions, “What are the features of adult learning motivation at the beginning of this term?” “How did adult English learners respond to multi-assessment model in class?” “What kind of reasons can be given to explain adult performance during this school term?” Research questions will work as a whole to assist to figure out the influence of multi-assessment upon adult English learners and to provide suggestions for adult English education in China.

IV. FINDINGS

This part will answer the three specific research questions one by one and further explain the key research questions. They are “what are the features of adult learning motivation at the beginning of this term?” “How did adult English learners respond to multi-assessment model in class?” “What kind of reasons can be given to explain adult performance during this school term?”

A. The Characteristics of Adult English Learning Motivation

First of all, for exploring the characteristics of the learning motivation at the beginning of this term, the author has given out questionnaire at the beginning of this semester to find out the current problems and aims of adult English learning motivation. Questions are designed according to the types of motivation in previous studies (see appendix 1).

According to the category of English learning motivation in previous studies, there are three kind of motivation, namely, instrumental motivation, which means use the target language as a tool to achieve a specific purpose; cultural motivation, which means intrinsic interest for target language culture and social responsibility in mother tongue language culture; motivation of social responsibility and it is both instrumental and cultural. In addition, there are five factors involved in this questionnaire: intrinsic interest (Q1 ~ Q4); achievement (Q5 ~ Q7); social responsibility (Q8 ~ Q10); Personal development (Q11 ~ Q15); “information and social medium” (Q16 ~ Q18).

TABLE 1
RELIABILITY STATISTICS

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.845	.848	18

As illustrated in Table 1, the Cronbach’s Alpha value is 0.845, which shows that the questionnaire has high reliability. Generally speaking, the reliability of the questionnaire mainly depends on Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient, $\alpha < 0.7$ indicates that the reliability of the designed questionnaire is not reliable; $0.7 < \alpha < 0.8$ indicates that the questionnaire has certain reliability, $0.8 < \alpha < 0.9$ means that the reliability of the questionnaire is very good. Therefore, the selected questionnaire has high reliability to test adult English learning motivation.

TABLE 2
COMPONENT MATRIXA

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
1. 你喜欢语言本身	.240	-.176	.375	-.003	.429
2. 对英语一见钟情	.395	.055	.133	-.029	.741
3. 喜欢英语文学或文化	.109	.576	.710	.093	.193
4. 喜欢英语歌曲或电影	-.112	.626	.507	-.390	-.338
5. 为提高英语成绩	.479	.767	-.420	.010	.044
6. 为升学考试或毕业证书	.957	-.237	.116	.033	-.112
7. 父母/工作要求学习英语	-.163	.214	.141	.931	-.138
8. 为了不辜负父母期望	.479	.767	-.420	.010	.044
9. 为国家富强尽力	.957	-.237	.116	.033	-.112
10. 让世界了解中国	.957	-.237	.116	.033	-.112
11. 人生路上敲门砖	.109	.576	.710	.093	.193
12. 教育/修养的象征	-.112	.626	.507	-.390	-.338
13. 为了找一份好工作	.479	.767	-.420	.010	.044
14. 英语是有用的交流工具	.957	-.237	.116	.033	-.112
15. 获得成就感	-.163	.214	.141	.931	-.138
16. 更好的学习其他专业	.479	.767	-.420	.010	.044
17. 了解世界经济发展状况	.957	-.237	.116	.033	-.112
18. 了解世界前沿科技	.957	-.237	.116	.033	-.112

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 5 components extracted.

As indicated in Table 2, there are five components in the questionnaire after the result is analyzed in SPSS factor analysis, which is consistent with the category of English learning motivation in previous studies. Next, the qualitative data will be analyzed in next part to see is there any difference in English learning motivation after the application of multi-assessment model.

B. *The Responses of Adult English Learners under Multi-assessment Model*

This part will present the responses of adult English learner during the five activities. According to their actual performance and reflective journal after each activity, students said that they generally accepted the multi-assessment model. The findings of each activity will be illustrated in this part. Totally, there are three speaking activities and two listening activities and they are organized in turns. That is, activity No.1, 3, 5 are speaking activities and activity No. 2 and 4 are listening activities.

First of all, activity No.1---“Nice to meet you”. Students were asked to do a warming up in pairs. Each of students will introduce themselves to their partner and then, try to remember their partner’s name, hobby or other traits. Next, each student will introduce his or her partner to the whole class. Their listening and speaking skills can be strengthened in this way. According to in class performance and after class reflection, most students said that they didn’t prepare themselves well in the first peer activity. They wrote down their thought in their journal and expressed that they were not used to this new assessment model because they never tried it before. And they don’t like the way to speak out to criticize other’s performance, so some of them want to change the peer-assessment section. For example, one student said that “I don't have many vocabularies to describe my partner because she didn’t introduce herself thoroughly and she can’t find anything special to introduce herself.”

Second activity will be designed their listening strategy and skills. Dialogue in listening material is about the future plan after graduation. In this section, students will be asked to fill in the blanks about the specific information and choose the suitable answer for each question. Students will finish this task in pairs. For the first listening, they do the exercise by themselves and in the second listening, they started to make some comments about their own listening problems and skills, and change their ideas about each questions. Also, some students were aware of the small tips, for example, take notes. Therefore, exchange their ideas, recognize their problems both by teachers and by peers become more important. In class, students also showed their high interests into exchanging listening skills section and share their ideas about how to deal with the difficulty in dialogue. For example, one student said, “I’ve learned a lot from my partner because he told me many tips and made me calm down when do listening exercise.”

As for activity No.3---“Who are you really?” It’s also a spoken English activity (see Figure 1). Students will be asked to do a group work of four. They work together to guess the real answer of each description of their partner. This time students will be asked to form group of four. They play the games in turn in each group. Compared with spoken activity No.2, students showed a lot of interests in this activity. The author also encouraged them to speak more about related topic. By peer assessment, students gradually accept the way to learn from each other. Thus, they are braver to face their mistakes and learn a lot from each other in a more open minded. One student made judgment towards his partner, “I’m very appreciate that you put forward many questions when guessing my real answer, which made me recognize another thinking pattern and the way to make one topic more detailed, that’s good!”

WHO ARE YOU REALLY?

Something I'm good at now	Something I collect (or used to collect)	A special trip	Something I like to do with my friends	Someone who inspired me
A book that taught me something special	Something I like to do by myself	A dream I had when I was in high school	A talent I have (or used to have)	A special friendship
A pet	Three adjectives that say something about me	Something I'm bad at (but I love doing it anyway)	A job I've had	Something I used to want to be
Three nouns that say something about me	A home (or place) I've lived in	Something I liked doing with my family	Something I hate having to do	A restaurant I love

Figure 1 Activity No.3 “Who are you really?”

During activity No.4 and No.5, students have a better understanding of the significance of multi-assessment. It has unique influence in speaking and listening class especially. In these two activities, adult English learners also work in pairs to make comments about each other’s performance. For example, student A talked to student B, “When we talk about the influence of different accents, I think you give more details and examples than last time, that’s great!” “I think take notes is not suitable for every listening exercise because just now, I found my partner who persisted on taking notes but she failed finally!”

In conclusion, students gradually accepted the way to make comments by others and also by teacher. Next part will present the self-assessment result and analyse the reasons why they gave such responses during five activities in this term.

C. The Reasons for Adult English Learners’ Responses

In this part, qualitative data will be collected and analyzed to see the changes toward English learning motivation. The interview questions are as following, see table 3:

TABLE 3
INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

(1) Do you think it necessary to combine teacher’s assessment together with peer assessment? (2) Do you think it interesting in English class in this term? (3) Do you feel comfortable when you evaluate other’s work? (4) Do you have any improvement in listening and speaking class during this term?
(5) Have your English grades been improved? (6) Are you confident to make comments on other’s work? (7) Do you think you are a qualified peer reviewer?
(8) Do you have other plan to learn English? (9) How multi-model help you in learning English? (10) Whether you think it much more interesting or boring in multi-model assessment activities?

According to the semi-structure interview and self-assessment results, the author has three findings: lack of confidence, lack of speaking materials will lead to failure of assessment; peer assessment encouraged them a lot and they can learn from each other; students learning motivation changed from outside factors driving into inside driving, their learning motivation has been strengthened from multi-assessment model practice in this school term. Most students wrote down on their journal that at first, they can’t accept the complex assessment model which they were not used to make comments about other’s performance. After a short term activities, they are more likely to do peer-assessment, both from the weakness and strengths of others. More profoundly, students found that it is more efficient and significant to learn from each other. Here the author just takes two questions for interviewees as an example:

Q1: Do you think it is necessary to combine teacher evaluation with peer evaluation?

S1: “I think, um ... I think it’s quite necessary, because if just the teacher do reviews , it won’t give me too much attention to join in class activities, and because he is under pressure in academic research (schoolwork), it is difficult to

notice everyone in the class. But if you add up peer assessment, and it is such a one-to-one process, that is, each classmate will give more ideas to me.”

Q2: Then, Do you think you are a qualified peer reviewer?

S2: “This, uh, I can’t say. Sometimes I ’m familiar with this issue, and I ’m very confident to evaluate his strengths and weaknesses. If, he may, uh, I don’t know him well or I don’t know his thoughts very well or if I was just lost, I don’t get his point, and maybe I don’t know how to make a good comment. Well, yes, and I tend to evaluate his advantages, most of them ...”

Besides, students hold the view that multi-assessment model will help them a lot. Due to encouragement from peers, relaxed classroom environment and attracted learning activities, they think that multi-assessment can be used to share learning strategies with classmates and further their relationship. That’s why they choose to do multi-assessment finally and stick to it in the whole school term.

According to reflective journal, students said that, actually, they are willing to do peer-assessment, but at the very beginning, they are afraid of being judged by others. “I think it’s a little bit embarrassed to judge others and at the same time, being judged by others. I feel shameful because my poor vocabulary size.” “When my partner gave a better answer than me, I will fell stressed out.” Also, there are some students said, they have learnt a lot from peers because of their direct comments and ideas-sharing.”

As for self-assessment, the author found that, adult English learner generally make negative comments of their own even if they made great improvement. They said in their journal, “I don’t know how to express myself even though I want to show my ideas with others.” However, there are some students also believe in multi-assessment model for the sake of they have learnt a lot from others. Some students said, “Now I found the real significance of English, which is to communicate. I like to talk to my classmates because it can help us to build up better relationship with each other.”

In conclusion, lack of confidence, lack of speaking materials will lead to failure of assessment; peer assessment encouraged them a lot and they can learn from each other; students learning motivation changed from outside factors driving into inside driving, their learning motivation has been strengthened from multi-assessment model practice in this school term.

V. DISCUSSION

Based on the speaking and listening class, adult English learner, this part will discuss the reasons for above results.

First of all, according to Yang (2018) in the study of current situation of adult English learners in which she thinks that adult English learners are special in learning strategy, learning motivation and effective learning time. It can be seen during the five activities and especially in the reflective journal of self-assessment. As stated in the self-assessment section, students are regretful that they don’t have too much time to study, and they are poor in English proficiency. Thus, teachers need to present more positive effects about multi-assessment model towards speaking and listening class. Prepare more games and let them know the significance of good communication with others.

Besides, the theory of communicative method helps a lot to explain the responses of adult English learners. How to evaluate one’s speaking proficiency is a thorny problem in defining high level spoken English. Communicative method has shed the light in this field. Compared with traditional grammar teaching method, communicative method is based on students’ real needs. Under the guidance of communicative method, tasks can be designed to achieve certain goals and mainly for expressing themselves. Adult English learners will find that all five activities are designed for their experienced learning and real life. Therefore, they learn for communicating in real life situations. Communicative method can be used to explain the popularity of multi-assessment in evaluating speaking and listening activity.

In addition, due to psychological reasons, adult English learners are unique because of their high-esteem of being judged by others in front of class. That’s because they are mature psychologically and they are afraid of making mistakes. So teachers can encourage them to prepare well before every class and give them some chances to present themselves. Gradually, they will be aware that their confidence is coming back. Teachers need to make them recognize the importance of making mistakes, because during this process, students will have a high awareness of certain language points.

Last but not least, according to Kreshen’s input hypothesis, adult English learners also can learn from peers. Comprehensible input will also help them a lot in second language learning. Therefore, adult English learners will find it is easier to learn from teachers and mother-tongue speakers. It gives more chances to do activities in peers or in groups. More importantly, teachers can prepare more authentic English materials to increase their comprehensible input can also their speaking materials.

VI. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this study makes use of the optimized model for in class assessment. During this term, students work as pairs or groups to do peer-assessment and do self-assessment after class. Based on the adult English listening and speaking course, this paper takes the third-grade students from Beijing International Studies University (Continuing Education College) as an example to establish a multi-evaluation model of self-evaluation, mutual evaluation and teacher evaluation, along with interview and reflective journal to explore the influence of multi-evaluation model upon

adult English learning. Through five speaking and listening activities, students benefit a lot from multi-assessment model. The self-assessment result alone with semi-structure interview have shown that under the multi-evaluation model, the motivation of adults to learn English is gradually changed from external factors driving to internal driving, that is, they changed from being forced to learn English gradually to active learning. This study further broadens the scope of the participants of the multi-evaluation model and provides reference for adult English education in China. However, due to limited participants, this study just is conducted in Continuing Education School. Future research can be conducted in more wide participants to get better evidence about the influence of multi-assessment model.

APPENDIX A

亲爱的同学，你好！为了更近一步了解大家，给大家提供更优质的英语课堂学习，我们特开展本次问卷调查，希望能得到你的真实想法与宝贵意见，谢谢你的合作！题目选项无所谓对错，请按照实际情况填写。本问卷实行匿名制，所有数据只用于统计分析，请你放心！谢谢你的帮助。

本问卷标题为：“成人英语学习动机调查”（你为什么学英语？），每一个题目都对应着五个选项：“非常不符合”“比较不符合”“不确定”“比较符合”“非常符合”，请结合你的实际情况作出选择，并在相应的方框中打“√”。

	非常不符合	比较不符合	不确定	比较符合	非常符合
1. 你喜欢语言本身					
2. 对英语一见钟情					
3. 喜欢英语文学或文化					
4. 喜欢英语歌曲或电影					
5. 为提高英语成绩					
6. 为升学考试或毕业证书					
7. 父母/工作要求学习英语					
8. 为了不辜负父母期望					
9. 为国家富强尽力					
10. 让世界了解中国					
11. 人生路上敲门砖					
12. 教育/修养的象征					
13. 为了找一份好工作					
14. 英语是有用的交流工具					
15. 获得成就感					
16. 更好的学习其他专业					
17. 了解世界经济发展状况					
18. 了解世界前沿科技					

如有其他原因，请你写在这里：

再次感谢你的帮助！

APPENDIX B

Interview questions

Research questions	Interviewer questions
1. How receptive are students to the multi-assessment model?	(1) Do you think it necessary to combine teacher's assessment together with peer assessment? (2) Do you think it interesting in English class in this term? (3) Do you feel comfortable when you evaluate other's work? (4) Do you have any improvement in listening and speaking class during this term?
2. How does multi- assessment model affect the motivation of adult English learning?	(5) Have your English grades been improved? (6) Are you confident to make comments on other's work? (7) Do you think you are a qualified peer reviewer?
3. Why has the motivation of adult English learners changed?	(8) Do you have other plan to learn English? (9) How multi-model help you in learning English? (10) Whether you think it much more interesting or boring in multi-model assessment activities?

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Zhencong Liu is currently Associate Professor in the School of English Language, Culture and Literature, Beijing International Studies University, China. He received his PH.D degree in linguistics from Beijing Foreign Studies University, China in 2007. His research interests include general linguistics, cognitive linguistics, theory and practice in English teaching. Dr. Liu has published more than 11 textbooks and 30 research papers on cognitive linguistics and applied linguistics.

Ting Li (corresponding author) was born in Shaanxi province, China in 1995. She will receive her Master's Degree in applied linguistics from Beijing International Studies University, China in 2021. Her research interests include second language acquisition, English teaching and discourse analysis.

Huiying Diao was born in Jilin province, China in 1994. She will receive her Master's Degree in applied linguistics from Beijing International Studies University, China in 2021. Her research interests include cognitive linguistics, corpus linguistics and English teaching.

Analysis of Pragmatic Functions of English Euphemism from the Perspective of Pragmatic Principles

Yujuan Cao
Shanxi Normal University, Shanxi, China

Abstract—Euphemism is a common linguistic phenomenon in human society and plays an important role in human daily communicative activities. In the process of the development of euphemism, there are many studies on euphemism. On the one hand, it has achieved rich achievements, and on the other hand, there are also deficiencies. This article will discuss the pragmatic functions of English euphemism under the guidance of pragmatic principles. By observing and studying the applied examples of euphemism in life, at the same time to link the guidance of pragmatic principles, the paper concludes that the euphemism plays different functions in people's lives, and enables both parties to successfully complete communication.

Index Terms—euphemism, cooperation principle, politeness principle, pragmatic functions

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background

Euphemism has been highly concerned by the linguistic community and has always been a research hotspot. The research results are very abundant. Up to now, researches on euphemism have mainly focused on such domains as semantics, pragmatics, rhetoric, sociolinguistics, and fuzzy linguistics. What's more, findings in these areas provided people with a correct understanding of euphemism, and there is a great significance on the study of euphemism.

Though there are many researches on euphemism at home and abroad, and great achievements have been made, there are also problems in the researches made before. First of all, the phenomenon of simple repetition is more serious; secondly, many articles remain in the shallow introductory level and do not do in-depth and meticulous researches; thirdly, there are few monographs about euphemistic researches at home and abroad. Based on the problems in the euphemism researches, it is necessary to carry out a more in-depth study of this linguistic phenomenon, which has caused widespread concern. Hence, scholars should better study euphemism based on previous theories and make up for the shortcomings of euphemistic researches.

B. Purpose and Significance

Euphemism uses a more subtle tone to express all kinds of intense and unspeakable discourses and uses rich linguistic expressions to achieve unique rhetorical meanings and produces unique linguistic effects. Moreover, under the usage of pragmatic principles, the pragmatic functions produced by euphemism can make conversations more polite, and can avoid unnecessary embarrassing situations and enable both parties to complete their communications successfully. Hence, the purpose of this article is to find out the functions of euphemism under the guidance of pragmatic principles and to help readers better understand the applications of euphemism in life.

Euphemism has a wide range of applications in various fields. Many scholars have expressed their opinions on the functions and applications of euphemism, and scholars also have conducted in-depth researches on euphemism and have put forward their own opinions on the functions of euphemism. This article will further analyze functions of euphemism and put forward my own opinion based on the previous theories in order to let people feel the existence of euphemism in daily life.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A proposed theory has a guiding role in practice. The correct theories can better guide the euphemism to function and to better serve people's lives. The simple introduction of the theoretical basis for the study will be showed as follows:

A. Pragmatic Principles

To ensure smooth communication, language users must abide by some basic principles, which are called the pragmatic principles, including the principle of cooperation put forward by American philosopher Grice in 1967 and the principle of politeness raised by Leech.

1. The Cooperation Principle

When you talk with other people, you should make your speaking as is required. In actual communication, the

speaker usually means a lot more than what he is said. H.P. Grice thinks that the production of speaking must be governed by some rules. This is what he calls the Cooperation Principle, which has four maxims: the maxim of quality, quantity, relation and manner.

Simply speaking, the Cooperation Principle guides a person that they should say something that is true in a clear and relevant manner. On the one hand, the above four maxims are extremely important in dialogue interactions, because these conversational maxims are necessary to ensure the participants to effectively and rationally use language in the conversation on the basis of cooperation. On the other hand, language users in communication may violate or despise these conversational maxims to achieve their communicative goals.

2. The Politeness Principle

The principle of cooperation explains the relationship between the literal meaning and the actual meaning of discourse, but it does not explain why people often violate the principle of cooperation and express their thoughts in an implicit and indirect way to communicate. Hence, Leech proposed the principle of politeness to remedy this deficiency of the principle of cooperation.

Leech puts forward six maxims of the Politeness Principle which runs as follows: Minimize the expression of impolite beliefs and maximize the expression of polite beliefs. The politeness principle contains six parts: the tact maxim; generosity maxim; approbation maxim; modesty maxim; agreement maxim and sympathy maxim.

B. Researches on Euphemism

Euphemism plays an increasingly important role in people's lives. On the one hand, it not only makes people's conversations smoother, but also enhances people's intimacy; on the other hand, people also pay more and more attention to the study of euphemism. So there have been many researches on euphemism at home and abroad, and people have come to understand and experience euphemism from different perspectives.

1. Researches Abroad

Many scholars have conducted in-depth researches on euphemism and have put forward their own opinions on the functions of euphemism. Western scholars studied euphemism long time ago.

The Puritans of the 17th century pursued zealously in language and grace. Noah Webster revised the *Bible* in 1833, making it a clearer version of vulgar words and marking euphemism as the ultimate expression.

In 1880s, the first man who used the term euphemism for the first time in English was the English writer Gorge Blunt. He gave such a definition: Euphemism is a good of favorable interpretation of a bad word.

Many scholars (Mencken, Bollinger, Neman and Sliver) have conducted researches on euphemism one after another. H. L. Mencken explored in great detail how euphemism came into being and became popular in *The American Language* and he proposed that euphemism plays important role in human life. (Mencken, 1936)

James George Frazer, a British scholar, was one of the earliest scholars to start systematic research on euphemism. In *A golden Bough - A Study in Magic and Religion*, Frazer used a great deal of space (four chapters) to study taboo words, behaviors, things and names.

Leech, G. N. introduced the principles of pragmatics in *Principle of Pragmatics*, he said that pragmatic principles can be divided into two classes: the cooperation principle and the politeness principle. (Leech, 1983)

In 1985, D. J. Enright published a collection of essays entitled *Fair of Speech, the Use of Euphemism*, which collected many essays on euphemism and provided information for euphemistic researches in the future.

In 1991, Allan Kate Burrige published *Euphemism and Dysphemism*, a book that is very useful for scholars who study English euphemism from a pragmatic point of view. Burrige proposed that euphemism is the substitution of an agreeable or inoffensive word or term for one that is indelicate, blasphemous, or taboo. Various types of euphemisms are found in the *Bible*. (Burrige, 1991)

In 2003, Wierzebecka, A. published *Cross-Cultural Pragmatics: The Semantics of Human Interaction* introduced the principles which used in human interactions. He proposed that pragmatic can be used as a guidance of human interactions (Wierzebecka, 2003)

Hugh Rawson, an American scholar, once said that euphemism is so deeply embedded in our language that no one of us can spend a day without euphemism, even those who claim to be straightforward, and he proposed that euphemism embodies the British and American linguists' research on euphemism for many years. (Hugh, 1981)

2. Researches at Home

Similar to Western countries, the development of euphemism in China is also influenced by factors, such as traditional concepts and religious ideology. Language and culture are also inextricably linked. As a famous ancient civilization and state of ceremonies, China has always attached great importance to social and family harmony. Under such a historical and cultural background, Chinese euphemism has made great progress.

In 2000, according to the theory of Grice and Leech, Shu Ding Fang introduced the relationship between the pragmatics principles of the verbal communication process of euphemism and he also said that the problems of euphemism can be solved under the guidance of pragmatic rules. This has a profound influence on the study of euphemism. (Shu, 2000)

Hongrui Wen divided motives for motivating euphemism into fear and politeness. He believed that the desire to love face or fear of losing face is widespread and transcends all cultural boundaries, no matter what ethnic group he is or what kind of person he is. When grown up in a cultural context, people always pay attention to face. (Wen, 1996)

Changhuai Lu proposed that the pragmatic functions of euphemism are avoiding taboos and avoiding vulgarity in *Introduction to Linguistics*. (Lu, 2004)

Runqing Liu put forward euphemism and taboo in the *New Linguistics Tutorial*, pointing out that the use of euphemism has greatly changed people's communicative methods and improved people's communicative activities. (Liu, 2006)

Zhuanglin Hu introduced euphemisms and taboos in *The Linguistics Course* to highlight the role of euphemisms in life. He said that euphemisms are useful in daily communication. (Hu, 2011)

III. THE NECESSITY OF STUDYING EUPHEMISM UNDER PRAGMATIC PRINCIPLES

A. *The Guiding Role of Pragmatic Principles*

The pragmatic principles refer to the cooperation principle and the politeness principle. In actual communication, people use pragmatic principles to guide their daily life. Euphemism is a common phenomenon in the history of human beings, and it has been euphemistically expressed in different linguistic societies and at different social levels for some time and has drawn people's attention and focus. In real life, people use euphemistic, elegant, polite words instead of renegade, hurting, vulgar words to make each other feel comfortable and unharmed.

Through observation, it is not difficult to find that euphemism is used in people's daily communication, while the pragmatic principles are used to guide people's communication activities, so the pragmatic principles play a certain guiding role in the use of euphemism.

For example, the tact maxim of the politeness principle: Minimize the damage to others and benefit the most. For example, would it possible for you to lend me your watch? That is to say, when you talk to people, you should be strategic. Minimize the damage to others and benefit the most. When you want to lend a watch, you say "would you..." in this way will make people comfortable and feel that you are a polite man, and maybe promise your requirement. Using this expression makes the sentence more euphemistic. That is to say, under the guidance of the tact maxim, people express their ideas more euphemistically. In conclusion, pragmatic principles are the guidance for using euphemism.

Take approbation maxim of the politeness principle for another example: Try to reduce the derogation of others, and try to exaggerate the praise of others. For example, "you are really a good teacher!" To see more of the strengths of others in the conversations and to praise others for more praise will make people happy and make the conversation smoother. The approbation maxim guides people to express praises to others, so in our daily life, we try to exaggerate the praise of others. In conclusion, pragmatic principles are the guidance for using euphemism.

Another example, when communicating with others, people try to reduce dislike towards others, and express sympathy for other people's bad situations and let others feel your concern so that they can continue to share with you and promote the smooth progress of the conversation, which is called *Sympathy Maxim*: Do your best to reduce your distaste for others and try to exaggerate your sympathy for others. For example, A: "My grandmother died yesterday." B: "I'm sorry to hear that". Under the guidance of the sympathy maxim, people try to exaggerate sympathy for others. In conclusion, pragmatic principles are the guidance for using euphemism.

In a word, under the guidance of the pragmatic principles, people increasingly like to use euphemism to express their ideas, and in real life people use euphemism more often and more smoothly. Hence, the pragmatic principles play the guiding role for using euphemism.

B. *The Stimulating Effect of Euphemism on Pragmatic Principles*

In actual communication, it is inevitable for us to use the euphemism to communicate, and the usage of euphemism reflects and promotes the pragmatic principles.

For example, a parent said: someone's eaten the icing off the cake. In this sentence, the parents did not directly blame the children, but used an indefinite pronoun someone, saying only that "someone" had eaten the powdered sugar on the cake, thus violating the maxim of the manner. The purpose is to maintain the child's politeness. In actual communication, the speaker should not use marked expressions for no reason. If the speaker uses these expressions, his meaning is different from what he could have expressed with an unmarked expression. Hence, in this way people use a new way to express euphemism, and stimulate pragmatic principles to develop new expressions on maxims.

Another example, at a party, A says "Mrs. X is so fat." There is a moment of appalled silence, and then B says "The weather is sunny today, isn't it?" B has apparently refused to make what he says relevant to A's preceding remark. He thereby implicates that A's remark should not be discussed and, perhaps more specifically, that A has made something wrong. We can see that B's answer is irrelevant to A's question, but we can understand the intended meaning of B; he wants to immediately change the different topics to avoid embarrassing Ms. X. Hence, in this example, the usage of euphemism violates the maxim of relation, and the usage of euphemism reflects the cooperation principle in pragmatic principles.

In real life, in order to communicate more politely and achieve the communicative goal better, the violation of the principle of cooperation is inevitable. Use some of the makeup language, or the language has nothing to do with the topic to express their meaning more tactfully, and the purpose is to preserve the speaker's face, to make the communication be successful. Moreover, in this way, people are increasingly seeing the benefits of using euphemism,

and using euphemism to promote the development of euphemism while promoting the development of pragmatic principles.

In conclusion, from what have been discussed above, through the examples we can find that on the one hand, the pragmatic principles guide the using of euphemism, and on the other hand, better develop pragmatic principles in the usage of euphemism, which is called the stimulating effect of euphemism.

IV. PRAGMATIC FUNCTIONS OF EUPHEMISM UNDER PRAGMATIC PRINCIPLES

With the development of the times, people are paying more and more attention to the skills of speaking and the way they express their ideas. Not only must they be polite, they should also pursue euphemistically effective results. As a result, euphemism has received more and more attention from people, and the use of euphemism is also seen everywhere in people's lives. For example, for the word "death", in order to avoid directly mentioning this unpleasant expression, people would use euphemism: "go" (走了), "die" (去世), "go west" (归西天), "have a good ending" (功德圆满了), "be with God" (和上帝一起了), etc.

The role of euphemism in the context of real life is called the pragmatic function of euphemism. Pragmatic functions of euphemism play a great role in people's lives. The use of euphemism can avoid the use of words that people do not like to hear and change into more acceptable expressions, which can make the two sides' conversation more respectful and polite; it can also hide the original appearance of the matter and reduce people's sense of disgust; it can also resolve the embarrassing situation and stimulate the atmosphere of conversation.

Generally speaking, under the principles of pragmatic the euphemism has avoidance function; politeness function; elegance function; disguise function and humor function. The simple introduction of the pragmatic functions is as follows:

A. Avoidance Function

The so-called avoidance function refers to the use of euphemism in people's conversations to avoid certain expressions. This function complies with the *Sympathy Maxim* under the politeness principle: Do your best to reduce your distaste for others and try to exaggerate your sympathy for others. For example, some people express embarrassing or unlucky expressions. People often use euphemism to decrease their original intentions and use a kind of expression that people are more willing to accept. When it comes to death, people are more inclined to express "death" as "die" (去世); "long-dead life" (与世长辞); "rest" (安息); "long sleep" (长眠), etc. In English also have some expressions, such as "be with God"; "to fall asleep"; "to go to a better place"; "no longer with us", etc.

Take some sentences in "*Dream of the Red Chamber*" as an example to analyze the euphemism's avoidance function. For example: Suddenly I saw a few people in Eastern Mansion, they ran in panic and said, "The old man has had a good day!" Everyone was shocked, and hurriedly said, "He was not even ill, how could he pass away so suddenly!" The family said: "Master exercises every day is sure to be a success. The immortal goes." In these sentences, the reader uses "had a good day"; "pass away" and "immortal" rather than "die" in order to avoid unhappy expression.

Another example, contraception, which is a necessary measure for family planning, was originally bright and straightforward, but today people are reluctant to say such words. Family planning is the term we use, while in western country, it is called birth control. Birth control is actually a euphemism for family planning. On the surface, it seems to be an economic planning or an education program, and it literally does not involve children's affairs. In fact, it is talking about this aspect.

Hence, the phenomenon such as live, death, sickness, sexuality, raping, and catastrophes, if spoken directly, it would give people a dirty, harsh feeling. Conversely, if expressed in an indirect and implicit manner, you can avoid taboos and give people a comfortable feeling.

B. Politeness Function

The politeness function of euphemism refers to people's consideration of each other's face in communication, and the usage of a more euphemistic expression will not cause the other person to fall into an awkward situation and make the conversation go smoothly. This function complies with the politeness principle. Leech puts forward the Politeness Principle which runs as follows: Minimize other things being equal the expression of impolite beliefs and maximize the expression of polite beliefs.

For example, some words involving physical defects or appearance defects generally cause people who are with such defects to be frustrated or disgusted, and even cause inferiority. Therefore, in communication, such words are generally not easy to use, and euphemisms are used instead when necessary or when they have to be expressed. For example, use the euphemistic expression "mentally deranged" to instead of "mad"; use "slow-witted", "unwise" to instead of "foolish"; use "unable to hear" rather than "deaf"; use "plain-looking" rather than "ugly"; and use "well-developed", "full-figured" rather than "fat". This function complies with *Tact Maxim*: Minimize the damage to others and benefit the most. That is to say, when you talk to people, you should be strategic. Minimize the damage to others and benefit the most.

Take some sentences in "*Dream of the Red Chamber*" as an example to analyze the euphemism's politeness function. For example, Chai Chen thanked him endlessly and said: "After serving, bring my worthless son to the house and give

thanks.” In this sentence, the author uses worthless son to refer to his son, which is a polite expression.

“In the past, I went astray in this way myself and suspect your honorable son may do the same. If it is difficult for him to work hard at home, he is very welcome to my humble house....” In this sentence, the author uses humble house to refer to his house, which is a polite expression.

The politeness function of euphemism, under the guidance of politeness principle can make people’s communication more polite, more decent and more helpful.

C. Elegance Function

Generally speaking, the elegance function of euphemism refers to the politeness problem in communication, and usually achieves the effect of politeness by virtue of the ambiguity generated by deviations from the meaning of words, so that the communicative parties avoid irritation and eliminate vulgarity in verbal communication, and make people feel elegant. But some words are actually often used as curses or discourses by people when they are angry, depressed and unsatisfied, or they have evolved into verbal expressions of rude people. In desperation, saying dirty words is an unavoidable thing in most people’s life. Therefore, those dirty words or unlucky words, and words that sound harsh and disgusting have corresponding euphemism, in order to make the expression as elegant as possible. The examples will be introduced as follows:

For example, a common curse term, the euphemism of “hell” (见鬼去!) is “oh, heck!”. Another example, “bloidy” is “blinking”, “You blinking fool!” Such expressions, as long as they are not deliberately aimed at someone, generally do not cause anger or resentment from others. This function complies with Tact Maxim in politeness principle, minimize the damage to others.

There are also many other annoying terms, so in conversations people often choosing to avoid them. For example: people are more likely to use the euphemism form “ drop the kids off at the pool” instead of the “shit”; use “break wind” instead of “fart”; and use “go to the bathroom” instead of “piss”, though some physiological nouns are not very elegant. For example, shit, it is very vulgar to say, people in the daily change to stool, solution, go to the toilet.

For example, Lu Xun wrote: The professor said: “But his article, I have read it and put it where it should go.” The euphemism that the professor used the place to go refers to the places where people do not want to mention ---toilets. The upper-class people think that the word “toilet” is dirty and disdainful. When one speaks the world, he becomes rough. Even though elegant people, they have to go to the place where they don’t want to call their names. In order to express the toilet elegantly, people often use euphemism to express, such as “lavatory”(厕所), “latrine” (公共厕所), “dressing room” (更衣室), “powder room” (化妆师), “lounge” (休息室) and so on.

The elegance function of euphemism, under the guidance of politeness principle can make the expression as elegant as possible, and can make people feel more comfortable.

D. Disguise Function

The basic feature of the euphemism’s disguise function is the inconsistency between the surface meaning and the unsaid actual meaning. These inconsistencies can manifest itself between the word and the signified; between appearance and truth; between the language’s communicative function and the disguised essence. The reason why people use euphemism in communication is that the euphemism has a vague color and is quite deceptive, and it has become a tool for deceiving politicians and profiteers. Sometimes it may make people feel confused that euphemism is used as a way to express something directly. The examples will be introduced as follows:

For example, the governments or businessmen always use it to disguise the reality, and it means that they use good words to mask things which are not beautiful in reality. Hence, this function violates the *Maxim of Quality* of the cooperation principle: Try to make your contribution one that is true. That is to say what you said is that you think it is true; do not say what you think it is not true. The governments or businessmen violate the maxim of quality to disguise the reality.

Another example, in the Iraq war, the United States created a lot of euphemisms to “make up” the war so as not to arouse people’s dislike of the war. For example, “preemptive action” (先发制人的行动) rather than “invasion” (入侵), “pacify the area” (绥靖地区) instead of “attack” (进攻), “bombing and blasting” (轰炸扫射) called “softening up the resistance” (削弱抵抗). Its euphemistic words were used to hide the cruelty of its war and weaken people’s dislike of war.

By means of euphemism, people can easily escape from embarrassing occasions. For example, in western community, “the poor” is called as “the needy”, later it was changed as “the culturally deprived”, then to “the underprivileged”, at last to “the disadvantaged”. So, in this case, people may feel confused that there are no poor people in that country at all. This is the disguise effect produced by the meaning of words by employing euphemism.

E. Humor Function

In daily life, it is inevitable that there will be difficult or embarrassing situations. At this moment, humor is the best regulator. You can use some witty techniques to free yourself from your awkward situation and create a harmonious and beautiful atmosphere in order to establish friendly relations with others. Therefore, in some embarrassing circumstances, euphemistic expressions can be used to help people out of trouble. This is the humor function of euphemism.

For example, at a banquet, a famous painter wanted to return to his hometown and his students were holding a banquet. A singer also came to the party. At the beginning of the banquet, the painter went to the singer and said: "Sir, you are a gentleman. I am a villain. I will honor you first." All the people were stunned. The singer could not understand what he was doing. He asked with a smile: "What did you say?" The painter said with a smile: "You are a gentleman. You work with your mouth, while I am a villain, working with my hands." Laughed, the banquet atmosphere was very warm. Using humorous conversations in euphemisms will help people get out of awkward situations and give people a relaxed atmosphere, and make your communicative activities smooth and unobstructed.

Another example, once, Lincoln faced the audience and spoke incessantly. Suddenly someone in the crowd handed him a note. Lincoln took the note and opened it without thinking. Unexpectedly, the note was written "stupid people". At that time, the people next to Lincoln had already seen these two words. They all stared at President Lincoln to see how he handled such brazen provocations. Under the gaze of many people, Lincoln smiled a little and said: "I have received many anonymous letters. All of them are only texts, but I don't see signatures. Today, the opposite is true. There is only a signature on this note, but it lacks the text!" Voices just fell, and applause broke out on the entire venue. Everyone applauded the wisdom and humor of Lincoln. The signed man bowed his head and mixed into the crowd and slipped away. The atmosphere of the entire venue was changed from tense to relax. The speech continued.

In conclusion, humor is a kind of power in the social situation. In daily communication, the function of humor is a combination of wisdom and knowledge and can help people escape from dangerous and embarrassing situations.

The use of English euphemism functions is not only reflected in everyday life, political life and war rhetoric, but also reflected in other aspects of social life. Knowing this knowledge will help understand the complex links between language and society and at the same time, mastering English euphemism knowledge and skillfully using its functions can not only avoid short circuits in communication, but also avoid communication pitfalls and promote smooth communication activities. Under the guidance of cooperation principle and politeness principle, the pragmatic functions of euphemism play a great role in people's lives, greatly improving people's communication methods, making communication participants more polite, more refined, and more humorous to express their own ideas.

After the above discussion, we have analyzed the five functions of euphemism in life, in literary works, and in political language. Under the guidance of pragmatic principles, euphemism has greatly facilitated people's lives.

V. CONCLUSION

A. Major Findings

Based on the pragmatic principles, this article attempts to study the pragmatic functions of euphemism through the applications of euphemism under the pragmatic principles. This article introduced the pragmatic functions, including the avoidance function; politeness function; elegance function; disguise and humor function. Through many examples, people can easily find that euphemism plays an important role in our lives and uses a more subtle tone to express all kinds of intense and unspeakable discourses; people can also find that euphemism uses rich linguistic expressions to achieve unique rhetorical meanings and produces unique linguistic effects to make people look like polite.

B. Limitations and Suggestions

This paper is only based on pragmatic principles, there are still many deficiencies in the exploratory study of the functions of euphemism, which are left to be further criticized and corrected by scholars. The inadequacy of this article is that there are many references in the theoretical parts, and there are no good practical parts. The whole article is based on a number of proven theories and there are not many innovations. Many deficiencies also invite you to bearing with me. Thank you.

In the future there will be more and more scholars studying euphemism. People can add more case studies based on previous theories and find more functions about euphemism, and do more practices. Last but not the least, with the continuous development of society, the better combination of theory and practice makes the theory more persuasive and the articles more real.

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Yujuan Cao was born in Shanxi, China in 1995. She is currently a graduate student of the School of Foreign Language, Shanxi Normal University, Shanxi, China. Her research interests include sociolinguistics and eco-linguistics.

Flipped Classroom as a Supporting Plan for Iranian EFL Learners' English Improvement in Super Intensive Courses

Mustapha Hajebi

Department of Education, Bandar Abbas, Iran

Abstract—The present study sought to investigate the effectiveness of flipped classroom as a supporting plan for Iranian EFL learners' English improvement in super intensive courses. The participants included a sample of 40 students from Accent English language institute of Bandar Abbas, Iran, then divided into two experimental and control groups randomly. The dependent variable was English improvement and independent variable was watching and learning by films that gathered by Hajebi (2020). This study took in 30 sessions and involved treatment, pre-test, post-test and random assignment that it was in line with true experimental design, so the design of the current study was quantitative design. To analyze the data the frequencies and percentage of each item in the questionnaires computed with the aid of SPSS. The findings indicated that not only did flipped model of instruction improve students' English performance but also it improved their overall attitudes and beliefs towards it and boosted students' motivation and learning. Furthermore, this study may offer some implications for language teaching and learning.

Index Terms—English improvement, supper intensive course, flipped classroom

I. INTRODUCTION

Flipped teaching and learning in education has not only changed the traditional learning patterns and teacher-center learning, but also improving student learning achievement and increase interaction among learners and teachers (Hwang & Lai, 2017). Apart from the typical classroom schedules for learning regular programs which include short and widely spaced sessions over a long period of time also intensive programs are available for L2 learners that include an extensive amount of hours of contact with the L2 over a short period of time (Collins, Halter, Lightbrown & Spada, 1999; Lightbown & Spada 1991). Even though the total amount of time on task in these programs may still be far from the amount of L1 exposure students receive. There is some variability in the design of intensive courses, but in general these programs tend to provide L2 input and output practice for at least four hours every day, five days a week (Serrano, 2011). Durrant and Schmitt, (2010) says It seems reasonable to expect that such a schedule will be more beneficial for the acquisition language skills. In other words, the spacing of the presented may be hypothesized to be more conducive to learning in an intensive program than in a regular program, where the spacing intervals are probably too wide to allow recall of former presentations of the items (as cited in Serrano, Stengers, & Housen, 2015).

As Pirasteh and Mirzaeian, (2015) believed difficulties and obstacles in the learning of English in institutes in Iran encourage teachers and researchers to look for ways to overcome these barriers. Teachers should make learning interesting for students and make them responsible for their own learning. One way is to encourage students and teachers to use available technologies rather than using traditional methods of language learning and teaching. Today Iranian students have at least one mobile phone that is always and everywhere with them. It can be used as an educational tool that is always available and does not have some of the limitations of traditional methods.

This study aims at highlighting the educational shift of the emergence of flipped classroom as a supporting plan for Iranian EFL learners' English improvement in super intensive courses. The main focus is on how EFL students of *Accent English Language Institute* in Bandar Abbas update themselves to use mobile technologies to support their English language level, mainly the way they improve their skills in a flipped classroom.

Flipped Classroom Resources

Schools have access to numerous platforms and online sources for flipping the classroom. One of the simplest resources that a teacher can use is YouTube to find videos that other educators have produced within specific subjects. A simple internet search showed an accumulation of materials including the Khan Academy for video presentations (Tucker, 2012). The Khan Academy is an online video library for educational use and is designed for educators. As more teachers become comfortable with the use of digital technology, the increase in educational videos will continue.

Teachers can also produce their own videos to provide a more familiar voice to the students they teach, for example; English with Mr Hajebi is an application that contains 49 videos for basic level and 23 lives with different teachers around the world about English pedagogy. The uses of online communities such as Blackboard, Camtasia, Coursera, Schoology, Haiku, and Moodle have also found their way into the flipped classroom with great success (Addy & Stevenson, 2012; Brame, 2012; Bull et al., 2012; Caverly & McDaniel, 2010; Dickerson et al., 2011; Fulton, 2012).

These choices can help teachers of all technology levels. The choice of technology helped good teachers become better even if the technology was of poor quality.

Self-Efficacy

Teachers have known for years that when students use their own experiences in the classroom, they take ownership of their own learning and their desire to learn more about a subject because it becomes personal (Ajzen, 2005). Positive personal experiences in learning can elicit an increase in classroom performance (Ajzen, 2005). People with higher self-efficacy set higher personal goals and have been shown to have a better commitment to accomplishing those goals (Bandura, 1989). The idea is that when a student believes they can accomplish a task, they are more academically motivated to complete the task (Clayton, Blumber, & Auld, 2010).

Self-Efficacy and Learning

Students who believe in their abilities in the classroom are able to rely on their own learning abilities when educational challenges are presented to them (Bandura, 1997). There have been numerous papers and research done on student self-efficacy and its place in the classroom (Arslan, 2013; Bandura, 1997; Louis & Mistele, 2012; Peters, 2013; Velayutham, Aldridge, & Fraser, 2012). Arslan (2013) identifies a reciprocal effect between self-efficacy and academic achievement with self-efficacy predicting achievement and achievement as a source of self-efficacy. Students that possess higher self-efficacy have also shown to perform better in math and science classes and pursue stream fields (Peters, 2013).

Self-Efficacy and the Flipped Classroom

Teachers that implemented the flipped classroom model showed that students performed better on exams, they were better motivated, teachers were impressed by the content of work produced by students, and teachers identified a reduction in student stress levels (Marlowe, 2012). Students that displayed a positive effect from class also displayed an increase in self-efficacy (Ajzen, 2012). Many students in a flipped classroom showed an improvement in behavior and retention of material (Nolan & Washington, 2013). The flipped classroom's use of technology and web-based learning is also showing promise with students that already show strong self-efficacy.

Mobile Learning

In recent years, the world has witnessed an explosion in the growth of mobile learning across various sectors of education. In fact, whenever referring to mobile learning, many authors use the term mobile as synonym to mobile phone, amounting to a misconception to the whole concept (Eteokleous & Laouris, 2005). However, this new concept is still ill-defined because of the difficulty in characterizing the unique nature of mobile learning. It is to say that many researchers agree upon the difficulty of providing an exact definition of what constitutes mobile learning, claimed Kukulska-Hulme & Traxler (cited in Hockly, 2013). Accordingly, Winters stated that mobile learning has been defined from different perspectives varying from particular experiences, uses, and backgrounds; seeming to be all thing to all people (cited in Sharples, 2006). In other words, the concept of mobile learning is defined from different angles, depending on various variables.

Traxler (2009) claimed that M- learning continued to gain identity and definition rather than lose them. Thus, multi-dimensional definitions have been provided to the concept of mobile learning. In the past, mobile learning has often been defined in terms of its use of mobile technologies. More recent definitions espouse it to e-learning and informal learning, as well as the mobility of the learner. A formal definition provided by UNESCO (2014) states that mobile learning involves the use of mobile technology, either alone or in combination with other information and communication technology (ICT), to enable learning anytime and anywhere. Another simple definition was provided by Quinn (2000), stating that mobile learning is learning which takes place with the assistance of mobile devices (cited in Eteokleous & Laouris, 2005). In line with this definition, many authors also shed light on the technological aspect while identifying M- learning because they consider this new technology as a "pervasive medium that may assist us in combining work, study, and leisure time in meaningful ways" (cited in Eteokleous & Laouris, 2005).

Traxler (2005) explicates that mobile learning is the provision of education and training on mobile devices. Another technocentric definition was provided by O'Malley et al. (2003) saying that it is any sort of learning that takes place when the learner is not at a fixed, predetermined location, or learning happening when the learner exploits learning opportunities offered by mobile technologies. Accordingly, The Molenet initiative, a program across the UK vocational sector, believes that mlearning is exploiting the ubiquity of handheld hardware, wireless networking and mobile telephony to enhance and extend the reach of teaching and learning processes (cited in Traxler, 2009). Therefore, Desmond (2005) took a similar position, asserting that when defining mobile learning, the focus should be on mobility. He pointed out, "mobile learning should be restricted to learning on devices which a lady can carry in her handbag or a gentleman can carry in his pocket" (cited in Traxler, 2009, p. 2). Therefore, the portability of the mobile device should be taken into consideration to facilitate the learning process.

Mobile learning is sometimes viewed as a mere extension of e-learning. Formal definitions from European and Government agencies espouse the term mobile learning to the concept of e-learning, stated Winters (2006) (cited in Sharples, 2006). Most researchers and educators consider mobile learning as an immediate descendent of e-learning. To elucidate, Pikwart et al. (2003) believed that e-learning is learning assisted by electronic tools and media, following this, mlearning is e-learning that uses mobile technology and wireless transmission (cited in Eteokleous & Laouris, 2005). It is to say that mobile learning has always led to e-learning, as Traxler (2007) pointed out that mobile learning therefore

should be understood as both “a continuation of ‘conventional’ e-learning and a reaction to this ‘conventional’ e-learning and to its perceived inadequacies and limitations” (p. 1). Chinnery (2006) took a similar position by asserting that mobile learning is a burgeoning subdivision of the e-learning movement. Quinn (2000), who viewed mlearning as e-learning through mobile computational devices (cited in Traxler, 2009, p. 2), also claimed that mlearning is the intersection of mobile computing and e-learning (cited in Tomei, 2008).

Mobile Learning as an Informal Way of Learning

Another perspective on mobile learning sheds light on its informal aspect, leading to juxtaposition between mobile learning and formal education as well as linking other interrelated aspects of M-learning such as context and learner’s perspective. Global Encyclopedia of Information provided a simple definition of informal learning; in which both goals and processes of learning are set by the learner, and where the learning is situated rather than pre-established (Tomei, 2018). Along the same vein, a definition of mobile learning provided by Wikipedia (2014), saying that M-learning is learning across multiple contexts, through social and content interactions, using personal electronic devices. Moreover, mobile learning is considered as an opportunity to be creative. Accordingly, Sharples (2007) pointed out that “mobile learning gives us the opportunity to design learning differently, to create extended learning communities, to provide expertise on demand, and to support a lifetime of learning” (cited in Ticheler, 2010, “Mobile Learning”). Walker (2007) shared focusing on context; he stated that M-learning is not merely the use of portable devices, but learning across contexts (cited in Ticheler, 2010). It is to say that M-learning supports EFL learner’s individual learning style, providing the opportunity to be self-creative and to learn in different contexts.

Mobile Technology

Nowadays, mobile devices make mobile learning possible by delivery of various learning materials and content to learners. Indeed, a wide range of activities related to language learning are supported by mobile and palmtop devices. Trifanova et al. (2004) defined mobile devices as “...any device that is small, autonomous and unobtrusive enough to accompany us in every moment” (cited in Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2007, p. 3). An investigation of the MALL literature reveals that the research in the field has tend to employ devices such as mobile phones/smartphones and palmtop computers (Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2007). Such portable devices-referred to in popular and scholarly literature as “mobile, wireless, handheld or nomadic- are now social staples” (Chinnery, 2006, p. 9). Mobile technologies can be classified in terms of personalization, share ability and portability. Naismith, Lonsdale, Vavoulva and Sharples (2004) provided a classification of mobile technologies using the two orthogonal dimensions of personal vs. shared and portable vs. static. Learners tend to see mobile devices as a powerful medium in the classroom, enabling them to gather information, study, work, and communicate with both their teachers and classmates effectively. Beatty (2013) illustrated by imagining the situation: a teacher writes a detailed assignment on the board with much efforts, she asks her students to copy it down. When she finishes writing, the students take their mobile phones and snap a photo of the written text. Moreover, EFL learners tend to favor a specific device than another due to the personalization of every device; in terms of use, capacity, and features. While mobile phones, namely iPhones, have typically been the device of choice of many learners in recent years, other mobile devices such as tablet computers are also gaining popularity (Hubbard & Stockwell, 2013). It is with the iPhone, Android devices, and Windows Phone 7 products, a shift has happened from phones with added-on computing capabilities into mini-computers with phones capabilities (Godwin-Jones, 2011).

II. METHODOLOGY

Since the study involved treatment, pre-test, post-test, and random assignment that it was in line with true experimental design, so the design of the current study was quantitative design.

Participants

A number of 40 intermediate EFL learners selected from 70 participants as the population. The population selected from *Accent English Language Institute* of Bandar Abbas, Iran. The participants’ ages were between 11 to 40 years old. However, the 40 participants randomly divided into two experimental and control groups.

Instruments

The first instrument was the PET Test, a test which adopted to normalize the participants. This type of test functioned as a standard measure to verify participants’ degree of proficiency in four skills of language including speaking, reading, writing and listening. Moreover, the test indicated that a specific learner had learned the fundamentals of English language and currently had the ability to use language through the skills. Cambridge TESOL Department devised and advised this test to assess the learners’ ability in language at intermediate level. The second instrument was a supporting package plan gathered by Hajebi (2020) that contained two types of the films (educational and life style series) and each part had more than 500 hours.

Procedure and Data Collection

As it is clear, the flipped classroom is an instructional strategy and a type of blended learning that reverses the traditional learning environment by delivering instructional content, often online and outside of the classroom. So, the procedure of collection of the data stepwise as follow:

In order to conduct the study, the researcher administered the PET test to the population in order to form the participants and homogenize them according to their language skills proficiency. After administration of PET test, 40

students whose scores were one standard deviation below and above the mean selected as participation in this study. Then a number of 40 learners randomly divided into two groups as experimental and control group. Each group consisted of 20 intermediate learners.

After selecting and assigning of participants into groups, the groups pre-tested through the KET. The scores on the pre-test collected then calculated and stored for further analysis. Then, the control group treated through the *traditional* method of teaching English and the experimental group received treatment using methods of *flipped classroom*. At the first session, the researcher invited the experimental group and taught the basics, methods and rules of flipped classroom. At the second session until the thirtieth which held twice a week, the researcher taught just units of English books for both control and experimental groups. On the other hands, the experimental students had a supporting package plan gathered by Hajebi (2020) to work on it. The supporting plan consisted of two types of the films (educational and life style series). Finally they got ready for the post-test.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Several statistical analyses were conducted to answer and test the research question and hypothesis designed for this study.

TABLE 1
RESULTS OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PET AS HOMOGENIZING TEST

Test	Mean	SD	N
PET	59.05	9.817	70

As the result in table 1 shows, the mean is 59.5 and standard deviation is 9.817.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS; PRETEST OF IMPROVEMENT BY GROUPS

Group	Mean	Std.Error	confidence interval
Experimental	19.400	.235	19.320
Control	19.080	.235	19.309

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE OBTAINED SCORES OF BOTH GROUPS IN THE POSTTEST

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Experimental	20	16.20	3.58
Control	20	12.72	1.98

As is obvious in Table 3, the mean and standard deviation of the experimental group were 16.20, and 3.58, respectively. However, the mean and standard deviation of the control group were 12.72, and 1.98.

IV. CONCLUSION

The findings of the study indicated flipped model of instruction had a significant positive effect on EFL students' English development. The results also indicated that the experimental groups had a significantly higher mean on the posttest than control groups. This significant finding might be due to different reasons. One of the possible explanations for the observed results was that flipped classrooms enabled students to benefit more from classroom time and had more time for interaction, learning, assessment, and exploration (Fulton, 2012 & to Boucher, Robertson, Wainner, & Sanders 2013). The findings of the present study in this respect were in accordance with those of Hung (2015) who found that flipped instructional model in English classes developed students' academic performance in general.

The yielded results confirmed that several students expressed that they learned much better and it appeared that students benefitted from the flipped model of instruction. Most students found instructional videos helpful, engaging, and appropriately challenging.

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Mustapha Hajebi is an English language teacher in Department of Education, Bandar Abbas, Iran. He finished his undergraduate studies at Tehran University for Teacher Education, majoring in TEFL. His research interests include Second Language Teaching, Applied ELT, Speaking, Collocations and Educational Technology.

Intertextuality Theory and Translation

Yi Long

University of Shanghai for Science and Technology, Shanghai, China

Gaofeng Yu

University of Shanghai for Science and Technology, Shanghai, China

Abstract—Intertextuality theory is one of the most complicated literary theories in contemporary literary criticism; it has inherent connections with translation. According to intertextuality theory, translation is a type of transforming activity intertextualized with language, text, culture and thinking, etc. Any translated text is a tissue in an immense network of complex, where the significance of each text unfolds through referring to each other. In some degree, intertextuality theory breaks the traditional idea of translation, and has great enlightenment on translation in many aspects.

Index Terms—intertextuality, text, translation

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the beginning of the 21st century, translation studies have been further strengthened in both depth and breadth. However, with the emergence of various theoretical schools of humanities and social sciences, some of the cornerstones of translation theories that were previously admired by the translation community may collapse and be overthrown. Instead, it is a state of multi-symbiosis in translation theory guided by dialectical, dynamic and developing philosophical views, which can be used as a reference for other disciplines (Qin, 2002). Intertextuality is a term often used by postmodern masters and deconstructors. Intertextuality, as a text theory produced in structuralism and post-structuralism, involves the meaning generation, reading and interpretation of texts. There are a series of important problems in contemporary western literature and art, such as the relationship between text and cultural practice (Zhu, 2004). The purpose of introducing intertextuality into the study of translation is to help translation theory and practice get out of the closed shell and step into a broader and more open space.

II. THE ORIGIN OF THE INTERTEXTUALITY THEORY

“Intertextuality” is an important text theory formed in the trend of thought of western structuralism and post-structuralism. It usually refers to the intertextual relationship between two or more texts. The theory was first proposed by Julia Kristeva, a feminist critic who is a famous French semiotician of Bulgarian origin. While criticizing the unreasonable aspects of structuralism, she developed her own theories inspired by Bakhtin's dialogues and polyphony theories. Intertextuality is a basic feature of discourse. It is, to be precise, the heterogeneous characteristic that various corpora intersect each other in the process of discourse generation, a text that influences and correlates with other texts (Hu, 2006). Any text is an insert of the quotation, and any text is an absorption and adaptation of another (Kristeva, 1986). The other text mentioned by Kristeva is the mutual text in the common sense. It can refer to the social and historical text at the synchronic level, namely the text space of horizontal discourse mentioned above. It can also refer to the works of predecessors or descendants at the diachronic level, namely the vertical relationship dimension of the text. The absorption and adaptation of the text can be realized in the text by means of parody citation and collage (Zhang, 2009). Intertextuality indicates that all texts exist in the relationship with other texts. Texts in different space-time intersect to form a large system, and any single text exists as a part of the system. It can be seen that what Kristeva emphasizes is the internal process of text recombination or transformation, in which the corpus from other texts is combined into a new meaningful text according to its function (Xin, 2000).

III. CLASSIFICATION OF INTERTEXTUALITY

So far, many scholars have made many attempts on the classification of intertextuality and proposed different classification methods. Kristeva divides intertextuality into horizontal intertextuality and vertical intertextuality. The so-called horizontal intertextuality refers to the conversational intertextuality between a paragraph of discourse and a series of other discourses, while the vertical intertextuality refers to those contexts that constitute a discourse directly or indirectly, that is, those discourses that are related to it in various ways from the perspective of history or the contemporary era. Hatim and Mason divide intertextuality into positive intertextuality and negative intertextuality. Positive intertextuality refers to the knowledge and value beyond the text, while negative intertextuality is just to make the text coherent. Jenny divides intertextuality into strong intertextuality and weak intertextuality. Strong intertextuality refers to the fact that a certain text contains discourses related to other discourses, and such a degree is usually obvious,

such as quotation plagiarism, etc. Weak intertextuality refers to some content expressions in a text that semantically can arouse associations to other texts, such as similar ideas and themes. Genette refines and clarifies the intertextuality of the text. He believes that intertextuality should be called as “transtextuality”. He divides transtextuality into five main types: Intertextuality, quasi-textuality, meta-textuality, hypertextuality and universalism, emphasizing the hierarchical relationship between text and its intertextuality. Michael Riffaterre, however, constructs a triangle among text, intertext and ideograph, believing that all texts are a matrix and called the first text, while intertextuality belongs to the second text and ideography to the third or second intertext (Cheng, 1996). Therefore, when readers interpret the meaning of a text, they must gather more than one text and consider it together, and incorporate it into the interwoven network of texts for interpretation. This interpretation put forward multidimensional problems of intertextual interpretation, and at the same time demonstrates the openness and infinity of intertextual relations (Zhu, 2004). It can be seen that they emphasize the interaction and influence between text forms and text contents no matter how they classify.

IV. THE ENLIGHTENMENT OF INTERTEXTUALITY THEORY TO TRANSLATION

Intertextuality is characterized by the relevance and comprehensiveness of language and text. In the field of language activities, texts interweave with other texts while self-referential. Intertextuality adds a new dimension to translation studies (Chen, 2009). The implications of intertextuality on translation are reflected in the following two aspects.

A. *Intertextuality Breaks the Traditional View of Meaning in Translation*

In a sense, the history of translation is a history of the transformation of meaning. Although scholars have different views, as far as the criterion of translation is concerned, the quality of translation mostly depends on the degree to which the transformation of meaning is faithful to the meaning of the original text (Zhu & Lin, 2002). Eugene a. Nida, A famous American translation theorist, believed that translation refers to the reproduction of the information of the source language in the closest and most natural equivalent from semantics to style in the target language (Tan, 2000). Hirsch, an American writer and professor at the University of Virginia, believed that the key to the development of modern western philosophy and humanities lies in the pursuit of meaning and the grasp of the true level of meaning (Wang, 2001). Gentzler, director of the Translation center of the University of Massachusetts Amherst in the United States, said in his book *Contemporary Translation Theories* that the traditional view of meaning of structuralism holds that meaning is fixed and unchangeable. Different readers can interpret the same text to obtain a unified meaning (Gentzler, 1993).

But according to the theory of intertextuality, the identity of meaning or the certainty of meaning seems to be weak. Translation has the characteristics of intertextuality both in appearance and in essence. It can be said that translation itself is an intertextuality activity. Derrida, a French thinker and representative of deconstructive philosophy, believed that translation is the conversion from one language to another and the replacement of one text to another. Translation is a process of language conversion in a text network that integrates multiple meanings. Kristiva also strongly opposed the idea of meaning certainty. She divided the text into phenomenological text and genetic text, and believed that genetic text stipulated the logical operation unique to the composition of the subject of expression, and it was the place where phenomenological text was structured and meaning was generated (Huang, 1999). In his book *Exploration of contemporary western translation theories*, Professor Liao pointed out that in terms of space, symbols are always limited by other symbols, so symbols are not the same, and their meanings are also dependent on other symbols, so their meanings are uncertain and can only be distinguished by context. In terms of time, the symbol is always the place of holding up signified, so there is no constant meaning (Liao, 2000). As a result, literature, including literary meaning, becomes an unstable process of countless signifier imprints and infinite changes. It can be seen that the mutual reference between texts, the absorption and adaptation of one text to another form a radiating body of meaning. The generation of meaning is constantly interwoven, radiated, diffused and proliferated in the text network, so the meaning is uncertain and not invariable. Since translation is a process of language transformation in a text network that integrates multiple meanings, it can be said that translation is a process of the dialogue and communication between the original author, translator and readers across time and space, as well as an interactive process of selection, absorption, creation and variation. In this process, there is often some kind of infinite supplement, replacement, broadcast and proliferation of meaning. Even with different degrees of misinterpretation, it is still a derrida-style "gain" or "supplement" intertextuality conversion activity.

From a deeper perspective, intertextuality is not only reflected in the level of language and text, but also deeply hidden in the thinking and psychological activities of the original author, translator and translation reader as well as the critics. Therefore, the translator, as an intermediary between the author of the original text and the reader of the target text, needs to read a large number of previous texts, which are directly or indirectly related to the author's intention, the subject of the text and the connotation of the text. In addition, the reception psychology of the readers in the cultural system of the target language should be fully considered, and the intertextual reference in different cultures should be compared and contrasted. When translate, the translator can guide the reader to understand the intertextual association between the source language culture and the target language culture, satisfy the reader's desire and expectation for the cultural knowledge of the target language, and seek the intertextual association similar to the source language culture in the target language culture, fully reflecting the readability and acceptability of the translation (Chen, 2009).

In general, the process of translation is not only the conversion between languages and between texts and meanings, but also the mutual supplement of many original texts and many translated texts in a broader space and time, so as to create richer meanings than mere reproductions or duplications.

B. Intertextuality Theory Puts forward Higher Requirements for Translators.

As we know, the intertextuality theory emphasizes the nondeterminacy of text structure, and no text can exist without other texts. Text meaning depends on the interaction between the text and other texts. Specifically, the intertextuality theory includes the following three aspects: the completion of the text, the interpretation of the text and the rewriting of the text. And any of these aspects need to be accomplished using intertextuality knowledge. Translation is the transformation of text and meaning between languages. The translation itself is intertextual, and the original text and the translation are intertextual. Therefore, if we see the original text as a previous text, the translation should be the generated text of the previous text. In the conversion process from pre-text to generated text, that is, in the translation process, the translator plays three roles at the same time: the reader of the pre-text, the elucidator and the author of the generated text, and performs three tasks of completing, interpreting and rewriting the text in intertextuality (Zhu, 2004). To a large extent, the exertion of the translator's subjectivity determines whether this process can be successfully completed. Therefore, the translator should perform his/her duties, fully understand the source text, and play the role of the medium of the source text and the target text.

1. Translator as a reader

As a reader, the translator should first carefully read the original text, that is, he or she should read the original text as a reader. The Italian symbolist Umberto Eco said that no text could be read without any other text. That is to say, when reading the original text, the reader should make use of the intertextuality knowledge associated with the original text to fully understand the meaning of the original text. Furthermore, a text has meaning only when it is read, and the production of this meaning often depends to a great extent on the fusion of the field of view with the work (the text), as H. R. Jauss called it. Therefore, it requires translators as readers to combine their own social background and cultural background, give full play to their subjective initiative, carefully interpret the original text, and complete the text. However, according to the intertextuality theory, no text can be completely completed, because each new reader will bring his or her unique "competence model" into the reading process and fill the gaps in the text with different methods due to the different social and cultural backgrounds of his own era (Sun, 2008). To be precise, any reader only completes the text relatively, not absolutely, but each relative completion is a step toward absolute completion.

2. Translator as elucidator

The translator's second role is to elucidate the intertextuality theory, which requires the translator to grasp the text at a higher level and elucidate the original text carefully. Therefore, as elucidators, translators must first be familiar with the relevant literary themes and the historical and social background implied in the text. Secondly, translators must be familiar with all kinds of skills or strategies needed to express the unfamiliar content, and at the same time fully explore and display their literary connotation, so that they can perform their duties as elucidators from the content to the form to the overall style. As Eliot said, the young poets follow the example, and the mature poets try to change the source text (Scholes, 1988). Such changes refer to the mutual refraction in the intertextual theory. Only when the translator gives full play to his/her subjectivity, can he/she make a reasonable elucidation of various intertexts (Zhu, 2004).

3. Translator as an author

The translator's third role is the author. That is to say, after the translator completes the role of reader and elucidator, he or she needs to express the pre-text in another language, performing conscious or unconscious rewriting of the pre-text and reflecting a direct or indirect intertextual relationship. According to the process of translation, the translator has to shuttle back and forth in the interwoven network of texts to get his/her own understanding and the product of understanding, namely meaning, and then turn the product of understanding into the final product of translation, namely translation. This is a process of creation and re-creation, which needs the full play of the translator's subjectivity. Italian aesthetician and literary critic Benedetto Croce thinks that literary translation is the recreation of art, the translation is the regeneration of the original text, and the translator is the giver of the regeneration of life (Tan, 2000). British translator Andre Lefevere believes that whether translators can reproduce the original text depends on their skills as artists (Lefevere, 1995). Therefore, to what extent a translation can be revived depends entirely on the translator's subjectivity and creativity, in which intertextuality plays an important role (Zhu, 2004). Of course, the degree of translator's creativity also needs to be considered, the key is to be faithful to the original text and reflect the translator's style. Just as Mr. Qian quoted Confucius to say that one should follow one's heart and do what one wants without exceeding the rules, the rules here are about degree.

V. THE APPLICATION OF INTERTEXTUALITY THEORY IN TRANSLATION

To sum up, we know that no text (literary or non-literary) can be interpreted in isolation, and there are traces of intertextuality in any text (Wang & Liu, 2008). Therefore, the interpretation of any text requires the help of a large amount of mutual knowledge related to the text in order to get the correct interpretation. Kristiva once said in her book "novel text" that any text hides the accumulation of cultural traditions of a culture and is a book in the book. Translation is a kind of semantic transformation between two languages of different cultures. Therefore, in the process of translation,

translators should consider not only the faithful transmission of the semantics of the original text, but also the reception ability of the target readers and the effect of the post-language behavior of the target text. Readers of the two cultures have different backgrounds, so their views and experiences are different. Because the source reader has the background knowledge or the cultural pragmatic presupposition to understand the source culture, they can correctly understand the intertextual text in the source culture. But if the original text is translated into the target language, for readers who lack the background knowledge of the source culture or cultural pragmatic presupposition, they will be confused or misunderstood. Therefore, in the actual translation, the translator should add necessary preset information according to different situations to meet the understanding requirements of the target readers. Only in this way can the translation be completed in the mutual reference of many texts

Example sentence (1): “姑娘别误听了小孩子的话！柳嫂子有八个脑袋，也不取得罪姑娘。”

Translation: "Don't believe what those children say, Miss. Even if Mrs. Liu had **nine lives**, she'd never dare offend you."

The English proverb "A cat has nine lives" is cleverly used in the translation. The “八个脑袋 (eight heads)” in the original text is translated into "nine lives". Although the figurative images and expressions are different, they have the same semantic meaning and all expresses strong validity. If translated into "eight heads", it may cause difficulties in the understanding of the target readers. The translator uses the intertextual approach to carry out functional equivalence translation, which is in line with the aesthetic taste of the target readers. Therefore, in the translation practice, the translator can make full use of the advantages of the target language and apply the intertextuality theory, so that the target language can produce the image effect consistent with the target language culture in the new context.

Example sentence (2): Men sent flowers, love notes, offers of fortune. And still her dreams ran riot. The one hundred and fifty! The one hundred and fifty! **What a door of an Aladdin's cave it seemed to be.** (Theodore Dreiser: Sister Carrie)

译文：男人送花，送情书，送时运给她。可她梦幻无边。这一百五十块钱！这一百五十块钱！**真像藏着神灯的山洞为阿拉丁打开了门。**

The readers of the original text are quite familiar with the cultural background of the allusion of Aladdin's cave, so it will not cause any difficulty in understanding. However, for most Chinese readers, they may not necessarily understand the meaning of the allusion, and they lack the intertextuality knowledge related to it. Taking full account of the lack of intertextuality among the readers of the target text, the translator translated it as “真像藏着神灯的山洞为阿拉丁打开了门 (a cave with a magic lamp that opens the door for Aladdin).” In this way, the cultural losses caused by literal translation are compensated, and the original author's information intention and communicative intention are in line with the Chinese readers' aesthetic expectations, achieving excellent communicative effects

Example sentence (3): Those were the words that were to make the world blossom for me, **"like Aaron's rod, with flowers"** (Helen Asams Keller, The Story of My Life).

Translation: 后来就是这些词把一个美好的世界展现在我的面前，**就像《圣经》上说的“亚伦的杖开了花”一样。**

Aaron's rod refers to any rod used by Aaron, the brother of Moses. According to Old Testament book of Numbers 17:1-11, Aaron's rod had the same magical power as Moses' rod, which was given to him during the plagues of Egypt before he came out of Egypt. It was placed before the ark of the covenant by Moses, and it germinated and blossomed and bore fruit. This rod of Aaron became a special relic of Judaism. After understanding the intertextual knowledge of the allusions, the translator adds “said in the bible” before the quotation marks, which not only points out the source of the allusions, but also provides the relevant background knowledge, making it easier for the translation readers to obtain the information intention of the original author, and easier for the translation readers to understand.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

From the above discussion, we can clearly see that the theory of intertextuality has certain enlightening effect on translation in many aspects, and it is intrinsically related to translation. The intertextuality of texts enables translators to find relevant evidences and references in translation practice, but the intertextuality of texts also puts forward higher requirements for translators in terms of cultural quality. Therefore, in the practice of translation, translators should try to broaden their minds, deepen their understanding of the essence of translation, make themselves become a miscellaneous person with rich cross-cultural knowledge, and accumulate as much information as possible about the social history and culture of their own country and foreign countries. Only in this way can the translator correctly grasp the intertextuality phenomenon in the text and make full use of the relevant intertextuality knowledge in the text in order to accurately interpret the cultural connotation and communicative information in the original text, so that the translator can make the translation conform to the social trends, cultural habits and linguistic habits of the target language, and to make his or her contribution to the promotion of cultural exchanges among the countries of the world.

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Yi Long was born in 1995. She is currently a postgraduate student in the College of Foreign Languages, University of Shanghai for Science and Technology, Shanghai, China. Her major is Translation and Interpretation.

Gaofeng Yu graduated from Nankai University in 1988. He is currently an Associate Professor at University of Shanghai for Science and Technology. His research interests mainly are cognitive linguistics and translation theory and practice.

A Study on the Language Features of Celebrities' Microblogs from the Perspective of Register

Qixia Liang
Shanxi Normal University, China

Abstract—As a new way of communication, people's verbal communication is influenced by Sina microblog which play a significant role in our daily life. The celebrities' microblogs, with powerful celebrity effect, have received lots of attentions and influences in Sina microblog. Register is a kind of language variety used in a particular situation. Because of the particularity of celebrities' profession, the domain variables used by their microblogs are distinguished from the domain variables of the real world. Therefore, in order to enable people to understand their words and treat them in rational ways from multiple angles and perspectives, this research will analyze the celebrities' microblogs from the perspective of three variables of the Register and explore their language characteristics.

Index Terms—Register, Celebrities' microblogs, Characteristics of language, Three variables of Register

I. INTRODUCTION

Sina microblog is a social website that provides microblogging services. It is currently the largest, most complete and most well-known microblogging website in China. Users can write what they see, hear, and think into a sentence, or post some pictures and share them to their friends anytime, anywhere via computer or mobile phone, and the users can also follow their friends and get the information instantly posted by their friends. In Sina microblog, celebrities have received lots of attention and influenced many people. Every day, tens of thousands of the celebrities' microblogs and comments are posted on the Internet that had imperceptible influence on public verbal communication. Celebrities' microblog language is not only a special language phenomenon, but also a social and cultural phenomenon. Therefore, this research aims to use the Register Theory to analyze some celebrities' microblogs from the perspectives of the field of discourse, the tenor of discourse, and the mode of discourse to explore the characteristics of the mentioned celebrities' microblogs, so that the celebrities' microblogs can be applied to play its positive energy communication effect. Only in this way can people understand their real meanings and have an acceptable value.

This research consists of five parts. Firstly, the research will introduce the background and significance of the research. Secondly, the research will review current research status regarding of Register and celebrities' microblogs. Thirdly, the research will introduce the three variables of Register. And fourthly, the research will analyze the celebrities' microblogs from the three variables of the Register. Finally, a brief summary of this research will be concluded.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Register Theory has been studied for nearly 30 years in China. Hu Zhuanglin and Zhu Yongsheng, while introducing Systemic functional linguistics, made important contributions to the induction and summarization of Register theory, and also promoted the development of Register theory. In recent years, most of the domestic researches on Register theory are about verbal humor, translation and teaching, while the language of celebrities' microblogs, as a special language, is rarely studied from the Register Theory.

Zheng Songxiao (2016), Sun Yingping (2019) uses the Register Theory to analyze the verbal humor in *The Big Bang Theory* quantitatively. Wang Chaojing (2017) conducts an in-depth study of the humor in *Friends* from the three variables of the Register, and interprets its diverse humor.

Some scholars also use the Register Theory to analyze subtitle translation. Wang Yingjie (2017) uses the three elements of the Register domain to construct a translation quality assessment model, and he uses it to evaluate the quality of the translation of the US version of *Empresses in the Palace*. Li Junfeng (2017) evaluates the original subtitle translation of *The Grandmaster* under the guidance of Register Theory. For the unreasonable contents, he makes some correction in order to further optimize the translation of movie subtitles.

Twitter is an early microblog website in America, so experts had many researches on it at aboard. But because there are some differences in the focus of academic researches on microblog at home and abroad, foreign researchers are paying more attention to the relationship between microblog and marketing. In China, the researches focus on the characteristics of the language. Taking the language on Sina microblog as the research objects, He Qian (2011) and Zheng Yao (2013) do the exploratory analysis of microblog language from the perspective of sociolinguistics by using the Register Theory of Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics as the starting point of the research, and studies the

essential characteristics of the microblog language in detail from three main aspects: field, tenor and mode. Wang Rui (2013) also makes a study of microblog with the selection of Yao Chen's microblogs as the focus of the argument. He briefly analyzes the celebrity's microblog interactions and the language used with her fans.

Although some scholars have studied microblog language from the perspective of Register, the study of celebrities' microblog language is still not enough. Nowadays, celebrities are public figures. Their microblogs effects the way people speak and act in reality, so it is necessary to conduct a deep-level and multi-angle study on celebrities' microblog language.

III. HALLIDAY'S REGISTER THEORY

In 1956, Ried proposed the concept of Register when studying bilingualism. And then Firth inherited the theory of studying language in language environment, and he pointed out when analyzing a typical language environment, we should focuses on the two factors: the relationship between the context itself, and the internal relationship in the language environment. As a very famous linguist in Systemic functional linguistics, Halliday conveyed the essence of the pervious theories to Systemic functional linguistics, and then he proposed the Register Theory. He actively developed and accepted the "situational context", and he thought that it is necessary to analyze the language in a certain environment (Hu, 2005).

Halliday holds that language has different variations in different contexts and it changes according to its function. He intends to explore the general principle governing the variation of language to help speakers and listeners to understand situational factors. Thus, he makes an endeavor to explore "what situational factors determine what linguistic features" (Halliday, 1978). Then he puts forward three variables which constitute Register – "the field of discourse", "the tenor of discourse" and "the mode of discourse". They influenced the elements -- "what" "how" and "who" in context, and thus make a difference in language use. These three variables will be discussed in detail to provide a foundation for Register analysis in this research.

A. *The Field of Discourse*

Field refers to "the institutional setting in which a piece of language occurs and embraces not only the subjects matter in hand but the whole activity of the speaker or participant in a setting" (Halliday, 1978, p. 33). In other words, the field means what is happening and the social action that is taking place. Most of the time the subject matter and topic are regarded as the field. However, the concept of field does not limit to subject matter and topic. It also involves the activities the participants taking part and the whole setting of relevant actions. It can be classified into two parts: the external world such as events, things, qualities, etc. and the internal world such as feelings, beliefs and thoughts, etc. Field can be divided into technical field and un-technical field. Technical field is often professional and formal, yet un-technical field can also be called daily field. Thus not only topics should be taken into consideration but also the whole on-going events. For example, when people are talking about gossips, the field is non-technical and the language is informal. It is usually about other's private lives often including unkind and untrue remarks and it usually happens between people with close relationship such as friends, classmates or relatives.

B. *The Tenor of Discourse*

Tenor is defined as the relationship between the participants. It refers to the subjects in communication, the nature, the status, the role of these subjects and reflects the degree of emotional charge in the communication process. It includes personal tenor and functional tenor. Thus social relationships of speakers should be focused on including both permanent relationship and contemporary relationship. The tenor of discourse corresponds to the interpersonal function. Halliday (1985) puts forward two aspects with regard to participant's role, respectively, "first-class social role" and "second-class social role". As for "first-class social role", it means stability and long-term relationship between participants. "Second-class social role" refers to a dynamic or temporary relationship. For instance, the chatting between teachers and students in class differs from the chatting when students visit teacher's home on Teachers' Day. Students-teacher relationship weakens when the situation changes, thus in this example tenor decides their way of talking. The relationship between participants depends on three aspects: status, affective involvement and contact. Status refers to the social position and other factors including gender, age, occupation, as well as wealth. As for power relation, it concerns whether the participants are equal in social status or not. The communication between employer and employee belongs to less equal power relation, whereas communication between classmates is equal power relation. The emotional involvement can be analyzed with the help of modal vocabulary, attitude words and taboo words, etc. It can be reflected by how much emotion and feelings are paid in this communication. For instance, lovers and families pay more love and affection than that of colleagues or classmates. Contact extent can be classified as frequent contact and occasional contact. If participants' contact is frequent, their language is free and casual. In this condition, their language is informal. On the contrary, if the contact is less frequent, communication tends to be prudent. To sum up, the relationship between participants in communication is of great importance and makes a big influence their language use.

C. *The Mode of Discourse*

Mode refers to “what kind of role the language plays” (Halliday, 1985, p. 38). To be specific, it indicates the channel, media and rhetorical ways of communication adopted. Halliday (1985) suggests that the mode of discourse can be analyzed from three perspectives including planning, feedback and media. As for planning, language can be either spontaneous or planned. Feedback can be either immediate like a phone call or delayed like a letter. Media can be classified as written form and oral form. Sometimes the form is between written and oral forms such as speech and news report. They are oral forms with formal written drafts. Instead, dictation is an informal form which is spoken to be written. Thus oral forms can be divided into preparing one and unprepared one. These three situational factors determine the register and thus influence the choice of language. Language with different registers has different words, phrases, and grammar features. For instance, communication in office between boss and employees is a context of situation. Field is the content in their conversation, most of the time work matters. Taboo or gossip rarely occurs in such situation. Tenor refers to the relation between boss and employees. Apparently, the boss’s status is higher than employees’ and thus has a powerful relationship. They have a certain social distance and thus cannot talk casually like relatives. Less affection is paid in this context of situation. The mode is often formal and can be either prepared or unprepared. The media can be written if someone makes notes at a meeting or oral in a seminar. At all events, the three situational factors determine the language features and influence language choices in office.

IV. ANALYSIS OF CELEBRITIES’ MICROBLOGS FROM REGISTER

The characteristics of linguistic variables of the celebrities’ microblog language are different from the real world, but they are closely related to each other. For example, when expressing “a certain degree”, we can choose to use the words “super”, “very” etc, but in celebrities’ microblog language, the new expressions such as “敲...” “刷...” emerged. Why entertainment stars will choose these among many options? This chapter will specifically analyze the celebrities’ microblogs from the three variables of Register and the impact of these three variables on celebrities’ microblog language.

A. *The Characteristics of Celebrities’ Microblogs in the Field of Discourse*

According to Halliday’s Register Theory, the field of discourse studied in this paper refers to the topic of conversation and the venue. The influence of the field of discourse on celebrities’ microblog language is mainly reflected in the celebrities’ microblogs which are relative to hot events and mingled with foreign languages.

1. **Celebrities’ Microblogs Relating to Hot Issues**

Different from communication of the real world, communication of the microblog is mainly spread through the form of text. Therefore, the interviewer has to abandon the general communicative premise in the contextual information, and uses different topics for language setting to enhance interaction. The language of the celebrities’ microblogs is mainly based on the topic of the activities of the celebrities, because they want to gain public awareness considering the particularity of their profession. The influence of the topic on celebrities’ microblog language is mainly reflected in the close connection between the buzzwords of the celebrities’ microblogs and some events in the objective world or network culture, and using some words from hot issues or sensitive events to express their emotions and point of views.

Here are some examples to support the research.

The first one is the word “营业”, it means that the store is open for business, but the “business”, as a new term in fans’ circle, means that their idols have some work arrangements. On the current microblogs, the meaning of the word almost indicates that stars post some photos of themselves on sina microblog regularly or irregularly. Yang Zi typed the word “营业图” in her microblog and matched her own photos to narrow the distance between her and her fans. It shows that she has common topics with her fans. (See picture1 in appendix).

“哪吒” is a cartoon character. After the movie named “哪吒” was released, more and more people have been imitating his hairstyles. Xie Na used “哪吒娜” in her microblog which was related to “Happy Camp”. On the one hand, she used it to show her love to “哪吒”. On the other hand, she wanted to attract more attention to the show. (See picture 2 in appendix).

The word “打 call” derives from the culture of Japanese concerts, it means that the fans follow the rhythm of music and interact with performers on the stage by shouting and screaming according to regular patterns. For instance, Li Chen used the word “打 call” in his employer’s official microblog for the propaganda of a movie to show his support.

(See picture3 in appendix)

2. **Massive use of Foreign Words in Celebrities’ Microblogs**

Through microblog, netizens can jump out of the limitation of time, space and region to carry out communication, while celebrities’ microblogs mainly influence the public in the mingle use of dialects and foreign languages. In the celebrities’ microblogs, they use some foreign words intentionally or unintentionally to meet the requirements of pursuing something new, changeable, and different in communication of microblogs, and make it closer between the stars and the audience in everywhere. The foreign words in the celebrities’ microblogs have different language sources, but most of them are mixed with English. Here are some examples.

In one of Zhang Yixing’s microblog, he wrote “好久没有 freestyle 了”. “Freestyle”, an English vocabulary, generally refers to impromptu casual play. Freestyle in hip-hop rap is refers to impromptu rap. It becomes popular around the

network because of Wu Yifan's frequent mentions of this word in "hip-hop in China". Here, Zhang Yixing used this word to show his professional in dancing and his closely connection with the popular things. (See picture4 in appendix).

The word "Get" comes from English and means getting some kind of things or skills. Due to the particularity of the celebrities' profession, their microblogs' contents are often related to product promotion. Therefore, the word "get" is mentioned in most of their microblogs, which is used to promote products. They write "get" before the name of the products or the word "同款", which aims at appealing their fans to trust and purchase the products, such as Yang Mi's microblog, "get 我的同款", "get 钙尔奇牛乳钙软糖". (See picture5.6 in appendix) Wang Yibo's microblog, "get 我的同款美肌秘籍" (See picture7 in appendix) and so on.

At the same time of reposting Wang Ziyi's music promote microblog, Wang Linkai wrote several words "继续加油 bro". The word "bro" is the abbreviation of English word "brother", it was made an instant hit because Wang Ziyi always use it in a program named "Idol Producer". Here, Wang Linkai used this term to show that he is not only close to Wang Ziyi, but also follows the trend of the Internet.(see picture 8 in appendix)

B. *The Characteristics of the Celebrities' Microblogs in the Tenor of Discourse*

The tenor mainly refers to the formality of the language, which is determined by the identity of the participants and their role relationship. The two sides' microblog communication is in a peer-to-peer scenario, and equality is its most important feature. Therefore, the language of celebrities' microblogs is relative casual and oral that reflects the diverse personal speech style. The arbitrariness and equality of microblog communication determines the informality of tenor. The audiences of the celebrities' microblog are grouped into two categories: stars or between stars and their friends and relatives (regular and emotional input on contact); between stars and the public (infrequent contacted and not invested emotional input). Languages of celebrities' microblogs are different for the two groups because of the different emotions and differences in contact.

1. **The Characteristics of the Celebrities' Microblogs for Familiar People**

Because of the informality of the tenor, the celebrities often use modals and nicknames in their microblogs for the familiar group to show their emotions and intimacy between them. At the same time, due to the particularity of the celebrities' profession, the modals that they used are often given special roles, such as enhanced, ridiculed, praised, or affirmed. In order to attract public attention, modals in the celebrities' microblogs are mostly followed the sentence, such as "嘛, 哈, 哒, 吧, 嗯, 哦," etc. Here are some examples, Yang Zi said "涛姐么么哒" in her microblog. Here, she used "么么哒" to show that they are very good friends, and it can makes people think that she is cute.(See picture 9 in appendix) Xie Na also likes to use modals in her microblogs. She said "那么我和何老师隔空相聚周五啦哇哈哈哈哈哈" in her microblog one day. Here, she used five "哈" to show that she was very happy to meet He Jiong, and these modals also shows that she is outgoing. And in Du Haitao's microblog(see picture 10 in appendix), he said "哇封面好多喜欢的人啊". Here, he used "啊" to express his sigh. And it shows that many people on the cover are his friends, and they are close to each other.(see picture 11 in appendix) In Yuan Shanshan's microblog, she said "吃饭你来吗?", here, the word "吗" is playing the same role as it used in the daily language, and it showed that she was nervous.(see picture 12 in appendix)

2. **The Characteristics of Celebrities' Microblogs for Public**

Celebrities are only communicating with their fans on the online platform-Sina microblog, their contact is almost zero, and there are on emotional investment.

Under this premise, celebrities must manage their own work or their own image to ensure the growth or maintenance of the number of their fans (embodiment of popularity). Celebrities often use greetings and chilling words in their microblogs to narrow the distance between them and the public, and maintain a close relationship with the public. Such as "大家好", "早上好", "晚安", "节日快乐", etc

There are many stars often write very simple words "晚安" that means Good night in their microblogs. For example, In Xie Na's microblog, "眼里有光晚安", and He Jiong's microblog, "晚安". They often use these daily languages to make public think they are very kind.(see picture 13,14 in appendix). There are also some stars uses the Greetings, such as "大家好", "你好" to introduce the new character that they are play. Such as Li Xian's microblog, "大家好,我是白十三", Zhao Lusi's microblog, "大家好,我是耳朵也是云裳", and Yang Zi's microblog, "你好,这里是鱿小鱼请多关照".(See picture 15,16,17 in appendix)

C. *The Characteristics of Celebrities' Microblogs in the Mode of Discourse*

The mode of discourse can be divided into two categories: spoken and written. Celebrities' microblog is an interpersonal communication realized by computer-aided, and symbol is its main expressive form. But it is totally different from chatting in the traditional sense. Here, spoken and written language can be organically integrated to form a unique language, that is, between written communication and oral communication. Because the contents of celebrities' microblogs are diverse, the Mode of celebrities' microblogs can be switched between the two categories, and they often presented in words, emotions, audios and so on.

1. **The Arbitrariness of the Celebrities' Microblogs**

The arbitrariness of celebrities' microblogs is reflected in mixed use of Chinese, foreign languages, dialects, expressions, letters and mathematics, etc. It usually embodied in the form of doping, simplification, and near-tone. Here are some examples. In Sha Yi's microblog, he said “英子,开门, 呆地”, here “呆地” is from English word “Daddy”, it was used to make the sentence more funny and colloquial. In Xie Na's microblog, she said “这张给造谣者, piu piu”. This sentence consists of Chinese and onomatopoeia. It can strongly show her real feeling and the meaning she wanted to say. In He Jiong's microblog, he said “今天谁是你的蓝朋友”, Here, the meaning of “蓝朋友” is boyfriend, he used synonyms to create a relaxed atmosphere. In Wei Daxun's microblog, he said “照骗”, this word is the euphony of “照片”, the meaning of “照片” is photo, but now the word “照骗” means that the photo doesn't match with himself, and it's consistent with the funny features that he showed the public. (See picture 18,19,20,21 in appendix)

2. The Infectivity of Celebrities' Microblogs

In the real-world, the communicative subjects can adjust the progress of the discourse by the facial expressions, body language and voice intonation. And from these parts, communicative subjects can know others' mental activities. However, in order to get proper communicative affects in the microblogs' communication, celebrities need to use auxiliary means to make up for the lack of communication in order to get proper communicative affects, such as repeated punctuation, a lot of dynamic emotions, a lot of pictures, etc. Here are some examples. In Yang Zi's microblog, she said “就在明天啦!!!!!! 冲啊!!!”, she used multiple exclamation points to strengthen the tone of the words and make them more vivid. (See picture 22). Because Sina microblog's emoticons have dynamic effects which make language communication more vivid, so celebrities' microblogs used a lot of emoticons. Here are some examples, in Jackson Yee's microblog, he said “一起大步向前走+emoticon”, and in Deng Lun's microblog, he said “永远支持你+emoticon”. (See picture 23, 24 in appendix). Because of the text restrictions of Sina microblog, celebrities express their ideas and feelings through some small videos, pictures, etc. For example, in picture 25, Zhang Yixing only wrote some words from his new lyric, and put the mv with these words together. In this way, He directly recommended his song to the public. (See picture 25 in appendix)

V. CONCLUSION

The field of celebrities' microblogs is cross-geographical because of the contextual factors and plentiful topics. It mainly showed by the mixed use of a large number of foreign languages and the words from hot issues. Because everyone is equal in Sina microblog, the tenor of the celebrities' microblogs is mainly influenced by contact and emotion. The characteristics of celebrities' microblogs are the high-frequency uses of modals and greetings. Dominated by the expression of symbols and words, the celebrities' microblogs are used informal spoken and written languages as a discourse mode. Influenced by the mode of the discourse, the characteristics of the celebrities' microblogs are arbitrariness and infectivity. All in all, according to these characteristics of the celebrities' microblogs, the majority of netizens should rationally treat the celebrities' microblogs, and do not blindly follow the trend.

APPENDIX



7.



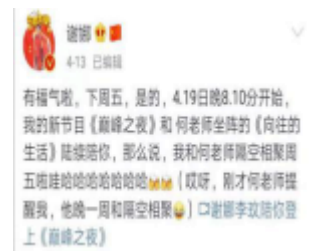
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Qixia Liang was born in Shanxi, China in 1996. She received her bachelor's degree in English Education from Lvliang University, China in 2017.

She is currently a graduate student in the School of Foreign Languages, Shanxi Normal University, Shanxi, China. Her research interests include pragmatics and applied linguistics.

Saudi Female EFL Learners and Collaborative Writing: Attitudes and Challenges

Nada Abdulaziz Alkhalaf

Department of English Language and Translation, College of Arabic Language and Social Studies, Qassim University, Qassim, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—Writing skills are important skills that must be learned to express one's thoughts and ideas. Therefore, several strategies were used in writing classes to enhance learners' writing skills, one of which is collaborative writing. A number of studies reported many advantages for this strategy in terms of the quality of the produced texts and the improvements in students' writing skills. The present study aimed at investigating the attitude of Saudi female EFL learners toward collaborative writing and the challenges/problems that may arise during the activity. It adopted a quantitative approach in which 50 Saudi female EFL learners answered a questionnaire about their experience in writing collaboratively and the problems they encountered during the activity. The findings have shown that the learners have a positive attitude toward collaborative writing. However, there were some problems in terms of students' behavior, assessment and time management. These findings encourage writing teachers to use this strategy in their classes. In addition, the findings encourage teachers and researchers to address the problems reported in the study.

Index Terms—collaborative writing, collaborative writing attitude, collaborative writing problems, second language writing

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing skills are one of the important skills that language learners must learn (Koura & Zahran, 2017), and they are challenging and require a lot of practice to master (Richard, 1990). Therefore, language teachers try to employ different strategies to help learners improve, one of which is collaborative writing (Ghufron & Hawa, 2015; Supiani 2017). The effect of collaborative writing has been investigated by a number of studies (e.g., Storch & Wigglesworth, 2007). However, few studies have explored learners' attitudes toward collaborative writing (e.g., Shehadeh, 2011) and the problems they may encounter during the task (e.g., Lin & Maarof, 2013).

A. *The Study Problem*

The present study aims to investigate the attitude of Saudi female EFL learners toward collaborative writing and the challenges/problems they may face during the activity. Although collaborative writing is not widely used in writing courses in Saudi Arabia, based on the literature, it is anticipated that the learners will have a positive attitude toward writing collaboratively. However, some problems are expected to arise in terms of assessment and students' collaboration. The findings of this study will be valuable for writing teachers. If the hypotheses are true, teachers will be encouraged to use this strategy in their writing classes. In addition, teachers and researchers will be encouraged to address the problems that the students face during the activity.

B. *The Research Questions*

The study sought to answer the following questions:

1. What is the attitude of Saudi female EFL learners toward collaborative writing?
2. What are the challenges/problems that may arise during collaborative writing?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Learning as a Social Process*

Based on sociocultural theory, humans' learning always happens in a social context (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky (1978), the pioneer of this theory, emphasized the importance of social interaction in the development of mental abilities. By participating in social activities, and through interaction with others in their society, individuals develop their cognition (Ghufron & Hawa, 2015).

To explain how social interaction results in learning, the sociocultural theory proposes that through interaction with a more knowledgeable person, a learner can perform a task that he is unable to carry out by himself (Ellis, 2008). Then, gradually the learner internalizes what he has learned so that he can do the task alone (Ellis, 2008). This form of dialogic assistance is called scaffolding and is considered as one of the main constructs in sociocultural theory (Ellis, 2008).

Scaffolding in sociocultural theory is linked to what is called the zone of proximal development, which is defined as the distance between the current level of development and the potential level of development achieved under guidance or when collaborating with others (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky (1978) differentiated between what an individual can achieve by himself and what he can achieve with the assistance of others. Through social interaction, individuals construct the zone of proximal development needed to perform a task (Ellis, 2008).

B. Collaborative Learning in the Classroom

Collaborative learning is considered an educational approach (Laal & Ghodsi, 2012) that is based on the social theory of learning (Vygotsky, 1978). It involves two or more students making decisions, sharing responsibilities, and working together to learn (Dillenbourg, 1990, as cited in Hernández, 2012). During collaborative learning, knowledge is socially constructed (Chandra, 2015). By working together, students can help each other in completing a task, creating a product, or solving a problem (Laal & Ghodsi, 2012). Furthermore, Laal and Ghodsi (2012) found that collaborative learning creates a positive learning environment in which students provide support for each other. They also found that collaborative learning decreases students' anxiety and increases their self-confidence and their involvement in the learning process. Moreover, research has shown that collaborative learning stimulates critical thinking and problem-solving skills (Laal & Ghodsi, 2012). In addition, collaborative learning develops students' leadership skills, self-management, and communication skills (Chandra, 2015). It also increases students' awareness of individual differences and prepares them for real-life situations in which they have to accept and respect diversity (Chandra, 2015).

C. Collaboration in Second Language Learning

According to Shehadeh (2011), there is an increase in the use of collaborative learning in language classrooms. This can be due to the belief that collaboration is important in language learning and teaching (Ellis, 2003). Isnaini (2017) argued that collaborative work can be an effective tool that contributes to better language learning. One benefit of collaborative language learning is that it provides language learners with the required input and output (Zhang, 2010). Swain (1985) stressed the importance of producing output during collaborative tasks on students' language skills. Collaborative writing encourages students to pay more attention to how they should express their ideas and how to convey what they mean (Swain, 1985). According to Zhang (2010), to ensure that their message is clear, students may use different ways to express their ideas, which provides more comprehensible input for other members in the group. Moreover, collaborative work enables learners to help each other to produce a precise message (Kowal & Swain, 1994). This can be linked to the concept of the zone of proximal development (Isnaini, 2017), in which a learner moves from what he cannot do alone to what he can achieve with the assistance of others (Ellis, 2008).

Research has also investigated the effect of cooperative work on second language proficiency (Liang, Mohan, & Early, 1998). Sharon, Kussell, Bejarano, and Pelege's (1984) research found that students' performance in a listening comprehension test and their overall proficiency in their second language improved because of collaborative learning. Another advantage of collaborative work in second language classrooms is that it creates a relaxed atmosphere, which increases students' motivation (Brown, 1994). Students can practice what they will say with their groups before answering in front of the class, which reduces anxiety and which in turn may result in more participation (Crandall, 1999) and, consequently, an increase in students' self-esteem (Zhang, 2010). In addition, collaborative work may enable learners to practice the new items in the curriculum, which develops both their social language and academic language (Zhang, 2010).

D. The Social Aspect of Writing

According to Dueraman (2012), social constructionists believe that writing is a social process that occurs in a social context to achieve particular purposes. Writing is the result of writers' needs to express themselves and communicate with others in their society (Ramírez, 2007, as cited in Chala & Chapeton, 2012). Moreover, the beliefs, feelings, and experiences of writers are shaped through their interaction with people in their society and culture (Castro & Chala, 2013). In fact, Dueraman (2012) argued that writing is one of the higher mental functions that Vygotsky (1978) found to develop in interaction.

Elbow (2000) stressed that "all writing is social" (p. 259), and Casanave (2004) pointed out that writing involves interaction with different audiences. These audiences affect the style of the text (Wheaton College, n.d). In same line, Deane, Odendah, Quinlan, Fowles, Welsh, and Tatum (2008) pointed out that the way a text is structured and received is also influenced by the community of practice to which the writer belongs.

E. Writing in EFL Classes

Writing is a significant skill for EFL learners (Koura & Zahran, 2017), because it facilitates foreign language acquisition and provides students with better career opportunities (Harmer, 2007, as cited in Bueno-Alastuey & Larumbe, 2017). However, learning writing skills is considered a difficult task for both native speakers and foreign language learners (Richard, 1990). Moreover, the degree of difficulty increases in countries where English is a foreign language and is not practically used (Salma, 2015). Therefore, many teachers find it challenging to teach writing in EFL classes (Hidayati, 2018). Other factors such as classroom environment, outdated courses (Fareed, Ashraf, & Bilal, 2016), and the use of traditional teaching approaches may affect students' learning (Bilal, Tariq, Din, Latif, & Anjum, 2013).

In addition, students may lack motivation due to the difficulty that they experience in composing a text (Tessema, 2005). They may struggle not only with vocabulary and grammar but also with organizing their ideas (Tessema, 2005). As a response to these challenges, Bilal, et al. (2013) suggested that writing teachers need to be trained properly. They also need to work on motivating their students to develop their writing skills (Bilal, et al., 2013; Tessema, 2005).

F. Collaborative Second Language Writing

As a response to the difficulties of teaching and learning writing, some teachers employ collaborative writing to improve students' writing skills (Ghufron & Hawa, 2015; Supiani, 2017). Collaborative writing was first used as a strategy in writing classes by Bruffee (1984). It can be defined as a process in which a pair or a group of students collaborates in producing a written text (Supiani, 2017). This means that students must cooperate in all the writing stages from brainstorming to paper editing (Supiani, 2017). In literature, this method has been linked to sociocultural theory, and particularly to the zone of proximal development, in which students can develop with the help of others (Nurfaidah, 2018). During the activity, students are engaged in what Swain (2000) called collaborative dialogue, which refers to the dialogue between speakers who are involved in constructing knowledge and producing a message, meaning that students can learn to use language while interacting with others during the task (Elola & Oskuz, 2010).

Research has shown that collaborative writing has many advantages in EFL classes (Elola & Oskuz, 2010). It enables learners to reflect on their use of language (Elola & Oskuz, 2010) and solve language-related issues (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2007). Moreover, it integrates the four skills: listening and speaking (through interaction) and reading and writing (in completing the task) (Bueno-Alastuey & Larumbe, 2017). In addition, research has shown that collaborative writing increases students' self-confidence and reduces their anxiety (Supiani, 2017). Foster (1998, as cited in Megnafi, 2015) argued that it also improves students' creativity and increases their motivation. Similarly, Tarmizi and Cheung (2017) found that the improvement in students' writing motivated them to write.

Moreover, collaborative writing allows students to see how others think and how ideas are created (Supiani, 2017). Studies have shown that collaborative writing results in higher-quality texts (Storch, 2005), because dialogue encourages the co-construction of knowledge (Storch, 2002; Swain & Lapkin, 1998).

Other studies have shown that collaborative writing has a positive effect on students' achievement and test results (Aminloo, 2013). Weinstein and Bearison (1985, as cited in Tarmizi & Cheung, 2007) found that collaborative writing is beneficial for both students with high proficiency levels and students with low proficiency levels. Students with low proficiency levels in particular can develop the intended skills (Tarmizi & Cheung, 2017) as well as the organizational skills from their interaction with their peers (Naghdi-pour, 2016, as cited in Tarmizi & Cheung, 2017).

G. Studies on Learners' Attitudes toward Collaborative Writing

Some studies were carried out to explore students' attitudes toward collaborative writing (e.g., Al Ajmi & Ali, 2014; Gökçe, 2001). According to Tarmizi and Cheung (2017), studies have found that students have a positive attitude toward collaborative writing tasks because they believe they could help improve their language. Farrah (2011), for example, reported that students in his study were positive toward collaborative writing. Gökçe (2001) explored students' attitudes about collaborative writing after the first collaborative writing activity and once more after the fourth collaborative writing task. She found that students had a neutral attitude first but their attitude became positive after engaging in four collaborative tasks. Another study was carried out by Storch (2005), which concluded that, overall, students found that collaborative writing was a good experience. Similarly, Louth, McAllister, and McAllister (1993) pointed out that the participants in their study felt more satisfied with their writing in the collaborative activity.

H. Problems in Collaborative Writing

As Chisholm (1990) stated, problems will arise in collaborative tasks. Some students are unwilling to spend their time and effort on a group project (Chisholm, 1990). Others may be shy, lazy, or reluctant, or they may simply not like participating in group activities (Chisholm, 1990). In addition, Kraut, Egido, and Galegher (1987) mentioned that problems "in forming and maintaining personal relationships and completing tasks" (p. 31) might arise at all the stages in the collaborative task. Similarly, Tarmizi and Cheung (2017) found that the relationship between members of the group may affect their work. They noted that some students might find it difficult to participate in a group activity with unfamiliar people. Furthermore, problems may also occur because of students' different levels or standards (Narayan & Johnson, n.d.).

Shea (1995) noted some potential issues in students' behavior during collaborative work. Some dominant members may do all the work, while others may show a negative attitude toward the task because they feel that their score will be affected by other students' work (Shea, 1995). Other members may be irresponsible and depend on others to do their work (Shea, 1995). In addition to these issues, sometimes it might be difficult to find suitable times for meetings (Shea, 1995).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Subjects

The subjects in this study were 50 Saudi female EFL learners, enrolled in an IELTS preparation course at Qassim University. The subjects aged between 24-29 years old. They all have acquired bachelor's degree in different majors (e.g., Mathematics, Translation, Computer Science, English literature, and Physics). They work as teaching assistants at Qassim University and are taking the IELTS preparation course prior to enrollment in master's programs. Based on a placement test, they were divided into three groups based on their level of English (beginner, intermediate, advanced) and all the three groups had four writing sessions a week.

B. Instrument

The instrument used in this study was a questionnaire comprised three Likert-types items asking the participants whether they agree or disagree to a series of statements (see Appendix A). The questionnaire included 17 items to elicit the participants' attitudes towards collaborative writing and the problems they faced. It is divided into two sections: the first section (statement 1-11) explored the subjects' attitude toward writing in groups whereas the second section (statement 12-17) aimed to identify the problems that the students encountered during the activity.

The questionnaire is based on previous studies: Abdel & Farrah (2015) (statement 1,2,3,8,9,11), Gökçe (2001) (statement 4,5,10,12,16).

C. Procedure

Throughout the semester, all the subjects engaged in at least one collaborative writing task in which they had to cooperate to write a well-organized essay. They were divided into groups of three or four students. Sometimes, the participants were given the chance to form their group, while in others, the teachers form the group themselves. At the end of the 15-week semester, the participants were asked to answer a questionnaire to investigate their attitude toward collaborative writing and the challenges/problems they encounter during the task.

IV. RESULTS

The present study aimed at investigating the attitude of Saudi female EFL learners toward collaborative writing. Furthermore, it sought to identify the challenges/problems that arise during the collaboration. Therefore, the research questions are:

1. What is the attitude of Saudi female EFL learners toward collaborative writing?
2. What are the challenges/problems that may arise during collaborative writing?

To answer the research questions, 50 subjects were asked to answer a questionnaire about their experience in writing collaboratively. The following table shows the learners' responses:

TABLE 1
RESPONSES TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE ABOUT COLLABORATIVE WRITING

Statement	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
1. Collaborative writing is an effective strategy that results in better, more accurate and complex essays.	66%	28%	6%
2. Collaborative writing makes the task more enjoyable and interesting, and motivates to write.	72%	18%	10%
3. Expressing my ideas to the group improves my communication and negotiation skill.	80%	14%	6%
4. Collaborative writing helps me learn how to plan, organize, and structure the essay more effectively.	74%	22%	4%
5. Collaborative writing helps in improving my writing skill in general.	56%	30%	14%
6. Collaborative writing helps in understanding and considering multiple viewpoints on a particular topic.	94%	4%	2%
7. Collaborative writing helps in constructing a strong argument.	66%	30%	4%
8. Collaborative writing helps me verbalize and explain my ideas.	78%	14%	8%
9. Collaborative writing stimulates critical thinking skills (through commenting on others' ideas).	84%	14%	2%
10. Collaborative writing helps in improving grammatical accuracy and learning vocabulary.	84%	12%	4%
11. Collaborative writing helps me receive useful feedback.	80%	14%	6%
12. In collaborative writing, everyone performs an equal amount of work.	10%	34%	56%
13. It is unfair that all the members get the same grade.	48%	26%	26%
14. Some members do not accept opposing opinions.	70%	22%	8%
15. Some members control the discussion without giving others an opportunity to explain their ideas.	72%	14%	14%
16. Collaborative writing consumes a lot of time.	40%	22%	38%
17. Members discuss their ideas in Arabic, which decreases the chances of improving communication skill.	66%	28%	6%

As shown in table 1 above, the subjects responded positively to almost all the statements. Based on their responses, collaboration has a positive impact on the quality of the produced text (statement 1,6,7,8). In fact, 66% of the subjects agreed that writing in groups results in better, more accurate and complex essays, whereas only 6% disagreed with this statement. Furthermore, 94% found that that collaborative writing helped them understand different viewpoints regarding the topic, which results in constructing a strong argument. Moreover, 78% agreed that writing collaboratively helps them in verbalizing and explaining their ideas.

In addition, the subjects' responses show that writing in groups has a positive influence on their writing skills (statement 2,4,5,10,11). As shown above, 56% of the subjects claimed that collaborative writing helps in improving their writing skills in general. In terms of text organization and planning, 74% agreed that writing collaboratively helps them in learning these skills. Moreover, the subjects' responses suggest that collaborative writing contributed to the development of their grammatical and lexical resources (84% agreed, whereas only 4% disagreed). Furthermore, according to 80% of the subjects, the feedback that they received during the discussion was useful. Lastly, 72% agreed that collaboration makes the task more interesting and enjoyable.

In terms of the effect of collaborative writing on students' skills in general (statement 3-9), most of the learners (80%) claimed that collaborative writing improved their communication and negotiation skills and stimulated their critical thinking skills (84%).

Concerning the challenges/problems of collaborative writing (statement 12,13,14,15), more than half of the subjects (56%) claimed that members of the group do not contribute equally to the texts; therefore, 48% believe that it is unfair that all the members obtain the same score. Moreover, 72% agreed that some dominant members control the discussion, while 70% claimed that some members may not accept opposing opinions. These can be serious issues that may hinder the intended effect of collaborative writing.

Another problem that may decrease the positive impact of collaborative writing is the students' use of their mother tongue (Arabic) in the discussion (statement 17). In this study, 66% of the subjects agreed that group members used Arabic during the task, which decreases the chances of improving their skills.

Lastly, in term of time management (statement 16), as shown above, 40% of the subjects claimed that writing collaboratively consumes a lot of time, whereas 38% disagreed that it is time consuming. This disagreement between the subjects can be explained in a number of reasons (see Discussion).

V. DISCUSSION

The findings of the study reveal the positive attitude of Saudi female EFL learners toward collaborative writing. This is in line with the findings of Storch's (2005) study, in which 16 out of 18 learners showed a positive attitude toward writing in pairs or groups. The same conclusion was also reached by Shehadeh (2011), who found that most of the participants had a positive perception toward collaborative writing. They claimed that they enjoyed the collaborative task and benefited from it. Similarly, Dobao and Blum (2013) reported that the subjects in their study showed a positive attitude toward writing in pairs and in small groups.

A. *The Effect of Collaborative Writing on the Quality of the Text*

The data from the questionnaire showed that more than half of the subjects believe that collaborative writing has a positive influence on the quality of their final product. They found that the texts that were written by a group were complex and more accurate. The reason could be that in collaborative writing, students engage in discussions, brainstorm together, and share knowledge, which result in more ideas (Ghufron & Hawa, 2015). Moreover, discussions enable them to understand different opinions about a particular topic (Choi, 2008), which helps them with constructing strong arguments. In addition, the increase in accuracy can be the result of students' collaboration in revising and editing the text (Aminloo, 2013). This is in line with Ghufron and Hawa (2015), who pointed out that collaborative writing improves the text quality because it employs the strengths of the group members. The same conclusion was reached by Shehadeh (2011), who stated that texts written by a group were better in terms of organization, content, and vocabulary. Furthermore, Wigglesworth and Storch (2009) found that collaborative writing did influence the grammatical accuracy but not the complexity or the length of the text. This could be due to the discussion, which leads to the correct outcome (Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009). Wu (2015) stressed that sometimes the effect of collaborative writing may vary from one language area to another due to students' low levels of proficiency in the foreign language, which prevents them from assisting each other, which may affect the quality of the text.

The majority of the subjects also pointed out that collaborative writing helped them learn how to plan and organize their text more effectively. This can be due to the interaction between students with different proficiency levels, which may enable students with low proficiency levels to learn organizational skills from more capable peers and apply them during the task (Naghdi-pour, 2016, as cited Tarmizi & Cheung, 2017). Studies have also shown that texts written by a group of learners were better in terms of topic development (Aminloo, 2013) and organization (Shehadeh, 2011).

B. *The Effect of Collaborative Work on Students' Language Skills*

As shown by the results of the questionnaire, most of the subjects agreed that collaborative writing tasks improved their language skills, increased their vocabulary, and improved their grammatical accuracy. One reason for this

improvement could be that integrating listening and speaking facilitate students' foreign language (Bueno-Alastuey & Larumbe, 2017), while writing in groups improved their writing in terms of vocabulary and grammar (Dobao, 2012). These findings are consistent with many studies that have stressed the importance of collaborative work in second language learning (Ellis, 2003; Shehadeh, 2011).

According to Al Ajmi and Ali (2014), during collaborative tasks, students learn through what is known as "languaging." Languaging refers to what happens during students' interactions when they write collaboratively (Al Ajmi & Ali, 2014). During collaborative tasks, the discussion of language enhances students' learning (Wigglesworth & Storch, 2012). Students may discuss their choice of a particular lexical category or their use of a specific grammatical rule (Al Ajmi & Ali, 2014), which will enhance their learning (Tarmizi & Cheung, 2017; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2012). In addition, collaborative tasks provide opportunities for students to use the second language (Storch & Aldosari, 2010) and to reflect on its use (Elola & Oskuz, 2010; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2007).

C. *The Effect of Collaborative Writing on Students' Motivation*

In the questionnaire, most of the students agreed that collaboration made the task more interesting and enjoyable, which motivates them to write. The same conclusion was reached by Supiani (2017). Some studies have suggested that this increase in students' motivation is due to the improvement in their texts and in their writing skills in general (Tarmizi & Cheung, 2017). However, it should be noted that factors such as low-proficiency level, lack of self-confidence, passive members, and personal preference might affect students' motivation (Wu, 2015), which may reduce the positive influence of collaborative writing.

D. *The Effect of Peer Feedback*

Another finding of the present study is that the majority of the subjects stated that they learned and benefited from the discussion with their peers and that they agreed that collaborative writing enabled them to receive valuable feedback. This is consistent with Wigglesworth and Storch's (2012) study, which concluded that when learners write collaboratively, their learning is enhanced by discussion and scaffolding. Similarly, Tarmizi and Cheung (2017) pointed out that collaboration allows students to give feedback to each other, which improves their vocabulary, provides them with ideas, and enhances their learning. Additionally, students with a low proficiency level might be able to improve the target skills with the assistance of other capable peers (Tarmizi & Cheung, 2017).

Furthermore, 82% of the subjects reported that collaborative writing stimulates critical thinking skills. The same conclusion was reached by Ghuftron and Hawa (2015), who suggested that students' critical thinking can improve after writing collaboratively. During the discussion, students express their opinions and comment on others', which gives them the opportunity to think critically. However, this can only happen when students are not shy or reluctant to comment on their peers' ideas. Therefore, teachers must encourage their students to discuss their ideas freely.

E. *Problems in Collaborative Writing*

The data from the questionnaire showed that there are some problems that may hinder the positive effect of collaborative writing.

1. Students' behavior. More than half of the subjects agreed that a serious issue in collaborative writing is that some members are unwilling to accept opposing opinions. Because of continued disagreement, some students may not be motivated to engage in collaborative writing tasks (Bremner, 2010, as cited in Tarmizi & Cheung, 2017).

In addition, almost half of the subjects stated that in collaborative writing, the group members do not contribute equally. Davies (2009) calls passive members "free-riders". Free-riding could be the reason why the subjects responded positively when asked whether it was unfair that all the members obtained the same score. Similarly, Al Ajmi and Ali (2014) stressed that some students' negative attitudes toward collaborative writing is because unproductive members obtain marks regardless of their lack of contribution.

The majority of the subjects reported that some members controlled the discussion without providing others with opportunities to explain their ideas. This is consistent with Shea's (1995) study, which pointed out that stronger members may overpower weaker members and monopolize the discussion.

In response to these problems, and as suggested by Chisholm (1990), teachers must ensure that students' understand their roles during the collaborative task and that group members perform their responsibilities successfully.

2. Students' proficiency in English. According to 62% of the subjects, group members discussed their ideas in Arabic, which reduced the chances of improving their communication skills. It is suggested that students' lack of proficiency in the second language may encourage them to use their first language to express their ideas, which offsets the benefits of the collaborative task. Hence, it is important for the students to understand the benefits of the collaborative dialogue on their language learning and they should be encouraged to give their peers the time they need to express themselves.

3. Time management. In contrast to Speck (2002), who suggested that collaborative writing is time-consuming, the data from the questionnaire showed that there is a disagreement on whether collaborative writing took a lot of time (40% agreed, while 38% disagreed). One reason might be the students' attitude during the task, which may increase or decrease the time of the activity. A group of students who are willing to discuss and exchange ideas may take more time than a group of passive students who are unwilling to engage in discussions. Furthermore, students with high standards

may need more time to produce a well-written text. However, one benefit of the collaborative work could be improving students' time management skills.

VI. CONCLUSION

The present study aimed to investigate Saudi female EFL learners' attitude toward collaborative writing and the challenges/problems that may arise during the activity. The findings confirm that students believe that collaborative writing can be a useful strategy to improve their language skills in general and their writing skills in particular. It can also increase their motivation, improve their communication and negotiation skills, and stimulate critical thinking. These results tie in well with previous studies that stressed the importance of collaborative writing (Elola & Oskuz, 2010; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2007). However, the findings confirm that some problems may arise during collaborative writing. These problems are mainly related to students' behavior. This is consistent with research investigating issues in collaborative writing (Shea, 1995). However, based on students' positive attitude toward collaborative writing and its benefits, collaborative writing should be integrated into the writing curriculum. Moreover, the benefits of the task and the roles and responsibilities of the students must be clarified (Chisholm, 1990). Finally, teachers and researchers must address the problems that arise during the collaborative task to ensure that the activity achieve its goals.

Limitations and recommendations

One of the limitations of the present study is the small sample size, which affects the generalization of the results. Another limitation is that the study did not consider the subjects' proficiency level in English in general and in their writing skills in particular, which might affect their attitude and their engagement in the task. The third limitation is that the study only uses one instrument, the questionnaire. Using other instruments such as interviews may provide more data.

The same study should be carried out with a larger number of students, taking into consideration their language proficiency level. Another study can be carried out with male students to investigate whether different genders have different attitudes toward writing collaboratively. Another study can be conducted to investigate problems of collaborative writing from teachers' perspective.

APPENDIX

This questionnaire is a part of a study that investigates Saudi female EFL learners' attitude toward collaborative writing. Your response and time are highly appreciated.

Statement	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
Collaborative writing is an effective strategy that results in better, more accurate and complex essays.			
Collaborative writing makes the task more enjoyable and interesting, and motivates to write			
Expressing my ideas to the group improves my communication and negotiation skill.			
Collaborative writing helps me learn how to plan, organize, and structure the essay more effectively.			
Collaborative writing helps in improving my writing skill in general.			
Collaborative writing helps in understanding and considering multiple viewpoints on a particular topic.			
Collaborative writing helps in constructing a strong argument.			
Collaborative writing helps me verbalize and explain my ideas.			
Collaborative writing stimulates critical thinking skills (through commenting on others' ideas).			
In collaborative writing, everyone performs an equal amount of work.			
Collaborative writing helps in improving grammatical accuracy and learning vocabulary.			
Collaborative writing helps me receive useful feedback.			
It is unfair that all the members get the same grade.			
Some members do not accept opposing opinions.			
Some members control the discussion without giving others an opportunity to explain their ideas.			
Collaborative writing consumes a lot of time.			
Members discuss their ideas in Arabic, which decreases the chances of improving communication skill.			

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Nada Abdulaziz Alkhalaf is from Saudi Arabia. She was born on 17-4-1990. She obtained a BA degree with honor from Qassim University in English Language in 2012. She is currently an MA student at Applied Linguistics program at College of Arabic Language and Social Studies, Qassim University, Saudi Arabia. She is a lecturer at the Department of English language and Translation in Qassim University.

A Cognitive Study of Double-object Constructions in English and Chinese

Yuanmei Li

School of Foreign Languages, Guizhou Normal University, Guizhou, China

Abstract—Double-object is a kind of syntactic structure which is common in English and Chinese. In the field of linguistics in China, the similarities and differences between English and Chinese double-object sentences have been discussed and debated. Based on the perspective of cognitive linguistics, this paper probes into the metaphor cognition, metonymy cognition and both of them in the double-object constructions of English and Chinese, and points out that the double-object constructions in English and Chinese are similar in the above three aspects. However, there are also differences between English and Chinese double-object constructions, which are manifested in the following three aspects: the scope of double-object constructions, the conceptual patterns and the verbs that can enter the double-object constructions. By analyzing the similarities and differences between English and Chinese double-object constructions, it can be concluded that the syntactic structure of English and Chinese objects reflects the conceptual structures of human beings and the ways of cognition of the world, and even the sentence structure containing the same conceptual content will lead to the difference in meaning because of the different cognitive styles of events.

Index Terms—cognition, construction grammar, double object constructions, contrastive analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

Double-object structure is widely used in English and Chinese. It has always been a research topic of great interest and importance to scholars at home and abroad. It is well known that one of the basic word orders of English and Chinese sentences is SVO, and the abstract form of their double-object structure is S+V+N1+N2, where N1 represents the indirect object and N2 represents the direct object.

The researches on double-object structures by scholars at home and abroad are mostly carried out within the framework of traditional grammar or based on the theories of structuralist linguistics and valence grammar. In recent years, construction grammar, which belongs to cognitive linguistics, has provided a new perspective for the study of double-object. Goldberg (1995), the main representative of construction grammar, used construction theory to discuss the characteristics of English double-object constructions in detail. He argues that the archetypal semantics of English double-object statements are "the agent consciously and successfully imparts the object to the recipient," by means of metaphor and metonymy, other similar semantics are derived, that is, the "giving" of the actor. In addition, Goldberg also explains that some divalent verbs that do not have the meaning of "giving" can enter the double-object constructions.

In China, many scholars have also begun to use construction grammar to explore and study the differences between English and Chinese double-object sentences. He Xiaowei (2003) and Wang Yin (2006) discussed the grammaticalization process of VNN constructs based on the hypothesis of "the interaction between nouns and verbs", and obtained the commonly distinguished double-object structures and the object complement structures. These can all be regarded as the unified syntactic phenomena attributed to VNN construction blocks, all of which are restricted by the meaning of VNN construction blocks. Zhang Bojiang (1999) introduced the Goldberg construction grammar theory into the study of double-object in Chinese, and divided the double-object verbs into 13 categories, such as "verbs which have the meaning of giving" and "verbs which have the meaning of acquiring.", which laid a foundation for us to contrast the double-object in Chinese and English. Zhang Jianli (2006) conducted a synchronic and diachronic investigation of English and Chinese double-object sentences by using construction grammar and based on the usage model, and concluded that English double-object constructions have the sense of "giving", while Chinese double-object constructions lead to two inherited constructions, with the meanings of "giving" and "acquiring" respectively. In addition, Xiong Xueliang (2007) discusses the cognitive framework activated by the use of double-object structures, the distribution of components in the framework, the prototype of double-object structures and the relationship between the high-prototype and the low-prototype double-object structures. To sum up, previous researchers have conducted a lot of theoretical analysis and discussion on double-object constructions from multiple perspectives, but the depth and breadth of relevant studies are not enough to further explore the underlying causes of such differences, and there exist differences on some major issues. On the basis of the existing researches, this paper will critically absorb and draw on the existing researches on English and Chinese in accordance with the principles of cognitive construction grammar, and continue the cognitive research on English and Chinese double-object constructions. This paper takes the differences between English and Chinese verbs with double-object as the starting point, makes a deep cognitive analysis

of English and Chinese double-object constructions, and explains the differences between them and the root causes from the perspective of macro language system.

II. TERMINOLOGY

In this paper, it is established that construction, valence and structure are three related conceptual entities at different levels of analysis. In other words, a sentence can be analyzed differently at different levels of analysis. Based on this, this part will define and distinguish the three terms involved.

Construction is a "combination of form and meaning" or "combination of form and function". That is, whether simple or complex constructions have their own independent forms, semantics, and functions. Construction grammar is a theoretical system based on cognitive linguistics, and there is an inherent regularity in the form and meaning of the structure. A construction is a complete cognitive schema, a Gestalt, the whole is greater than the sum of parts. The whole meaning is not equal to the simple addition of each component. In other words, the meaning of the whole cannot be separated from the partial meaning, but it cannot be derived entirely from the partial meaning. In short, the meaning of a sentence = construction meaning + lexical meaning. Among them, the overall meaning of construction and the meaning of lexical components are an interactive relationship. Typical lexical semantics create an inside-out pressure on the formation of sentence semantics, which forces the word to undergo some changes in meaning and function, and enters the sentence structure through the extended mechanism of metaphor or metonymy.

The valence is related to the verb entering the double-object construction, which refers to the dominant power of the verb over the subordinate components of the verb. This ability reflects the semantic nature of the verb and determines the argument structure formed by the verb and the argument category in the structure. Therefore, valence describes the potential ability of the verb as a lexical item before it enters the sentence. For example, in the argument structure of the verb "give", there are three dominant arguments, the agent (the intentional initiator of the action), the concern (the non-active participant of the action) and the acceptor (the stressed object of the action). Therefore, the verb "give" is called a trivalent verb or a ditransitive verb. The verb "knit", by contrast, is a divalent or untransitive verb, because it involves only two governed arguments: the act of giving and the act of receiving.

Different from construction, structure refers to the type of surface syntactic structure. For instance, "He gave me a book." This is a double-object statement because the verb "give" is followed by two objects, abstracted as structured as S+V+N1+N2, it can be seen from this that the intrinsic valence of a verb and the structure it can enter are obviously at two different levels of analysis, the former reflecting the syntactical relations between a verb and other verbs, and the latter reflecting the specific syntactical relations of the verb. That is to say, the valence of a verb is certain, but because the verb can enter into more than one structure, the element in the specific structure does not necessarily match its valence. For example, the verb "give" can also enter the mono-object structure, in the sentence--- "he gave a book" , it has only two arguments.

III. COGNITIVE ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH AND CHINESE DOC

The syntactic form of English and Chinese double-object constructions is S + V + N1 + N2. Its functional or constructive meaning can be described as: "the agent conducts a directed transfer to the subject, which relates to and affects the matter involved". In this part, a further cognitive analysis of English and Chinese double object constructions will be made.

A. *Types of Double-object Verbs in English and Chinese*

The constructional meaning has certain restrictions on the types of verb entering the double-object structures, and not all verbs can enter the double-object structures. As for the verbs entering the double-object structures, different scholars have different classification, and Xu Shengheng divides the verbs into three categories: the first kind of verbs have the meaning of "giving"; the second kind of verbs have no obvious "giving" meaning, but this meaning is latent; the third kind of verbs do not have the meaning of "giving". On this basis, this paper will add the fourth kind of verbs with the meaning of "acquiring", and discuss and explain the four kinds of verbs.

1. Verbs that have the meaning of "giving"

These verbs have a clear semantic direction and purpose, and syntactical realization of this semantic meaning through the dual transitive sentence form. Such verbs themselves have the explicitly "giving" meaning and appear in VNN construction blocks, which reinforce each other with the meaning of VNN construction blocks.

In English, these verbs mainly include: give, lend, bring, deliver, rent, offer, pay, pass, hand, throw, etc.. For instance,

- a) John gave Mary the book.
- b) They offered John a job.

In Chinese, these verbs mainly include: 给, 送, 奖励, 支援, 还, 交, 退, 补, 寄 and so on. For example,

- b) 我过三五天准还你钱。
- d) 老洪给了他一支笔。

2. Verbs that have no obvious "giving" meaning

This kind of verbs are mainly used in the process of interpersonal communication and interaction. There is no

obvious sense of “giving”, but the result is consistent with the meaning of construction mainly through the way of verb expansion.

Their VNN construct blocks imply that the agent transfers the object (N2) to the acceptor (N1) by unfolding the action of V. The verb “teach”, for example, is the ultimate transfer of knowledge (N2) to the recipient (N1) by teaching. The way these verbs unfold is a typical extension of the “giving” meaning through the hand. From the perspective of the semantic space involved in the action, there must be two transitive objects, so that the action process is complete and reasonable.

The most common verbs in English are: teach, ask, improve, tell, show, guarantee, show, permit, improve, etc. For example,

- a) I always tell my daughter a story before she goes to sleep.
- b) He teaches the boys history.

The most common verbs in Chinese are: 教, 问, 告诉, 嘱咐, 回答, 答复 and so on. For instance,

- c) 赵老师教我数学。
- d) 李明告诉我他的秘密。

3. Verbs that have no “giving” meaning

This kind of verb mainly means to produce the service meaning without the “giving” meaning itself, and the semantic space formed by the verb does not necessarily require two transitive objects to appear at the same time, but when one transitive object N2 appears, another transitive object N1 may exist potentially.

When these verbs enter the VNN construction block, N1 actually appears, and the latent giving meaning becomes the implied meaning of the actual existence. Just look at the example, “knit a sweater”, the action of knitting potentially has the recipient of the sweater.

Common verbs in English are: draw, sing, cook, make, bake, find, pour, point, knit, etc.. For example,

- a) Could you draw me a picture?
- b) I'll knit him a sweater.

The Chinese verbs corresponding to these verbs in English are greatly restricted and generally cannot enter the VNN construction block. Instead, the preposition “给” is often used to elicit the recipient before the predicate. For instance,

- c) 我给你编一支花篮。
- d) 他给我唱了一首歌。

4. Verbs that have the meaning of “acquiring”

After these verbs that have the meaning of “acquiring” in English entering into the double-object construction block, the constructional meaning suppresses the lexical meaning, indicating that the subject transfers the object to the recipient, while the Chinese verbs that have the meaning of “acquiring” retains the semantic meaning of such a verb and the subject becomes the recipient.

In English, these verbs are: buy, take, grab, win, earn, etc.. For instance,

- a) John bought Mary a dress.
- b) John took Mary a book.

In Chinese, these verbs are: 偷, 拿, 买 and so on. For example,

- c) 他偷了小王一本书。
- d) 他拿了我的一支铅笔。

B. Cognitive Analysis of English Double-object Construction

According to Goldberg's construction grammar, the English double-object construction refers to the event that the subject affects the indirect object in some way by making it accept the direct object. In this case, the subject acts consciously, the action is a transitive act, and the indirect object is the willing recipient.

In the process of using language, the connection of “subject”, “recipient” and “object” constitutes the double-object construction, so it is easy to co-exist with the verb “give”, because in the process of conceptualization and language use, the concept of “giving” is influenced by the isomorphism of language and world, which stipulates that the verb has a syntactic relationship with two objects and produces double-object structure. At the same time, because verbs that have the meaning of “giving” are used repeatedly in the structure, the meaning of “giving” is solidified into the double-object construction, which makes the sentence get the meaning of “giving”. Therefore, in the English double-object construction, verbs that have the meaning of “giving” are the high-prototype double-object constructions. If there are verbs that have no meaning of “giving” and non-trivalent verbs in the double-object constructions, but these verbs can be explained with the meaning of “giving” or trivalent explanations, the sentence pattern has a constructional effect, thus producing a low-prototype double-object constructions. For example,

- a) knit him a sweater; b) pour me a drink;
- c) sing them a song; d) bake him a cake.

It seems that there is no systematic connection between these verbs, but if they are analyzed in the double-object constructions, it can be found that the original intention and the possible result of the action expressed by the non-“giving” meaning verbs and the non-trivalent verbs are embodied in this construction as a sentence pattern that can

symbolize the process or event of "transferring", and the result is implicitly given to the recipient or indirect object.

If there is a non- "giving" meaning verb in English double-object construction, the syntactic structure will temporarily change the meaning of the verb, assign the verb the meaning of "giving" or project the usage of "giving ", and the non-trivalent verb will change the usage of the verb if it has a trivalent effect in the double-object construction, but the result will be a low-prototype double-object construction. For example, in the case of "sing them a song", "them" is not a subject of "sing", so there is no semantic domination relationship between them. But in the double-object sentence, "them" becomes a necessary part of the sentence, and its function is assigned by the sentence, which interacts with the verb to produce the construction meaning to be expressed. That is to say, the indirect object does not necessarily have a semantic relationship with the verb directly, but participates in role reassigned or supplemented in the cognitive framework activated by the double-object construction.

In English double-object construction, there is a radial systematic inheritance relationship between the sentence forms of high and low prototypes: the emergence of the verb that have the meaning of "giving" or the structure of the argument containing three arguments is the prototype of the double-object construction; Non-trivalent and non-"giving" meaning verbs derive the meaning of "giving" from sentence structure, which are the subclasses derived from the extension and system inheritance of the high-level double-object construction.

C. Cognitive Analysis of Chinese Double-object Construction

The semantic meaning of Chinese double-object construction is "giving", it means that the agent acts consciously, and the action is a kind of efferent behavior, which involves the recipient and gains the benefit, for example, "I paid him 20 dollars". However, in addition to the form of "giving" construction, there exists the form of "acquiring" meaning: the agent acts consciously, and the action is an act that introduces the subject to the object and causes the loss of the object involved. For instance, "he stole some books from me". In terms of the profit and loss of the main argument of the two constructions, the agent in the former construction is impaired and the recipient involved is beneficial. On the contrary, in the latter construction, the agent benefits while the recipient involved is impaired, and the two constructs form a reverse contrast.

However, there is also a correlation between the two constructs because the meaning of "giving" and the meaning of "acquiring" are closely related, and the Chinese double object construction has an epistatic structure: object ownership transfer, and the cognitive diagram is "agent makes the object transfer to the reference object ". The epistatic structure and its sub-structure form the relationship between model and instance, which can be summed up to form the continuum of object ownership transfer. Moreover, the form of the construction adds to the valence of the verbs entering the construction, and the involvement is usually increased. For example, "He stole some books from me." The verb "steal" should have not only content but also object to fill the two object spaces. Furthermore, the function of the construction will suppress and modify the meaning of the verbs into the construction.

The double-object structure of Chinese has two opposite semantic constructs, so the concrete structure type into the structure of the verb depends on the transfer direction meaning of the verb: "impaired" or "beneficial", and those verbs with unclear meaning of transfer direction is on the edge of the border of the two constructs. Therefore, the Chinese constructions match the lexical meanings of verbs.

IV. THE SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ENGLISH AND CHINESE DOUBLE-OBJECT CONSTRUCTIONS

The similarities and differences between English and Chinese double-object constructions are a controversial topic in the field of linguistics in China. By comparing English and Chinese, it can be found that English and Chinese double-object sentences are not completely equivalent, and there are many similarities and differences between them.

A. The Similarities of Double-object Constructions in English and Chinese

As mentioned above, both the English and Chinese double-object constructions are S+V+N1+N2, and their prototype meaning is: X causes Y to receive Z. In addition to this prototype meaning, the construction also derives many other non-central usages, that is, it has semantic polysenseness like vocabulary. In fact, the reason for this polysemy comes from the extension mechanism such as metaphor or metonymy. Metaphor and metonymy are ubiquitous in our daily life and affect our thoughts and actions. The creativity of language lies in embedding concrete words into the sentence structure through the extension mechanism such as metaphor or metonymy. Common cognitive experience makes English and Chinese have the same extension mechanism.

1. The cognitive pattern of metaphor

Metaphor involves two cognitive domains, mapping structures or relationships in one cognitive domain to another. Generally speaking, it extends from a concrete, realistic, more familiar field to another abstract, unfamiliar one.

The basis of metaphor is the synthetic similarity between the two things. The similarity between two recognizing domains refers to the similarity characteristics between the source domain and the target domain. In fact, the typical object structure of English and Chinese is the tangible entity of material space, but under the cognitive mode of metaphor, the entity of material space is mapped to the field of immaterial space or discourse space. Please look at these examples,

- a) She owes me a grudge.

b) 他给了我一些建议。

“grudge” 和 “建议” are respectively mapped from the specific physical domain to the non-physical space domain or the discourse space domain. The synthetic similarity is “can be endowed with “giving” meaning and transferred. Similar examples are: “The patient gave Tom a headache”. “他给了我一些建议” and so on.

2. The cognitive pattern of metonymy

Metonymy involves the relationship between prominence and proximity. An object or a concept will have many attributes, while human cognition tends to pay more attention to its most prominent attributes, which is the prominence attribute. Metonymy refers to the use of one salient object to refer to or replace another in the same domain, such as referring to the whole by the part and to its function or content by the container.

Under the function of metonymy, the indirect object and direct object in the constructions of English and Chinese double-object sentences may be replaced by abstract things, and their relationship with the abstract things is just like the relationship between the part and the whole. There are some examples,

- a) Jimmy sent Chicago a letter.
- b) I pretend to give him the cold shoulder.
- c) 大嫂子顺手给了他一巴掌。
- d) 晓荷送给太太一个媚眼。

In example a), the word Chicago is used to replace someone who lives in Chicago. The second sentence can be translated into Chinese: “我故意冷落他”. The verb phrasal “the cold shoulder” is used to replace the event that I ignored him. In the same way, the rest of the two Chinese sentences can be analyzed from the perspective of metonymy. “一巴掌” and “一个媚眼” represent incidents of beating someone and insinuating someone respectively.

3. The cognitive pattern of metaphor and metonymy

In the extension of double object constructions, metaphor and metonymy do not exclude each other, by contrast, they are an organic continuum that is interrelated and complementary. For example: “单位照顾我一套房子.”

In this sentence, the agent is extended from “person” to “place”, which is the result of the combination of metaphor and metonymy cognitive model. People and the place where he or she works are cognitively related, there is a relationship between the part and the whole, thus the place where people works can be used to refer to the people. This is metonymy. Therefore, it can be seen that under the combination of metonymy and metaphor, the place where people works has some characteristics of human beings and can assume the role of agent.

All in all, the polysemous phenomenon of double object construction is the process of extending from a central meaning or typical meaning to a non-central meaning or other meaning through human cognitive means, and it is the result of the category and conceptualization of human cognition. The cognitive patterns of metaphor and metonymy are based on people’s basic experience, and they are ubiquitous in human daily life, which affects human thoughts and behavior. As Wang Yin said, the meaning of grammatical construction must be explained by the prototype category, cognitive model, image schema, mental fusion, metaphor mechanism and so on advocated by cognitive linguistics.

B. The Differences of Double-object Constructions in English and Chinese

Each language embodies the nation’s own thinking characteristics, Chinese follows savvy thinking, English follows rational thinking. Chinese is often based not on rigorous formal analysis but on savvy thinking to get the relationship. The most prominent feature of sentence construction in Chinese is that Chinese put emphasis on parataxis, it means Chinese emphasize meaning combination rather than formal structure. On the contrary, English sentences mainly use hypotaxis, emphasize form structure coordination, and show meaning by form. There are also many asymmetries in the extension of the double-object construction in English and Chinese.

1. The different constructions ranges

There are two main differences in the range of double-object constructions between English and Chinese. As mentioned above, Chinese double-object sentences are semantically divided into two categories: “giving” meaning and “acquiring” meaning. In Chinese double-object constructions, there is a semantic relative relationship between some “giving” verbs and “acquiring” verbs.

The two kinds of double-object sentences which are composed of these verbs can show us the semantic contrast between them. However, there is no such contrast in English double-object sentences, because English double-object sentences do not have the same “acquiring” verbs as Chinese. No matter whether the verb in the sentence is the “giving” meaning or “acquiring” meaning, the whole double-object sentence pattern expresses the same semantic meaning, that is: X causes Y to receive Z. For instance, He is going to sell me an old car. (他准备卖给我一辆旧车。) He is going to buy me an old car. (他准备买一辆旧车给我。) He gave me a ticket. (他给了我一张票) He got me a ticket. (他弄了一张票给我。) From these examples, it can be seen that when the verb in the sentence is the “acquiring” meaning verb, although the sentence pattern of English and Chinese double-object sentences are exactly the same, the semantic is completely opposite.

Secondly, there exists double-object structure with some predicative-object verbs in Chinese. In Chinese, the predicative-object verbs can take double objects, but there is no such phenomenon in English. A predicative-object verb is a compound verb with a dominant and dominated relationship between morphemes, such as “放心, 出口”, etc. But

there is no such phenomenon in English, which is because there is no such grammatical structure within the corresponding words in English. In Chinese, it is not particularly common for the predicative-object verb to be able to carry double-object, because the predicative-object verb has already had an object-like component inside the word-formation, the transitivity of the whole verb is affected, so the predicative-object verb which can take objects has a small proportion of all the predicative-object verbs. What's more, the double-object structure requires the verb not only to have an object, but also two objects, so the number of predicate-object verbs that can meet this requirement is relatively small. At the same time, the structure of the verb with double-object also has its characteristics, that is, the direct object before the general Chinese has a unique quantifier modification.

2. The different conceptual patterns

The concept of object in Chinese is different from that in English. There are locative objects in Chinese, such as “擦黑板, 住旅馆, 骂街 and so on. As a result, there is a unique double-object structure in Chinese, which is composed of locative objects and target objects. There are some examples,

- a) 他偷了小王一辆自行车。(He stole a bicycle from Xiao Wang.)
- b) 他拿了我一本书。(He took a book from me.)
- c) 他买了王教授一本书。(He bought a book by Professor Wang.)
- d) 我娶了他一个女儿。(I married one of his daughters from him.)

In these sentences, Xiao Wang, me, Professor Wang, him are not target objects, they are locative objects. The real target objects are bicycle, book, one of his daughters. The decisive feature of this structure is the transfer of ownership.

In addition, the indirect object is allowed to shift to the left in the Chinese specific double-object structure. Langaker believes that the grammatical meaning of the English double-object form is the "source-target path", that is, the object can only shift from the subject direction to the right. It should be noted, however, that in this structure, which consists of the resulting verbs and the escape verbs which themselves have no transfer significance, the object moves directly to the right. In the special structure of "locative objects + target objects" in Chinese, the object does not transfer from the subject to the indirect object, that is, not to the right, but to the subject, that is, to the left. In Chinese double-object structure, the object can be transferred to the right or left. In English double-object structure, the object is transferred to the right, that is, the subject is transferred to the indirect object.

3. The different verbs

Chinese double-object sentences are semantically divided into two categories: “giving” meaning and “acquiring” meaning. Some semantic verbs of “giving” meaning and “acquiring” meaning have a semantic relative relationship, and the two kinds of double-object sentences composed of them can show the obvious semantic opposition between “giving” meaning and “acquiring” meaning.

Since the Chinese double-object sentence patterns can express the two opposite semantics of “giving” meaning and “acquiring” meaning according to the semantic meaning of verbs, then the double-object statements composed of the verb with the two semantics of “giving” meaning and “acquiring” meaning will have the imagination of homomorphic heterosemous meaning, and its exact semantics need to be determined by the specific context to exclude ambiguity.

However, English double-object sentences only express the meaning of "giving", so English double-object sentences have a restrictive effect on verbs with two semantic meanings of "giving" and "acquiring". As long as verbs with two semantic meanings of "giving" and "acquiring" enter the double-object sentence pattern, they can only show the semantic meaning of "giving".

Because of the difference of grammatical kinetic energy of verbs, the following verbs can carry double-objects in English, but not in Chinese. Verbs that convey information in language: “read, tell, write, sing, recommend” in English; “读、念、写、唱、推荐” in Chinese. Verbs for transporting: “bring, fetch, take, mail, remit” in English; “带、拿、捎、邮、汇” in Chinese. Verbs that have the meaning of “giving”: “offer, afford, awarded, allocated, bequeath, leave” in English; “提供、遗留、留下、判” in Chinese.

Result objects exist in both English and Chinese languages. The result objects do not exist before the action, instead it is the result of the action, such as “make a dress”. The dress does not exist before the action make. It is the result of making. In English, a result verb can be followed by the "indirect object + direct object" structure. For instance, “She made her daughter a new dress”. However, Chinese result verbs cannot be followed by the "indirect object + direct object" structure.

V. CONCLUSION

Based on the perspective of cognitive linguistics, this paper probes into the metaphor cognition, metonymy cognition and both of them in the double-object constructions of English and Chinese, and points out that the double-object constructions in English and Chinese are similar in the above three aspects. However, there are also differences between English and Chinese double-object constructions, which are manifested in the following three aspects: the scope of double object constructions, the conceptual pattern and the verbs that can enter the double object constructions.

By analyzing the similarities and differences between English and Chinese double-object structures, it can be concluded that the syntactic structure of English and Chinese objects reflects the conceptual structure of human beings and the way of cognition of the world, and even the sentence structure containing the same conceptual content will lead

to the difference in meaning because of the different cognitive styles of events. The commonness of English and Chinese double-object constructions reflect the same way of cognition of different peoples to the world, and the difference of English and Chinese double-object constructions reflect the different cognition and sentence meaning of English and Chinese.

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Yuanmei Li was born in Guizhou, China in 1996. She is currently a postgraduate student working on master degree in the School of Foreign Languages, Guizhou Normal University, Guizhou, China. Her research interests include cognitive linguistics and pragmatics

A Study on the Problems, Countermeasures and Reflections in the Practice of English Teaching in Junior Middle School — Based on the Teaching Practice of Jinfeng Experimental School

Xin Ma

School of Foreign Languages and Literatures, Chongqing Normal University, Chongqing, China

Abstract—In the current junior English teaching practice, there are existing some problems, so this paper is based on the teaching of Jinfeng experimental school, and discusses the problems in junior English teaching practice; designs the investigation report on the factors of middle school students' learning difficulties in the process of English learning; analyzes the investigation results; probes into the corresponding countermeasures, and it also makes some reflections on the English teaching of junior high school.

Index Terms—middle school English, teaching practice, problems, countermeasures

I. PROBLEMS IN ENGLISH TEACHING PRACTICE

In the process of English teaching practice, many problems have been found, which can be divided into two aspects: teachers' problems and students' problems. The specific contents are as follows:

A. Teachers' Problems

1. The teacher appreciates and illustrates focal points vaguely

For a novice English teacher, it is difficult to grasp key and difficult points of each unit of the textbook. Moreover, the teachers' incorrect and incomplete understanding of the key and difficult points further leads to the inadequate explanation and incomplete analysis of corresponding knowledge in English class, which also affects the English teaching effect and reduces the students' English classroom learning efficiency.

2. The teacher fails to build a positive English learning atmosphere

“In junior middle school English listening teaching, it is very important to build a good language environment and provide students with better listening training and learning opportunities, which is the main content of junior high school English listening teaching in the new situation” (Wang, 2016). However, in the current junior high school English teaching process, teachers fail to build a positive and effective English learning atmosphere, therefore, it's difficult for students to achieve the actual use of English or experience the process of English use, which also affects the effect of English learning.

3. The training and selection of English representative are inappropriate

The English representative should be the "helper" of the teacher, assisting the teacher to carry out English teaching better, but the cooperation with the representative is not positive in this teaching process. The main reasons are as follows: first of all, the English representative was selected last semester and in this semester, there are no new investigations and selections have been carried out. Secondly, the teacher fails to clearly inform the work of the representative in details, and there is less communication with him. Moreover, there is too much social work of the representative, and due to the carelessness of the English representative, he fails to pay enough attention to it, so he often fails to send and receive homework on time, which affects the development of English teaching activities to some extent.

4. The teacher pays little attention to individual differences of students

“At present, the learning level of students in English classroom teaching in junior middle school is uneven, their abilities are different, and the polarization phenomenon is also very different” (Yan, 2017). Students have their own differences, and each student's knowledge level and cognitive ability is also different. Therefore, in class, it is difficult for teachers to take care of all students, so teachers should actively carry out individual conversation and communication after class, so as to better appreciate the students' thoughts and learning status, and take into account the students' situation in the preparation process, and take care of more students and ensure the efficiency of English classroom teaching.

B. Students' Problems

1. Students lack interest and initiative in English learning

Interest is the best teacher, but in the current English learning process, students generally are lack of interest in English learning. “As a second language, English generally appears in the entrance examination, which has no context in daily life, so students' motivation in English learning is relatively low” (Tang, 2019). Students lack interest and initiative in learning, so they will not learn English positively, which leads to the unsatisfactory English performance.

2. Students' English learning habits and methods are inappropriate

Some students have inappropriate English learning habits, for example: some students do not take notes in class; when encounter learning problems, they almost never actively ask the teacher about the problems. After class, some students fail to complete their homework in time, and will not review and consolidate what they learned in time. What's more, students' learning method is mechanical and ineffective, which needs to be improved urgently. For example, some students still use rote and mechanical memory methods when they memorize words, which is particularly time-consuming and inefficient for English learning.

3. Students' negligence of classroom discipline and lack of self-discipline

In the process of classroom teaching, most students generally lack the sense of rules and regulations and the discipline of class; therefore, most students in the classroom have ignored regulations and discipline completely. After the bell rings, students are still playing, chatting and whispering. When the teacher is teaching, students still have some bad behaviors, such as doing minor actions, passing notes, speaking, sleeping and so on. Some of the behaviors greatly affect the smooth development of classroom teaching activities.

II. AN INVESTIGATE REPORT ON SELF-FACTORS OF LEARNING DIFFICULTIES IN MIDDLE SCHOOL STUDENTS' ENGLISH LEARNING PROCESS

In order to better understand the students' English situation, the author uses the questionnaire of Wang Yangguang for reference, and combined with the actual English teaching situation, adds some questions, so as to better understand the students' needs, further improve the education and teaching methods, and enhance the teaching effect, and finally improve the quality of teaching.

A. Investigation Background

At present, many experts and scholars have made corresponding researches and explorations on the difficulties of middle school students' English learning, and have made some achievements. They have published many related papers and works, which are summarized mainly from the aspects of students' age, cognitive style, acceptance, social influence, etc.

B. Purpose of Investigation

This survey is mainly to investigate the difficult factors of students in the process of English learning through the questionnaire, so as to be able to carry out targeted teaching in later English teaching, and lead students to gradually break through the difficulties of English learning, so as to improve the efficiency of students' English learning.

C. Respondents

Grade seven and Grade eight students of Jinfeng experimental school in Chongqing Gaoxin District.

D. Investigation Content

There are 20 questions in the questionnaire. The contents of the questionnaire are: Students' current English scores, students' interest in English learning, students' enthusiasm for English learning, and students' suggestions for current English teaching, etc.

E. Questionnaire

Attachment I

F. Questionnaire Analysis

In this investigation, 70 students have been investigated, and they are all from Grade Seven or Eight, and the investigation has been carried out after the 5 months English teaching of the English teacher.

According to the investigation results, what we can know is that 55.71% of students are discontent with their English scores, and there are only 7.14% students think that they have comparative good English scores. Furthermore, there are only 8.57% students spend about or more than 2 hours in English learning, however, about 65.71% students spend half an hour in English learning, which is not enough for the after-school English learning. There are only 15.71% of students who will learn English actively after school, and about 67.14% of students will learn English positively. About 55.71% of students, the objective for them is to learn English is to use English in the future. About 35.71% of students are learning English to prepare for the Entrance Exams. About half of the students will make plans for English learning sometimes. There are 16 students that are about 22.86% of students who never review, make a summary or conclude what they have learned every day. 51.43% of students will sometimes communicate with other students on exchanging learning experience, but 35.71% of students almost never communicate with other students on study. About 61.43% of the students have some confidence in learning English well, but 14% of the students have no confidence in learning

English well, and 55.71% of the students will try to learn English well with various methods.

In current English teaching, the most necessary three aspects that need to be improved are: the interest of English classroom teaching, the diversity of English classroom teaching activities and the diversity and richness of homework, accounting for 72.86%, 62.86% and 40% respectively. In the process of English learning, the students think that the most difficult aspects are: they can't understand the sentence meaning of complex sentences; they can't remember words and phrases, and they can't use what they have learned correctly and appropriately, which accounts for 77.14%, 64.29% and 52.86% respectively. The three aspects that students want to learn are: how to correctly understand sentence pattern, sentence pattern and sentence meaning; how to correctly spell and memorize words and phrases and how to apply what they want to learn to realize the flexible use of knowledge, accounting for 80%, 67.14% and 48.57% respectively. In the English test, the most difficult questions are: Text Completion, accounting for 64.29%, followed by Cloze, Reading comprehension, Written Expression, all accounting for 51.43%.

According to the analysis of the survey results, in the process of preparing class, the teacher should pay more attention to the interest of classroom teaching; the diversity of teaching activities, and develop more English teaching resources, so as to be able to have more abundant and diverse homework. At the same time, teachers should carry out teaching activities for students' learning difficulties, and lead students to gradually break through the difficulty of sentence meaning understanding, word memory and flexible use of knowledge. Moreover, teachers should combine the needs of students to teach students the aspects they want to improve, such as: correctly understand sentence patterns, sentence patterns and sentence meanings; effectively spell and memorize words and phrases; and correctly use the knowledge they have learned. Finally, teachers should combine the actual situation of the test; lead students to grasp the test points; master the skills and skills of each test question type, and gradually break through each type.

III. COUNTERMEASURES OF ENGLISH TEACHING PRACTICE

A. *Strengthen the Improvement of Teachers' Professional Teaching Skills*

Teachers should keep on learning so as to improve their knowledge level and professional teaching ability. According to Professor Liu Jie, "there are six standards for Teacher Professionalization: (1) the use of specialized knowledge and skills; (2) the long-term training and training; (3) the emphasis on the concept of service and professional ethics; (4) the enjoyment of effective professional autonomy; (5) the formation of a strong professional organization; (6) the need for continuous learning and study" (Liu, 2001). Therefore, teachers should constantly improve themselves from the above aspects, so as to achieve the improvement of teaching quality and the efficiency of classroom teaching.

B. *Improve the Interest and Diversity of Classroom Teaching Activities*

When teachers prepare for lessons and design teaching activities, they should pay attention to the interest and diversity of teaching activities. In addition, teachers should also pay attention to the interest of teaching language, teachers' language should be suitable for students' psychological characteristics, and appropriate inspiration ideas should be used to ignite the spark of students' wisdom. "Teachers should use vivid language to attract students' attention and be good at illustrating abstract concepts concretely to stimulate students' interest in learning and activate students' thinking space to make them full of imagination and creativity" (Luo, 2013). Various teaching activities can also help students to concentrate on the activities and stimulate their thirst for knowledge.

C. *Cultivate Students' Subjective Initiative and Learning Habits*

Students are the main character of English teaching activities. Therefore, increasing students' initiative in English learning plays an indispensable role in improving English effect. "In English teaching, teachers should combine the actual situation, optimize and innovate teaching methods, enrich teaching forms, and activate the classroom atmosphere, so as to enhance the enthusiasm of students in English learning" (Tang, 2019). In addition, teachers should also correct the current bad habits of students, and cultivate students to develop good learning habits. For example, before class, the teacher should tell students that they should actively mark them if they don't understand the knowledge points, and then ask the teacher after class; build their own wrong notebook; summarize and reflect on what they have learned after class every day.

D. *Carry out English Reading, Recitation and Targeted Question Type Training*

English is a language in nature and a tool for communication. Therefore, teachers should actively carry out extra-curricular English reading activities and assign certain recitation tasks, so that students can read and memorize more and then broaden the way of English input. In addition, extracurricular English learning plays an important role in students' learning. "Extracurricular reading can not only improve students' grammar and perception in the text, but also well understand the language of the article" (Li, 2015). According to the students' difficulties, we should carry out special exercises on the questions such as Text Completion and Written expression, so as to realize the directional improvement.

E. *Formulate the Reward and Punishment System of English Teaching*

The teacher should make a complete system of rewards and punishments when preparing lessons. Furthermore, the

teacher ought to inform students the rewards and punishments in the first English class, and make sure that everyone has remembered them. Furthermore, the teacher should continuously improve the daily evaluation system during the process of teaching. "Teachers should change from summative assessment to formative assessment, and properly integrate the elements of authenticity assessment" (Ma, 2011).

F. Improve the Evaluation System, and Timely Give Feedback

The teacher should give timely feedback on students' behavior and learning. "Contemporary psychological research shows that promoting the unity of students' cognitive process and cognitive results is an important factor for students' effective learning. What's more, "classroom teaching should not only tell students "what is it", but also teach students "why", to help students get teaching results consistent with teaching objectives" (Yan, 2017), so that students can strengthen their positive behavior and weaken their bad behavior in time.

IV. REFLECTION ON MIDDLE SCHOOL ENGLISH TEACHING PRACTICE

A. Teachers Should Strengthen the Unity of Theory and Practice

In current teacher's normal education, it emphasizes the instillation of theoretical knowledge of education and professional disciplines, so the deviation and poor practicability of teachers' own teaching competence make many teachers at a loss when they further the professional knowledge and then apply them to the education practice, and they are unable to meet the requirements of the new curriculum for teachers' quality. In order to change this situation, in teacher education, when we want to apply it to education practice, we are at a loss and can't adapt to the requirements of the new curriculum for teachers' quality. In order to change this situation, we should improve the ability of teachers to solve practical problems. "We should appropriately increase the opportunities for teachers to participate in curriculum experiments and curriculum development, advocate teachers to carry out "action research", improve the effectiveness of teachers' professional training, and so on, so as to improve the practical ability of teachers' own learning and teaching" (Wei, 2005).

B. Make Clear the Main Body of Class, and Adopt Various Teaching Methods

In the process of teaching, teachers should make clear the main position of students in the classroom teaching, so that students can actively and effectively participate in classroom activities, so as to achieve the teaching objectives. Moreover, teachers should also make clear their own leading position, have the ability to control the rhythm of the classroom, and deal with emergencies. In addition, teachers in junior middle school should devote themselves to cultivating students' English core literacy. "In English teaching practice, they should adopt various teaching methods to effectively stimulate students' interest in English learning and realize the effective cultivation of students' English core literacy" (Fu, 2018). On the basis of the teaching method, junior middle school English teachers can adopt a variety of teaching methods, such as situational teaching method, task-based teaching method, group discussion teaching method, to effectively improve the effect of junior middle school English Teaching.

C. Keep Improving in Teaching Practice and Strengthen Teachers' Self-reflection

In practical teaching, teachers will find that there is a certain gap between theory and practice. Therefore, teachers should continue to learn and improve themselves in practice, and finally realize the effective combination of theory and practice. In addition, teachers should also actively reflect on themselves, constantly reflect on their own improper place in the education and teaching work, and actively improve the teaching work. "The development of teacher reflection not only includes reflection on the purpose, goal and values of education and teaching, the outlook on students and the outlook on teachers and students, which is not only an important way for teachers to promote theory and transform practice, but also includes their own teaching practice" (Wei, 2005). The teacher reflection should also include the selection of content, the selection of methods, the interaction between teachers and students, the treatment of educational wit, the reflection on problems, the ways for avoiding the problems, etc.

V. CONCLUSION

Effective teaching should be based on the correct understanding and rational analysis of students, so as to further achieve the teaching objectives. Based on the author's teaching practice in Jinfeng experimental school, this paper explains the students' problems in the process of English learning, designs a report on the investigation of students' self-factors of learning difficulties in the process of English learning, investigates the students of Grade seven and eight in Jinfeng experimental school, analyzes the students' self-factors of learning difficulties, and further puts forward the corresponding countermeasures. It aims to make a breakthrough in future English teaching practice and make the continuous improvement. However, there are also some shortcomings in this paper. Firstly, the number of respondents is small, and there are some deviations in the survey data. Nevertheless, this paper is a preliminary exploration of the English teaching in junior middle schools which is short of theory basis. Therefore, the combination of theory and teaching practice should be continuously explored and carried out in the future research.

APPENDIX

1. Your English score is ____?
A. poor B. general C. good
2. Do you like English?
A. like B. dislike C. average
3. Do you think English is interesting?
A. Interesting B. boring C. general
4. How long is your spare time that spends in English study?
A. half hour B. one hour C. two hours and above
5. Do you learn English actively after class?
A. yes B. no C. sometimes
6. Do you actively participate in thinking and answer questions in class?
A. yes B. no C. sometimes
7. Do you use other English learning materials after class?
A. yes B. no C. sometimes
8. Why do you study English?
A. entrance examination
B. English can be used in later life
C. studying abroad and others
9. Do you make and implement plans for English learning?
A. often B. sometimes C. basically not
10. How often do you review, sort out and summarize English knowledge?
A. always doing B. sometimes C. basically not
11. How often do you exchange learning experience with teachers or classmates?
A. often B. sometimes C. basically no
12. Are you confident in learning English well?
A. very confident B. no confidence C. some confidence
13. Do you usually try to learn English well in various ways?
A. yes B. no C. sometimes
14. How do you usually finish the English homework?
A. Finish it conscientiously and strive to make no mistakes.
B. Hope to finish the job in the least time.
C. Work often can't be completed on time with quality and quantity guaranteed.
15. When you encounter difficulties in English learning, or when you fall behind in English, you will ____?
A. Overcome all difficulties, encourage myself and catch up.
B. At first, I had a strong motivation to learn, but for various reasons, I was slowly slack.
C. It doesn't matter. Just muddle along.
16. In English learning, can you work hard to overcome shyness and anxiety?
A. can do B. sometimes can do C. can't do
17. In current English teaching, which aspects need to be improved?
A. The interest of English classroom teaching.
B. The diversity of English classroom teaching activities.
C. The reward and punishment system of English teaching.
D. Professional teaching skills of English teachers.
E. The diversity and richness of homework after class.
F. Early self-study of English reading recitation.
18. In the process of learning English, which parts are the most difficult to do?
A. It is difficult to remember words and phrases.
B. Unable to understand the meaning of complex sentences.
C. Can't use what you have learned and use what you have learned correctly.
D. It is difficult to finish the homework after class.
E. Communicate in English.
F. Recite and read English.
19. In the current English learning, what kind of knowledge and skills do you want to learn?
A. How to spell and memorize words and phrases correctly.
B. How to understand sentence pattern, sentence pattern and sentence meaning correctly.
C. How to communicate in English.
D. How to use English words to make sentences and layout.
E. How to apply the knowledge and realize the flexible use of knowledge.
20. Which question types are the most difficult in English test?

- A. Listening.
- B. Single choice.
- C. Cloze.
- D. Reading comprehension.
- E. Oral communication.
- F. Task based reading.
- G. Text Completion.
- H. Written expression.

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Xin Ma was born in Chongqing, China in 1993. She received her Bachelor degree in English from Yangtze Normal University in 2017.

She is currently a postgraduate student in the School of Foreign Languages, Chongqing Normal University, Chongqing, China. Her research interests include English language teaching and American literature.

Neuro-linguistic Programming and Its Implications for English Language Learners and Teachers

Neda Hedayat

Department of Language Teaching and Translation, Varamin-Pishva Branch, Islamic Azad University, Varamin, Iran

Reza Raissi

Department of Language Teaching and Translation, Varamin-Pishva Branch, Islamic Azad University, Varamin, Iran

Solmaz Azizzadeh Asl

Department of Language Teaching and Translation, Varamin-Pishva Branch, Islamic Azad University, Varamin, Iran

Abstract—In the world we live in, education is praised as a base for training and nurturing future generations and teaching is considered as a valuable profession through which future generations are flourished. The main components of each educational system must work well in order to create a successful system and achieve the desired results. Teachers are considered as one of the key determinant factors and active decision-makers of any educational system. Learners are also taken into account as one of the main elements of the system who are instructed to reach some educational goals. Neuro-linguistic programming (NLP), with high potential for English teaching and learning, is regarded as a supplementary technique which helps the teachers to develop outstanding skills like critical thinking, self-efficacy, and rapport which are necessary to bring on success and achievement to the education and to support learners to achieve excellence in their performance. The article first presents a brief history and definition of NLP. Then it is followed by some information about the main pillars of neuro-linguistic programming. The discussion then turns to understanding some of the implications of NLP for English language teachers and learners and its potential for educational success.

Index Terms—neuro-linguistic programming, learners' success, teachers' success

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is at the heart of human being life. We use it to show our feelings, to reach our desired outcomes, to pray, or to express our ideas. Through language, we exchange our attitudes and experiences, plan our lives and form individual and social identities. Some people are capable of doing things in more than one single language. Knowing more than one language may mean having a chance to get educated, get a job, having the opportunity to immigrate to other countries, expand the cultural horizons, and talk to other people with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. So we can claim that language is the most unique feature of the creature. In today's globalized scenario, in which many people know more than one language, and with the technological developments which have made our world a global village, acquiring the ability to communicate effectively has become obligatory. Learning English as the language of international communication which enjoys the status of lingua franca has become necessary for anybody who wants to interact and communicate with other individuals around the world.

In the past decades, communicative competence and the interactive aspect of language were not emphasized by the methods and techniques used by language teachers. But nowadays, methods like communicative language teaching or CLT has become popular in most educational organizations. Neuro-linguistic programming has been recognized as a tool which can help the English language learners to improve the communicative competence, presentation skills and body language effectively (Siddiqui, 2018).

As teachers are considered as the key components of the educational system who affect its success, so identifying the elements which help them in teaching profession is very important. NLP is regarded as a supplementary technique which helps the teachers to develop outstanding skills necessary to bring on success to the education and to support learners to achieve excellence in their performance. It is also helpful for language teachers to establish a better communication with the learners, strengthen the educational environment, and have a supportive and effective interaction which leads to the higher academic achievement. The present article first presents a brief history and definition of neuro-linguistic programming and then it introduces the main pillars of NLP. In the next sections, some of the implications of NLP for English language teachers and learners are provided and discussed.

II. NEURO-LINGUISTIC PROGRAMMING

Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) is an interpersonal communication system, developed by John Grinder, an associate professor of linguistics, and Richard Bandler, a mathematician and a graduate student of psychology, in the early 1970s as a new method to language teaching. It is a collection of strategies, techniques, and patterns which are

used for effective communication, growth, and personal change. The originators of NLP studied different patterns of beliefs and subjective experiences of the people with excellent behavior (Revell & Norman, 1997) in order to discover the structures of excellence. As they believe that all behaviors have some certain structures, and by discovering the excellent patterns and modelling them, it is possible to repeat the same patterns and gain the same favorable results. Grinder and Bandler claim that neurological processes (N), language (L), and behavioral patterns learned through experience (P) are interconnected, and human beings can alter them and it is possible to change them to reach the desired goals in life. As a matter of fact, neuro-linguistic programming consists of certain techniques for communication and personal development. Generally speaking, it is based on some notions about the structure of the mind, the way it works, and the way individuals act and interact. Based on neuro-linguistic programming, human being should be taken into account as a whole mind-body interpersonal communication system with consistent, patterned connections between three main areas: Neuro (neurological processes), Linguistic (language), and Programming (behavioral strategies). 'Neuro' reflects the neurological processes (or how the body and mind interact). In other words, it relates to the way you use senses to understand things and happenings around. The second element which is 'Linguistics' is the matter of thought patterns and the language which is applied for interpersonal communication. In other words, NLP accounts for the neurological processes through which we experience and process information by our senses (auditory, visual, olfactory, kinesthetic, and gustatory). The other element, 'Programming', is the way we nurture the mind through interpreting the patterns of an individual's behavior and language use in order to reach the desired results. In other words, it is related to the ability to organize thoughts and ideas. The pragmatic approach of neuro-linguistic programming uncovers important elements regarding the learners' mind and thought process by evaluating the kind of language used by them in order to change thoughts and actions and reach the educational goals.

Bandler (1985) claims that the experiences are sent, processed, and stored to the brain for which each person has a physical location. One of the main skills of NLP is recognizing the way people think, as there is a belief that each person has a preferred sense of taking in information that should be discovered in order to help learners maximize their learning (Alamdar & Karbalaei, 2015). As NLP is taken into account the learning styles of students, so teachers should be aware of all linguistic, physical, cognitive, and behavioral structures of the students which are demonstrated in information processing and learning through the aforementioned senses. In this sense, as Miller (1981) declares, teachers should stay tuned within the same channel of communication (visual, auditory, or kinesthetic) in order to establish more effective communication with the learners.

Another aspect of NLP is the special focus on brilliance and quality. Neuro-linguistic programming studies brilliance and quality. In other words, it studies the way successful and outstanding individuals and organizations reach their ideal goals. According to Siddiqui (2018), teachers can apply different techniques of NLP in order to analyze the kind of language used by students and take into account the thought process of them. This knowledge helps them to become capable of changing thoughts and behaviors in a way that leads to desirable outcomes. According to the Bandler and Grinder's point of view, NLP is 'the psychology of excellence' or 'the art and the science of excellence'. They have started their studies based on the predisposition that some people do affairs in an excellent way while others don't. So they started to find out what makes 'outstanding performers' outstanding, as they believe that all the individuals can become outstanding performers just by doing the same directions, irrespective of their past or present (Lady, 2007). Joanne Walter and Ardeshir Bayat call it "a process that can be applied to model excellence in any field" (Walter, Bayat, 2003). As a matter of fact, the key driving force of NLP pioneers was discovering the mystery of excellence. The proponents of neuro-linguistic programming do claim that excellence is not a natural talent and it is learnable (Walter and Bayat, 2003). They also assert that excellence is not rare and anybody can be equipped with this crucial property. The only thing which is required is that individuals free themselves from any limitations and take into account various choices.

NLP is also considered as a supplementary tool applied in the field of second or foreign language instruction in order to assist learners to become excellent performers. There is a belief that by understanding the process of HOW and REPEATING the same process the same result will be acquired, otherwise, we can CHANGE the whole process or part of it in order to reach another different result. While altering the process is regarded as behavioral change, repeating the process of doing something is called modeling. The idea of modeling is applicable in any aspect of life including educational settings. Revell and Norman (1997) introduce 13 important rules which should be a part of the teachers' belief system and shape the instruction procedure:

1. Mind and body act as components of the same system which are interconnected and affect each other.
2. All human beings have special maps of the world and these maps are not the territory.
3. Failure doesn't exist, only feedback. There is no such thing as failure and there is always another chance to become successful.
4. When we do believe that something is true, the map becomes the territory. So it is either true or it becomes true.
5. You should know exactly what do you want. This view will help you to get it.
6. Any resource which is needed for our goals exists inside us.
7. Communication has verbal and also nonverbal forms and it is not just limited to one of them.
8. The unconscious mind is superior and kind.
9. Communication has conscious and nonconscious forms.

10. All behaviors have a positive intention behind them.
11. The meaning of communication is manifested by the response we get.
12. We should model each excellent behavior in order to reach excellence.
13. Flexibility is a crucial element of any system.

III. PILLARS OF NEURO-LINGUISTIC PROGRAMMING

There are four key pillars or principles for NLP (O'Connor and McDermott 1996; Revell and Norman 1997):

1. Rapport: According to the Oxford dictionary, rapport is defined as "a close and harmonious relationship in which the people or groups concerned understand each other's feelings or ideas and communicate well." Webster (1984) describes rapport as a relationship marked by affinity, harmony, and accord. When the teacher and learners are in harmony or rapport, the teaching process becomes easier. As Delbio and Ilankumaran (2018) suggest, one of the main pillars of neuro-linguistic programming is creating effective communication and it is believed that rapport is very important in this regard, because it maximizes the similarities and minimizes the differences between individuals. It is believed that for developing rapport, teachers should develop behaviors similar to students which is possible through "mirroring". Rapport is an empathy that is shaped subconsciously between individuals. As asserted by Silva (2017), strategies of NLP are effective in creating rapport or empathy and can be applied to make a closer relationship between teacher and student. Consequently, teachers can use them to provide a more supportive and fruitful learning environment which results in higher productivity and success. As we live with communities and we are not alone so having the ability to generate rapport and effective communication is a must. In this regard, we should shape relationships with mutual trust and responsiveness.

2. Outcome thinking: This pillar relates to individuals' goals. It suggests that people should know what do they want and set their goals clearly for themselves, as precision is a key to success. It is asserted that the more individuals are aware of their wants and desires, the more likely they will reach them. In other words, NLP is based on a premise that precision helps individuals to achieve their goals. So, we should know exactly "what we want". There are five steps for this rule:

- Appreciate your goal as an important and attractive desire, and make it as compelling as possible.
- Focus on your desired goal all day long, and set your mind on a path ending to your objective. So, you will pass the way much easier.
- Imagine that your dream has become true and you have already achieved your goal. Your visualization is very important and you should draw a clear picture in your mind. Then, walk back and try out the path to your desired end.
- Concentrate on all the steps of the pathway. You should be aware of all resources, actions, and all the individuals who help you through the way and take all of them into account.
- With new insight, step back to the present and take action to reach the goal.

3. Sensory awareness: It is related to the idea that we use our senses to experience the world and to see, hear, or feel what is happening to us. When we use our senses, the feedback which is gained helps us to adjust our actions towards reaching the desired goals.

Sensory acuity or awareness means that by using senses, individuals become aware of the environment and things that happen around. Based on NLP, this knowledge is very important for our success. In many cases, individuals used to do things without considering what works and what does not. When people try to reach their objectives, they must also develop a level of awareness that enables them to distinguish between what is working (which helps them to reach the desired outcome) and what is not.

4. Behavioral flexibility: It is related to adaptability in the entire situation. It also means that when we have various choices of action, our chance of success increases. In order to reach different outcomes, we must change the way things are done. And according to NLP, we must keep changing the process until we get what we want. So flexibility in behavior is a key to success. The science of Cybernetics has got a rule claiming that "in any system, the part with the greatest range of freedom will be the one controlling the system." Generally, one of the important directions of neuro-linguistic programming is encouraging people to increase their behavioral flexibility and to be more adaptable in different situations and accept the changes in life.

IV. IMPLICATIONS FOR THE LEARNERS

Neuro-linguistic programming is believed to be an influential tool that affects the personal and educational life of the learners. It has the potential to improve the life quality, develop positive attitudes, provide support to resolve the psychological complications, help to make better decisions, establish effective communication, and foster language learning. As it is emphasized by Garc á & Tamayo (2017), language learners can use NLP as a psychotherapeutic technique to improve their performance and take a step towards achievement. One of the main implications of neuro-linguistic programming is its assistance in the field of English language learning.

Moharamkhani, Karimi, and Ahmadi (2016) have investigated the effect of neuro-linguistic programming on vocabulary learning and after 12 sessions of treatment by swish pattern which is one of the NLP strategies, they have

concluded that it has a significant effect of English language learners' vocabulary achievement. The researcher of this study point to the view that NLP is practical for all type of learners with different learning styles, consequently it can be a good choice for English classes. According to the originators of NLP, Bandler and Grinder (1985), swishing is a process by which the pattern of thought which leads to undesirable behavior is destroyed in order to be replaced by another favorable behavior. The originators claim that this process necessitates the visualizing a cue which is related to that undesirable behavior. The Swish pattern gives a new direction to the brain and the behavior goes after the same direction, so the new wanted behavior is shaped. In this study, the researcher has used swishing elements such as strategy introduction, practice, and feedback and followed these steps: context identification, cue identification, drawing the 'cue' picture, and finally, swishing and testing. As an example, when the teacher wants to teach the word 'habit' to the students, he or she asks students to imagine the hands of a smoker while smoking cigarettes and doing the bad habit. Then students are asked to repeat the words 'habit' and 'bad habit'. After this part, students are asked to imagine a healthy guy who looks fit and energetic and repeat the words 'habit' and 'good habit'. Then, learners should change their mental picture from a smoker to a healthy guy (swish pattern) and say the word 'habit' repeatedly. Students are asked to talk about some good and bad habits they have, and make different sentences with the word 'habit'. In this manner, learners have visualized a specific outcome of a certain situation which leads to a bad habit and should be avoided. The repetitions and visualizations are continued at home after each session and they are discussed in the next session. After examining the results of the posttest, the researcher concludes that the NLP strategy is satisfactory and it can be a very good strategy for vocabulary learning.

According to Alamdar and Karbalaei (2015), NLP is a useful tool for increasing the self-esteem of English language learners. In the study, they have selected four classes and used old methods of language teaching for the control group and NLP strategies and also old methods for the experimental group. The results of the study indicate that NLP is a beneficial tool to increase learners' self-esteem. As they explain, speaking is the most challenging skill among four skills of English learning and it needs a great deal of self-esteem and motivation. Neuro-linguistic programming provides some effective learning strategies and changes the limiting beliefs of the learners from "I cannot learn English" to "I can learn English". The researchers of this study have selected some stories to connect culture and language. Life lessons are used to build self-esteem and summary activities are also applied after reading or listening to the selected stories. Visualization is another strategy of NLP, as there is a belief that when learners know what exactly they want, they will achieve it. So they are required to write down their objectives and follow the motion pictures. They should also create some mental images through visualization for better retention and recall of information.

In a study carried out by Farahani (2018), the effect of neuro-linguistic programming on reading comprehension of English ESP students has been investigated. The researcher has selected two intact groups with 30 participants in each as an experimental and control group and has implemented NLP strategies for the reading skill of the experimental class. The results of the posttest which is drawn by ANCOVA clearly show that the implemented techniques have been successful for the intended purpose. Ten passages are taken from a reference book with the title "Reading Science and Medicine in English" as the materials of the study. In one session, all eight selected techniques of NLP are explained for the experimental group. The researcher has also clarified how to set objectives, what learning styles do exists, how to use senses in order to learn another language, and the effect of human emotions in language learning. After recognizing the specific learning style, the students are asked to read the passages using their own style. As an example, auditory learners read the passages aloud for themselves or listen to audio materials, or have some background music while reading the passage. Instead, kinesthetic learners have some hand movements or try to write the information. This category is allowed to walk for a while if it helps to feel better or try role-play activities related to the content of the text. By informing the learners of their own sensory learning styles and also teaching reading NLP techniques related to the specified styles, the researcher finally concluded that NLP strategies have a significant effect on ESP students' reading comprehension and this finding can be applied by English teachers in order to improve this essential skill of the learners.

Pourbahreini (2015) has investigated the effect of neuro-linguistic programming on grammatical knowledge of EFL students. In her study, passive sentences are concentrated and 60 students are selected to examine the research question. After administrating different tests and homogenizing the participants, the intervention program which is teaching through NLP activities is applied. Strategies of NLP which are used for this purpose are anchoring, VAK or visual-auditory-kinesthetic, role-play, and so on. Visual learners are taught in an entertaining fashion, and they work on passive and active voices in pairs. The results show a great deal of difference between the pretest and posttest of the experimental group. Therefore, the researcher has concluded that NLP can be a useful strategy for teachers and learners who work on the grammatical accuracy of the English language.

V. IMPLICATION FOR TEACHERS

Education is one of the most important human activities and teachers are the most important influential elements in any educational system that helps learners to reach their objectives. Different studies over the last decades have confirmed that teachers have an essential effect on the students' academic and life-long success (e.g., Chetty, Friedman, & Rockoff, 2014; Jackson, 2012; Nye, Konstantopoulos, & Hedges, 2004). There are many elements that help teachers in their valuable profession and enable them to do their best and become effective and successful teachers. Despite the fact that education, experience, and certification are related to the effectiveness of teachers, there are many critical skills

and classroom activities that matter most to students' achievement. Scholars believe that the main professional responsibility of teachers as educators is changing the behavior of students towards certain maturity and this process is possible with a series of activities for which teachers have a decisive role. It is believed that neuro-linguistic programming is a very useful tool for the language teaching profession which can be applied as a supplementary technique to improve the effectiveness of the teachers (Gewasari, Manullang, and Sibuea, 2017). It provides strategies for language teachers and learners to change their unproductive learning habits and experience successful and effective language learning.

According to Siddiqui (2018), anchoring, rapport building, metamodeling, and mirroring are some of the key elements of neuro-linguistic programming which can help language teachers in performing a better teaching atmosphere. The researcher defines anchoring as a technique of NLP which shapes a positive mental image or attitude towards learning with the assistance of anchors. In this way, special gestures, expressions, and body movements are created which are the results of positive emotions and confident state of mind. It has been proved that anchoring is a very effective technique for language learning.

Building rapport is also important for language learning (Delbio and Ilankumaran, 2018). As it is defined in the Oxford dictionary, rapport is "a close and harmonious relationship in which the people or groups concerned understand each other's feelings or ideas and communicate well." Proponents of NLP stress that English language teachers should do their best to establish rapport with their learners and thereby accelerate the learning process. In such a conducive environment, any gaps in communication will be filled and effective interactions will be shaped. In general, when a safe and supporting learning environment is created, the confidence of the learners is increased and they get ready to accomplish the assigned tasks and activities and they take a step towards their educational success (Comenius, 2009).

Mirroring is another NLP technique that is applied in order to create effective communication (Siddiqui, 2018). NLP practitioners claim that in order to establish rapport among language learners, gestures, postures, facial expressions, breathing patterns, etc. should be mirrored. Teachers can enhance verbal and non-verbal communication by using these patterns. Teachers should encourage learners to mirror behavioral patterns and language of fluent speakers in order to increase their motivation and promote their presentation and speaking skills. Mirroring and modeling are the key strategies of NLP which should be practiced to reach excellence. In this way, learners are assisted by the teachers to model the study patterns of successful performers in order to reach similar academic results. Therefore, as Siddiqui (2018) concludes, English language teachers can apply the strategies and techniques on neuro-linguistic programming to make the language learning process more attractive and interesting. NLP strategies help English language teachers to act as facilitators and enhance the interpersonal and communicative skills of the learners and improve their personality in a way that they can face the world with more confidence.

Neuro-linguistic programming is based on neurology and communication. It is based on the view that human beings have different learning styles and perceptual preferences which should be taken into account by language teachers. In the process of language learning, learners use their five senses which are called representational systems. They include auditory (for listening or hearing something), visual (for looking and seeing), olfactory (for smelling), gustatory (for tasting), and kinesthetic (to feel internally and externally). One of the responsibilities of ELT teachers is recognizing these features and deciding on optimal teaching solutions. Based on Pishgaman and Shayesteh (2014), when language teachers pay more attention to these differences and provide more effective external and internal learning atmosphere and apply sensory reach language, they assist language learners to learn in a more productive and easy way. More variety in teaching is also another consequence of NLP application in language instruction (Winch, 2005). It is believed that there is a *lead system* (neutral, auditory, visual, and kinesthetic) that should be recognized by the teachers and learners to improve language learning effectiveness. Practitioners claim that language teachers are able to affect the way materials are used by the learners but they cannot affect the way learners store them. What is clear is that learners who are aware of their lead system can use expressions in English consciously which are more in harmony with the way they process and store the input. In order to identify the preferred learning style, practitioners suggest some questionnaires which can be used by teachers and learners. According to Winch (2005), eye movement and learners' traits and behaviors (including their verbal and non-verbal communication) are the clues delivered unconsciously and should be taken into account in order to recognize the learners' tendencies. Eye movement is a sign which reveals the way a person processes information. Looking right, left, or up is a sign of visual processing while looking either side or down is the indicator of kinesthetic processing, and looking to either side means an auditory style of processing information (Hamilton 2005; Revell and Norman 1997). Certain traits or behaviors are also considered to distinguish different learners based on their lead system (Robbins, 1997). As an example, using phrases like "That's the way I see" is an indicator of a visual person. These people may talk with a high-pitched nasal voice and may have muscle tension in the upper part of the body especially abdomen and shoulders. The individuals with the auditory lead systems have a more balanced tone than visual ones. They take a more deep breath and even muscle tension is more balanced in this category. Speech tone in kinesthetic individuals is deep and slow. When they start to speak with someone, they have frequent pauses. Strong and solid posture is the other trait of this category. Teachers who are aware of these preferred representational systems which are different from one individual to the other can teach more effectively. Students who know their lead system are also capable of selecting suitable words and expressions. In general, the key to lesson

planning is that teachers know exactly what do they want and what is their objective and combining it with the desires and wants of the learners (Winch, 2005).

Peker (2010) points to the strategies of thinking and reprogramming provided by neuro-linguistic programming which enable us to change our structures of thought and reprogram ourselves and accordingly reach our desired outcomes. There is a belief that our behaviors are accompanied by internal states and also some kind of internal thinking process. In order to change our behaviors, we should understand these internal states and thought structures. There are three ways of thinking: visual thinkers, auditory thinkers, and kinesthetic thinkers. NLP practitioners also believe that we should change ourselves to change the whole world. They claim that "We're not the victims of the world we see; we're the victims of the way we see the world". They point to reprogramming as behavioral patterns that are learned through different experiences and can be arranged in a way that leads to our desired objectives in life. We should reprogram our habits in order to change them, so language teachers should adopt different sets of principles to make personal development in personal or professional contexts and make substantial differences. To make these changes, there are some key points that should be taken into account by language teachers. We should avoid listening to negative people and improve the habit of positive thinking. We should also remember that words are very powerful and the positive language should be used all the time. Never listen to the people that give negative feedback to your potentials and always try to tell you that you can't achieve your dreams. When we break the prison and become free of negative thoughts, we will improve the inner world, and stay at peace and reach our desire outcomes and excellence (Peker, 2010).

Marashi and Abedi (2017) have investigated the effect of neuro-linguistic programming on teachers' reflective teaching. They have selected 30 Iranian female English teachers for this study and after 20 sessions of treatment, they have tested the null hypothesis and have concluded that NLP affects English teachers' reflective teaching significantly. For this study, the researchers have introduced 8 NLP techniques to the English teachers: leading, rapport-building, elicitation, modelling, anchoring, individual differences, flexibility, and cognitive-emotional boosters. The participants of the study are required to think about their classes and write down on a paper whether they have applied these techniques subconsciously and whether they are familiar with them or not. They start talking about their related experiences in groups of three and discuss whether their procedures have been successful and how do they feel about them. After discussion, they watch some audio or visual materials regarding NLP strategies which are applied around the world. Again they have discussion and it is continued until they find that NLP strategies are helpful for effective English teaching. The second questionnaire which is used as a posttest shows positive effect of the treatment.

VI. CONCLUSION

From the beginning of 1970s, English language teaching has changed from grammar translation and audio-lingual methods to the ones in which social and cultural backgrounds are taken into account and the priority has been given to the communicative competence. Traditionally, teachers were concentrating on providing the learners with grammar, reading, and repetition drills and enabling them to read and write in the target language without any errors. So in that time, oral communication in the target language was not concentrated by language teachers. But after technological developments and the necessity to have effective communication with other people around the world, the need for improving communicative competence instead of merely developing the linguistic competence was exposed to discussion. Teachers realized that students can't use expressions, gestures, and social language in their communications and the ability of communicating pragmatic language was greatly missing.

NLP is regarded as one of the recent scientific developments that connect mathematics to neurology and language. It deals with neurological and psychological factors and one of its main objectives is establishing effective communication. As different scholars suggest, neuro-linguistic programming has great potential to be used in the field of education. In fact, NLP is not a special method of language teaching and it is not comprised of various language teaching techniques. Instead, it is considered as a humanistic philosophy that includes a set of notions used to inform individuals about their preferred learning styles and convince them that they are powerful and strong enough to take the control of their affairs and reach excellence. As it is suggested by Pourbahreini (2015), the effect of neuro-linguistic programming on second language learning and teaching, especially English, has not been studied adequately. Still, the results of the conducted studies clearly show that NLP can make a great difference in education, specifically in the field of second language learning (Lankton, 1979). So English language teachers and learners can apply NLP principles and strategies to become more effective and successful and reach their educational outcomes.

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Neda Hedayat is an assistant professor in linguistics at Islamic Azad University, Varamin-Pishva branch. She has published several papers in national and international journals and presented several conference papers regarding TEFL issues, linguistics, and translation. Her main interest is applied linguistics, psycholinguistics, and quantitative and qualitative research. Currently, she is teaching several courses to BA, MA, and Ph.D. students at the English Department of Islamic Azad University, Varamin-Pishva branch. She has supervised several Ph.D. dissertations and Master theses.

Reza Raissi is an assistant professor in TEFL at the Islamic Azad University of Varamin-Pishva branch. He received his Ph.D. in TESL from UTM University, Malaysia. His main area of interest is teaching methodology, testing, and applied linguistics. Currently, he is teaching TEFL related courses for BA, MA, and Ph.D. students in several Iranian Universities.

Solmaz Azizzadeh Asl is a Ph.D. candidate in TEFL at the Department of Language Teaching and Translation Studies at Islamic Azad University, Varamin-Pishva branch, Iran. She has been teaching English at language institutions of Tehran and Sari for more than five years. She also translates English books and texts for different organizations. Her current research interests include extensive reading and neurolinguistics programming, and identity.

The Narrative Style and Voices in *The Waste Land*

Feiyue Zhang

School of English Studies, Shanghai International Studies University, Shanghai, China

Abstract—The complexity, multiplicity and high degree of polyphony in T. S. Eliot's *The Waste Land* presents as a significant challenge in terms of interpreting modernist poetry. While expressing concerns about Western civilisation's collapse, as well as modern people's spiritual barrenness, *The Waste Land* creates a constant tension through its usage of language, narrative structure and various different speech representations. This paper seeks to highlight that as a narrative poem, *The Waste Land* uses an abundance of narrations, descriptions and dialogues, while exploring how these various elements aid the poet to adopt a modernist narrative style in his poetry.

Index Terms—*The Waste Land*, T. S. Eliot, narrative style, narrative voices

I. INTRODUCTION

Widely regarded as “The Poem of the Century”, Eliot's *The Waste Land* expresses concerns about the collapse of Western civilisation, as well as modern people's spiritual barrenness, which may be interpreted from numerous different perspectives. Various critics have adopted social approaches to understand the poem, or, alternatively, have analysed its religious and mythical aspects. However, comparatively little consideration has been given to Eliot's use of different expressions of voice and a changing narrative style, which employs monologues, dialogue and free indirect speech. Studies have noted that the poem's extensive use of literary allusions serves a different functional value to that of other modernist writers (Fornero, 2005; Pondrom, 2005). Critics have also highlighted the aesthetics of fragmentation and juxtaposition, which is closely connected with the poem's symbolic religious meaning (Bruno, 2013; Penda, 2011). Eliot's writing style is representative of modernism, while also deeply influenced by its social background, along with ecological concerns (Penda, 2011; Suarez, 2001). As compared to rhyme, rhythm and images, the analysis of the poem's narrative style presents challenges in terms of its structure and characters. Only a few critics have emphasised how the poem's narrations function with time and space. This paper focuses on T. S. Eliot's employment of the three voices of poetry to depict the narrative style discussed in Shlomith Rimmon-Kenan's book *Narrative Fiction: Contemporary Poetics* (1983). It draws upon a theoretical framework to interpret *The Waste Land*'s creativity by using literary allusion and the narration of fragmentation with regard to the transformation of the poet and the narrator's voices. In the latter book which presents the collaborative theory of narratology, Shlomith Rimmon-Kenan concludes that the three elements of narrative fiction comprise: “story”, “text” and “narration”. As the author emphasises, “a succession of events” (p. 3) is one specific feature associated with narrative fiction. This suggests that multiple narratives exist. Accordingly, this analysis classifies *The Waste Land* as a narrative poem, given that it contains an abundance of narrations, descriptions and dialogues. Furthermore, analysis is undertaken of how these elements aid the poet in adopting a modernist narrative style within the poem.

II. *THE WASTE LAND*'S STORY: NARRATIVE AND ANTI-NARRATIVE

As a poem representative of 20th century modernism, *The Waste Land*'s writing style has powerfully reshaped conceptions of subjectivity, discourse and cultural hierarchy. The seven languages Eliot uses in *The Waste Land* indicate certain limitations generally in relation to the notion of translatability. Shlomith Rimmon-Kenan (1983) conveys how the story is an abstract form derived from the specific style of the text in question, the language in which it is written, as well as the medium or sign-system. Coyle (2009) stresses that despite *The Waste Land* comprising narrative fragments, it does not present as a narrative, given the absence of an identifiable locational logic that sustains the poem's “story”. Nevertheless, beginning with the story—modernist literature's inner core—as opposed to the text from which meaning may be derived in an abstract manner, the story may be more transferable across mediums, across languages and within the same language. The difficulties which readers continue to struggle with in *The Waste Land* are more apparent in the epigraph to the poem. Nevertheless, this does not affect the narrative structure, which is dependent to a greater degree on the extensive practice of reading and telling stories. Therefore, readers can still understand Eliot's intended meaning by reading and rereading the poem. Despite its superficial fragmentation, *The Waste Land* establishes a form of inherent unity. Suarez (2001) uses “gramophone” technology, which seeks to consider how *The Waste Land* relates to other perspectives such as language, media and culture, which, in turn, influences and reshapes the view portrayed of writing techniques, literary discourse and cultural hierarchy. Narrative refers to the narration of a succession of fictional events,

rather than merely setting the context as “once upon a time”. In contrast to traditional narration, in *The Waste Land* time past is time present. Therefore, when absorbing the text, which involves an abundance of characters and events drawn from different time and space, readers will need to invest additional effort in order to understand what the story is seeking to convey.

It is difficult to arrange the poem in chronological order as *The Waste Land* adopts a considerably creative approach when presenting the viewpoints of the characters. Modernist poets were by and large preoccupied with the notion of disorder. One study of the poetics of non-being argues that although Eliot glorifies the concept of disorder, he eventually attempts to make *The Waste Land* more comprehensible and orderly by providing explanations for his allusions through the use of extensive endnotes (Penda, 2011). In *The Waste Land*, Eliot juxtaposes distinct perspectives on the same object or situation, a technique that is linked to the aesthetics of fragmentation. Exploring the duality of the nothingness of life, on the one hand, and establishing order and comprehensibility on the other, is reconciled by means of the aesthetic unity of opposites. Penda (2011) scrutinises Eliot’s theoretical poetics in *The Waste Land* in terms of the ideological aspects of the aesthetic of disorderly order. Critics have also re-examined Eliot’s allusions to Buddhism in “Fire Sermon”, the third section of *The Waste Land*, thus demonstrating that pervasive Buddhist allusions and influences in the poem exist as “conceptual rhymes” for the emotional, psychological or intellectual experiences Eliot seeks to express poetically (Bruno, 2013). Nevertheless, Eliot concentrates on the word “time” at numerous points throughout the poem with ironic meanings, as with the appearance of the popular song from 1912 “Shakespearean Rag” (rag time) and the “withered stumps of time”, which the woman hung upon the walls (Eliot, 2005, p. 1347). The repetition of “HURRY UP PLEASE ITS TIME” (Eliot, 2005, p. 1348) in the final section of “A Game of Chess” emphasises that it genuinely is the time for Lil to say goodbye to this life. Therefore, the narrative poem connects different times and events with anti-narrative style fragments through the storyteller “I” (Tiresias), thus maintaining the story’s existence.

Tiresias’ appearance in “The Fire Sermon” suggests an obfuscation of the parameters between the poetic and the prophetic, which drives *The Waste Land* in its entirety. In Eliot’s note, Tiresias is “a mere spectator and not indeed a ‘character’, is yet the most important personage in the poem, uniting all the rest”, and “all the women are one woman, and the two sexes meet in Tiresias. What Tiresias sees, in fact, is the substance of the poem” (Eliot, 2005, p. 1350). *The Waste Land*’s sense of the nothingness of life connects the disorder of its writing style with the implicit notion of establishing order. In the specific narration of the typist and the house agent clerk’s love affair, Tiresias plays a role not just as a witness, but rather as a character in the story. The prophet Tiresias, of mixed gender and providing the poem’s cohesive voice, purports to have “been there before”, having experienced all the awful realities of sex as a form of martyrdom. One is “bored and tired”, while the other’s “vanity requires no response, and makes a welcome of indifference”; one “bestows one final patronizing kiss”, while the other is “hardly aware of her departed lover” (Eliot, 2005, p. 1351). Tiresias “foresuffered” an offensive and perverse sexual encounter, which may further allude to incest or murder, as a darker side of sex. During this section, Tiresias appears to observe and reflect on this modern act of loveless sex—which implicitly parallels Philomela’s rape in “A Game of Chess”—with stoic detachment. The few quoted lines within the section “The Fire Sermon”, “Well now that’s done: and I’m glad it’s over” (Eliot, 2005, p. 1351), expresses how exhilaration and passion are entirely removed from the woman’s life, thus exemplifying the modern era’s recurring apprehension of disappointment. Similar to Tiresias, throughout the poem Eliot shifts between darkness and light, contrasting the darkness in the world with the light surrounding it.

III. *THE WASTE LAND*’S TEXT: TWO TURNS OF INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC STRUCTURE

There are two pivotal turns in contemporary literary theory. One places an emphasis on the research transforming from author to text; the other is the transition from text to reader. Eliot (1953) delivered a lecture to the National Book League, expounding that three voices are apparent in present poetry: “The first voice is the voice of the poet talking to himself—or to nobody. The second is the voice of the poet addressing an audience, whether large or small. The third is the voice of the poet when he attempts to create a dramatic character speaking in verse” (p. 89). The transition of the critical focus, coupled with the multiplicity of voices used, create greater difficulties for the reader. *The Waste Land* involves a substantial number of characters, including the Fisher King from *The Golden Bough*, Countess Marie Larisch and her cousins, Tristan and Isolde in Wagner’s opera, Dante in *Inferno*, Tereus and Philomela in *Metamorphoses*, Ophelia in *Hamlet*, among others, thereby providing a range of protagonists from notable literary works and presenting characteristic images of the modern world’s social life. These many different characters’ appearances are replaced by the personal pronouns “I”, “you” and “they”. *The Waste Land*’s narrations are presented from various perspectives, with the most recurrent one adopted being first-person narration. Nevertheless, the narrator “I” shifts from different identities to different periods without any clear transitional stage.

From the perspective of the deep intrinsic structure of *The Waste Land*, the Holy Grail legend is the concealed symbol functioning throughout the entire poem. The Fisher King, a symbolic figure of infertility who undergoes a great deal of suffering, plays a dominant role throughout the poem. The Fisher King was fishing in the poem twice. In the first instance he is “fishing in the dull canal on a winter evening round behind the gashouse” (Eliot, 2005, p. 1349), while in the other he is “Fishing, with the arid plain behind me” (Eliot, 2005, p. 1356), symbolising human beings in pursuit of salvation, rebirth and eternity. Moreover, driven by the narrative of the troubled body, gender performativity

has also been acknowledged in the text, where critics have re-examined three crucial emotional scenes in *The Waste Land* which comprise the hyacinth girl episode in “A Game of Chess” and “What the Thunder Said”. This helps the reader to learn about Eliot’s own understanding of gender identity (Pondrom, 2005). The first appearance of the hyacinth girl is in “The Burial of the Dead”. The speaker’s cry of grief, “I could not speak, and my eyes failed, I was neither living nor dead, and I knew nothing, looking into the heart of light, the silence” (Eliot, 2005, p. 1345), reinforces that the tragedy of modern people’s love is unavoidable and fatal, without hope, faith and direction. Meanwhile, the disguise of gender identity, such as Madame Sosostris, indicates a vague blurring of sex in modern society. The title of the second chapter of *The Waste Land*, “A Game of Chess”, uses the metaphor of a game of chess to confer order on the fragmented structure of the poem in terms of the problem of the king’s intrinsic value. In addition, its myriad of dynamic and symbolic meanings offer a modernist perspective to reshape the literary structure (Fornero, 2005). On the other hand, in terms of visible representation and extrinsic structure, Eliot sets up rich and unique symbolic systems in the poem by introducing the Tarot pack into *The Waste Land*, orchestrating the seemingly fragmented and chaotic imagery into some kind of order and structure. The symbolic use of Tarot has helped to tie the pieces of the poem together. However, the character, with a multiplicity of perspectives, functions as a poetic construct formulated by the reader from the various indications distinguished throughout the text.

IV. *THE WASTE LAND*’S NARRATION: SPEECH REPRESENTATION

No consistent speaker may be identified in *The Waste Land*. Regular narrative styles are used in abundance throughout the entire five parts, with several narrative techniques employed ranging from traditional narrative structures—for example, descriptive introductions and dialogue with quotation marks—to entirely associative lists of words lacking phrasal syntax, thus presenting readers with gaps to be filled prior to the inference of any meaning. The notion of voice underpins the concept of perspective or point of view, which is a narrative theory. Munganga (2017) explicates how perspective pertains to the manner in which the story’s representation is affected by the narrator’s position, personality and values, alongside those of the characters and potentially other more hypothetical entities in the story’s world. This chapter emphasises not what the poem’s characters and words mean, but rather how it means, as well as how the narration facilitates the readers’ shaping of their experiences and understandings of the poem.

Shlomith Rimmon-Kenan’s (1983) book refers to Helene Cixous’ theory, depicting that the “I” is inevitably “more than one, diverse, capable of being all those it will at one time be, a group acting together” (p. 30). The repetition of the narrator’s “I” emphasises self-identity and self-consciousness. Accordingly, *The Waste Land*’s narrative voices construct the polyphony with the symbolic characters from various texts, with Eliot applying both direct discourse and free indirect discourse, while altering the voices in the poem. Consequently, this aligns with the characters’ mental status and assists readers to comprehend the attitudes and meanings behind the narrator’s words. In terms of using quotation marks, direct discourse is a form of monologue or dialogue quotation. The section with hyacinth girl includes a quote by her, alongside a section which appears to be the poem’s narrator: “You gave me hyacinths first a year ago”; “They called me the hyacinth girl” (Eliot, 2005, p. 1345). This direct discourse reinforces the impending and fatal tragedy of love. In drafts of *The Waste Land*, the hyacinth garden is connected to the drowned Phoenician sailor, who appears in “Death by Water” through the genesis of the poem: “Do you know nothing? Do you see nothing? Do you remember Nothing? I remember *The hyacinth garden*. Those are pearls that were his eyes, yes!” (Eliot, 2005, p. 1347). Moreover, in the final section of “The Burial of the Dead”, “I”, or the implied author, meets a companion “Stetson” during the battle of Mylae, after which he begins narrating their previous experiences over the course of the war. The name “Stetson”—also a reference to the hat brand, may represent every single man. The narration with quotation marks is in fact a form of direct communication between the narrator and the reader, as well as marking the poet’s invitation to unearth feelings from the bottom of the reader’s heart. It is “you” and “I” who suffered the battle of Mylae during the First Punic War; when the reader builds a related impression of the Great War, it culminates in the time sequence, the imagery, the actual and the poem itself all closely integrated, suggesting these events would recur and nothing brand new would develop. At the conclusion of the first chapter, the narrator is breaking the fourth wall and speaking directly to the reader: “You! hypocrite lecteur! —mon semblable, —mon frère!” (Eliot, 2005, p. 1346). By quoting Charles Baudelaire’s *Les Fleurs du mal*, Eliot situates the narrator and the reader together with Baudelaire’s poetics, implicating the reader in the bored, sordid society.

Eliot situates the speaker’s narrative performance and female voices as central to “A Game of Chess”. The quote in lines 111-134 depicts a dramatic monologue or one-sided conversation, perhaps the recording of daily exchanges between Eliot and his wife Vivien: ““What are you thinking of? What thinking? What? / ‘I never know what you are thinking. Think.’” (Eliot, 2005, p. 1347). The two personages are dwelling precisely on things that are irrelevant, the “nothings” and banalities of everyday life. The two lines not quoted may be the other response: “I think we are in rat’s alley / Where the dead men lost their bones” (Eliot, 2005, p. 1347). The context presents a marriage that has gone terribly stale, while people feeling emptiness and impatience are so close to death. The wife’s question, “What is the noise?” provides a play on words to go along with her “husband’s” thoughts of death. The repetition of “what” indicates that questions regarding death may have not been requisitely handled. Although the wife is aware that something is going on, she is unable to establish exactly what.

Furthermore, free indirect discourse grammatically and mimetically intermediates between it and direct discourse,

evoking a sense of combined direct and indirect discourse. This privileges the past tense and third-person references, which may be an intentional device used to complicate the capacity to differentiate a character's thoughts from the narrator's report, thus resulting in the semantic superpositioning of narrator and character. *The Waste Land's* adoption of free indirect discourse includes Marie, Madame Sosostris, the nervous woman who urges Lil and Tiresias, in addition to the nonhuman voices of the nightingale and the thunder. The first chapter of "The Burial of the Dead", begins with the surprising poetic value of strange connections, that is: "April is the cruellest month", "Winter kept us warm" and "Summer surprised us" (Eliot, 2005, p. 1344). The narration at the outset provides the narrator's personal perspective in the present tense, subsequently transitioning to the past tense through the adoption of the first personal plural, which is the ambiguous "Winter kept *us* warm." This marks the moment that generates the communication, which makes readers stop and consider, while listeners to the spoken "I" must continue accompanying the narrator. The character who states, "Winter kept us warm", is potentially not the same person who exclaims that, "Summer surprised us", although this narrative form effectively makes the character, narrator and the reader participate in the story and this part of the poem. Moreover, a shift of voice occurs from the beginning of the section providing Marie's narration. The reader experiences past glory as recalled in Marie's memory, thus feeling the paradox between life and death.

The pub scene in "A Game of Chess" is considered to provide a representation of female voices and sexual relationships. This part is characterised by an abundance of free indirect discourse, with it being challenging to identify the narrative's unity through the sudden swings between colloquial dialogue and the altering tense and lengthy sections of narration. Emery-Peck (2008) conveys how Eliot seeks to investigate the interrelationship between standard narrative methods and alternative forces through the production, circulation and comprehension of literary forms. Munganga (2017) argues that Eliot juxtaposes an urgent tone with sexual privilege, thus acting as a means by which to highlight women's objectification, which prevailed throughout this period. This is further emphasised during the unfolding narration between Lil and her unnamed counterpart. From the unnamed narrator's perspective, women must conform to their procreative role because, as the narrator states, there is nothing that women get married for if they do not want children. In fact, the entire pub scene is narrated by the storyteller "I", with a degree of transition in Lil's position. "HURRY UP PLEASE ITS TIME" was the publican's traditional announcement when British pubs had to close at 11 pm, although in this section, from the beginning to the end, it acts as a signal of both physical and spiritual death. When the narrator "I" shifts from the storyteller to Lil, the narration conveys a lower-class tone with ungrammatical sentences to attain the sense of distinctive voices: "I can't help it, she said, pulling a long face, / It's them pills I took, to bring it off, she said" (Eliot, 2005, p. 1348). Despite the unnamed voice repeatedly calling the urgency of closing time, the reader's attention is actually diverted to the transformation and exchange of the speaker-narrator, as opposed to the bar setting, which serves to increase the reader's participation. When the reader focuses on past events between the characters of Lil and Albert, the typical call "HURRY UP PLEASE ITS TIME" instantly interrupts the narration's succession, stressing the narrative's present action. Prior to the subsequent interruption made through the last call, Lil incrementally formulates her own position, realising what she needs to do. When the bar finally closes at the end of the section, the bidding of goodbye is juxtaposed with the echo of Ophelia's farewell before drowning in *Hamlet*. Lil's mental state reflects that of Ophelia's, with both Ophelia and Lil sharing the same fate; getting drowned in life. Ophelia died with her arms full of flowers, with the hyacinth girl holding the flower and the drowned Phoenician sailor being one. Eliot shifts the distance between the reader and the speaker, thus complicating the readers' position within the story, where they engage in Lil's inner monologue of her personal and emotional struggle, while witnessing the character and text's development.

V. CONCLUSION

The Waste Land displays a significant interest in exploring the paradoxical and mutually exclusive being forced into close proximity, by constructing changes in narrative style and voices in the story, characters and events. The poem's allusiveness resorts to history, traditions and canons, thus it draws strength and inspiration between the past and the present by revealing the repetition of modern people's lives. In the absence of central figures and images, this modernist poem provides greater space to adopt a narrative style. Exemplifying 20th century modernism, *The Waste Land's* writing style powerfully reshaped conceptions of subjectivity, discourse and cultural hierarchy. Moreover, the poem represents Eliot's preliminary attempts to experiment with dramatic character shaping and openness to polyphony. Regardless of the multiplicity of narrative styles and voices, the poem retains a degree of unity, given that all incorporated voices merge into a sole personality. This modernist poem, devoid of central figures and images, provides greater scope to focus on narrative style. Therefore, armed with a more solid grasp of *The Waste Land's* narrative tensions, it is possible to establish that the poem's fragmentation is accentuated through juxtaposition.

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Feiyue Zhang is a postgraduate student of School of English Studies, Shanghai International Studies University. She currently researches in contemporary American and British literature.

Translation Strategies of *The Strange Days* Under Skopos Theory

Yumin Gong
Shanxi Normal University, Linfen, China

Abstract—Sven Birkerts (1951-) is an American essayist. His essay *The Strange Days* is well received by readers. In the context of globalization, literary translation is an important part of cultural exchanges. The Skopos Theory is the theory that applies the Skopos concept to translation. The core concept of Skopos Theory is that translation strategies and methods are determined by the purpose of translation. In the process of translation, the translator should follow three principles, namely, skopos rule, coherence rule and fidelity rule. The translation of literary texts coincides with the idea of Skopos Theory. This paper analyzes the advantages of Skopos Theory in the selection of translation strategies for the translation of *The Strange Days* from the perspective of the principle of skopos, coherence and fidelity.

Index Terms—*The Strange Days*, Skopos Theory, translation strategy

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the 20th century, the world has entered the era of globalization, including politics, economy and culture. Under the high demand of the market, various translation forms emerge as the times require. At the cultural level, it is concentrated in the translation of literary works, which is conducive to the communication and dissemination of different cultures between countries. *The Strange Days* wrote by American essayist Sven Birkerts. Sven Birkerts (born September 21, 1951) is an American essayist and literary critic of Latvian ancestry. He is best known for his book *The Gutenberg Elegies*, which posits a decline in reading due to the overwhelming advances of the Internet and other technologies of the "electronic culture." Birkerts was born in Pontiac, Michigan. He graduated from Cranbrook School and then from the University of Michigan in 1973. Birkerts is a Director of the Bennington College Writing Seminars and an editor of AGNI, the literary journal. He taught writing at Harvard University, Emerson College, Amherst College, and Mount Holyoke College. He lives in Arlington, Massachusetts with his wife Lynn. He has two children, Mara and Liam. His father is noted as an architect Gunnar Birkerts.

The paper mainly narrates that the author's experience of feeling strange while witnessing the time after surgery passes by and thinking of having a daydream. The text includes six parts: at the beginning author introduced changes of life after surgery, then explained the reason why the operation was conducted; through describing the preceding imagination before whole surgery, and the anesthesia during the operation as well as physical sensation after it faded away, the author recorded how to spend the time during the convalescence, from mornings, afternoons to nights, and at last wrote the feeling of recovering. The translation project chooses Sven Birkerts's *The Strange Days* as source text. As for the translation, there is no translated version and it's the first time to do it.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In this part, the paper adopts the Skopos Theory as the theoretical framework where a brief introduction to Skopos Theory is presented and the three principles of Skopos Theory are introduced afterwards.

A. A Brief Introduction to Skopos Theory

Compared to other translation theories such as Relevance Theory, the Skopos Theory has been extensively applied in translation studies. Since translation studies are purpose-oriented and this paper concerns literature translation whose intention is to accurately convey the original author's meaning to target readers, this paper draws on Skopos Theory as the theoretical framework beginning with definitions and development as the brief introduction and the three principles of Skopos Theory is presented subsequently.

The Skopos Theory is a concept in translation studies which is affiliated to functional theories of translation. Skopos comes from Greek word meaning "aim" or "purpose." The 1970s saw a move away from equivalence theory to functional theory as more scholars thought the current translation could not answer the needs of practice. Such a shift indicates that the translation theory has come to notice the functional and sociocultural aspects of translation theories (Li, 2005). In the 1970s, Skopos Theory made its appearance in translation theory and was presented by a German linguist Hans J. Vermeer (Munday, 2016). This theory requires that translators should carefully consider the purpose of source text and the target text before their translation.

The Skopos Theory, as a branch of functional theory, has undergone four phases during its development. Firstly, Katharina Reiss established the functionalism through her Text Typology Theory by incorporating Buhler's theory. Reiss

made a distinction between these text types which were informative text, expressive text and operative text. The informative text mainly deals with contents like illustrating facts whereas the expressive text chiefly focuses on aesthetics. The angel is dialogic which aims at making appeal to target receiver. From this point of view, it can be seen that this kind of text type concerns conveying source text's function to the target receivers thus arousing corresponding reactions. Secondly, Vermeer, who is Reiss's student, further developed translation theory based on the teachers study and reckoned that translation is an aim-oriented action, which means that the "skopos" dominated the translation action. Vermeer held that any kind of translation may be considered as an action with an aim or a purpose. As translation involves human communicational activities in the process of translation, the purpose, as the theory denotes, is the core element (Vermeer, 1989). Thirdly, another scholar Justa Holz Manttari majoring in translation studies enhanced functional theory with a belief that translation action was about producing a message transmitter which was intended to be applied in super-ordinate action systems (Nord, 2001). For example, translation means language transformation whereas the message transmitter encompasses text with images, sounds and body languages that belong to nonverbal elements. Last, Christiane Nord is another academic who again furthered this theory and focused on text analysis in the book *Text Analysis in Translation* where Nord made a clear distinction between two basic types: documentary translation and instrumental translation (Nord, 2005).

From above developments, it is clear that Skopos Theory has gone through significant changes to continuously evolve in translation studies and this theory has moved to consider cultural aspects of translation and intended to convey target outcome by the translator.

B. Three Principles of Skopos Theory

As we have mentioned above, skopos emerged in 1970s. And its emergence has shifted translation studies into functional theory rather than static linguistic typologies of translation. At the same time, a functionalist and communicative approach to the analysis of translation has been proposed, in Germany. According to Vermeer, the skopos states "one must translate, consciously and consistently, in accordance with some principle respecting the target text. The theory does not state what the principle is: this must be decided separately in each specific case." (Vermeer, 1989, p.182). He regards translation as a kind of human action which has a certain aim and purpose, for he holds such a firm belief that any action has an aim and purpose, without an exception of translation activity which is based on the source text. Moreover, an action can generate a possible result, a kind of new situation or new event, probably something new. Translation is considered as a purposeful action.

Then, based on Skopos theory, how does a translator reproduce a satisfying work? Firstly, he should consider the initiator's requirement of the purpose of the translation. That is to say, the translator should adequately acquaint with client's translation brief, which includes: the prospective text functions the initiator and the recipient; when and where to receive the text; the medium of transmitting the text; and the motivation of writing and translating the original text. (Nord, 2001). This information gives a clue for the translator to establish a rational arrangement for the information included in the target text. Being familiar with the translation brief, the translator could have a clear image of how to work at his translating job, what kind of translation strategies he will take, and what types of translation he'd better to use. Here comes a very important question for translating. What principles should the translator adopt to guide his translation?

Certainly, Vermeer had concerned this problem at that time. In the light of his researches, in 1978, he first formulated his Skopos theory, putting forward three rules in his paper *Framework for a General Translation Theory* to confine the translator's translation decision. Then the rules of Skopos theory were gradually grown into the foundation for a general theory of translation in the book *Groundwork for a General Theory of Translation* (1984) written by Reiss and Vermeer together. They explained the basic rules as follows: (qtd. in Jeremy Munday, 2001)

- 1) A translatum (or target text) is determined by its skopos.
- 2) A TT is an offer of information (Informationsangebot) in a target culture and target language concerning an offer of information in a source culture and source language.
- 3) A TT does not initiate an offer of information in a clearly reversible way.
- 4) A TT must be internally coherent.
- 5) A TT must be coherent with the SL
- 6) The five rules above stand in hierarchical order, with the skopos rule predominating.

In short, the above rules actually characterize three basic rules, they are: skopos rule, coherence rule, and fidelity rule.

1. Skopos Rule

The Skopos rule is paramount (Munday, 2016). Since the whole translation action is determined by its translation purpose, the Skopos rule indicates that the literary translation should aim at the purpose of accurately conveying author's meanings to target readers. Vermeer once categorized translation purpose into three types: the general purpose which means that the translator could make a living by translation work; the communicative purpose which means that through the translation the translator might educate the reader or target audiences; the purpose of a translation method or procedure.

Skopos theory claims that "skopos rule" is the most important principle. Therefore, the translator should have a clear-cut purpose and decide what kind or kinds of translation methods or strategies should be adopted under this

purpose—conservation translation strategy, substitution translation strategy or the combination of the two. Literal translation plays a critical role in cultural communication. Under the guidance of the skopos rule, literary translators usually do the translation with the established purpose. Usually, literary works are also translated for a given purpose. Skopos rule will help readers to find what kind of purpose the translator tries to achieve. Skopos rule illustrates that translation always has a certain purpose. The purpose of this rule can help us break through the dilemmas between dynamic equivalence and formal equivalence. Skopos theory can also be used to dispel some disagreements. For example, there are some controversial issues between free translation and literal translation. It cannot be solved until the appearance of the skopos theory. “Free” or “faithful” is decided by the purpose that the translation is expected to achieve. This rule indicates that whether literal or free translation or other translation methods the translator may adopt all methods which should be decided by the purpose of the translation namely to meet the needs of the translation purpose.

2. Coherence Rule

Different from the skopos rule, coherence rule lays stress on intra-textual coherence. The source text and target text should comply with intra-textual coherence rule. The target text should be acceptable and meaningful in a sense that it is coherent with the situation in which it is received. It means to be faithful to the target text. In other words, the translated works should be coherent, especially for the target text receivers in consideration of their circumstances and knowledge. Intra-textual coherence is easy to understand. It means the target texts not only can be read but also can be accepted. Under this rule, the receiver is the most important role. According to different situations, the translator needs to choose the most appropriate translation methods. In this way, the receiver could have a good understanding of the target text. For translators, it is important to make sure that the translated works are meaningful to the target language receivers.

The coherence rule means that, as Reiss and Vermeer (1984:113) said, intratextual coherence should be acceptable in a way that it could be coherent in the receivers' situation. Munday (2016:128) stated that the translation must be translated in a way that should be interpretable and acceptable for target audiences regardless of their cultural backgrounds, knowledge, and needs. To put it simple, coherence rule requires the translation should be understood by the target audiences, namely to meet the purpose of its intended expectation, and then the translation is adequate and successful.

3. Fidelity Rule

Nord puts forward the fidelity rule. According to Nord, there are some shortcomings of the skopos theory. Therefore, he sets forth fidelity rule to reduce cultural differences as much as possible. In Nord's idea, the translator has the moral responsibility for the translation recipient. The fidelity rule refers to the inter-textual coherence between the original text and the translated. Another aspect of this principle is the translator should be loyal to the source text. Translators should respect the writers and readers. When translators translate literary works, they should make some adjustments to the target texts according to writer's needs. Skopos rule is the priority to comply. The fidelity rule is inferior to the other two standards. Nord takes fidelity rule as a supplement. Translators cannot compel their readers to accept their views. Translation is a process of transmitting information from the source text to the target text. The target text must conform with source text in the aspect of content, namely, being faithful to the source text. However, the consistency between source text and target text is usually decided by the translator and the purpose of the translation.

The fidelity rule means that, as Munday (2016:127) said, the target text should be intertextual coherence with the source text. To some extent, intertextual coherence shows that the relationship between the target text and the source text should be faithful in a maximal way. It should be pointed out that faithfulness in this rule does not mean that the translation should be the imitation of the source text. In contrast, faithfulness means that the translator may adjust the faithfulness degree to achieve the target faithfulness.

To sum up, these three rules are associated with each other but in a diverse hierarchical order. Munday (2016:128) claimed that the intertextual coherence, namely the fidelity rule, is of less importance than intratextual coherence within the target text, namely the coherence rule. Besides, the two rules are then subordinate to the skopos rule which means that the skopos rule predominates among coherence rule and fidelity rule. Sometimes, to achieve the expected purpose of the translation, the translator should make sure that the skopos rule is firstly met and then ensure that the translation text is coherent intratextually, and finally be sure that the translation is coherent with the source text intertextually. The three important rules are significantly practical in translation fields. The importance of these three rules is not equal, and there is a relation of subordination among them. Coherence rule and fidelity rule are subordinate to skopos rule. Fidelity rule is subordinate to coherence rule. The choice of translation strategies is influenced by many factors, such as social background, sensitivity or world knowledge, expectations and communicative needs. As one of the most symbolic translation theory in the functional school, skopos theory emphasizes the fact that translators should choose translation strategies according to their needs and purpose.

III. TRANSLATION METHODS OF THE STRANGE DAYS UNDER SKOPOS THEORY

In order to possess a readable target text, the translator chose three methods under the skopos theory: literal translation, free translation and adaption.

A. *Literal Translation*

Generally, literal translation refers to the translation that a translator tries to keep the original form and meaning, including meaning, structure, style, figure of speech, etc (Newmark, 2006). But it is not the word-for-word translation. So when the translator finds that writing structure and expressing means of English are identical to Chinese, employing literal translation. Let us look at some examples in source text.

Example 8: Extra pillows 外加的枕头

Example 9: Bottle of water 水瓶

Example 10: Things have gotten quiet these days, in a way they haven't for a long time.

这些天周围事物变得一片寂静，已经很久没有这种状态了。

Example 11: Convalescence—means exactly what? I look it up. Con- + valescere: “altogether grow strong.” Everything hurt, I heard myself crackling like wicker with every movement I made. I was going up the stairs on all fours, like a dog.

恢复期-真正的含义是什么？我查了字典。Con- + valescere: 全身强壮。浑身疼痛，每次移动我都听到自己发出像柳条一样的爆裂声，用四肢上楼梯，样子看起来像一条狗。

Example 12: Everything was explained to me. I was told, step by step, what would happen. But the experience—from the morning of my going in for the surgery on—has been nothing like what I had come to imagine.

他们向我说明了每件事。告诉我一步一步要进行的事项。但是从我早晨进入手术室，所经历的和之前所想完全不同。(literal translation)

每件事都被解释给我听。我被告知一步一步会发生什么。但是那个经历，从早晨进入手术室，之前所想完全不同。(word-for-word translation)

These examples are very vivid and figurative. They are good examples for literal translation. Because there are similarities between two languages and cultures, it is realizable to apply literal translation.

B. Free Translation

Free translation is that a translator roughly expresses the original meaning, keeping the target language smoothly (Nida, 1993, p.31). But it is not the random translation. When English expression is not conformable to Chinese, free translation can be used to flexibly translate.

Example 13: Answer glibly in the moment 不假思索对答如流

Example 14: ...extended moments—because those are what I have now, day after day, the succession of them marking the path back to being fully mobile, fully able, but on the way I have these near silences

被拉长的瞬间-这样的瞬间总是环绕着我，日复一日，而这些瞬间标志着我可以回到活动自如、无所不能的状态，但是这个过程几乎是寂静的

Example 15: Gain health—simple enough. I am gaining back my health after a surgery, the right hip replaced, because finally there could be no more waiting.

简而言之就是获得健康。因为右臀手术到最后不能再拖了，所以手术后我在恢复。

Example 16: It was time.

得做手术了。

Example 17: They introduce a set of new variations into the old picture.

他们在我身体注入了新的变化。

C. Adaption

Owing to the different styles and manners of English and Chinese writing as well as culture between them are different, the translator needs to adapt some words, sentences and cultural knowledge so as to bring forth a readable and coherent translated text(He &Tang, 2007).

Firstly, it is necessary for us to convert some word classes into a certain word class in translation.

Example 18: implanting of a titanium

注入钛板

The noun ‘implanting’ derived from verb ‘implant’ here is converted into Chinese verb

Example 19: It was not dread of the surgery.

不是害怕手术

The adjective ‘dread’ indicating one’s feeling, here is converted into Chinese verb

Secondly, the passive voice in English is much more often used than in Chinese, therefore sometimes it is necessary to convert the passive-voice English into the active-voice Chinese.

Example 20: Everything was explained to me.

他们向我说明了每件事。

“他们”is added as the subject of the active-voice Chinese in the translation.

Example 21: I began to realize what was involved

我开始意识到会发生什么事

Thirdly, language is part of culture, some expressions in source language can be translated certain idioms in target

text.

Example 22: beyond what had been described

无法言表

Example 23: day after day

日复一日

IV. CONCLUSION

Skopos theory, unlike the traditional translation theories that only perceive the source text as an information provider, regards translation as a cross-cultural communication activity with the specific purpose. Skopos theory allows the translator to choose information intentionally to achieve the goal of rendering and meet the needs of the target language reader. Fulfilling the mission of translation is the fundamental principle of Skopos theory. Under the guidance of the skopos theory, translator uses some translation methods including literal translation, free translation and adaptation. Through this translation, author gained some enlightenment of translation mainly as follows:

Firstly, understanding the original is the first thing to do in translating. In this procedure, it requires us to understand the original thoroughly and fully as possible as we can. At the same time, it will be done through the context, and the original will be read at least three times or more. At the first time roughly read the original to understand the general meaning and mark some places new or difficult to us. At the second time carefully read the original to solve the difficult points, and if in necessary, read it paragraph by paragraph, sentence by sentence, and even word by word. The third time thoroughly read the entire passage to completely understand it. Secondly, the translator needs to strengthen the cultivation of Chinese. In addition to learning English well, it is also important to properly use Chinese. No matter how excellently we master English, we can not produce a good translation without solid Chinese foundation. Thirdly, we should learn from other outstanding translation versions and obtain much inspiration in this process of translation. Fourthly, after finishing translating, the translator has to proofread the translation and examine whether some paragraphs, sentences, clauses, and word, etc. are left out. Check out whether some grammatical or speaking errors in the translation. Reading the version several times to see whether it is smooth, fluent, harmonious, and wordy or not.

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Yumin Gong was born in Taiyuan, China in 1994. She received her bachelor degree in translation from Tianjin University of Commerce Boustead College, China in 2017.

She is currently a master degree candidate in the School of Foreign Language, Shanxi Normal University, Linfen, China. Her research interests include pragmatics and translation.

English as a Foreign Language Teachers' Assessment Competence at Taibah University

Abdulrahman Olwi
Taibah University, Madinah, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—This research study examines the competence of EFL teachers about language assessment types and strategies. A random sample of 49 teachers at the preparatory year program at Taibah University has taken a questionnaire that tests language assessment competences (i.e., diagnostic, progress, placement, proficiency, and achievement) and its correlation with their gender, native language, qualification, years of experience, and non-academic training. Overall, female teachers had better competence of achievement assessment over male teachers, but not in other types of assessment. Both English native speaking teachers and non-English native speaking teachers have less competence in language proficiency assessment competence. Also, it is seen that higher degrees help better in the achievement assessment competence, but not in general. Regardless of the number of years of experience, less competence occurred with proficiency assessment. Finally, in terms of non-academic training, there was a significant difference in the competence of progress assessment and proficiency assessment.

Index Terms—EFL, teachers, language competence, assessment knowledge, teacher knowledge

I. INTRODUCTION

English language teaching has become an important profession which has an international community that develops standards, publishes journals, establishes organizations, holds events, creates teams, shares discourses, sets principles, ... etc. As part of the world, using English in Saudi Arabia has also been growing, and thus the necessity to have more English language teachers in Saudi Arabia has increased (Al-Osaimi, 2013). More research studies investigating teachers' competence are required to start correlating and filling the gap exists between knowledge and performance. Educational decision makers need to have empirical evidence of teachers' strengths and weaknesses based on these standards that represent teacher competence. An absence of this empirical evidence hinders efficient educational decisions.

Teacher knowledge is the actual information, central ideas, arranged principles that scholars know as making up the field (Sanders & Morris, 2000). The results of this research study show teachers themselves the merits and demerits of English language teacher knowledge in Saudi Arabia. Also, this research study is beneficial for English language teachers who work in the field and directly interact with English language students as well as recruitment committees that set the conditions that all applicants should meet such as the higher qualification, native language, non-academic training, ...etc.

As Kunnan (2004) stated, the study of language testing did not begin until the 1930s. Even at that time, it did not get enough attention until 1961 when Lado wrote the book of Language Testing and also Carroll published the article "Fundamental Considerations in Testing for English Language Proficiency of Foreign Students". Actually, when an accredited association places a test that is administered to thousands of test takers, mentioning language testing until that time in the literature was still limited (Spolsky, 2000).

II. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Because English language teaching has become essential to academic life in Saudi Arabia, there is a large number of research studies conducted to investigate different areas of English language teaching pedagogy to Arabic native speaking students. However, according to Al-Osaimi (2013), student achievement and skills development have received more attention than teacher knowledge and performance in these research studies.

This study aimed to investigate ESL teachers' language assessment and testing competence. Not only this study sought to check the impact of the years of teaching experience and work environment, but also it sought to see how having varied preparation and backgrounds (i.e., academic certificate programs requiring university coursework, professional non-credit bearing certificate programs involving training sessions, and academic degree studies such as master's in TESOL) play an effective role in ESL teachers' knowledge of language assessment and testing.

Given the context of Intensive English Programs (IEP) at language institutions in the United States that have the mission of preparing international English learners to gain entrance to academic programs, this study saw how different ESL teachers from differing levels of preparation differ in knowing language assessment and testing. The main goal was to investigate whether there are differences among ESL teachers in language assessment and testing competence

that can be attributed to academic degrees (related graduate degrees, additional training, or professional development), length of teaching experience, or school policy and environment.

III. RESEARCH QUESTION

Based on the purpose of the study, the following research question was addressed: Are there any statistical significant differences among EFL teachers' assessment competence at Taibah University due to gender, native language, qualification, experience, and non-academic training?

IV. LITERATURE REVIEW

During the recent decade, there have been frequent national attempts to develop educational standards in Saudi Arabia. Huge efforts to promote high teaching standards have been dedicated to increasing teaching quality. Political decisions have been made, strategic plans have been set, budget approvals have been signed, national commissions have been established, immense projects have been launched, private educational companies have been founded, and various work teams have been built at different levels in order to grant better education for next generations of Saudis who face an unknown future.

For this research study that investigates the English language teachers in Saudi Arabia, it is acceptable to state that highly qualified English language teachers should have received a Bachelor's degree with a major in English language, taken some pedagogical courses in English education, and met English language teacher standards in Saudi Arabia. People around the world established standardized competency tests to measure teacher content knowledge, starting from the 1960s and 1970s. This has become common to judge the competence of teacher candidates by looking at their university transcripts, which is not accurate but somewhat supported by research studies (Goldhaber & Brewer, 2000). Thus, it is understood why teachers sometimes get hired only based on holding a Bachelor's degree related to the teaching position.

Since this research study dealt with the content knowledge of English language teachers, it is reasonable to review language assessment and testing as an approach. Working on language assessment and testing has been seen as an area of an academic major in its own right. This has increased a deepening awareness of the theories and practices of language testing. For example, an annual meeting known as a Language Testing Forum which has been held in the United Kingdom since the 1980s, and participants from different countries come to attend this huge event. Also, the International Language Testing Association (ILTA) and the Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE) started developing identities related to systemized codes of assessment ethics and, also, arranging formal language testing events for discussions and debates on different theories and practices. Besides that, many academic journals and scientific periodicals related to language assessment have been widely published. These facts make language testing an area of study that requires professionalism.

Generally speaking, formal testing started around 1,500 years ago in China. In the 16th and 17th centuries when universities were founded, it started in Europe. In the 18th century and the beginning of the 19th century, testing became more popular in many countries, especially in France and Germany. By the end of the 19th century, the United Kingdom and the United States introduced the idea of mass assessment when starting mass education systems.

It is important to give a brief of the development of language testing. At the beginning of the 20th century, around 1913, in the United Kingdom, the University of Cambridge established the Cambridge Proficiency Examination (CPE) to test the language proficiency of foreigners who applied for British schools. Only 12 people took it in the first year. CPE was based on a coherent philosophy of language learning that was developed in 1899 by Henry Sweet who focused on language use over language knowledge. In contrast, in the United States, in 1908, Thorndike developed the first standardized test that focused on students' written performance. He used 200 teachers' samples to come up with one handwriting scale. In 1912, Hillegas developed a scale for written composition, and, in 1914, Courtis combined some scales and added some measurements to prepare portfolios of test takers. In 1915, Kelly developed a multi-choice question (MCQ) format in the Kansas Test of Silent Reading. In 1920, Handschin talked about foreign language tests and his new approach at that time.

The main difference between the United Kingdom and United States' testing techniques was that the United States' technique, with some exceptions like Thorndike's test and the Modern Languages Association of Maryland's declaration, looked at standardization and psychometric excellence before content and validity. In other words, it is the science of measurement in the United States and the art of measurement in the United Kingdom (O'Sullivan, 2011, p. 2). From that time until today, the business of testing has been going on.

By the 1940s, in the United States, high-stakes testing had become almost completely a standardized multiple-choice format, with an exception of the military-inspired Foreign Services Institute Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) that was the first speaking test. In the 1960s, a well-known first standardized foreign language test was developed: The Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). It remained as it was in the same format for 40 years until the Internet Based Test (TOEFL iBT) version was developed at the beginning of the current century. After that, the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES), which is now called Cambridge ESOL, was used as a much-revised version of CPE. In 1979, the Test of English for International Communication (TOIEC) was introduced in

response to the Japanese Ministry of Trade's request for a test of English for business purposes. In the 1980s, the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) was established in the United Kingdom. At the beginning, it was known as the English Language Testing Service (ELTS).

It is also important to give a brief of the Modern language testing. Starting from the beginning of this current century, two trends have been noticed. First, test developers tend to support tests of specific purposes more than other general multi-purposes tests. Second, some specialists claim that the style of testing in the United States is to start making a balance between shape and content and no longer looking at the psychometrics over the content. In contrast, test developers in Europe have started giving more attention to the psychometric quality (Council of Europe, 2009).

After reviewing language assessment trends from the 1960s to 2000s, Malone (2013) claimed that earlier language assessment specialists focused on test theories, basic statistics, item development, and practicality. In more recent editions, the concentration has become more toward assessment methods and techniques inside the classroom. As McNamara (2008) indicated, recent attention has been given to accountability and ethics. Also, Davies (2008) found two main trends in language assessment and testing:

- Including all the necessary topics inside the same instructional materials without referring to any additional resources, and
- Considering principles besides knowledge and skills that concern ~~about~~ the appropriate use of assessment. Skills (i.e., items, statistics, ...) and knowledge (e.g., validity, reliability, ...) need to be supported by principles that give attention to ethics and professionalism.

All in all, Weigle (2002) suggested that it is important to determine the elements of real-life language use in order to define the construct of second language use for assessment purposes, which is really related to English language teacher knowledge assessment and testing.

Bachman's model of language ability, which was derived from Hymes' (1972) and Canale and Swain's (1980) work in Second Language Acquisition (SLA), has had a huge impact on today's modern language testing. After the revolution of language testing change in the 1980s and 1990s, some language testers today feel that this period of time is a stagnating time in language testing. However, others suggest an immense language testing change is coming in the near future. As some experts believe, this current period is dismantling the old hegemony of the two dominating language testing centers, the United States and the United Kingdom, and their theories and practices that have been on the surface for decades. This helps language testers take contextual parameters and cognitive processes into consideration from the test taker's perspectives.

Cronbach and Meehl in 1955 (as cited in Manning, 2013), writing about the systematic theories of validity, suggested giving evidence related to one of what has later become known as the three different types of validity: content, criterion, and construct. Also, Messick (1989) developed a new view of validity when arguing that validity does not only have a dichotomy of evidence, yes or no, but validity also has a position of degree regarding the extent that is possible to support test validity. It works in the United States where standardization and measurement have been prominent for many years and in the United Kingdom where the influence has been toward test content as a reflection of the test construct. In contrast, O'Sullivan (2011) believed that the validity provides a coherent outline of the key issues that are influencing language testing today. This approach brings all language testing specialists from all around the world together and helps them (academics, practitioners, sponsors, consumers, ... etc.) compromise and work as a team.

Actually, test developers should reflect the effect on the performance of all decisions being made during the process of test development. Since it is difficult to find a significant and accurate understanding of how performance needs to be interpreted, test developers should not marginalize test consequence. Instead, they should recognize test consequence as a main factor of all of the test development decisions.

Nowadays and over the coming years, the area of investigation of language testing will have three main themes: validation, professionalism, and localization. When Messick (1989) extended the validity concept and included test consequence and the unitary nature of validity that makes validity assembled from many resources of validity evidence, a major attempt at that time occurred to switch the focus from validity --academic theorization-- to validation --operational evidence collecting and reporting. However, this attempt failed because of the complexity and ambiguity of Messick's model of validity.

Localization means "the practices of taking into account those learner-focused factors that can impact on linguistic performance" (O'Sullivan, 2011, p. 6), which is an attempt to support the individualizing of assessment. In the past, tests that were developed locally seemed to have lower quality and less accuracy than international tests. This is no longer correct. Today, many local examinations are likely to be more accurate in a significant way if well prepared. Different populations of test takers have different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, so one standardized international test might not be fair for all of them at the same degree. This reinforces the argument that the conceptualization of test consequence validity should not be accepted in favor of the view that it is a basic aspect of arguments about validation elements. Another aspect of localization is the recognition of the context of test development. Standardized tests that international students from all around the world usually take, such as the TOEFL and IELTS, believe that their scores interpret the test taker's language ability in different language skills and their use of language in real life. This claim is seen as problematic because of assuming that the test takers are similar in their educational contexts and first languages,

which brings the challenge of accuracy or internal consistency. Last, it has been found that successful test developers are those who aim to develop clearer and more transparent theories of validation.

V. PARTICIPANTS

As shown in Table (1), a total of 49 EFL teachers at Taibah University participated in this research study. They are 18 female teachers and 31 male teachers, 10 English native speaking teachers and 39 non-English native speaking teachers. Also, 13 of the participants are teachers with a bachelor's degree in addition to 30 teachers with a master's degree and 6 teachers with a Ph.D. degree. In addition, 14 teachers had five years of experience or less and 35 teachers had more than five years of experience. Finally, 34 teachers reported non-academic training whereas 15 teachers did not have any non-academic training certificates.

TABLE (1)
PARTICIPANTS (N=49)

Gender	Groups	
	Male	Female
	31	18
Native language	Native	
	10	39
Qualification	Bachelor's	
	13	30
	Ph.D.	
	6	
Years of experience	Five years or less	
	14	35
Non-academic training	With non-academic training	
	34	15

VI. DATA COLLECTION

In this context, the assumption is referred to some understandings that are fundamental to the research design but are not certainly verified through the research methods and procedures. This research study is based on the following assumption that is made before starting the study: It is assumed that the assessment competence level of English language teachers can be efficiently measured by an electronic questionnaire. To collect the data for this research study, an electronic questionnaire was built and tested to examine the different types of language assessment competence. Then, it was sent to the director of the English language institute and the dean of the preparatory year at Taibah University. The questionnaire was sent to all EFL teachers' official emails and circulated in social media groups.

It was sure that the participants have read and understood the purpose of the questionnaire and they willingly consent to participate in this research study. Also, they directly agreed that their data, collected through this questionnaire, may be used for the purpose of the research findings. They were assured that all data gathered in this questionnaire are carried out securely and anonymously. Therefore, no names were required. Finally, if any participants declared that he/she is not currently teaching English at Taibah University, their answers were automatically eliminated from the data analysis of this research study. Regarding risks and benefits, there were no known risks or discomforts associated with this research study. On the other hand, it is believed that this research study provided participants with the strengths and weaknesses of their language assessment and testing knowledge.

VII. DATA ANALYSIS

All questionnaire responses were statistically analyzed using SPSS. At the beginning reliability and validity were checked for the whole questionnaire and for the items of each aspect of assessment competences. Then, basic descriptive analyses were run to explain the means and standard deviations between the types of language assessment competence (i.e., diagnostic, progress, placement, proficiency, and achievement) and their correlation with the teachers' gender, native language, qualification, years of experience, and non-academic training. Finally, the significance of each difference was examined in terms of gender, native language, qualification, years of experience, and non-academic training.

TABLE (2)
RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Sig.
Language assessment questionnaire	25	0.820	Sig.

As shown in Table (2), the Cronbach's Alpha for the whole 25 item questionnaire is highly significant with a value of 0.820, which is appropriate for such nature of study.

TABLE (3)
RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF EACH COMPETENCE

	No. of Items	Reliability	Validity
Competence of diagnostic assessment	5	0.961	0.980
Competence of progress assessment	5	0.959	0.979
Competence of placement assessment	5	0.889	0.943
Competence of proficiency assessment	5	0.879	0.892
Competence of achievement assessment	5	0.879	0.853

As shown in Table (3), the reliability and validity are high for each assessment competences. Respectively, the reliability and validity was the highest in the competence of diagnostic assessment (0.961 and 0.980), in the competence of progress assessment (0.959 and 0.979), in the competence of placement assessment (0.889 and 0.943), in the competence of proficiency assessment (0.879 and 0.892), and in the competence of achievement assessment (0.879 and 0.853); as indicated earlier, these numbers are the values of reliability and validity respectively for each language assessment type.

TABLE (4)
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS IN TERMS OF GENDER

	Female teachers (n=18)			Male teachers (n=31)		
	Mean	Std. deviation	Coefficients	Mean	Std. deviation	Coefficients
Competence of diagnostic assessment	4.722	0.826	17.5	4.612	1.115	24.2
Competence of progress assessment	4.888	0.323	6.6	4.354	1.226	28.2
Competence of placement assessment	4.833	0.383	7.9	4.580	0.807	17.6
Competence of proficiency assessment	4.000	1.028	25.7	3.838	1.392	36.3
Competence of achievement assessment	3.111	0.323	10.4	2.774	0.497	17.9

As shown in Table (4), 18 female teachers and 31 male teachers participated in this research study. In terms of female teachers, the place of the competence of progress assessment was the first ($M=4.888$, $SD=0.323$), and then the competence of placement assessment was the second ($M=4.833$, $SD=0.383$), and then the competence of achievement assessment was the third ($M=3.111$, $SD=0.323$), and then the competence of placement assessment was the fourth ($M=4.722$, $SD=0.826$), and then the competence of proficiency assessment was the fifth ($M=4.000$, $SD=1.028$).

In terms of male teachers, the place of the competence of placement assessment was the first ($M=4.580$, $SD=0.807$), and then the competence of achievement assessment was the second ($M=2.774$, $SD=0.497$), and then the competence of diagnostic assessment was the third ($M=4.612$, $SD=1.115$), and then the competence of progress assessment was the fourth ($M=4.354$, $SD=1.226$), and then the competence of proficiency assessment was the fifth ($M=3.838$, $SD=1.392$). Thus, it is noticed that both male and female teachers have less competence in language proficiency assessment competence.

TABLE (5)
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS IN TERMS OF ENGLISH AS A NATIVE LANGUAGE

	English native speaking teachers (n=10)			Non-English native speaking teachers (n=39)		
	Mean	Std. deviation	Coefficients	Mean	Std. deviation	Coefficients
Competence of diagnostic assessment	4.800	0.632	13.2	4.615	1.091	23.6
Competence of progress assessment	4.600	0.699	15.2	4.538	1.096	24.2
Competence of placement assessment	4.700	0.948	20.2	4.666	0.621	13.3
Competence of proficiency assessment	3.900	1.197	30.7	3.897	1.293	33.2
Competence of achievement assessment	3.100	0.316	10.2	2.846	0.488	17.1

As shown in Table (5), 10 English native speaking teachers and 39 non-English native speaking teachers participated in this research study. In terms of English speaking teachers, the place of the competence of achievement assessment was the first ($M=3.100$, $SD=0.316$), and then the competence of diagnostic assessment was the second ($M=4.800$, $SD=0.632$), and then the competence of progress assessment was the third ($M=4.600$, $SD=0.699$), and then the competence of placement assessment was the fourth ($M=4.700$, $SD=0.948$), and then the competence of proficiency assessment was the fifth ($M=3.900$, $SD=1.197$).

In terms of non-English speaking teachers, the place of the competence of placement assessment was the first ($M=4.666$, $SD=0.621$), and then the competence of achievement assessment was the second ($M=2.846$, $SD=0.488$), and then the competence of diagnostic assessment was the third ($M=4.615$, $SD=1.091$), and then the competence of progress

assessment was the fourth ($M=4.538$, $SD=1.096$), and then the competence of proficiency assessment was the fifth ($M=3.897$, $SD=1.293$). Again, as in terms of gender, it is noticed that both English native speaking teachers and non-English native speaking teachers have less competence in language proficiency assessment competence.

TABLE (6)
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS IN TERMS OF QUALIFICATION

	Teachers with a bachelor's degree (n=13)			Teachers with a master's degree (n=30)			Teachers with a Ph.D. degree (n=6)		
	Mean	Std. deviation	Coefficients	Mean	Std. deviation	Coefficients	Mean	Std. deviation	Coefficients
Competence of diagnostic assessment	4.692	0.751	16	4.766	0.971	20.3	4	1.549	38.7
Competence of progress assessment	4.692	0.63	13.4	4.566	1.04	22.7	4.166	1.602	38.4
Competence of placement assessment	4.769	0.438	9.1	4.666	0.802	17.1	4.5	0.547	12.1
Competence of proficiency assessment	3.769	1.48	39.2	3.866	1.224	31.6	4.333	1.032	23.8
Competence of achievement assessment	2.692	0.48	17.8	2.966	0.49	16.5	3	0	0

As shown in Table (6), 13 teachers with a bachelor's degree, 30 teachers with a master's degree, and 6 teachers with a Ph.D. degree participated in this research study. In terms of the teachers with a bachelor's degree, the place of the competence of placement assessment was the first ($M=4.769$, $SD=0.438$), and then the competence of diagnostic assessment was the second ($M=4.692$, $SD=0.751$), and then the competence of progress assessment was the third ($M=4.692$, $SD=0.63$), and then the competence of achievement assessment was the fourth ($M=2.692$, $SD=0.48$), and then the competence of proficiency assessment was the fifth ($M=3.769$, $SD=1.48$).

In terms of the teachers with a master's degree, the place of the competence of achievement assessment was the first ($M=2.966$, $SD=0.49$), and then the competence of placement assessment was the second ($M=4.666$, $SD=0.802$), and then the competence of diagnostic assessment was the third ($M=4.766$, $SD=0.971$), and then the competence of progress assessment was the fourth ($M=4.566$, $SD=1.04$), and then the competence of proficiency assessment was the fifth ($M=3.866$, $SD=1.224$).

In terms of the teachers with a Ph.D.'s degree, the place of the competence of achievement assessment was the first ($M=3$, $SD=0$), and then the competence of placement assessment was the second ($M=4.5$, $SD=0.547$), and then the competence of proficiency assessment was the third ($M=4.333$, $SD=1.032$), and then the competence of progress assessment was the fourth ($M=4.166$, $SD=1.602$), and then the competence of diagnostic assessment was the fifth ($M=4$, $SD=1.549$). It is noticed that there were only 6 participants with a Ph.D. degree. Overall, it is seen that higher degrees help better in the achievement assessment competence.

TABLE (7)
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS IN TERMS OF YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

	Teachers with 5 years of experience or less (n=14)			Teachers with more than 5 years of experience (n=35)		
	Mean	Std. deviation	Coefficients	Mean	Std. deviation	Coefficients
Competence of diagnostic assessment	4.642	0.928	20.0	4.657	1.055	22.7
Competence of progress assessment	4.928	0.267	5.4	4.400	1.168	26.5
Competence of placement assessment	4.857	0.363	7.5	4.600	0.774	16.8
Competence of proficiency assessment	4.000	1.240	31.0	3.857	1.286	33.3
Competence of achievement assessment	2.857	0.534	18.7	2.914	0.445	15.3

As shown in Table (7), 14 teachers with five years of experience or less and 35 with more than five years of experience participated in this research study. In terms of five years of experience or less, the place of the competence of progress assessment was the first ($M=4.928$, $SD=0.267$), and then the competence of placement assessment was the second ($M=4.857$, $SD=0.363$), and then the competence of achievement assessment was the third ($M=2.857$, $SD=0.534$), and then the competence of diagnostic assessment was the fourth ($M=4.642$, $SD=0.928$), and then the competence of proficiency assessment was the fifth ($M=4.000$, $SD=1.240$).

In terms of more than five years of experience, the place of the competence of achievement assessment was the first ($M=2.914$, $SD=0.445$), and then the competence of placement assessment was the second ($M=4.600$, $SD=0.774$), and then the competence of diagnostic assessment was the third ($M=4.657$, $SD=1.055$), and then the competence of progress assessment was the fourth ($M=4.400$, $SD=1.168$), and then the competence of proficiency assessment was the fifth

($M=3.857$, $SD=1.286$). Thus, it is noticed that the less competence happens with proficiency assessment regardless of the number of years of experience.

TABLE (8)
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS IN TERMS OF NON-ACADEMIC TRAINING

	Teachers with non-academic training (n=34)			Teachers with no non-academic training (n=15)		
	Mean	Std. deviation	Coefficients	Mean	Std. deviation	Coefficients
Competence of diagnostic assessment	4.823	0.575	11.9	4.266	1.579	37.0
Competence of progress assessment	4.764	0.495	10.4	4.066	1.624	39.9
Competence of placement assessment	4.705	0.629	13.4	4.600	0.828	18.0
Competence of proficiency assessment	4.417	1.131	25.6	3.333	1.397	41.9
Competence of achievement assessment	2.941	0.422	14.3	2.800	0.560	20.0

As shown in Table (8), 34 teachers with non-academic training and 15 teachers without non-academic training participated in this research study. In terms of having non-academic training, the place of the competence of progress assessment was the first ($M=4.764$, $SD=0.495$), and then the competence of diagnostic assessment was the second ($M=4.823$, $SD=0.575$), and then the competence of placement assessment was the third ($M=4.705$, $SD=0.629$), and then the competence of achievement assessment was the fourth ($M=2.941$, $SD=0.422$), and then the competence of proficiency assessment was the fifth ($M=4.417$, $SD=1.131$).

In terms of not having non-academic training, the place of the competence of placement assessment was the first ($M=4.600$, $SD=0.828$), and then the competence of achievement assessment was the second ($M=2.800$, $SD=0.560$), and then the competence of diagnostic assessment was the third ($M=4.266$, $SD=1.579$), and then the competence of progress assessment was the fourth ($M=4.066$, $SD=1.624$), and then the competence of proficiency assessment was the fifth ($M=3.333$, $SD=1.397$). Thus, it is noticed that the less competence happens with proficiency assessment regardless of the non-academic training.

TABLE (9)
SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES IN TERMS OF GENDER

	Female teachers (n=18)		Male teachers (n=31)		t-value
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	
Competence of diagnostic assessment	4.722	0.826	4.612	1.115	0.361
Competence of progress assessment	4.888	0.323	4.354	1.226	1.805
Competence of placement assessment	4.833	0.383	4.580	0.807	1.245
Competence of proficiency assessment	4.000	1.028	3.838	1.392	0.427
Competence of achievement assessment	3.111	0.323	2.774	0.497	2.570

As shown in Table (9), in terms of gender, the t-value was significant for the competence of achievement assessment (especially for female teachers). Regarding other types of assessment, there was no significant difference between male and female teachers.

TABLE (10)
SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES IN TERMS OF ENGLISH AS A NATIVE LANGUAGE

	English native speaking teachers (n=10)		Non-English native speaking teachers (n=39)		t-value
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	
Competence of diagnostic assessment	4.800	0.632	4.615	1.091	0.511
Competence of progress assessment	4.600	0.699	4.538	1.096	0.168
Competence of placement assessment	4.700	0.948	4.666	0.621	0.135
Competence of proficiency assessment	3.900	1.197	3.897	1.293	0.006
Competence of achievement assessment	3.100	0.316	2.846	0.488	1.554

As shown in Table (10), in terms of speaking English as a native language, the t-value was not significant in all types of assessment. Thus, there was no significant difference between native and non-native speaking teachers of English regarding all types of assessment.

TABLE (11)
SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES IN TERMS OF QUALIFICATION

		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Competence of diagnostic assessment	Between groups	2.966	2	1.483	1.479	Not sig.
	Within groups	46.136	46	1.003		
	Total	49.102	48			
Competence of progress assessment	Between groups	1.153	2	0.577	0.542	Not sig.
	Within groups	48.969	46	1.065		
	Total	50.122	48			
Competence of placement assessment	Between groups	0.301	2	0.151	0.308	Not sig.
	Within groups	22.474	46	0.489		
	Total	22.776	48			
Competence of proficiency assessment	Between groups	1.382	2	0.691	0.423	Not sig.
	Within groups	75.108	46	1.633		
	Total	76.49	48			
Competence of achievement assessment	Between groups	0.754	2	0.377	1.781	Not sig.
	Within groups	9.736	46	0.212		
	Total	10.49	48			

As shown in Table (11), in terms of whether holding a bachelor's, master's or Ph.D. degree, the t-values were not statistically significant in all types of assessment. Thus, pursuing higher academic degrees does not show better competence of assessment.

TABLE (12)
SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES IN TERMS OF YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

	Teachers with 5 years of experience and less (n=14)		Teachers with more than 5 years of experience (n=35)		t-value
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	
Competence of diagnostic assessment	4.642	0.928	4.657	1.055	0.044
Competence of progress assessment	4.928	0.267	4.400	1.168	1.666
Competence of placement assessment	4.857	0.363	4.600	0.774	1.185
Competence of proficiency assessment	4.000	1.240	3.857	1.286	0.355
Competence of achievement assessment	2.857	0.534	2.914	0.445	0.383

As shown in Table (12), in terms of the years of experience, the t-value was not significant in all types of assessment. Therefore, regarding all types of assessment, there was no statistical significant difference between those whose experience was more than five years and other teachers.

TABLE (13)
SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES IN TERMS OF NON-ACADEMIC TRAINING

	Teachers with non-academic training (n=34)		Teachers with no non-academic training (n=15)		t-value
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	
Competence of diagnostic assessment	4.823	0.575	4.266	1.579	1.818
Competence of progress assessment	4.764	0.495	4.066	1.624	2.300
Competence of placement assessment	4.705	0.629	4.600	0.828	0.492
Competence of proficiency assessment	4.417	1.131	3.333	1.397	2.157
Competence of achievement assessment	2.941	0.422	2.800	0.560	0.974

As shown in Table (13), in terms of non-academic training, the t-value was statistically significant in the competence of progress assessment and proficiency assessment. In other types of assessment, no different levels of competence were shown between those who have non-academic training and those who do not have non-academic training.

VIII. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, female teachers showed much progress assessment competence while male teachers showed much placement assessment competence. At the same time, both male and female teachers showed less proficiency assessment competence. Also, Female teachers showed better competence of achievement assessment over male teachers while no significant differences were found across the other types of assessment based on gender. In terms of English as a native language for teachers, it is also noticed that both English native speaking teachers and non-English native speaking teachers have less competence in language proficiency assessment. Native English speaking teachers had a better competence of achievement assessment whereas non-English speaking teachers had a better competence of placement assessment.

In terms of the teachers with a bachelor's degree, they showed better competence of placement assessment and less competence of proficiency assessment. With a master's degree, the competence of achievement assessment was the first, and the competence of proficiency assessment was the last. Last, the teachers with a Ph.D.'s degree showed better competence of achievement assessment and limited competence of diagnostic assessment. Overall, it is seen that higher

degrees help better in the achievement assessment competence, but pursuing higher academic degrees does not show better competence of assessment regarding the assessment competence in general.

On the other hand, teachers with five years of experience or less showed better competence of progress assessment. In comparison, teachers with more than five years of experience showed better competence of achievement assessment. Regardless of the number of years of experience, less competence happened with proficiency assessment. In comparison between all types of assessment, there was no statistical significant difference between the teachers who had various years of experience. Finally, teachers with non-academic training showed high competence of progress assessment while teachers without non-academic training showed high competence of placement assessment. In terms of non-academic training, there was a significant difference in the competence of progress assessment and proficiency assessment, but not in the other types of assessment. Overall, it is noticed that the less competence happened with proficiency assessment regardless of the non-academic training.

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Abdulrahman Olwi is an assistant professor of language education and the dean of e-learning at Taibah University, Madinah, Saudi Arabia. He got his PhD from Florida State University and his MA from the University of San Francisco in TESOL. His research interest is in language assessment and language teacher preparation. He has taught methods of teaching English, English language practicum, research methods in foreign language studies, English language skills, language assessment, ESOL in content area, ... etc. He can be reached at this email: amaolwi@gmail.com.

Problems and Countermeasures of Cooperative Learning in Business English

Juan Gu

Sichuan University of Arts and Science, Dazhou, China

Abstract—Cooperative learning focuses on group activities, emphasizing student activity as the center, teachers as organizers, instructors, supervisors, and evaluators. As an effective teaching model, cooperative learning is increasingly adopted in Business English teaching that needs a lot of student activities and practices. However, cooperative learning still has various problems in the process of Business English teaching, so this paper aims to analyze the problems in classroom setting, group formation, teachers, students and teaching assessment, and eventually propose countermeasures to solve these problems.

Index Terms—cooperative learning, Business English, classroom setting, group formation, assessment

I. INTRODUCTION

Business English, as an independent undergraduate major, was approved by the Ministry of Education of China in 2008 with unremitting efforts made by numerous Chinese Business English people. In the year of 2014, Business English major was accessible at 216 colleges and universities. By 2019, a total of 943 colleges and universities across the country have opened this major.

Due to its special nature, the Business English major requires students to not only have the integrated abilities to use languages, such as listening, speaking, reading, writing, translating, etc., but also learn business professional knowledge and some basic practical English skills in intercultural communication (Zhu,2010,pp.23-27). Furthermore, because Business English is a very practical subject, cooperative learning has become the first teaching model for Business English teachers to organize classroom teaching. Various studies and experiments at home and abroad have shown that cooperative learning has changed the one-way interpersonal communication model in traditional classroom education, establishing a positive and democratic relationship between students and teachers. Besides, cooperative learning is effective in stimulating students' learning motivation, improving students' academic performance, cultivating teamwork spirit, and promoting students' critical thinking. During the process of communication and cooperation, students' emotional attitudes towards the classroom have changed significantly. They have become more confident in speaking and asking questions in class. At the same time, their thinking has become more active, and their abilities of business negotiations, job interviews and other business skills have also been improved by all kinds of group activities in the process of cooperative learning.

However, through Business English teaching practices and observations in recent years, the author finds that there are still some problems in the application of cooperative learning in Business English, especially when referring to classroom setting, teachers' roles in class, students' cooperative awareness and skills, and teaching assessment, so this paper tries to analyze these problems and propose related solutions to eventually improve the quality of Business English teaching.

II. DEFINITION AND BASIC ELEMENTS OF COOPERATIVE LEARNING

Dewey (1859-1952) was an American philosopher, psychologist and pragmatist educator, as well as a reformer of traditional education and a pioneer of new education. Dewey suggested that children's personality should develop from their nature. He put forward "New Three Centers Theory": "child center (student center)" "activity center" and "experience center", which are quite different from the traditional three-centered theory of "classroom center", "teaching center" and "teacher center"(Dewey, 1902, p.117). These new three centers coincidentally conform to student-centered cooperative learning (CL), defined as an instructional method in which small groups, each with students of different levels, use a variety of learning activities to maximize their learning. With this learning model, students work together in groups to accomplish shared goals (D. W. Johnson & R. Johnson,1998, p.89). In other words, cooperative learning is a teaching method where students of mixed levels of ability are arranged into groups and rewarded according to the group's success, rather than the success of an individual member(C V Satyaprakasha,2014, P.1100). Teaching practices at home and abroad show that cooperative learning is a creative and effective teaching strategy.

Meanwhile, the Johnson Brothers of Cooperative Learning Center at University of Minnesota proposed the five-factor theory which was unanimously accepted by the academic community. They believed that there were five basic elements of CL, which were positive interdependence, face-to face positive interaction, individual and group accountability, interpersonal and small group skills, group processing. The combination of these five elements in the group situation

learning can effectively promote achieving the goal of CL. Actually, these five elements make CL different from other forms of group learning.

III. THE NECESSITY OF COOPERATIVE LEARNING FOR BUSINESS ENGLISH TEACHING

As we mentioned in the introduction part, Business English is composite and interdisciplinary, so its teaching objectives, teaching contents and teaching methods, to some degree, are different from those of traditional English. In addition to English, intercultural communication skills and business practice skills are also indispensable to Business English learners. Therefore, students majoring in Business English require extra collaboration and practice to offer them more chances to contact with each other in English, get more cross-cultural communication skills, as well as business skills. However, understanding and remembering abstract business theory and knowledge are difficult and boring. Especially, in some cases, information provided by the teachers is quite technical, so the learners try to paraphrase it to something which is appropriate to their own comprehension. Face-to-face group cooperation of cooperative learning can make Business English learners less nervous, more willing to participate, and provide them with rich opportunities to communicate in a language they can understand. Their willingness to express themselves in the target language optimizes their language skills, and if students are allowed to cooperate and analyze some business situations together through group activities, they can vividly learn the business knowledge and skills contained in these situations (Gu, 2020, pp.123-124).

Besides, in reality, most teachers know “cooperative learning produces high language proficiency in students” (Han, 2014, p.948), but most of them have never linked cooperative learning with the moral growth of students, nor have they thought that their lectures would dampen students’ creativity and critical thinking, both of which are especially important for Business English learners who will engage themselves in international business. Actually, Business English learners really need to develop a critical and democratic thinking, because they have to communicate with trade partners from different countries. What’s more, foreign trade is always sophisticated and changeable. By encouraging respect for differences, love, trust and appropriate compromise, group-based learning can provide good opportunities to develop such critical and democratic thinking. Meanwhile, peers interactions and modeling can promote students’ self-esteem, social skills and emotional maturity needed by international business, which is also a process that requires cross-cultural communication to remove obstacles among traders and establish long-term relationships with their partners. So CL is not only a form of class dynamism, but also a way to build life-long interactions and communicative competences to deal with complicated and challenging business situations (Gu, 2020, pp.122-123). Finally, cooperation experiences can make learners more confident in their own abilities and develop their teamwork spirit, which is also essential in international business. All in all, because of the unique nature of Business English, cooperative learning is necessary for Business English.

IV. PROBLEMS OF COOPERATIVE LEARNING IN BUSINESS ENGLISH TEACHING

A. *Inappropriate Classroom Setting*

Cooperative learning requires collaboration among group members to complete common learning tasks face to face. Rows of fixed desks and chairs in Chinese classrooms are no longer suitable for the new student-centered teaching model. The author even teaches Business English classes in English language labs since most classes of Foreign Language School are offered there at the author’s university. Not only fixed desks and chairs, but also the computers on those tables, greatly undermine the interaction among learners. Here an example is used to illustrate the relationship between interaction and the arrangement of desks and chairs. The author’s son has been studying in another city since the first grade of primary school, so the author has to take the train to go to the city to take care of him every weekend for almost nine consecutive years since the son is now a ninth-grade student of school. There are two kinds of trains the author could choose to take. One is the ordinary train, while the other is the high-speed train. The author found an interesting phenomenon is that the passengers on the high-speed train usually do not chat with each other. Instead, they watch videos or sleep on their own, since their seats do not allow them to sit face to face, but many passengers on the ordinary train will talk to each other, because they sit face to face. Therefore, the fixed desks and chairs of traditional classroom setting do affect students’ interaction and collaboration,

B. *Unsuccessful Transformation of Teachers’ Roles in Classroom.*

Cooperative learning requires teachers to transform themselves from the “leader” of the classroom to the “facilitator” or “guide” of the classroom. However, firstly, because the teaching tasks assigned by some schools are too heavy and the class hours are being compressed, teachers have to spend a lot of classroom time explaining language points, business knowledge and intercultural communication skills. In this situation, they have to be the leader, instead of the facilitator or guide in the classroom.

Secondly, although cooperative learning has been widely used in teaching in recent years, most teachers have not systematically studied this new teaching model. So many teachers lack a comprehensive understanding of cooperative learning theory, which will result in their unsuccessful role change, making cooperative learning superficial. For instance, after arranging the discussion tasks for students, some teachers either stood on the podium, watching casually, or patrolled among the students who seemingly study and discuss. They become bystanders who fail to effectively supervise and

guide cooperative learning. On the surface, students are in a dominant position in the class, but the teacher is not clear at all about what the students are discussing, whether the topic is relevant, and whether each student is seriously involved. In their views, cooperative learning is simply a change in the way discussions are made and a change in student seating. These misunderstandings about cooperative learning would also result in the unsuccessful transformation of teachers' roles.

Thirdly, when Business English teachers do not have sufficient professional knowledge to guide cooperative learning, they would be reluctant to become "facilitator" or "guide" of the classroom. As mentioned above, in China, although Business English majors have been opened in many universities for many years, the number of Business English teachers is still very scarce. Most of the existing Business English teachers are transformed from other majors (such as translation, education, etc.). They have good English competence, and they can also get some basic business knowledge required for Business English teaching through their self-study, but most of them lack the training opportunities and practical experience to connect themselves with Business English in real situations (Gu, 2020, p.122). However, when students become the center of the learning process, their questions in the classroom are likely to exceed the teacher's preparation and expectations. As a result, the teachers would be very embarrassed if they cannot answer the questions on the spot, so they are still willing to be the leader of the classroom to avoid this.

C. *Unreasonable Formation of the Group*

An important feature of cooperative learning is that students will be divided into groups, a group being taken as the basic unit in the classroom. Groups are generally composed of students with different levels of learning ability. Each member is responsible for completing group tasks, and the group members share learning results and are truly interdependent. In reality, because of classroom management, teachers in China often do not allow students to leave their seats, so students are always randomly divided into groups in class according to their seats which are near to each other. On the one hand, the group members may not vary in interests or learning abilities, so they are unlikely to learn from each other or promote their critical thinking. On the other hand, the overall level between groups is imbalanced. A group with strong learning abilities will lose its competitive motivation because there are no competitors, while a group with weak learning abilities will remain silent or not cooperate in groups at all because of lack of self-confidence. As a result, the motivation and enthusiasm of students are reduced by unreasonable formation of the group.

D. *The Changed Cognition, Behavior and Personality of the New Generation*

1. Poor Autonomy in Learning Prevents Classroom Activities

Since China implemented the family planning policy in the 1980s, most families have only one child. These children are different in cognition, behavior, and personality from those of multiple-child families. Most parents of these children, whether urban or rural, are eager to send their only child to the college. To help parents realize this dream, teachers tend to adopt indoctrination and compulsory teaching methods, while students do nothing but study by basically doing a lot of exercises given by teachers, passively receiving knowledge. Therefore, after entering the university, for one thing, these students' motivation for study disappear when their college dream has come true; for another, their ability to learn independently is quite poor when they are no longer supervised by middle school teachers and their parents. They are unwilling to spend time preparing knowledge for group tasks before class. However, the important part of cooperative learning is all kinds of group activities in the classroom. In order to have better discussion and communication, students need to prepare relevant materials on their own before class. Thus, during group tasks, students who are poorly prepared before class are silent or inactive. This greatly reduces the participation of those students in class discussions or other activities, of course, the depth and breadth of class discussions are difficult to guarantee.

2. Lack of Cooperative Awareness and Skills

Cooperative awareness refers to the individual's cognition and emotion of common actions and rules of behavior, and it is an important basis for cooperative behavior, while cooperative skills refers to the ability to express, listen, find and ask questions, accept and retain opinions, and handle interpersonal relationships. However, now most Chinese college students come from the one-child families. Unlike the students from multiple-child families, they have received too much attention from parents and grandparents in their growth. As the center in the family, they think less about the feelings of others, and get used to doing tasks by themselves. Therefore, in the group learning process, they only care about expressing their own views, and are unwilling to listen to or accept the opinions of their partners. When there is disagreement during the process of completing the group task, the group members are more likely to blame each other.

E. *Imperfect Teaching Assessment System*

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs indicates that people have five levels of needs, including basic physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs and self-actualization needs. Only when students meet the needs of self-actualization or self-fulfillment and have a sense of accomplishment will they engage themselves in a new round of cooperative learning.

Assessment refers to evaluating the value of a certain thing with certain standards, whether it is good or bad, whether it meets the standard or not. Formative assessment is a dynamic evaluation of students' performance in the daily learning process, which includes quizzes, tasks, answering questions or participating in discussions in class and via teacher observation. Summative assessment is the other main type of assessment which evaluates achievements students have

made at a stage. This kind of assessment is usually done at the end of the quarter and mid-year, and is generally used as the final cumulative exam.

At present, students' performances in Business English courses are mainly based on the middle or final examinations, one of summative assessments ending with an exact grade, because many student-centered classroom activities are more difficult to assess. Thus, teachers usually fail to give feedback to student group activities in the class, making it difficult for students to obtain a sense of accomplishment from their own performance. In fact, many students will observe the teacher's reaction at the key point of the discussion. They want to know what the teacher thinks of their speech? Especially, when students have a certain point of view during the discussion, such as expressing their own opinions and innovative thinking, if the teacher can give corresponding encouragement and evaluation in time, the student's self-actualization needs will be more likely to be met, which will in turn stimulate their interest and enthusiasm for continued discussion. Otherwise, they will be discouraged in the following tasks.

V. SOLUTIONS TO PROBLEMS OF COOPERATIVE LEARNING IN BUSINESS ENGLISH

A. *Improve Classroom Setting*

As a visiting scholar in the United States in 2015, I was impressed by the design of the desks and chairs in the classrooms of the university where I studied. The desks and chairs in their classrooms can be moved freely and combined into different shapes to meet the needs of various activities which will be carried out in class. For example, the desks can be combined in the form of enclosures for interviews or meetings; a round table can be also formed for group discussions with these desks. However, in most traditional Chinese university classrooms, not only are the desks and chairs fixed on the floor, but their shapes are always rectangular. Such a setting is not suitable to students' diversified group activities of cooperative learning. Therefore, desks and chairs in university classrooms should be rearranged to cooperate with this new teaching model, cooperative learning, to better serve the various group activities.

B. *Successful Role Change of the Teachers*

Here we can make a comparison between CL and traditional lecturing in terms of teachers' role. As the authority of traditional teaching, teachers provide students with social and language knowledge and control all communication channels. Instead, in cooperative learning, teachers become knowledge facilitators who are responsible for providing help and intervention to develop students' humanities, language abilities and business skills, which will prepare students for powerful social contributions to become responsible and democratic citizens. In short, "the teachers are no longer the authoritarians who control students' learning behavior but perceived as knowledge promoters; students are no longer passive recipients of knowledge and skills but active discoverers and constructors of knowledge"(Han, 2014, p.949). Indeed, for Business English learners, the most important thing is not how much knowledge they can learn from their teachers, but how they can effectively use the knowledge they have learned to communicate and cooperate with their partners and competitors. Don Snow also points out: "whether or not students succeed in learning a language depends more on their own efforts than on the teacher's and that a good program of instruction therefore needs to be student centered instead of teacher centered" (Snow,2007,p.20). Actually, the transformation of students' learning model will be undoubtedly realized through the change of teachers' role. Teachers should no longer regard themselves as authority in the classroom. Only when they correct their thoughts, will they adopt the proper teaching model in the teaching process.

On the other hand, now most Business English teachers in China are transformed from other majors and do not have enough business professional knowledge and skills. On the contrary, in the Internet age, students have access to all kinds of information and knowledge. To ensure the effective guidance and regulation in the cooperative learning, teachers should improve their business professional knowledge and skills through self-study, continuous learning, and even working in foreign trade companies for a period of time.

In a word, both teachers and students should change their roles and share the education responsibility. Teachers are no longer the only ones who own and provide knowledge, but become the ones who organize and guide classroom. Students are no longer the passive knowledge receivers who mechanically use what they learned in the whole process of knowledge relay, but take different roles as participants, mediators, even group leaders.

C. *Reasonable Group Formation*

Because cooperative learning takes groups as the basic unit and cooperative activities among group members as the main body, reasonable grouping plays a vital role in the learning process. Teachers must provide effective guidance to grouping which should be based on the principle of "heterogeneous in the same group" and "homogeneous out of group". "Heterogeneous in the same group" refers to grouping students with different learning abilities into the same group. The best group size is about four people, including one top student, two average students and one poor student. Group members' differences in thinking, cognitive structure, language proficiency and life experience can make them have different views on the same problem, and then propose different solutions, thus helping them develop critical thinking. The so-called "homogeneous out of group" refers to the equivalent comprehensive ability between groups, thus helping to promote fair competition between different groups. So, at the beginning of the course, teachers are better to divide students into groups based on the previous examinations or performances in classroom with the principle of "heterogeneous in the same group" and "homogeneous out of group". The same group of courses may last 4-6 weeks, then

the change could be made according to students' performance during this period. Of course, this requires teachers to do a lot of preparation and investigation before class to understand the learning ability, personality, hobbies and life experiences of each group member.

D. Improve Students' Autonomous Learning Ability and Cooperative Awareness and Skills

1. Improve Students' Autonomous Learning Ability

Henri Holec pointed out in his work called *Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning* that "The autonomous language learner takes responsibility for the totality of his learning situation. He does this by determining his own objectives, defining the contents to be learned and the progression of the course, selecting methods and techniques to be used, monitoring this procedure, and evaluating what he has acquired." (Henri, 1981). Because the time for cooperative learning in class is limited, to maximize the effect of CL, students need to be fully prepared before class, independently learning things related to the group activities to be carried out in class in advance. The following ways are suggested to promote students' autonomous learning ability.

Firstly, arouse students' learning motivation. Motivation is the essential feature of autonomous learning which is based on the learners' inner desire for study. Once learners are interested in learning, they will be eager and love to learn than ever before. Meanwhile, they will actively participate in learning, thereby greatly improving their learning efficiency. If learners treat learning as a lifelong career, then learning is no longer a task that must be completed at a certain stage, but a booster for people's continuous growth and progress (Wang, 2020, p.97). Only in this way, learning is no longer a process of passive acceptance, but a process in which learners actively participate. Or we can say, only when the learner regards learning as no longer merely a tool or means for pursuing utilitarianism, the learner will have greater autonomy in learning and their motivation to learn will last.

Secondly, ensure student-centered teaching approach in class. Student-centered teaching approach will encourage students' autonomous learning, for students have to assume the responsibility for their own learning without the control of their teachers. For instance, during the teaching process, teachers could ask students some questions instead of rushing to give answers or explanations, so as to enhance the students' ability to reflect on what they learn. Through democratic interaction between teachers and students under cooperative learning model, a harmonious teacher-student relationship could be established to promote the learner's subjectivity, initiative and consciousness in the learning process, thereby improving the students' self-control, perseverance, autonomy, eventually helpful to students' insistence on self-learning.

Thirdly, cultivate learners' ability to question, criticize and think independently. The learner's ability to think independently plays an important role in the learner's self-consciousness and subjectivity in the learning process, while by criticizing and asking more questions on what they learn, learners are no longer passive recipients of knowledge, instead, knowledge itself will become a motivating force for learners to further study, and ultimately improve their autonomous learning ability.

2. Improve Students' Cooperative Awareness and Skills

Undoubtedly, cooperative awareness and skills are essential to the success or effectiveness of cooperative learning which is based on group activities. Group members are all different in terms of academic performance, learning attitude, individual character and growth environment. Therefore, in the process of cooperative learning, group members must trust each other, respect the differences between each other, and cooperate in good faith, while in the process of guiding cooperative learning, teachers should also consciously create opportunities for students to cooperate with each other to develop their cooperative awareness, helping students establish a sense of collective honor and individual responsibility. In the end, make students comprehend that only by learning to cooperate can they succeed in future studies and work.

Cooperative skills refer to the ability to express, listen, find and ask questions, accept and retain opinions, and handle interpersonal relationships. Students should not only be able to express their opinions and answer questions, instead, they should also learn to accept the opinions of others, find and ask questions, and appreciate others. Only with these relevant cooperative skills can the effectiveness of Business English cooperative learning be greatly improved.

E. Improve the Teaching Assessment System

Scientific, fair, reasonable and timely assessments have an important impact on the success of cooperative learning, because it plays a guiding role in cooperative learning by directly reflecting the responsibilities and performance of individuals and groups. Students' learning enthusiasm and motivation are also greatly affected by the evaluation methods and results. Generally speaking, formative assessment of the learning process and summative assessment of the learning outcomes are often adopted in evaluating the students' learning. However, in the writer's opinion, the cooperative learning should focus on the formative assessment which could timely and regularly give feedback to students by evaluating the learning effect, monitoring the group activities and detecting the errors of learning process in time. On the other hand, the teachers could also improve and adjust their classroom teaching based on the feedback information in a timely and active manner, eventually providing relevant and proper guidance to the students. Formative assessment includes group self-evaluation, one of the five basic elements of cooperative learning, mutual evaluation between groups and teacher evaluation. After the group activity, first of all, the group members should make a self-assessment on whether the group has reached the agreed goals, whether the group task has been successfully completed, and then carry out mutual evaluation between groups to find merits and problems of other groups to learn from each other. Finally, the teacher ought to conduct a comprehensive and objective evaluation of each group performance according to an evaluation

criterion, giving the groups different grades, summing up successful experiences, and pointing out the problems, to make cooperative learning more effective by maintaining the enthusiasm and vitality of the group members. Of course, the formative evaluation should be supplemented by the summative evaluation, which can reflect the students' academic performance at the end of a stage. The evaluation system combining formative evaluation and summative evaluation could comprehensively and objectively evaluate students' attitudes, emotions, and knowledge acquisition in the process of cooperative learning, and finally guide students to reflect on their own learning and keep their learning enthusiasm.

VI. CONCLUSION

As a branch of ESP (English for Special Purpose), Business English has a complex nature. Firstly, it is a special communication system with a combination of business, English language and cross-cultural communication. Secondly, Business English is a pragmatic major which is practically oriented and closely related to the profession. So it is a comprehensive practical course with a tight integration of theory and practice. Fortunately, cooperative learning allows Business English learners to learn the knowledge and skills they need from all kinds of group activities. With this assistance, we and our students can come to enjoy and benefit from cooperation in the classroom and beyond (Sapon,1999). In other words, cooperative learning is an effective teaching model to cultivate students' business practice ability, language competence and cross-cultural communication ability. In addition, successful cooperative learning is conducive to developing students' critical and democratic thinking, autonomous learning and cooperation skills, which are highly valued by their future employers and corporations.

However, the research and practice of cooperative learning in China is still in the exploratory stage. Especially, there are many problems that arise in the process of applying this teaching model in Business English. In concrete, the traditional classroom setting is no longer suitable and needs to be improved to better serve the various group activities of Business English learners. Secondly, the reasonable group formation, instead of the random one, could help to develop critical thinking of group members and promote fair competitions between groups. Thirdly, only a perfect assessment system will guarantee motivation and enthusiasm of Business English learners for a long time. What's more, teachers are supposed to change their roles from leaders to facilitators in classroom to keep the student-centered principle of CL. Last but not the least, students are also expected to improve their autonomous learning ability, cooperative awareness and skills to ensure the effectiveness or success of CL in Business English. Identifying the problems of cooperative learning in Business English and proposing relevant solutions will undoubtedly improve the teaching quality of Business English, and ultimately help Business English learners become qualified cross-cultural business practitioners.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This paper is supported by Sichuan University of Arts and Science in the name of "Problems and Countermeasures of Cooperative Learning in Business Teaching" (Grant No. 2019XKQ004Y)

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Juan Gu was born in Sichuan, China in 1976. She received her MS degree in Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics from Chongqing Normal University, China in 2012.

She is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Sichuan University of Arts and Science, Sichuan. Her interests include second language teaching and acquisition, Business English and translation.

Euphemism Translation from the Perspective of Skopostheorie

Shumin Wang
Shanxi Normal University, Linfen, China

Abstract—Each country has own taboos, so the study of euphemism is indispensable for a person who wants to communicate with foreigners successfully. With the intercultural communication increasing, euphemism translation has become more and more important. The paper studies euphemism translation from Skopostheorie and shows some methods and techniques for translating euphemism, including literal translation, free translation, addition, omission and replacement.

Index Terms—taboo, euphemism translation, Skopostheorie

I. INTRODUCTION

People always meet some topics which are hard to speak out and may bring fear, embarrassment or other negative associations in daily communication, so people need to express their ideas about these topics in other ways—that is euphemism. Euphemism is a common phenomenon in human language, which can reflect nation cultures and social psychologies. With the increasing of intercultural communication, euphemism translation will become more and more essential, so it is necessary for a translator to study euphemism translation.

First of all, it helps readers to realize the source language culture. People can know ways of thinking and customs of source language speakers through translating euphemism, because euphemism is the carrier of culture. For example, people like to use “han she” to describe their house in China. If English speakers get the meaning of the word, he will realize that self-deprecating is a traditional virtue of China (Feng Ruizhen, 2000, p.38).

Secondly, it helps readers to enrich the target language culture. Euphemism translation greatly enriches the target language and people can know new expressions about euphemism. For example, Chinese introduce a lot of euphemisms through translating English word. “Ding ke zu” comes from the translation of English word “dinkies” and “yang guang fa” comes from the translation of English word “sunshine law”. In addition, some English words come from Chinese in the same way. For instance, English word “yen” comes from Chinese word “yin”. If people want to express the meaning that someone is addicted to something, they can use the expression that a person has a yen for something.

Thirdly, it helps people to communicate with foreigners. People from different cultural backgrounds may face problems when they talk to each other. And it is more difficult when there is a euphemism in their conversation. So mastering the translation of euphemism helps people to avoid some embarrassing situations. For example, an American visitor asked “May I know the geography of your house?” and the Chinese householder answered that “Sure, let me show you around my house”. The situation is awkward because the American says these words for asking about the place of washroom. However, the Chinese misunderstands the meaning.

All in all, euphemism translation is an important project in translation field. Nowadays, a lot of scholars have carried out detailed studies about euphemism translation from different perspectives. In this paper, the author studies euphemism translation from the perspective of Skopostheorie and puts forward an idea that Skopostheorie has the role of guiding translating euphemism.

II. GENERAL INTRODUCTION OF EUPHEMISM

A. Definition of Euphemism

The English word “euphemism” comes from the Greek word “emphemismos”. “Eu” means good and “pheme” means saying, so “euphemism” is a collection of good words. A lot of scholars have given different definitions from different angles.

George Blount, the first person to create “euphemism”, defined euphemism as a good or favorable interpretation of bad words. Another definition is put forward by Neaman and Silver. They said “Euphemism is generally defined as substituting an inoffensive or pleasant term for a more explicit, offensive one, thereby veneering the truth by using kind words” (Neaman & Silver, 1983, p.1).

People can find two definitions from the Internet: An inoffensive word or phrase substituted for one considered offensive or hurtful, especially one concerned with religion, sex, death, or excrete; the deliberate or polite use of a pleasant or neutral word or expression to avoid the emotional implications of a plain term, as passed over for died.

According to the above statements, I give a conclusive definition of euphemism: the information sender expresses their ideas by indirect expressions in a special context in order to avoid some topics which are hard to speak out and

may bring fear, self-abased, embarrassment or other negative associations.

B. Features of Euphemism

From the above definition we can find euphemisms are some indirect words and people use them to avoid offending others. The following are four features of euphemism, which are acquired by analyzing definitions and applications of euphemism.

1. Universality

Almost any culture has special taboos because of different social customs. Generally speaking, people try to avoid mentioning these taboos. However, sometimes they have to mention these taboos in communication or writing process, then they would like to use some good words to replace them. Then euphemism appears. For example, Canadians avoid “thirteen” and “Friday” while people in Singapore avoid “seven”. From the above examples, we find every nation has own special taboos, so euphemism is universality.

2. Indirectness

People do not want to mention taboos directly. On the one hand, people use euphemism to avoid offending ghosts and spirits or to avoid bringing misfortune. They believed that the name of things is a part or an essential feature of the referent. And the name is magical, which is able to become the referent. So mentioning the name may bring misfortune. For example, Chinese called malaria as “da bai zi” because they considered that diseases were caused by evil spirits. On the other hand, people use euphemism to avoid making people awkward. For example, people use the expression “giving the sack to his employee” to convey someone lost his job.

3. Vagueness

The production of euphemism causes its vagueness because people create euphemism through blurring the concept of words. In other words, people use vague words to express some words which have clear meanings. For example, people use “bottom” to express “hip”. In this example, the meaning of “hip” is specific. It means the area at either side of the body between the top of the leg and the waist. However, the meaning of “bottom” is vague. It can mean not only the hip but also other things, such as the lowest position of a class. What is more, vagueness gives people more options to make communication flexible. For example, people can use “melons” or “teacups” to replace “breast” and use “blue days” or “the flowers” to replace “menstruation”.

4. Pleasure

Pleasure is an obvious and important feature of euphemism, because the purpose of using euphemism is to make listeners or speakers do not feel bad. The pleasure is reflected in making people have a better association. For example, “a sanitation engineer” brings a good association, while “a rag collector” gives people a dirty impression. As a result, people would like to use the former expression in their daily life.

C. Functions of Euphemism

Euphemism plays an important role in communication, because it has various functions in different occasions, such as for avoidance of taboos, for politeness, for elegance. I will state the three functions in the following part.

1. For avoidance of taboos

Fromkin said that the existence of taboo words or taboo ideas stimulated the creation of euphemism (Fromkin & Rodman, 1983). In other words, euphemism is the substitution of taboo words. For example, “death” is a taboo topic in human society. So they are unwilling to say something about death and replace it with “to have fallen asleep”, “to say the last goodbye” and so on. Another example is that “lord” is a taboo word for Christianity, so they substitute “land” for it. In conclusion, avoiding taboos is an essential function of euphemism.

2. For politeness

People use euphemism for politeness. That is to say people use tactful words to avoid offending others, which is an important rule of social activities. When people talk about the following sensitive topics which have no real taboo counterparts, they need to use euphemism for politeness: age, figure, occupation, race and so on. For example, people use “bellman” to call “waiters” and use “domestic engineer” to call “housewife” for politeness. There is another example: people use “mature” or “queen-sized” to describe a fat lady, because using “fat” directly is impolite.

3. For elegance

In people’s life, they may meet some embarrassing topics which people do not want to speak directly in some formal occasions. For example, when people speak some words about physiological phenomena, they will use euphemism for elegance. People use “to break wind”, “to pass air”, “to drop a rose”, “to cut one’s finger”, “to let one fly”, “to sneeze” to replace “farting”. And they use “number one” to mean pee and “number two” to mean shit and “visitor” to mean menstruation. The above expressions make these shy topics become elegance. So elegance is a function of euphemism.

III. A REVIEW OF SKOPOSTHEORIE

A. A Brief Introduction of Skopostheorie

Skopostheorie is the core concept of Germany functional theories, which was presented by Hans Josef Vermeer in the book *General Foundations of Translation Theory* co-authored by his teacher Reiss and himself in 1984.

The establishment of Skopostheorie went through a long time. There are three stages:

The first stage is the research by Katharina Reiss. She believed text function is an objective approach of translation criticism. And she insisted equivalence theory which regards the source text as the center. In addition, she believed the ideal translation would be one “in which the aim in the target language is equivalence as regards the conceptual content, linguistic form and communicative function of a source language text” (Nord, 2001, p.9). She called the translation as integral communicative performance. However, Reiss found that sometimes equivalence cannot be achieved. Then translators do not have to follow the principle of equivalence. She said that functions of the translation should be taken into consideration first rather than principle of equivalence. Thus, Reiss’s research lays a root for Skopostheorie.

The second stage is setting up Skopostheorie by Hans Josef Vermeer. He inherited some ideas of his teacher, Reiss, and broke through the theory of equivalence. He set up Skopostheorie based on action theory and thought Skopos is the first rule in translation process. He thought translation is a kind of human action and a type of transfer. And communicative verbal and nonverbal signs are transferred from one language into another language in the process of translation. Compared with the traditional theory, Skopostheorie pays attention to the target language.

The third stage is developing Skopostheorie by Justa Holz Manttari and Christiana Nord. The former focused on the research about the actions of translating, the role of participants and the context. The latter put forward loyalty principle. It pays attention to translators’ loyalty for the source writer and the target reader. As the second generation representative of Skopostheorie, Nord inherited and developed theories of the first generation.

B. Three Rules of Skopostheorie

Skopostheorie has been developed continually by several scholars. The author will select three main rules for euphemism translation, namely, Skopos rule, coherence rule and fidelity rule.

1. Skopos rule

Vermeer believed that the Skopos is the prime principle to determine the overall action of translating. The receiver has own cultural background, the expectation for translation and communicative needs, so each translation aims at the certain audience. Any action has an aim and purpose. And there are three possible purposes in translation: the first one is general purpose (the translator’s purpose). He may translate texts for a living or understanding the meaning. The second purpose is the purpose of communication, namely the purpose of the source writer. For example, some educational books are designed to guide readers. The third is the purpose of specific translation strategies. For example, the news translation is to show the new information (Nord, 1991, pp.27-28).

2. Coherence rule

The coherence rule means that translation must conform to the standard of intertextual coherence. Intertextual coherence refers to that the translation should be understood by target readers based on their educational culture and makes sense in the target language culture and communicative environment.

3. Fidelity rule

Although Skopos rule is the primary principle of Skopostheorie, it does not mean translators can amend source texts arbitrarily and wantonly. The information of translation comes from the source text, so fidelity rule is important. The realization of fidelity rule depends on translators’ understanding of the source language and translation purpose.

The three rules of Skopostheorie have a close relationship: fidelity rule subjects to coherence rule; fidelity rule and coherence rule subject to Skopos rule. That is to say if the skopos of translation needs to change the function of source text, then the translation standard is conforming to Skopos rule rather than coherence rule. The extent and form of fidelity depends on the translation purpose. If the purpose is to reappear characteristics and styles of the source text, Skopos rule needs to correspond with fidelity rule.

C. The Application of Skopostheorie in Euphemism Translation

Skopostheorie plays an important role for analyzing euphemism translation. And people can feel more easily if they study euphemism translation from the perspective of Skopostheorie, because Skopostheorie has the role of guiding translating euphemism.

First of all, the use of euphemism has strong purposes and clear functions, so translators need to select suitable expressions to reappear communicative functions and purposes in translation. And the use of euphemism is a kind of purpose rather than a method. For example, it can show the user’s willingness to continue their communication for some specific purposes. That coincides with Skopos rule of Skopostheorie. As we have described above, Skopos rule means that the purpose of translation determines the whole process of translation. In other words, results determine methods. For achieving the purpose of euphemism translation effectively, translators should choose translation strategies flexibly according to different expectations. And translators need to consider what euphemism information can be retained and what euphemism information must be adjusted in specific contexts.

Secondly, euphemism translation is a communicative activity from the perspective of cross-culture, which achieves the transformation from source cultures to target cultures. When translators translate euphemism, they must think over how to deal with the relationship between source language culture and target language culture. As mentioned earlier, coherence rule of Skopostheorie believes that translations must be accepted by readers who have different culture backgrounds. For example, there are different attitudes towards “old” in China and West, and translators take different strategies in the process of translating. In China, the old man is regarded as a life teacher with rich experiences. On the contrary, in West, people think that the old man means useless. So translators use “senior citizen” to replace “old man”

to avoid offending old people.

Finally, Skopostheorie pays attention to not only Skopos but also coherence. If translators deviate from the source text to translating euphemism, they will cause missing translation. In addition, being faithful to source text is more important than being faithful to form, otherwise the intention and meaning of source text will be changed.

The following are some examples of euphemism translation from the perspective of Skopostheorie. People can understand the close relationship between euphemism translation and Skopostheorie easily through mastering these examples.

Example 1:

He did a number on me in saying that he would help me. All along he never intended to help (Wang Jiayi, 2003, p.116).

他说他要帮我，真是嘲弄我——他从来没这样打算过。

Skopos rule and coherence rule embody in the above example. In this example, the translator translates “to do a number on somebody” into “嘲弄某人”. This euphemism expression is popular in America. The “number” in the example refers to the number of short sketches. Each well-trained actor is familiar with these short sketches and these short sketches are numbered. Audiences expect actors to show their best performance, but they just show the numbered short sketch. It means actors regard audiences as laymen, so the expression means to mock others. In order to make the listener understand this sentence easily, the translator shows its meaning. In addition, the purpose of the speaker is to show the meaning that he laughed at me. The translator knows the purpose and shows the same purpose in translation.

Example 2:

一见他们来了，都笑迎上来，道：“刚才老太太还诵呢？可巧就来了” (A Dream in Red Mansions, 2004, p.22).

“The Old Lady was just talking about you”, they cried. “And here you are”.

Fidelity rule and coherence rule embody in the above example. The translator translates “老太太” into “The Old Lady”, which shows the source language culture loyally. “The Old Lady” shows the prestigious position of Jia Baoyu’s grandma. In addition, the first letter of each word is capitalized, which means the meaning of the word is different from what is understood commonly in west readers’ minds. Readers can understand it in context, so the translation also conforms with coherence rule.

Example 3:

We will have to oil the mayor to get the permit.

我们必须向市长烧香，以便获得准许。

In this example, “to oil the mayor” is the euphemism expression of “to bribe to the mayor”. In China, the expression means a kind of ritual of worshiping Buddha. However, it has another meaning that people bribe others for gaining benefits. Therefore, “oil” in source text can translate into “烧香” in order to achieve the same function as the original sentence. The translation is a good embodiment of fidelity rule.

IV. TRANSLATION STRATEGIES OF EUPHEMISM

It is necessary for a translator who wants to translate language successfully to master translation methods and techniques of euphemism, because these methods and techniques can enhance the effectiveness of intercultural communication. There are two translation methods and three techniques of euphemism: literal translation, free translation, addition, omission and replacement.

A. *Literal Translation*

Language is a reflection of culture. The uniqueness and universality of culture is reflected in the language. Human beings live in the same world, so sometimes ways of thinking, emotional standards and world views are roughly same. As a result, literal translation is the most common translation method of euphemism. In other words, people may think of literal translation firstly when translating euphemism. Literal translation pays attention to the source language. Translators are as consistent as possible with forms and contents of the source language. Generally speaking, translators can find corresponding expressions in the target language.

Example 1:

Mark wants to go to number one.

马克想去一号了。

In this example, the translator translates “number one” into “一号”. It means Mark wants to pee. Because both Chinese and English have the same expression, translators can use literal translation.

Example 2:

People slip into comas all the time and never come out.

一个人如果长期处于昏迷状态的话，就永远也醒不过来了。

In the above example, the translator translates “never come out” into “永远也醒不过来” for keeping the original mood of the source text. The expression means someone died. So translators can keep the feelings of the source language by literal translation.

B. Free Translation

Free translation is an indispensable method of translating euphemism. On the one hand, because of the differences of language culture, translating some euphemisms directly will cause the translation meaningless. On the other hand, some euphemisms have no corresponding expressions in target language. On the above occasion, people should use free translation to translate euphemism. Free translation emphasizes readers' response. It means translators pay attention to express the meaning of source language and make readers understand the translation more easily.

Example 1:

He knew that he came into the world with nothing and that he would go to meet his Marker with empty hands.

他知道他一无所有的来，也将两手空空的去。

In this example, the translator translates “go to meet his marker” into “去”. The sentence means the person died with nothing. However, there is no such expression “Marker” in China. And if the translator translates it directly, readers will not understand the sentence. So the translator needs to use free translation to translate the sentence.

Example 2:

The little Match Girl dreamed she lived happily in Abraham's bosom.

卖火柴的小女孩梦见她与亲爱的奶奶幸福地生活在天国里。

In this example, the literal meaning of Abraham's bosom is “亚伯拉罕的怀里”. However, most of Chinese do not know who he is. So the translator uses free translation to translate it into “天堂” so that Chinese can understand the meaning of this sentence.

C. Addition

Addition is the first technique of euphemism translation. It means that translators add some contents properly so as to express the meaning contained in source language. We have learned vagueness of euphemism in chapter two, so vague expressions are inevitable in translation texts. If translators want to introduce these expressions to target readers authentically and do not confuse target readers, they can add some explanatory information.

Example:

OPEC is still skating on thin ice. (OPEC Goes Figure Skating)

欧佩克现在仍如履薄冰，尚未走出险境。

This example from a paper entitled “OPEC Goes Figure Skating” told that OPEC is in financial difficulties because of the continuous decline of oil prices. “On thin ice” means “be in danger”. There are two purposes for the author to use the idiom. On the one hand, he wants to convey POEC in a dilemma. On the other hand, the expression works in concert with the title. The translator adds “not out of danger” to its translation in order to make target readers understand more easily.

D. Omission

Omission is another technique of euphemism translation. It means that translators delete some inessential words, because these words may confuse target readers. Sometimes the essential elements of English are not necessarily required in Chinese because of differences of language. And the translation of these words may cause lengthiness on sentences.

Example:

今天下三分，益州疲弊，此诚危急存亡之秋也。

The world is still divided into three, and our base in Shu is beleaguered. At this time our very survival hangs in the balance (Ayto, 1993, p.227).

In the above example, “存亡” is a compound word. In the process of translation, the translator deletes “亡” and translates the word into “survival”. He grasps the key point of the word.

E. Replacement

Replacement is also an important technique of euphemism translation. It is a method that translators substitute the target language euphemism for the source language euphemism. The figures of source language euphemism and target language euphemism are different, but the connotations are same. The technique helps readers better understand the feelings of the source writer.

Example:

We were staying in the busiest knocking stop in the whole of Central America.

我们当时正呆在整个中美洲最忙碌的窑子里。

The sentence is selected from a readme article, which told a busy life of a foreigner journalist. The whole article is full of self-mockery and humor. The translator uses “窑子” to show noisy and dirty environment. And readers can have a good understanding of the environment through replacement.

V. CONCLUSION

As a common language phenomenon, euphemism is widely used in daily life. Both Chinese and foreigners use it to avoid some taboos or sensitive topics which may bring some bad feelings, such as fear, embarrassment, etc. Nowadays, more and more euphemisms have appeared with the increasing of intercultural communication. As a result, translators will face more and more problems about euphemism. So people cannot ignore the study of euphemism translation.

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Shumin Wang, was born in Shanxi Province, China in 1996. She is studying for a master's degree in English major at Shanxi Normal University.

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Neuro-linguistic Programming and Its Implications for English Language Learners and Teachers <i>Neda Hedayat, Reza Raissi, and Solmaz Azizzadeh Asl</i>	1141
The Narrative Style and Voices in <i>The Waste Land</i> <i>Feiyue Zhang</i>	1148
Translation Strategies of <i>The Strange Days</i> Under Skopos Theory <i>Yumin Gong</i>	1153
English as a Foreign Language Teachers' Assessment Competence at Taibah University <i>Abdulrahman Olwi</i>	1158
Problems and Countermeasures of Cooperative Learning in Business English <i>Juan Gu</i>	1167
Euphemism Translation from the Perspective of Skopostheorie <i>Shumin Wang</i>	1173
