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An Investigation into Chinese Influence on the Current Curriculum of Bachelor of Business English Degrees at Vietnamese Universities

Anh Thi Tuyet Nguyen
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Abstract—In education across the world the curriculum plays a very important part, as it guides student learning and helps to realise what the teacher has planned. A lot of research has been conducted on curricula; however, few studies have investigated the Bachelor of Business English (BBE) curriculum and even less focusing on Vietnamese universities. This project aimed to investigate the present curricula of BBE at Vietnamese universities to gain important understandings about the purposes of the curriculum of BBE. The project adopted an interpretivist, qualitative approach using document analysis to investigate BBE curricula. Information about the present curricula was collected from the official websites of Vietnamese universities and was analysed using thematic coding. The findings revealed that the present curricula of BBE, which is a national curriculum framework, is influenced by the curriculum theories of Bobbit (1918) and Tyler (1949). In addition, the results show the components of the BBE curriculum has been influenced by a Chinese influenced BBE framework. And yet, interestingly, today there is a focus on English language competence, rather than Chinese or Russian language competence. Nevertheless, the key findings reveal some concerns with the present BBE curriculum in Vietnam.

Index Terms—EFL, Bachelor of Business English, curriculum, China, Vietnam, Business English

I. INTRODUCTION

English is considered a powerful foreign language in Vietnam and it has permeated many educational and economic contexts (Nguyen & Le, 2011). It has a great impact on contemporary Vietnam, especially in education and training and in business settings. In the field of business, there has been an increasing demand for English in the workforce due to the presence of increasing number of foreign companies in Vietnam. Therefore, globalisation has seen a great demand for learning English for professional purposes. Thus, the teaching and learning of English for business purposes has become a necessity in contemporary Vietnam.

A lot of research has been conducted into the curriculum of Bachelor of Business English (BBE). In China, where English is also considered a powerful foreign language (EFL) and where Business English (BE) is viewed as a major as it is in Vietnam (Li, 2014b, p. 1872), research into this topic has focused on the indispensable role of needs analysis in curriculum design; the principles for curriculum design of BBE; the common framework of English-based bachelor program in China; general purposes; and general contents of the curriculum.

In Vietnam, very little research has been conducted in the specific area of BBE curriculum. Very little is known about the current curricula of BBE at Vietnamese universities including the curriculum theory that underpins the BBE curriculum, the approaches to curriculum development, the structure of the content and the focus of the curriculum. This project aimed to investigate the current curriculum of Bachelor of Business English (BBE) at all Vietnamese universities that offer the BBE course to gain some understanding about the theory that underpins the BBE curriculum, the content structure and the learning area that is focused on. The investigation found that BBE curricula at Vietnamese universities are influenced by the curriculum theory of Bobbit (1918) and Tyler (1949) and appear to be developed based on the combination of three approaches: Academic or disciplined-based approach, Experiential or learner-centered approach and Social Efficiency approach. The content structure follows the national curriculum framework and has two main components: general subjects taught in Vietnamese and Business English specialisation subjects. In addition, the curriculum of BBE focuses on developing English language knowledge and skills, whereas business English and business knowledge takes up a small proportion in the whole curriculum. This article presents a literature...
review, the methodology, the findings, the discussion, and conclusion of the study.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

**Studying Bachelor of Business English (BBE) in Asia**

Much research has been conducted into curriculum and curriculum development in Western countries and in Asia (Phan, 2015). For BBE curriculum, the topic is well-researched in China, where English is considered a foreign language (EFL) and where BE is viewed as a major as it is in Vietnam (Li, 2014b, p. 1872). As teaching BE as a major in China has developed for nearly 30 years (Zhu, Peng, Zhang, & Yi, 2011, p. 380), and gained important success in terms of employment status, the practice of teaching and learning BE in Chinese universities is very useful for other countries to learn from. This is of particular significance for Vietnam as both countries have many similarities in culture, political systems and in the context where English is considered an EFL. Therefore, BE is viewed as important. The purpose of this review of literature is to examine the topic of BE in China so that comparisons can be made to the curriculum of BBE in Vietnam in order to learn some expertise from China’s universities in their curriculum of BBE. The review of literature about BBE curriculum in China reveals some understandings about the principles for curriculum design of BBE; the common framework of English-based bachelor program in China; general purposes; and general contents of the curriculum.

**China’s influence on the BBE Curriculum**

“Business English is defined by Chinese scholars as a cross-discipline science combining the application of English linguistics and cross-culture communication in the context of business management” (Zhu, Wu, & Guo, 2009, p.30). There are now three perceptions of Business English in China (Li, 2014b, p.1872).

1. Business is a variety of ESP.
2. Business English is a social functional variety of English.
3. Business English is viewed as a major or discipline

Based on the literature review of ESP, Zhu and Liu (2014) offer some theoretical supports to design BE curricula for business contexts in China (pp.72-74). The study proposes five principles of BE curriculum design, including objective, need, scientific, systematic and developmental principles as follows (Zhu & Liu, 2014). Some of the principles are relevant in terms of the contents of the BBE curriculum in Vietnam. The objective principle states that curriculum of BBE should include three types of courses: “English courses on professional skills, English courses on professional knowledge and relevant courses on professional knowledge” (Zhu & Liu, 2014, pp. 72-73). The systematic principle states that knowledge in different areas should be organized systematically. This means that the system of BBE curriculum should have four learning areas: language skills, business knowledge, cross-cultural communication and interpersonal communication in order to develop students’ comprehensive ability in business communication (Zhu & Liu, 2014, pp. 72-73).

According to the framework below in Figure 1, there are three components of the English based Bachelor programme in China. As is evident, the elements of practices at the centre are language education, general education and professional education. Language education refers to the development of English - Chinese bilingual ability and intercultural ability. Professional education involves the building of students’ professional knowledge and skills in business management, economics and marketing. Finally, general education is concerned with the provision of knowledge of humanistic, social and natural sciences, which include the learning areas such as literature, history, culture and philosophy (Yonghou & Chen, 2015, p. 35).

![Figure 1: Common framework of English-based Bachelor programs in China (Wen, 2014, p. 123)](https://example.com/figure1.png)

According to this national benchmark document, the BBE curriculums in China’s universities aim to educate students with knowledge and skills. The knowledge is concerned with knowledge of language, business, culture, humanity and interdisciplinary areas whereas skills refer to the competencies of language use, cross-cultural communication, business practice, critical thinking and innovation, and autonomous learning” (Xie, 2016). Therefore, Xie proposes that there should be emphasis not only on business English language competence but also on other related learning areas such as, the development of abilities to prepare students for their success at work.
Studies investigating the curriculum of BE in China reveal that emphasis is placed on the business communication skills as it is perceived that “effective business communication is the lifeblood of every organization, and a key to success in one’s career” (Yonghou & Chen, 2015). Yonghou and Chen (2015) claim that the model of criteria of business communication competence of a Chinese Business English major consists of four types of core competence: English competence, fundamental business knowledge and skills, excellent intercultural communication competence, and humanistic quality, and three additional skills: scenario analysis competence, technology-mediated communication skills, and non-verbal communication skills (Yonghou & Chen, 2015).

Similarly, Xie (2016) focuses on student’s needs on business communication and perspectives of an effective BBE curriculum and states that BBE curriculum should be adapted to increase the oral communication content, authentic business communication situations, business terms, business knowledge input, company cases and BEC test preparation (Xie, 2016). In addition, a study into the BE curriculum of a prominent Chinese university states that the curriculum should be designed in a way that promotes student’s English ability and focuses on comprehensive business knowledge and social adaptability. Emphasis should also be placed on the comprehensive knowledge of business by incorporating business management courses in the curriculum such as contemporary business, economics, trade theory and practice (Zhu et al., 2009). In addition, for social adaptability, the curriculum must prepare and improve graduates business knowledge as employers expect and students need, a broad business knowledge related to their field of work so they can use English in international business settings (Zhu et al., 2009, p. 32).

After reviewing the studies and the national benchmark documents about the purposes of the BE curriculum of China, we came to illustrate the general purposes of BE curriculum of China’s universities in the following diagram.

Figure 2 (above) illustrates the general purposes of the BBE curriculum in China. As is evident, English competence involves the acquisition of vocabulary, grammar, listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation. Business knowledge and skills refers to business knowledge and business skills. Business knowledge involves the knowledge in economics, business management, finance and international business law. Zhu et al (2009, p.32) and Wang (2010, p.119) proposes that business knowledge should be comprehensive whereas Yonghou and Chen (2015, p.28) claim that it should be only fundamental. Business skills is concerned with writing business correspondence such as business letter, memos, emails, reports, and administrative skills like negotiations and business documents. Intercultural communication competence refers to one’s ability to manage cultural differences and other experiences of stress. Humanistic quality “mainly refers to the spiritual state of a person, and the integration of qualities such as political thought, psychology, cultural, business and physical quality and so on” (Yonghou & Chen, 2015, p. 35).

In addition, for social adaptability, students are advised to broaden their knowledge and language ability by themselves to meet the requirement of recruiters (Yonghou & Chen, 2015, p. 35). The other three skills include scenario...
analysis, technology-mediated communication competence and non-verbal communication competence. Scenario analysis refers to selecting the appropriate method of communication for different situations; Technology-mediated communication competence refers to the ability to use technology for communication such as Internet, Intranet, teleconferencing and so on; Non-verbal communication competence involves “the manner engaged in intercultural communication and the gathering of clues about underlying and values” (Yonghou & Chen, 2015, p. 36)

Li (2014b) suggests that a curriculum for a Business English major should balance "Four Modules", namely English knowledge, business knowledge and skills, cross cultural communicative competence and humanity knowledge. Li (2014b) claims that universities, colleges and Business English training institutions should find out the needs of learners and set the proper proportion of these modules. An accurate need may save both time and efforts of teaching institutions and help achieve the objectives of the course.

The BBE Curriculum in Vietnam

In Vietnam, BE is considered a variety of ESP or a specialisation, a minor within an English major. For BE as a branch of ESP, BE is taught to non-English major undergraduates whereas BE specialisation is taught to Business English undergraduates in 28 Vietnamese universities that offer the Bachelor degree of BE specialisation for four years. Within an English major there are several specializations such as translation and interpreting, methods of teaching English, English language, tourism English and/or business English. As BE is a small branch of English major, students graduating from BE are called Bachelor of English.

Curriculum

According to the Vietnamese government, the curriculum of a Bachelor degree is a plan that consists of the aims, required knowledge, and skills learners acquire after completion, contents, methods of assessment, and level of the course and that ensures the conditions for transfer between levels and other curricula (Vietnam National Assembly, 2012).

This study adopted the definition of curriculum by Glatthorn et al. (2009) who define curriculum as being prescriptive and descriptive. According to them, “curriculum is the plans made for guiding learning in the school, usually represented in retrievable documents of several levels of generality, and the actualization of those plans in the classroom, as experienced by the learners, and as recorded by an observer, those experiences take place in a learning environment that also influences what is learned” (Glatthorn et al., 2009, p. 3).

Curriculum theories

This research has been framed according to the work of two theorists who have had an influence on the curriculum of BBE in Vietnam: Ralph Tyler and Franklin Bobbitt, who are recognized as the most influential curriculum theorists in America (Hayes, 1991). According to Bobbitt (1918), curriculum is a science:

The central theory [of curriculum] is simple. Human life, however varied, consists in the performance of specific activities. Education that prepares for life is one that prepares definitely and adequately for these specific activities. However numerous and diverse they may be for any social class they can be discovered. This requires only that one go out into the world of affairs and discover the particulars of which their affairs consist. These will show the abilities, attitudes, habits, appreciations and forms of knowledge that men need. These will be the objectives of the curriculum. They will be numerous, definite and particularized. The curriculum will then be that series of experiences which children and youth must have by way of obtaining those objectives (Bobbitt, 1918, p. 42)

Under this theory, curriculum planning begins with the identification of objectives which aim at activities that prepare students for different aspects of their life such as occupation, citizenship, family and other social roles (Franklin, n.d.) Influenced by Bobbitt, Tyler’s (1949) Behavioural theory focuses on the identification of behavioural objectives. Since the real purpose of education is not to have the instructor perform certain activities but to bring about significant changes in the students’ pattern of behaviour, it becomes important to recognize that any statements of objectives of the school should be a statement of changes to take place in the students (Tyler, 1949, p. 44).

Accordingly, Tyler proposes that curriculum design is a procedure that consists of the identification of needs, formulation of objectives, selection of content and learning experiences, organization of content and learning experiences, and evaluation (Tyler, 1949).

Research shows that there are four major approaches to curriculum development: the Academic or Discipline-Based Approach; the Social Efficiency Approach; the Experiential Or Learner-Centred Approach, and the Critical Approach (Phan, 2015, p. 2). Each approach reflects different assumptions of knowledge, different views of the way a curriculum is developed, of the role of teachers and learners, and of the purposes of learning.

Regarding the purposes of a curriculum, the Academic or Discipline-Based Approach suggests that goals are pre-identified or set at the beginning of a course with the aim at equipping students with sound knowledge in the field. The Social Efficiency Approach advocates the idea of training students with necessary skills and behaviour to help them perform well in their future jobs. According to the Experiential or Learner-centred approach, a curriculum aims at personal development of students, meeting their needs and interests, and developing their intellectual competence. The critical approach proposes that a curriculum aims at training students to have self-realisation and critical awareness of their own point of view and outlook of the world (Phan, 2015, pp. 33, 38).
Previous research on the Bachelor of Business English (BBE) in Vietnam

In Vietnam, there has been a lack of studies about curriculum for BBE at universities although currently, there are approximately 28 universities that have established English major with emphasis on Business English. Phan, Watters and Lupton (2016) investigated various understandings of curriculum from the perspective of stakeholders such as staff, academics and students at a Vietnamese university. The findings revealed diverse understandings and that curriculum tended to be textbook driven, product focused and teacher focused. Although the results were significant for developing the understanding of a curriculum in general at a Vietnamese university, the study did not focus specifically on the curriculum for BBE at Vietnamese universities.

The most recent and relevant research was an investigation into approaches to curriculum development at a higher education institution (Phan, 2015). The study involved the understandings of the curriculum development at a Vietnamese university from the view of teachers, administrators, and students. Phan mentioned that a curriculum for Bachelor degree consists of two components: general knowledge and professional knowledge. The general knowledge covers six learning areas: social science, humanities, natural science, mathematics, foreign languages and physical education and military training and the professional knowledge involves learning areas of the training program (Phan, 2015, p. 110). Phan also describes that the aims of higher education of Vietnam are to train human workforce to develop their mental competence, talents, ability to do research, to apply technology, to meet the needs of society, and to protect country and to integrate into the world; and to train students to have “political qualities and ethics; knowledge, professional skills, capacity of doing research and applying science and technology corresponsive to training levels; being healthy; being creative and being professionally responsible, being able to adapt to the workplace; being” (Phan, 2015, p. 107). However, the research is concerned with general curriculum of one higher education institution rather than a curriculum for a specific major, or for BBE at all Vietnamese universities.

Thus, it can be seen that although there has been some research around the general topic of curriculum understanding and development of BBE, no specific research has been conducted into the curriculum of BBE in Vietnamese universities.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study sought to investigate the present curricula of BBE degrees in all Vietnam’s universities which offer the course. The study examined the current status quo regarding the theory and approaches behind them, the content structure, and the learning area that is focused on in the curriculum of BBE. Therefore, the research aimed to seek the answers to the following questions for Vietnamese university that offers a BBE:

1. What are the purposes of the current curriculum of Bachelor of Business English (BBE) at Vietnamese universities?
2. What is the content structure of the curriculum of BBE?
3. What learning areas does the curriculum focus on?

A qualitative and interpretivist approach was employed for this project (Bogdan, Biklin, & Biklen, 2007), using document analysis to obtain the information to answer the research questions. The curriculum details such as purposes, content structure and percentage of each learning area was obtained on the websites of Vietnamese universities. In addition, the scope of the research, 28 university curricula, was manageable within the time frame allowed, three months. For ethical consideration, the researchers applied and received all the required ethics approvals for a project which did not involve human participants.

The data used for this project were collected by accessing the official websites of 28 universities in Vietnam that provide a BBE degree. There were 23 out of 28 universities (82%) that provided their curriculum details online. However, among these, some failed to publicise all the required information. The information then was gathered and entered into an Excel table according to themes. The themes consisted of demographic features, purposes of the curriculum, content structure, and the curriculum percentage taken up by each learning area.

The demographic features included the name of universities, the sector of university; public or private, the year and the total number of credits of the whole curriculum. This theme helped to identify each university. The purposes of curriculum consisted of goals and learning outcomes of curriculum. The theme about purposes helped to answer the research question about the purposes of the curriculum, which then revealed the theory and approaches that underpin the curriculum. The content structure comprised learning areas of general subjects taught in Vietnamese, and learning areas of BE subjects; this theme answered the question about the content structure: what are the components or the learning areas of the content structure? Finally, the theme about the percentage of each learning area includes the number of credits of each learning area, curriculum percentage taken up by general subjects, curriculum percentage taken up by BE specialisation subjects, and percentage of each learning area in BE specialisation subjects. The theme about percentage of each learning area helped to identify about which learning area is focused on most in the curriculum of BBE. The information was then grouped, synthesized and tabulated using descriptive statistics.

IV. FINDINGS

Our findings in regard to the BBE curriculum in Vietnam uncovered extensive details about what is offered to students when they study such a degree. In this section we detail information about the BBE. All the goals of the BBE
are pre-determined at the beginning of the course structure and then followed by the content. They are summarised in the Table 1 as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goals</th>
<th>Number of universities</th>
<th>Private</th>
<th>Public</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Knowledge &amp; skills</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Knowledge &amp; skills + Political &amp; moral qualities</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Knowledge &amp; skills + Political &amp; moral qualities + Political &amp; moral qualities + Health</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Knowledge &amp; skills + Political &amp; moral qualities + Health + Ability to do Research</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Knowledge &amp; skills + Political &amp; moral qualities + Health + Responsibility to country</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Knowledge &amp; skill + Ability to do research</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 1, the highest number of universities, 7 out of 19, aim at training students to have knowledge and skills; political and moral qualities; and good health in order to work efficiently in their future job. Four out of 19 universities intend to educate students to acquire necessary knowledge and skills and political and moral qualities whereas three out of 19 universities aim at providing only necessary knowledge and skills for students’ future job. Besides the acquisition of knowledge and skill, political and moral qualities, and the enhancement of good health, the development of ability to do research or to have sense of responsibility to country are the main goals of only three universities. Two other universities aim at students’ acquisition of knowledge and skills and ability to do research.

Overall, all the universities aim at providing students with necessary knowledge and skills to prepare them for a job. Besides, there are 14 universities, about 74%, which focus on knowledge and skills, and moral qualities. About more than 50% of universities aim at training students to have not only knowledge and skills and moral qualities, but also good health. In addition, a small number of universities, only 2, aim at educating students to have responsibility to country or to develop ability to do research. Our research findings indicate learning outcomes are categorized into the expected results about behaviour, learning areas, skills and employment for graduates. These have been tabulated and discussed below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of behaviour</th>
<th>Number of universities</th>
<th>Private</th>
<th>Public</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Professional work Ethics</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Professional work ethics + Civic responsibility/loyal to country</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Professional work ethics + Individual morality</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Professional work ethics + Civic responsibility/loyal to country + Individual morality</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 2 all the graduates are expected to have a sense of professional work ethics such as honesty, responsibility, compliance with a company’s rule, sense of professionalism, professional ethics, confidence, awareness of professional development, openness to differences in multicultural working environment, and collaboration. For most universities, graduates need to have not only professional work ethics but also civic responsibility, loyalty to country and individual morality. However, two universities attend to behaviour for professional work ethics and individual morality only whereas another university target at professional work ethics and civic responsibility or loyalty to country. Overall, a combination of professional work ethics, civic responsibility to country/loyalty to country and individual morality are the most common behaviour that are expected from graduates.
Table 3: Learning Areas of BBE Specialisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning area</th>
<th>Number of universities</th>
<th>Private</th>
<th>Public</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>English language</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>English language + Business</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>English language + Business + Career development knowledge</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
<td><strong>2</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 demonstrates that most universities require graduates to have a good command of English language, usually at the advanced level; a basic level of knowledge in business and in career development so that they can work efficiently in their future job. Several other universities expect students to master English language and business knowledge. Only one university requires graduates to be knowledgeable at English language only. Overall, all the universities specify as compulsory that graduates have to meet an advanced level of English language and a basic level of business knowledge although five universities also need graduates to acquire additional knowledge of career development.

Table 4: Skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of skills</th>
<th>Number of universities</th>
<th>Private</th>
<th>Public</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Language + social skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Administration skills + social skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Language + Administration skills + social skills</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Language + Administration skills + Social skills + ICT</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 highlights that all the universities expect graduates to develop social skills such as negotiation, critical thinking, problem solving, creative thinking and collaboration. In addition, a combination of language, administration and social skills are what graduates need to acquire by the end of the course. By this combination of learning outcomes, graduates are capable of using English fluently, managing their office work well and developing good relationship with other people. Besides, ICT is also compulsory for graduates at half of the universities surveyed. However, learning outcomes about skills vary greatly among the curricula. Further, the content of each type of skill is different among different curricula, especially, one curriculum requiring students to gain Business English Certificate (BEC) as a condition for graduation.

Table 5: Employment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Jobs</th>
<th>Number of universities</th>
<th>Private</th>
<th>Public</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Administration work</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Administration work</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Administration work + Translation &amp; Interpreting + Tourism</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Administration work + Teaching</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Administration work + Translation &amp; Interpreting + Teaching/Doing research</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Administration work + Translation &amp; Interpreting + Tourism + Teaching</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>13</strong></td>
<td><strong>7</strong></td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 shows which type of employment BBE graduates are likely to gain after graduation. All the BBE curricula are intended to train students to be able to work as administrative staff in offices or in businesses where English is used. Most of the universities expect graduates to work as translator or interpreters in business settings, and administrative employees. A small number of universities also prepare for graduates to work as teachers of English, or tour guides. In two universities, graduates are not expected to work as translators or interpreters, but as administrative staff, teachers of English or tour guides only. Overall, the most common employment that graduates are prepared for are administrative staff, translators and interpreters.
Figure 3 demonstrates that the content structure of all the curricula has two components: general subjects taught in Vietnamese and Business English specialisation subjects taught in English. The first component is concerned with offering of general subjects of seven learning areas: Political knowledge, second foreign language, Vietnamese language, Vietnamese culture, Informatics, research methods and Physical education and military training. These learning areas take up 27% of the whole curriculum on average and are usually taught in the first two years of the curriculum.

The second component involves the provision of Business English specialisation subjects taught in English, which account for 73% of the whole curriculum on average. They include subjects across six learning areas: English language, Business English, Business, Career development skills, Supplementary, and Internship.

Table 6 shows that all the universities allocate the biggest number of credits to English language skills; therefore, this is the focus of all the curricula. The acquisition of English language takes 20% to 50% of curriculum time. This is followed by Business English, which accounts for 11% of the whole curriculum on average and is also the second focus of most of the universities. However, knowledge of business at most universities takes up only less than 10% of the whole curriculum whereas only universities in banking sector provide the highest number of credits for business, from 20% - 30%. Three universities offer between 10% to 20% to business knowledge. In addition, career development skills take up less than 10% of number of credits of the whole curriculum at 15 universities whereas it occupies from 10% to 20% at only five universities. Internship and supplementary knowledge occupy the least number of credits of the whole curriculum at all the universities surveyed. Overall, English language takes up the highest percentage of the whole curriculum, 35%, followed by Business English, which accounts for 11% on average. Business knowledge comes third, about 9% on average, and career development and internship occupy the lowest percentage of the whole curriculum.

V. DISCUSSION

The findings of this study reveal some important understandings about different aspects of the curriculum of BBE at
Vietnamese universities: the purposes of BBE curriculum of Vietnam, the content structure, and the curriculum percentage taken up by each learning area.

**Theoretical Underpinnings and Purposes of BBE curriculum of Vietnamese universities**

The purpose of all the curricula investigated indicate that the curriculum of BBE is influenced by Curriculum Theory of Bobbitt (1918), of Tyler (1949), and by a combination of three approaches to curriculum design: the Academic or discipline-based approach, the Experiential or Learner-centred Approach, and the Social efficiency approach. In addition, the curriculum follows the Higher Education Law 2012 of Vietnam. In comparison with the purposes stated in the national benchmark documents in the curricula of many universities in China, and the Vietnamese curriculum, there are several similarities and differences between China and Vietnam. Moreover, the findings about the purposes of curriculum show a lack of uniformity among different curricula of BBE in Vietnam.

First, the results about the purposes show that all the curricula’s goals and learning outcomes are pre-identified at the beginning of the BBE course and aim to prepare students for their life and their future jobs. The pre-specification of purposes with the aims of providing students with knowledge of the field presents itself as the evidence of the academic or discipline-based approach, which proposes that goals are set at the beginning of a course and are intended to provide students with sound knowledge in the field. In addition, the aim of preparing students for life and future job indicates the evidence of the Social efficiency approach, according to which, students are trained with necessary skills and behaviour to help them perform well in their future jobs (Phan, 2015, pp. 33, 38). The combination of these two features together: the pre-specification of purposes and the aims of preparing students for their life and future job reflects the influence of curriculum theory of Bobbitt: *Curriculum as a Science* (Bobbitt, 1918, p. 42), which states a curriculum planning begins with the identification of objectives that aim at activities of preparing students for different aspects of their life such as occupation, citizenship, family and other social roles (Franklin, n.d.). Further, as curricula are intended to develop students’ “intellectual abilities” and “thinking process”, it appears that the curriculum is designed based on *The experiential or learner-centred approach*, which focuses on personal development of students, meeting their needs and interests, and developing their intellectual competence (Phan, 2015, pp. 33, 38). Additionally, the purposes of the curriculum aim to develop students’ behaviour such as individual morality, professional work ethics, civic responsibility, and loyalty to country. This feature implies that the aim of education is “bring about significant changes in the students’ pattern of behaviour”, an evidence of curriculum theory Behavioural by Tyler (1949) (Tyler, 1949, p.44).

Secondly, the identification of purposes of the curriculum follows the Higher Education Law of Vietnam 2012 as they include the knowledge and skills, political and moral qualities, good health, ability to do research and responsibility to country. The purposes described in the curriculum are very closely related to the aims of higher education stipulated by the MoET (Phan, 2015, p. 107). Thirdly, in comparison with the purposes of curriculum of BBE in China, there are many similarities and some differences. To compare the purposes of BBE curriculum stated in the national benchmark document, the aims of Vietnamese BBE curriculum are almost the same as those of the Chinese curriculum as they both aim at training students with knowledge and skills. This knowledge includes the language, business, culture and humanity and inter-disciplinary areas whereas the skills refer to language competence, business skills, self-study or autonomous learning and critical thinking or social skills (Xie, 2016). The only difference is that the Chinese curriculum aims to provide cross-cultural communication, which does not appear to be found in most of the Vietnamese curricula. The knowledge and skills in cross-cultural communication is very important as it prepares students for working in the foreign companies or multi-national companies, where English is used and where BBE graduates are expected to work. Therefore, the lack of cross-cultural communication skill in Vietnam’s BBE curriculum is a concern that needs to be considered.

To compare the BBE curriculum of China with that of Vietnam in practice, the curricula of both countries are aimed at developing students’ English competence, business knowledge and skills and humanistic qualities such as political and moral qualities. However, Vietnam’s curriculum does not aim to prepare students for BEC test or to develop students’ inter-cultural communication competence; social adaptability; scenario analysis, technology-mediated competence and non-verbal competence. Among these differences, the purpose of developing students’ social adaptability as suggested by China’s curriculum, is to raise students’ awareness of broadening their comprehensive business knowledge and their English competence in business context (Yonghou & Chen, 2015, p. 35). This suggestion is very critical for graduates’ employability and professional development as the knowledge and skills they learn at university are never sufficient for the changing work environment.

Finally, concerning the purposes of all the curricula of BBE at Vietnamese universities, it is obvious that the goals and learning outcomes vary among different universities, which may lead to different ways of selecting and organising contents for the curriculum. Therefore, it is hard for students transfer from one university to another in the middle of the course. In addition, it may lead to different qualities of training and different qualifications of graduates of the same BBE. Therefore, there is lack of uniformity in the goals and learning outcomes of all the curricula of BBE in Vietnam.

**The content structure of BBE curriculum in Vietnam universities**

The content structure of BBE curriculum of Vietnam follows the national curriculum framework of MoET and it appears similar to China’s common curriculum framework of English-based Bachelor program. This has revealed differences in level of business English competence, level of business knowledge and the offering of cross-cultural
According to the national curriculum framework, a curriculum for Bachelor degree consists of two components: general knowledge and professional knowledge (Phan, 2015, p. 110). The contents of current BBE curriculum at Vietnam’s universities are selected and organised according to the national curriculum framework of MoET. Therefore, it can be argued that although the Higher Education Law approved in 2012 allows higher education institutions the autonomy in developing, evaluating and implementing their own curriculum (Phan, 2015, pp. 105–106), the Vietnamese universities are now still following closely the model framework proposed by MoET. It may be explained that despite the autonomy given to institutions, MoET still “regulates the minimum knowledge, and learners' competencies required after graduating for each training level; the process of developing, evaluating, and implementing a higher education curriculum...; regulates required units/subjects” (Phan, 2015, p. 106).

In comparison with China’s common curriculum framework of English-based Bachelor program (Wen, 2014, p. 123), it appears that both Vietnam’s and China’s curriculum of BBE consist of subjects for general, language and professional education. However, the proportion for each type learning area in the whole curriculum of Vietnam as well as the depth or comprehensiveness of knowledge cannot be identified. Vietnam’s curriculum also includes general subjects in humanity and social sciences, natural sciences such as literature and culture. Concerning the professional education, like China’s curriculum, both the Chinese and Vietnamese curricula comprise professional knowledge and skills in business management, economics and marketing. In the language education, Vietnam’s curriculum aims to develop student’s language ability in the native language, English and another foreign language like Chinese, Japanese or French while China’s curriculum comprises subjects to develop students’ competence in Chinese and English through the bilingual teaching mode. However, the only difference is that it seems Vietnam’s curriculum does not include the subjects for developing students’ intercultural ability like China’s.

One of the factors that contribute to the success of BBE Curriculum is claimed to be the students’ competence in English proficiency and profound business knowledge (Zhu et al., 2009, p. 32). According to Zhu et al. (2009), the curriculum should focus on two components to develop students’ capacity in English proficiency and knowledge of a wide range of areas related to business, and cross – cultural communication. Vietnam’s curriculum of BBE has two components: English knowledge and knowledge in business. However, English competence is developed mostly separately from the business knowledge. According to Li (2014b) a BBE curriculum should balance the "Four Modules": namely English knowledge, Business Knowledge and Skills, Cross Cultural Communicative Competence and Humanity Knowledge. Therefore, it can be seen from the content structure of Vietnamese curriculum that it does not include the module of developing Cross-Cultural Communicative Competence. Thus, students may not have cross-cultural communication skills, which is really important for their acquisition of business communication competence, a critical part of their BE major skills.

**Curriculum percentage taken by each learning area of BBE specialisation subjects**

Results about the percentage of each learning area of BE specialisation subjects reveal the focus on English language, the small proportion of Business English and Business knowledge and the difference among Vietnam’s universities in their curriculum. The results indicate that all the curricula of BBE at Vietnamese universities focus on the English language and skills whereas Business-related knowledge such as BE and business subjects are considered less important as they take a smaller percentage, 11% and 9% respectively. Noticeably, at most universities, English is taught mainly separately from business contexts. Therefore, it can be argued that while graduates possibly gain proficiency in English, which is mainly general English, their business knowledge and skills may be superficial or limited.

According to the findings about the causes of success of China’s BBE curriculum, one reason that enables graduates to be welcomed and accepted by well-known employers is their English competence and comprehensive knowledge about business and cross-cultural communication (Zhu et al., 2009, pp. 31-32). Their English competence is acquired through the teaching of business knowledge in both Chinese and English; therefore, their English is quite real and practical in social, economic situations. Moreover, for the comprehensive knowledge, students are taught many business subjects and cross-cultural communication subjects such as Economics, International Business Law, Contemporary Business, Trade Theory and Practice, Cross-cultural communication, etc. Accordingly Chinese graduates can gain English competence and sound comprehensive knowledge, which meet the requirements of recruiters (Zhu et al., 2009, pp. 31-32).

To compare with graduates of BBE at Vietnamese universities, who acquire mainly general English competence and limited business knowledge, employability may be an issue for them. Therefore, the curriculum percentage taken up by Business English and Business knowledge may be a concern that needs to be considered for curriculum design. Finally, different universities allocate different amount of time to each learning area. Thus, there is a lack of uniformity among universities in the curriculum percentage for each learning area. In summary, the results about the percentage of each learning area of BE specialisation subjects indicate that all the curricula of BBE at Vietnamese universities focus on English language and skills whereas Business English and Business knowledge are considered less important, which may be a concern in terms of employability. In addition, there is lack of uniformity among Vietnam’s universities in the time allocated to different learning areas in their curriculum.

**VI. Conclusion**
This investigation into the current BBE curriculum at Vietnam’s universities has provided important understandings about the purposes of the curriculum, the content structure and the curriculum percentage taken up by each learning area. The findings about the purposes of the curriculum show that the current curriculum of BBE aims at training students to have knowledge and skills; political and moral qualities; and health to enable them to be capable at work. Graduates are required to demonstrate appropriate behaviours, knowledge, skills, and to be capable for certain jobs. The findings imply that there is evidence in the current curriculum which indicates the influence of the curriculum theory of Bobbitt (1918), and Tyler (1949) and the combination of three approaches: the Academic or discipline-based approach, the Experiential or the Learner-centred approach and the Social efficiency approach. The curricula’s purposes appear to follow the Higher education law of Vietnam approved in 2012 and there seem to be similarities in the purposes of China’s curriculum and Vietnam’s curriculum except only one difference in the cross-cultural communication according to the national benchmark documents. Further, in comparison with China’s curricula, both curricula aim to develop students’ English competence, business knowledge and skills, and humanistic qualities. However, Vietnam’s curriculum does not include BEC test preparation; inter-cultural communication competence and social adaptability.

This research has highlighted how the contents of BBE curriculum are organised according to the national curriculum framework of MoET and its similarity to China’s common curriculum framework of English-based bachelor program. It has also identified that by focusing on English language and skills rather than Business English and Business knowledge may pose an issue of employability for Vietnamese graduates, as does the lack of curriculum uniformity among Vietnamese universities. This project is very significant as it could have a great impact on the teaching practice of BBE. English in Vietnam, on BBE curriculum design and on research on BBE curriculum. The investigation reveals some concerns that could be considered to improve the existing BBE curriculum such as the lack of cross-cultural communication, the lack of focus on business knowledge, and the lack of uniformity of all the curriculum of BBE in Vietnam. Therefore, the findings of this research could pave the way for further research on curriculum of BBE in the future. This could contribute to a further understanding of the present curriculum and contribute to the improvement of teaching BBE in Vietnam and in other countries where English is an EFL.

APPENDIX: GLOSSARY

- **BBE:** Business English (which can include: English for management, English for marketing, English for finance and banking, English for accounting, English for commerce, English for import-export.)
- **BEC:** Business English Certificate
- **BBE:** Bachelor of Business English
- **Business subjects:** Management, Marketing, Finance and Banking, Accounting, Foreign trade, etc
- **Career Development skills:** Translation and Interpreting, Administration skills, Presentation skill
- **English language skills:** Reading, Writing, Speaking, Listening, Grammar, Pronunciation, British and American literature, British and American culture, linguistics
- **ESP:** English for Specific Purposes
- **MoET:** Ministry of Education and Training of Vietnam
- **Political knowledge:** Fundamentals of Marxism & Leninism; Revolution Policy of Vietnam Communist Party, and Ho Chi Minh's ideology
- **Second foreign language:** Chinese, Japanese, or French
- **Supplementary knowledge:** report writing, introduction to teaching, Editing skills, technology in project management, online journalism, TOEFL skills, business knowledge, etc.

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Effects of Adding Subtitles to Video via Apps on Developing EFL Students’ Listening Comprehension

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Abstract—It is unclear if using videos and education apps in learning adds additional value to students’ listening comprehension. This study assesses the impact of adding text to videos on English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners’ listening comprehension. The participants were 76 prep college EFL students from Taibah University, divided into two groups. The semi-experimental measure was employed to compare the experimental group and the control group. The experimental group watched an English learning video and then wrote text subtitles relating to the video using apps, and later took a listening test to evaluate their ability in acquiring information through the videos. The control group watched videos during live lectures but did not add subtitles on the content they viewed. A paired samples t-test was used to assess the extent of listening comprehension achievement and posttest results were compared. Results revealed statistically significant increases in posttest listening comprehension scores. The result indicated superior performance and a significant positive impact through teaching/learning via video watching and adding text apps.

Index Terms—video subtitles, listening comprehension, learning apps, EFL learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Keeping in line with requirements of the 21st century, educational institutions have widely adopted modern technology. However, the use of technology has become very competitive among universities, and there is a growing demand for quality modern technology. Such technology plays a major role in raising the level of education from excellent to innovative. At present, the teaching/learning of languages has shifted from traditional literacy practices to integrations with technology. This shift comes with an aim to engage learners to use various ways to practice the new language while simultaneously increasing their attention spans and attraction for the language.

In agreement, Roblyer (2015, p. 2) states that, “As a result of the massive explosion in online learning, more creative and engaging methods must be employed to transition students into a different type of classroom.”

Listening comprehension is one of the most basic skills required in order to develop other skills for any language, and is thus regarded as a significant priority skill in language pedagogy. Listening comprehension is not only about hearing what is being said, but also involves the ability to understand and make sense of the spoken language. It involves recognising the second language sound patterns and their variations, specifically, phonemes, stress, rhythm, intonation and tone, in addition to understanding the meaning of individual words and understanding the syntax of sentences in which they are presented (Wagner, 2010). Rapid advances in modern technology have made the task of learning new languages easier, and various technologies have been developed as supplementary materials to support learners, greatly benefitting the educational process (Faramarzi et al., 2019). Instructors now regularly use technologies such as videos as supplementary tools to enhance students’ listening comprehension.

Listening comprehension is not an easy task for EFL learners; they cannot translate word-by-word as they listen to EFL material. As aforementioned, listening comprehension requires complicated learning processes such as a deeper understanding of the meaning. Teachers should guide students to understand actual speech so that students learn to deal with genuine conversations and real-life listening situations. Consequently, to develop practical listening skills, it is crucial to choose practical learning materials in English listening courses. Video resources can be used as an alternative method for teaching practical listening since they can contain various words and expressions used by English speakers in daily parlance. Hasan, et al. (2019) argued that the employment of videos is preferable to audio-only instruction in teaching English because of the advantage of multiple input modalities. That is, videos can enhance learning and comprehension by attracting learners’ attention to aural and visual inputs.

The use of videos in classrooms has gradually become essential in varied and motivating instructional occasions for instructors, addressing students’ needs for interactive and engaging lessons (Rudd, 2014). The use of online videos in instruction has proved to be logically and increasingly imperative, especially in terms of diverse and stimulating instructive avenues for teachers of evolving classrooms.

The video-sharing platform YouTube allows teachers to publish recorded lectures and lessons online. According to Brünner (2013), YouTube attracts more than 1 billion monthly visitors and over 6 billion hours of video content is watched each month. That amounts to an hour of content for each individual on the planet, and is one and a half times...
more as compared to a year ago, as indicated by YouTube’s own data. It is thus the world’s largest video gateway, the second largest video search engine, accessible in 61 languages, and loaded with rich, multicultural content on various topics. Brook (2011) states that YouTube has emerged as a tool that encourages language learning and teaching, as well as confidence building, in addition to being an authentic source for developing student-centred tasks and encouraging student engagement.

Videos are commonly used in classrooms and have become essential sources to facilitate effective language learning and teaching. Educators have changed their original stance on YouTube and now view it as a rich source of educational material (Britisch, 2009; Warschauer & Grimes, 2007).

Engaging students with diverse exercises relating to videos can enhance and enrich academic programs. However, despite its numerous advantages, the use of videos in classrooms has been found to be insufficient. It is not enough for students to simply watch video content—they should also be engaged by effective learning activities and develop higher thinking skills, and must thus be required to speak or write about what they have viewed. Students need to be good listeners, and active and reactive viewers simultaneously. They must practice skills such as listening, comprehending, and critiquing; listening and reacting; and taking and giving knowledge. Videos are a great support for strategies and techniques to foster recognition and listening comprehension. According to Rokni & Ataee (2014, p. 716), “When students watch videos in a foreign language, the contribution of comprehending and connecting the foreign language and its meaning is limited if they cannot understand what they have heard.”

Due to the aforementioned critical requirements of videos in classrooms, it is of utmost importance for EFL instructors and curriculum designers and developers to include engagement tasks incorporating mobile learning that matches the needs and interests of EFL learners. However, direct reaction and responses of EFL students regarding videos have rarely been considered (Ding, 2018).

Further, most EFL students prefer watching videos with subtitles in order to support comprehension and understand new vocabularies through the beneficial visual as compared to audio components. Parks (1994, p. 2) mentions that “Students who use captioned materials show significant improvement in reading comprehension, listening comprehension, vocabulary acquisition, word recognition, decoding skills, and overall motivation to read.”

To examine this observation, this study aims to deliver an experimental programme to investigate the effect of adding text to video on EFL students’ listening comprehension using a sample of prep college students. This empirical study seeks to extend the current body of literature to enhance listening comprehension. It uses video captions and subtitles in classrooms via mobile learning apps (which allow the addition of text to video).

The Literature Review
Rokni & Ataee (2014, p. 716) define subtitles as “printed translation or textual versions of dialogues in films and television programs that you can read at the bottom of the screen when you are watching a foreign film”. Subtitles help learners better understand movies by enabling correlations between audio, visual, and provided text. Zanon (2006) adds that movies with subtitles are not only used to learn about other cultures, but can also be used in foreign language education.

Videos are authentic materials for listening comprehension. Lund (1990) forms a scientific categorization of undertakings involving listening abilities and finds that task difficulty can vary while considering authentic texts over various dimensions of second-language capability. Several studies state the significance of using authentic materials for EFL listening comprehension and confirm that videos serve as great source materials for learning how to listen (Progosh, 1996; Wilberschied & Berman, 2004; Woottipong, 2014). Authentic materials refer to real materials prepared for native speakers of English, and used by teachers in classrooms for several purposes. Using authentic materials can stimulate students’ interest and inspire them to learn more language aspects successfully in real situations. EFL teachers must provide authentic listening materials based on learners’ needs, abilities, and learning goals. Watching English videos with subtitles can be a quick, enriching, and fun way to enhance EFL listening comprehension and is thus considered an aural, visual, and textual input in the English language learning environment (Zanon, 2006).

Studies have found various beneficial impacts of video-related stimuli in learning and instruction, such as shared culture; development of reading, teaching, and lecture material to enable learners’ knowledge; increased student understanding and participation; diversity of learning strategies; enhanced motivation and enthusiasm; and aided instructor success (CPB, 2004).

In fact, many studies find that using mobile learning in EFL classrooms motivates students to learn new languages (Connolly, Stansfield, & Hainey, 2011; Ebrahizadeh & Alavi, 2017; Hwang, Huang, Shadiev, Wu, & Chen, 2014).

Yeh (2018) indicates that different aspects of videos develop students’ abilities and skills. He examined students’ perceived assistance regarding the production of multimodal video. In his study, students were trained to use a wide variety of interactive media tools to encourage English language learning. Many students found that making videos enhanced their multiliteracy abilities to higher degrees and extended their awareness of the interaction between distinctive modes of semiotic resources for developing meaning. The study recommends that language teachers must provide students with opportunities to create multimodal videos.

It is debatable whether adding captions to videos increases comprehension. Some believe that subtitles in videos can be a source of annoyance as learners must simultaneously read and listen, while others indicate that providing subtitles to video enhances positive support, reducing learners’ anxiety and helping them prepare to watch videos unsupported by
text in the long run (Vanderplank, 1988). A subtitled video proves its impact by providing a triple linking for learners between image, EFL sound, and text. This type of linking usually inspires strong associations for using and retaining language (Zanon, 2006).

Studies have shown that the use of videos with subtitles improves listening comprehension in specific ways. Rokni & Ataee (2014) studied the impact of using video subtitles in developing listening comprehension for EFL students at Golestan University. A total of 45 participants were divided into two groups—one group watched an English movie with subtitles, while the other group watched the same movie without any subtitles. Posttest results revealed that the group that watched the subtitled version performed better at listening comprehension.

In another study, Winke, Gass, & Syodorenko (2010) examined the effects of captioning during video-based listening activities. Students of various ethnicities whose first languages were either Arabic, Chinese, Spanish, or Russian, watched three short videos with and without captioning. They were then interviewed about feedback on the videos (captioned and non-captioned). Results showed that captioning was more effective, and interview data indicated that participants who used captions had improved attention spans. Captioning further helped students progress their processing abilities, reinforced earlier knowledge, and supported language learning.

Kim (2015) explores the effect of using authentic video resources on improving listening comprehension. A sample of 86 students from a Korean university were classified into three groups based on exam results: 29 students each were placed in the low and intermediate groups, while 28 students were assigned to the advanced group. Each group studied the same lessons using authentic video materials. All groups were taught for 10 sessions over three weeks. The results indicated that in the intermediate and advanced groups, students’ listening skills improved significantly after learning with videos, while the low proficiency group had the lowest scores. Many positive perceptions toward using videos were revealed by students.

Video captioning is frequently used in EFL classrooms due to ease of access to authentic videos. It is also helpful in improving learners’ listening capacities. By examining previous studies to determine how learners processed videos, Yeldham (2018) investigated whether learners were more inclined to read captions or listen to speeches. It was found that less-proficient students were more inclined to read texts than listen to them, while good learners usually used a wider range of cues (captions, speech, and visuals).

In summation of the aforementioned studies, it is evident that the use of videos with subtitles is increasing specifically in order to develop students’ listening comprehension, and generally supports learning about new cultures and foreign languages. Videos serve as authentic source materials and are mostly used to enhance listening and reading skills, learn culture, stimulate learning and instruction, and listen to native speakers. On the other hand, mobile learning in EFL classrooms was also found to motivate students learning. Moreover, a subtitled video evinces its impact due to combining visuals, sound, and text. Watching videos also enhances listening comprehension, attention spans, and processing abilities, in addition to reinforcing earlier knowledge and supporting language learning. This study seeks empirical evidence and investigates the effect of adding text to video by educational apps on prep college EFL students’ listening comprehension. It also aims to develop listening comprehension by using video captions and subtitles in EFL classrooms via the use of mobile learning apps (to add text to video). The task of the student to add video subtitle by encoding the listening materials using. The apps provide features to allowed students to transmit and display the coloured subtitle with listening data provided.

II. Method

Research design used the semi-experimental method which "deals with experiments where, for a variety of reasons, you do not have full control over the allocation of participants to experimental conditions as is required in true experiments" (Smith, Breakwell & Wright, 2012, p.76). Pre and post-test were given to the two groups experimental and a control before and after the experiment. Then results are compared based on the sample performance.

The overall aim of this experimental study is to explore how students add text to digital videos by implementing apps and to develop listening comprehension skills of prep college EFL students. The research question guiding the experimental method is: To what extent does the implementation of adding subtitles to video by EFL students using
mobile learning impact their listening comprehension? In order to answer this question, the following hypothesis was developed:

Hypothesis: There will be no statistically significant differences in the average mean score on the listening comprehension achievement test between students who will be taught listening comprehension while being asked to add text to digital video via apps and those who will be taught using videos without having to add text to digital video in the posttest.

The current experimental study tests the effect of using video on the development of students’ listening comprehension by adding captions via apps. The independent variable is the act of adding text to the video, while the listening comprehension reaction is the dependent variable. Therefore, a change in the independent variable (using video) directly causes a change in the dependent variable (listening comprehension).

Implementing apps

The experimental group uses some apps such as Wondershare, Kapwing, VeedAndrovid, and Videoshow. Most of them have similar features for example Wondershare Software (H.K.) Co., Ltd. Video Players & Editors which the most common used among students. It has a powerful video editor application, makes video with music and effects, it helps users make funny videos and relive memories anywhere. Students can create amazing video and they could be easily shared on Youtube, Instagram, Facebook, WhatsApp etc. The apps have several features such as mix photo & video, import photo and video clips, preview clips in real-time, supports imports from social networking like Facebook and Instagram, add music from FilmoraGo’s library or use music from own device.

Regarding the study aim, the app can add text & titles, create beautiful animated messages with the help of supported text & titles library, and students can customize the colour, size and position. Most of apps supported with international language such as English, German, Italian, Turkish, Japanese, Korean, Russian, Portuguese, Spanish, French, Nederland, Arabic, and Chinese.

Participants

The research population consisted of 76 female preparatory-year students at Taibah University in Al Madinah al Munawwarah in the 2019 academic year. The participants aged 19-20 years, native speakers of Arabic, were considered a sample representative of the target population. At Taibah University, listening is taught as a required skill to enhance students’ English proficiency and prepare them for university programmes. The sample was chosen as a convenience sample, i.e., participants were selected from the target population based on their accessibility or convenience to the researcher (Ross, 1978). The groups in this study were selected as per the researcher’s convenience to control the experiment. Groups chosen by convenience sampling are subject to self-selection, administrative decisions, the class duration, number of years of exposure to the language, and other factors influence (Farrokh & Mahmoudi-Hamidabad, 2012). However, the sample represents only female students, as the researcher is a female instructor and had no access to the male population owing to Saudi Arabia’s education system. Prior to prep year, students were taught EFL for a total of six years in general education. The sample are in the same level regarding the results of Oxford Placement Test which helps place students into the appropriate level in English class, and they are taught “a Q: Skills for Success \ level 2” published by Oxford 2nd Special edition.

Procedures

To achieve the study’s goal, 76 participants were assigned into two groups, with 38 in the experimental group and 38 in the control group. Procedures required to be performed by participants of each group are marked by a tick in the list in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. PROCEDURES PERFORMED BY PARTICIPANTS IN BOTH GROUPS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Procedure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Ask students to read the listening comprehension questions prepared by teacher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Listen carefully as they watch the video twice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. After listening, write the textual transcript of the video on a piece of paper (see Appendix 1).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Arrange the text according to slides as shown in the video.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Add subtitles using any mobile app (see Appendix 2).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Writing down subtitles on a blank paper. (see Appendix1).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Answer questions about the video to evaluate listening comprehension.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. All students must answer the questions in written form.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Both groups watched the same video about ‘First Impressions’, listen carefully to the video provided, had the same instructor, and were administered the same test. Only the control group was asked to write down the textual transcript of the video on a piece of paper (see Appendix 1), whereas, the experimental group were install apps for adding text to the video such as Wondershare, Kapwing, VeedAndrovid, and Videoshow, and add text to digital videos by using the apps (see Appendix 2). To add a subtitled video, learners should put a selected video clip into apps such as “Kapwing Subtitler”, add and adjust subtitles in English, go line by line to translate each subtitle, export the video to share with
The instruments

The instrument used to conduct the study is an achievement test. The instrument was piloted to a group of students in order to find out the validity of the content. The research was administered to two classes of female preparatory-year students at X University in Al Madinah al Munawwarah in the 2019 academic year.

1. Pretest achievement test

All participants have admitted the Oxford Listening Placement Test done by the prep year which helps place students into the appropriate level class for a language course. Both groups are from the advanced level base on the results of the placement test. This result indicates that the participants had the same background about the listening comprehension before starting the experiment. This also state that both groups had similar scores in the pretest. Therefore, the academic progress in the achievements of the learners in the field of listening comprehension could be caused by the method employed in teaching.

2. Posttest

The researcher developed an achievement test based on the instructional material of video about ‘First Impressions’. The test was prepared by the researcher to achieve the following objectives: (1) measuring the effectiveness of using the video and add caption by using apps on enhancing female students listening comprehension compared to the traditional methods and (2) providing data about the students’ listening comprehension before and after the study.

The listening comprehension test was administered immediately after the treatment to detect differences between both groups. The posttest was classified into two parts, as follows:

The first part consisted of ten multiple choice questions to measure students’ ability to listen with comprehension.

The second part consisted of a test of knowledge wherein a fill in the blanks exercise required learners to replace missing words after watching and listening to the video.

The posttest content of the listening comprehension part was validated by English language instructors. The validating committee, comprising three Perhaps PhD candidates of English curricula and instruction at the English centre, were asked to validate the content of the test regarding listening comprehension, relevance of questions to the video, the video’s suitability to the research objectives, order and arrangement of questions, and suitability of the time allotted to the test. Students’ remarks and suggestions were taken into consideration in the listening posttest, which consisted of 20 multiple-choice questions; students were asked to fill in the blanks by selecting appropriate words and phrases. Each item represented one point.

Data Analysis

To analyse data obtained from both groups as a whole (n=76), the researcher used Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software (version 20). Descriptive statistics—frequency, mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum score—were calculated for each item. After the posttest was administered to both groups, data were compiled, organised, and analysed by means of an independent sample t-test, which allowed a comparison between the control and experimental groups (38 participants each) to determine overall achievement in listening comprehension. For statistical analysis, a significance level of 0.05 was set, and the listening comprehension achievement test data were analysed.

III. Results

The study asked one main research question which is, “To what extent does the implementation of adding subtitles to videos by EFL students using mobile learning affect their listening comprehension?” and it aimed to test the hypothesis: There will be no statistically significant difference in the average mean score on the listening comprehension achievement test between students who will be taught listening comprehension using add text to digital video via apps and those who will be taught listening comprehension using only the video without requesting to add text to digital video in the posttest.

The means and standard deviations of the experimental and control groups for students on the posttest were calculated as shown in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>11.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>17.42</td>
<td>5.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows descriptive statistics obtained from the data. The score of the experimental group (M=17.42, SD=5.21) is significantly higher than the score of the control group (M=11.00, SD= 3.00). Moreover, the result of a t-test used to compare differences between the two groups in posttest is also indicated in Table 2.
students with authentic videos to interact with real-life listening situations. It is necessary to develop practical listening skills that could help EFL learners improve not only listening comprehension but also their English language proficiency by watching target language video material with caption to acquire the vocabulary. This fact leads language teachers and learners' attention, decrease anxiety, check learners' understanding of what was heard, and increase motivation as indicated by Azizi & Aziz (2020), Zanon (2006), Woottipong (2014), and Yeldham (2018). This study proved that captioned video is more beneficial than non-captioned video as Winke et al. (2010), Burger (2013), and Yeldham (2018). This study goes a step further by providing generous opportunities to students. It strengthens their listening comprehension abilities by adding subtitles to the video and produce digital language learning materials.

The current study proves subtitling a video into EFL is a great way for students to practice their listening comprehension and enhance sentence building skills. Adding text to a video can be a simple but influential tool for producing impactful multimedia listening materials. While adding a text to a video, learners are capable to break down a clip, pause to consider the meaning and work to translate each phrase in a way that matches the image and makes sense.

The creative freedom and autonomy to pick a video can be very helpful for keeping students excited and engaged with the material they are working on. Captioned videos assist learners to overall comprehension of the videos. Moreover, using this method encouraged students to listen with rapt attention, notice precise sounds, recognize unfamiliar words, and observe differences in usage. Further, listeners can focus on meaning and listen for comprehension, become more confident at interpretations, and increase idea development, as well as learning correct pronunciation and spelling. The social entity of this empirical study is that students transform from listeners to responders by employing creativity, and keeping them exited and engaged with the digital listening materials they are working in. Learning via subtitles aims to engage students in dynamic way. When students adding subtitles to the material, they can create a new product. (Sokoli, 2006).

This study shed the light on the elements of technology and performing in a subtitles video material is a valuable tool that could help EFL learners improve not only Listening comprehension but also their English language proficiency by watching target language video material with caption to acquire the vocabulary. This fact leads language teachers and students to take benefit of the potential advantage gained from this study to help them achieve the bilingual proficiency in all students. Azizi & Aziz (2020).

Undoubtedly, further research is needed in this area to develop a better understanding of this complex process and fully investigate the potential benefits that can be harnessed in terms of language learning by instructing students to add subtitles to videos via apps, especially to develop all three language skills (vocabulary, spelling, and grammar) rather than focusing solely on listening comprehension.

### IV. Discussion

The current study investigated the effect of adding subtitles to videos via apps on EFL students’ listening comprehension. The results showed the effectiveness of adding text to videos on increasing EFL listening comprehension ability of students, and it helps learners to acquire the contents more than no subtitle (Burger, 2013). While most studies prove the impact of videos and discuss advantages of subtitles such as stimulus learning, increase learners’ attention, decrease anxiety, check learners’ understanding of what was heard, and increase motivation as indicated by Azizi & Aziz (2020), Zanon (2006), Woottipong (2014), and Yeldham (2018). Additional studies proved captioned video is more beneficial than non-captioned video as Winke et al. (2010), Burger (2013), and Yeldham (2018). This study goes a step further by providing generous opportunities to students. In terms of using online video and strengthening their listening comprehension abilities by adding subtitles to the video and produce digital language learning materials.

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### V. Conclusion

There is no doubt that using video technology in EFL classrooms helps learners and gives them opportunities to become capable in understanding EFL inputs. The empirical investigation approach of current study has proven that the act of allowing students to create captions for videos enables them to successfully answer teachers’ questions. Video and learning app tasks used in EFL classrooms can thus be a rich resource to create advanced-level EFL outputs. However, listening comprehension does not appear to improve by providing word-by-word versions, but rather involves a deeper cognition of pronunciation, spelling, and meaning as the experimental group had. Teachers should provide students with authentic videos to interact with real-life listening situations. It is necessary to develop practical listening materials.
comprehension activities to engage students. Video inputs and mobile apps are considered good sources and form an alternate pedagogy for teaching practical listening. Such inputs enrich students’ vocabulary and expressions used in everyday language. This study agrees with the findings of Yeh (2018, p. 32; p. 34), who states that “a majority of students indicated positive effects of writing scripts on their English learning—particularly on vocabulary, speaking, and translation and writing,” and “language teachers should not confine their teaching activities to traditional literacy (mostly in the form of written language). Instead, they could create more opportunities for students to become involved in the creation of multimodal artefacts such as digital videos.” (p. 34).

To conclude, pedagogical implications for teachers’ practices can be drawn based on this study’s results. Videos can facilitate learning and listening comprehension by attracting learners’ consideration to aural and visual inputs, and at the same time, give them a chance at creativity and distinguished output.

Future studies should investigate students’ and teachers’ perceptions about the use of subtitles to facilitate the listening comprehension process. Moreover, related fields deserve in-depth investigations, especially on topics such as comprehending video texts, the role of cultural influences, and students’ background knowledge.

APPENDIX 1. EXAMPLES OF CONTROL GROUP STUDENTS’ WRITTEN TRANSCRIPTS AFTER WATCHING THE VIDEO

APPENDIX 2. EXAMPLES OF DIFFERENT APPS USED TO ADD TEXT TO VIDEO BY PARTICIPANTS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

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She holds a master's degree with distinction, Hull University, UK, and holds number of certificates and letters of thanks, appreciation on the contributions of academic and administrative.
The Appropriateness of Literary Texts in Teaching Reading Skills: The Case of Some Selected High Schools in Ethiopia

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Debre Markos University, Ethiopia

Gebeyehu Fente
Debecha Preparatory School, Ethiopia

Abstract—The main objective of this study was to assess the appropriateness of literary texts in teaching reading skills at some selected high schools in Ethiopia. The study employed survey research design. Different instruments and sampling techniques were used. Document analysis was conducted to examine the appropriateness of literary texts and reading activities designed from them. Questionnaire was administered for 429 students that were selected through stratified sampling. Interview was also conducted with 7 purposively selected EFL teachers. The collected data was analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively. Data from interview and document analysis were analyzed qualitatively using narration, thematic analyses and direct quotation, whereas data from questionnaire was analyzed quantitatively using percentage, mean and grand mean. Findings of the study revealed that the majority of the literary texts are found to be linguistically very difficult, culturally unfamiliar and unsatisfactory to students’ interest. In addition, the study found that most reading activities do not give useful cultural background, stimulating tasks, language awareness activities and previewing key language. The study concluded that the literary texts integrated for teaching reading skills and activities are not helpful to teach reading skills.

Index Terms—literary texts, reading skills, reading activities, cultural background, language awareness

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning reading skills is essential for learners of English as a second or Foreign Language. Carrell (1988) stressed that reading skills is one of the most important macro skills for students’ academic progress, achievement and development in their present and future professional careers where English is used as a second or a foreign language. To achieve this, it is necessary to find more efficient pedagogy that enables the learners to become more proficient readers. Van (2009) acknowledges that nowadays communicative language teaching becomes popular since it gives the chance to practice different language skills in real contexts. He also added that communicative language teaching gives credit to the use of authentic language. Like in many other skills, the use of authentic materials in teaching reading in EFL classes gives students contexts that increase interaction with the texts. Literary texts are useful since they use natural language. According Lazar (1993), literary texts offer universal themes which are relevant to students’ own experience. Long (1986) also argues that literary texts expose students to a wide variety of authentic language that has the power to motivate students to read a lot. This is to mean, literary texts use real life like language that provides students contexts that promote interaction in reading comprehension. Ghasemi and Hajizadeh (2011) also assert that literary texts are relevant to reader’s experience and this contributes to the learning process of reading comprehension. From this discussion, it is understood that literary texts are indispensable pedagogical tools to develop reading skills.

Though the literary texts are proved to be core materials in teaching reading and other skills, there are different factors that need attention. One of the basic factors is text selection. Many scholars like Maley (2001), McRae(1997), Lazar (1993), Collie and Slater (1994) and Hill (1994) stressed that text selection is a crucial factor in making literature a resource for language teaching. Collie and Slater (1994) emphasized that text selection should consider each particular group of students, their needs, interests, cultural background and language level. Lazar (1993) also asserts that the text should be within the student’s grasp in terms of their linguistic, literary, intellectual, and emotional capacities.

In addition to text selection, the design of the activities from the selected texts also affects the effectiveness of using literary texts in teaching reading skills. According to Collie and Slater (1994), it is best to prepare reading lesson activities around the texts’ highlights: plot, characterization, point of view and language. Lazar (1993) suggests designing activities that integrate both the reading comprehension and the literary text. From this discussion, it is clear that text selection and the design of activities are key factors in using literary texts in EFL classes. Thus, it is necessary to properly evaluate the literary texts and activities to make sure that they meet the required criteria.

Research outcomes of Vethaman (2010), and Bobkina and Dominguez (2014) also strongly recommend the need to evaluate language courses containing literary texts as resource materials. Bobkina and Dominguez’s (2014) study, for...
example, suggests more research on a systematic evaluation of different language courses which use literary texts. In addition, like other EFL contexts, in Ethiopia, research findings have reported complaints about the suitability of reading materials for students. For example, Dereje (2000) cited in Rekya (2010) reported that the content of reading materials is not in harmony with the learners current and changing perception of their language learning needs.

A. Statement of the Problem

In Ethiopia, English language is one of the key subjects from primary up to preparatory schools and it is also the medium of instruction in secondary high schools and tertiary levels of education. So reading skills becomes important for student’s secondary schools academic success and future progress.

In Ethiopia, to develop students reading skills much effort has been done from time to time by different stake holders such as material designers. For example, nowadays, literary texts are integrated in students’ text books as key materials to teach language skills such as reading skills. However, in Dembecha District High schools, complaints rise regarding students reading skills. The researchers have noticed that the large majority of Dembecha District Grade ten students struggle to succeed in reading comprehension. However, they fail to read and comprehend texts integrated in their English textbooks in different reading sessions. From the researchers’ experience, this problem was more magnified while they used literary texts.

From the researchers’ observation, the most acknowledged cause of students’ ineffective reading is losing reading interest immediately. The researchers have experienced that many students try to read a story or poem as they were guided by the teacher but soon lose the eagerness and interest with which they start reading the text. The other problem students encountered was vocabulary. The researchers have observed that in every paragraph or stanza, or even in every sentence, or even in every phrase they come across some new words which create a constant obstacle for them to understand the meaning. They failed to guess contextually and tried to look up the new words in dictionary.

Experiencing this situation, the researchers started worrying about this issue because students’ failure in reading results is a failure in their academic success. Without good reading skills, these students will have a difficult time, not only in school, but also in their future opportunities.

There could be various factors that attributed to make students ineffective in reading regardless of the invested efforts to develop their reading skills. However, the researchers think that the quality of the accessible reading materials may have attributed to their ineffective reading. Haregewoine’s (2007) study revealed that in Ethiopian secondary schools still the low quality of teaching materials seem to have aggravated the students’ low reading proficiency. All these need closer examination and evaluation to improve the situation in this area. The current study attempted to acquire some understandings about the major problems that grade 10 students’ encountered while using literary texts in learning reading skills in EFL classes.

B. Objectives of the Study

The main objective of this study is to assess the appropriateness of literary texts in teaching reading skills. The study had the following specific objectives:

- To evaluate the appropriateness of the selected literary texts for students in teaching reading skills
- To evaluate the appropriateness of reading activities designed from literary texts for teaching reading skills

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Selecting Literary Texts

To use literary texts in teaching language skills, many scholars suggested criteria to select materials. According to Lazar (1993), the criteria ultimately depend on the students’ linguistic proficiency, interest, culture, literary and cultural background.

1. Student’s Linguistic Proficiency

Duff and Maley (1989) suggest choosing texts within students’ language proficiencies. They explained that if the language of the literary text is quite straightforward to the linguistic level of students, students will want to have more access to literary works and find these texts more relevant to their experience. Hill (1994) suggests that archaic language, slang, foreign words, allusions, or language that imitates the speech of a particular locality and long complex clauses tend to contain multiple ideas and therefore should be avoided. As students will not understand these sentences and words, they will get bored and not read the work. Heng and Abdullah (2006) also argue that sentence structures that have an unambiguous order and logical organization and structure aid reading whereas inconsiderate texts are often difficult to interact with.

2. Student’s Literary Background

Brumfit and Carter (1986)cited in Lazar(1993)argued that effective readers of a literary text possess literary competence, in that they have an implicit understanding of, and familiarity with, certain conventions which allow them to take the words on the page of a play or other literary work and convert them into literary meanings. Lazar (1993) attempted to pinpoint certain conventions of literary competence which might include anything from recognizing and appreciating a full range of genres to simply following the plot of a short story.

According to Lazar (1993), literary background of the students and their linguistic competence do not necessarily go
together; students who have little literary knowledge, but are linguistically proficient, may understand each individual word on the page without being able to make sense of the literary meanings behind the texts. Thus, when choosing text to use in EFL class, we should look at its specific literary qualities and whether our students can navigate their own way through them.

3. Students’ Cultural Background

According to Carter and Long (1991), in selecting literary texts considering how far the students’ cultural background and their social and political expectations will help or hinder their understanding of a text and how much background the teacher will need to provide for students to have at least a basic understanding of the text should be given emphasis. Lazar (1993) also suggested that the texts selected should be within the teachers’ and students’ cultural competence. Such literary works can touch upon a wide range of meaningful topics which are related to the reader. Ali (1994) also suggests that the texts should allow learners to view literature as an experience that enriches their life. He further elaborated that in culturally familiar texts, the reader brings to the text past experiences, prior knowledge, social, cultural and psychological assumptions, surrounding circumstances which may play an important role in the making of meaning of the text that is to be read. Thus, it is clear that for EFL classes, culturally familiar texts should be selected to impart the required language skills.

4. Personal Involvement

Collie and Slater (1994) noted that selecting texts that can stimulate a kind of personal involvement and arouse the learners’ interest is very crucial too. Duff and Maley (1990) also assert that if the learners’ ideas, experiences, and needs are completely at variance with what they are asked to read, it is useless to expect them to be motivated. This is to mean that students read and enjoy a text if the subject-matter of the text is relevant to their life experience and interests. In connection to this, Alemi (2011) states that texts that touch the learners’ needs and interest can be more suited for aesthetic reading which further develops reading proficiency; interpretive and inference abilities, understanding multiple levels of meaning and developing skills in critical thinking.

5. Student’s Interest

The other key factor to consider in selecting literary texts is whether a particular work able to arouse the learners’ interest and provoke strong and positive reactions from them. Duff and Maley (1990) defined interesting texts as texts that are relevant to the tasks, are easily accessible to the students, have colorful photographs and illustrations. They explained that if the text is meaningful and enjoyable, reading is more likely to have a lasting and beneficial effect upon the learners’ linguistic and cultural knowledge. Collie and Slater (1994) also suggest that it is important to choose books which are relevant to the life experiences, emotions, or dreams of the learner because when the assigned literary text is meaningful and enjoyable, learners will try to overcome the linguistic obstacles enthusiastically.

6. Length of Text

In selecting literary texts, the other issue that demands attention is the materials length. Lazar (1993) suggests that when selecting literary texts, teachers should bear in mind whether they have enough time available to work on texts in class, how long students have to work on the text at home (reading) and how much background information of the text the teacher needs to give students. Duff and Maley (1990) believe that the length of the text is also seen as the major difficulties. They noted that for some students, longer texts may appear more difficult, whereas for others shorter texts present more difficulties simply because they do not offer extended contextual support and repetition which longer texts do.

B. Designing Reading Activities from Literary Texts

The bases for designing reading activities from literary texts are the problems that students frequently encounter in reading literary texts. The most common problems that students faced are difficulties to understand the cultural background, lack of motivation to read literary texts, inadequate reading strategies and comprehension problems. Lazar, (1993) noted that the comprehension problems include problems of following the plot, understanding the characters, understanding the vocabularies and narrator, analyzing and interpreting texts, and appreciating the style.

According to Collie and Slater (1994), the best way to prepare activities was highlighting the elements of the literary texts. These elements are plot, characters, setting, narrator, theme, and language style and language awareness. According to many scholars (Harmer, 1998; Lazar, 1993; Hernández, 2011; and Sánchez, 2009), to make reading more realistic and interesting three stages are recommended when preparing reading tasks: pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading.

III. THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Design

Descriptive survey design was employed to achieve the objectives of this study.

B. Sample and Sampling Techniques

This study was conducted in Dembecha District High Schools, Ethiopia. Dembecha Comprehensive Secondary and Preparatory School, Yechereka, Wade Addisalem and Yezeleka High schools are found in this district. In 2019 academic year, there were 2,378 (two thousand three hundred seventy eight) Grade 10 students and 17 grade 10 EFL
teachers in these four schools.

Through lottery system three schools (except Yezeleka) were selected as samples. For interview, seven Grade 10 EFL teachers who took the course of literature in language teaching in their Master of education in TEFL programme were purposively selected. The total number of students from the three sample schools was 2,076. Thirty percent of this figure was taken as sample to fill in the questionnaire. Then 687 sample students were selected using stratified sampling technique. However, 434 students filled in the questionnaire items as the remaining students were not available in the appointed time.

C. Data Collection Instruments

Document analysis, interview and questionnaire were employed to collect data.

1. Document Analysis

Document analysis was used as the major tool to gather data about the appropriateness of literary texts and reading activities designed from them. The document analysis has two parts. The first part of the checklist focused on the selection of literary texts. These items were adapted from Lazar (1993). The second part of the checklist dealt with the design of reading activities from the literary texts. This checklist was adapted from Phillips (1993).

2. Interview

Semi-structured interview, adapted from Lazar (1993) and Phillips (1993), was chosen to elicit detailed information to supplement data from document analysis and questionnaire.

3. Students Questionnaire

Questionnaire was used to collect data from students to supplement the document analysis and teacher’s interview. Five close-ended likert scale questionnaire items which were adapted from Lazar (1993) were used. The questionnaire focused on the appropriateness of literary texts.

IV. Result of the Study

A. Literary Texts Incorporated in the Textbook

From the general overview, the textbook has fifteen literary texts to teach reading skills. These literary texts included two novel extracts, five short story extracts, seven poems and one play extract. Poems are found predominantly in the text. Short stories take the second position next to poems. Novel and play extracts are found in small proportion. None of these literary texts were extracted from Ethiopian literary books.

B. The Evaluation of Literary Texts

The main evaluation criteria are the literary texts’ relation with the students’ linguistic proficiency, literary and cultural background, life experience, interest, reading speed and suitability. The following sections present the findings.

1. Linguistic Level

This study found literary texts that contain very long sentences, poorly organized and complex structures, colloquial words, very loaded vocabulary and expressions. For example, extracts “Shipwrecked”, “Makeda’s Story” and “Difficult Situation” contained very long sentences. Moreover, extracts such as “Dealing with a drug dealer” and “Nigerian Market Place” contain complex structures.

To some up, though some of the literary texts were found good in sentences length, vocabulary level, syntax and structure, the majority of the literary texts were found containing very long sentences, difficult vocabularies, archaic language, slang, allusions, or language that imitates the speech of a particular locality, uneducated people, or complex structures and expressions for student’s level.

2. Cultural Familiarity

The second criterion used in this study was the appropriateness of literary texts for students’ cultural background. In this study the document analyses showed that there are literary texts that included beliefs, objects and languages that depict unfamiliar cultural background. Literary extracts like the “Fulani Creation Story” and “Nigerian Market Place” contain culturally ancient tradition and this traditional belief is aliened from student’s religious (cultural) background. As a result, students lack prior knowledge and past experiences in relation to this belief so as to aid comprehension of these texts and support their linguistic deficiencies in reading these extracts.

In addition, specific objects like Doondari, Gueno Mammy wagon, Mission car and Bartered lorry are included in “Nigerian Market Place” which are not familiar in the target student’s cultural background. That is to mean, the cultural meaning of these objects cannot be understood by the target students in this study.

To conclude, though some literary texts contain traditions, ceremonies and objects that depict cultural background that are close to the target students cultural background, the majority of the literary texts depicted traditions, religious beliefs, ceremonies, objects and rituals that are far removed from students cultural background.

3. Relevance

It is expected that literary texts should be relevant to the target learner’s ideas, experiences and needs. It is also believed that the subject-matter of the text is relevant to their life experience and interests. However, the document analysis showed that there are literary texts that are not relevant to the day to day life experience of the learners. Extracts like the “Difficult Situation”, “Nigerian Market Place” and “The Fulani Creation Story” contain topics that are
not practiced in the contemporary day to day life of the target students of this study.

As evidence, we can see one of the analyzed extracts entitled “A difficult situation”. This story describes the undemocratic treatment of younger boys at school in Guinea in the 1930s. To support this, we can read this extract from this story. “So at an order from the older boys, we would line up like laborers about to reap a field, and we would set to work like slaves.” (Paragraph, 4: lines1-2). This direct quote indicates that the younger students were considered as slaves like the slave trade period, which was a backdated topic. Currently, at the time of democracy this kind of social division has been banned.

On the other hand, few of the literary texts are found relevant for students’ day today life experience. Extracts like “The Friendship Cake”, “The man I killed” and “Destiny” contain topics that are relevant to the temporal day to day life experience of the target students in this study. For instance, the topic of the poem “Destiny” describes the importance of making decisions wisely. Hence, this poem is relevant to the students’ day to day life experience. Similarly, the topic of the extract, “Dealing with a drug dealer” exposed the bad consequence of drug abuse on people’s life. This topic is a relevant issue for the target students’ life experience as many young people mostly have been victimized emotionally by drug abuse.

4. Interestingness

The fourth criterion the researchers used to evaluate the literary texts was checking if they are appropriate for students’ interest and needs. The document analyses showed that there are literary texts that lacked these. Extracts like “Difficult Situation”, “Nigerian Market Place” and “The Fulani Creation Story” contain backdated topics. As an example we can see one of the extracts entitled “Nigerian Market Place”. This poem depicts the traditional bartering system that was practiced in Nigeria some time ago. This kind of marketing system was practiced in past and nowadays it has been replaced by other modern marketing systems. So the topic of this poem does not reflect the current needs and motivations of students about the marketing systems. Thus, this poem is not relevant to the day to day life experience of students.

In addition, literary extracts “Dealing with a drug dealer”, “Ayantu to the rescue”, “Shipwrecked” and “A difficult situation” are linguistically very challenging as explained above. Furthermore, “The Fulani creation story” and “A sudden Storm” are also found culturally unfamiliar. When the literary texts are culturally unfamiliar, students cannot understand them and this results in boredom in students as linguistically difficult texts may demotivate students.

On the other hand, the study found that some of the literary extracts contain contemporary, relevant, linguistically challenging and culturally familiar topics. A good evidence for this is the “Friendship Cake.” The story shows that cooperative work makes people successful. At this stage students are expected to perform many tasks in groups and pair in the class room or outside.

5. Length

The last criterion used in this study was whether the length of the literary texts is appropriate for students’ level. The study found that “Ayantu to the rescue”, “Three combined poems”, “Makeda’s Story”, “Shipwrecked” and “The Snake Man and the Girl” are very long extracts. Specifically, “The snake man and the Girl” covered three pages, pp.47-49; “Shipwrecked” has nine paragraphs and 69 lines and “The Three Combined Poems” is comprised of four pages, PP. 218-221. These literary extracts look very long for students’ level. When the length of the text do not match the students reading speed and linguistic level, students may feel frustrated, boredom and lose hope to go on reading such a text.

However, this study found the majority of literary extracts seem to have appropriate length for student’s level. We can see “A poem”, “Friendship Cake”, “The man I killed” and “Nigerian Market Place” as instances. The extract “A poem” has six stanzas and 32 lines; “Friendship Cake” consisted of 6 paragraphs and 29 lines and “Nigerian Market Place” comprised of 6 stanzas and 21 lines. The extract entitled “The Man I killed” has also moderate length.

C. Evaluation of Reading Activities

The document analysis was also used to evaluate the reading activities designed from literary texts. Focus was given if activities are helping students to get background hints; if they help to stimulate the students’ interest and pre-teach key languages and if they develop language awareness (understand the style and linguistic features) of the literary texts and interpretation of the text (main themes).

1. Creating cultural awareness and Interest

According to the document analyses, it was found that pre-reading activities lacked stimulating activities. They failed to include previewing, prediction, discussion, providing a sample extracts key language practice activities to anticipate the content of the text. As an example, we can look at the activities on pages 72 and 164. These pre-reading activities instruct students what to do and how to do. However, they do not give opportunity for students to anticipate the contents of the extracts based on a small sample of the text like the title, characters, themes, few words or phrases, the first sentences of the extract and visuals. This implies that the pre-reading activities designed from literary texts failed to motivate student’s interest and help them to pre-view key languages.

However, the study indicated that some of the activities are good in that they help students to get hints about the cultural background of the literary texts. Activities on page 43 are instances for this.

The Fulani are a people of West Africa. They are traditionally cattle herders and milk is at the center of their culture. Below is traditional Fulani poem which describes how they believe the world was founded. (The Fulani creation story, P. 43)
This kind of pre-reading activity gives hints for students about the setting, the economic activity practiced, the main food, and religious belief of the people and the characters of the literary extract. These activities help students to get clue about the context of the extract and help them to sense the content of the extract.

2. Helping to Develop Basic Comprehension Skills

The while-reading activities were also evaluated. The analyses revealed that most of them are found good in helping students to develop basic comprehension skills. For instance, when we observe the activities on page 38, they are good to exemplify these as indicated here: "Skim the text to get the general idea, and then work in groups to complete the following chart: title, authors, what the story is about, characters, where the story is set, what happens in the story and type of story". These activities were designed to skim the literary extract, find out its general idea, read the text to give title, identify the authors of the extract, scan the characters and understand its setting.

3. Helping to Develop Language Awareness in Students

Similarly, the document analysis indicated that by far most of the while reading activities are found good to develop language awareness in students. For example, the following activity on pages 138 is good sample for this.

4. Helping to Interpret and Develop Personal Response in Students

In addition, the post reading activities were evaluated if they are good in helping students to encourage interpretation of the main themes and develop personal creative response in students. So according to the document analysis, some of the post-reading activities were found good in helping students interpret the text and develop creative response in students. For example, when we look at activities on pages 64, they are good evidences for these.

- 2. Answer the following questions:
  1. Give three examples of what the sea has washed away?
  2. Why was Aku weeping with her children?
  3. When was the storm which caused the destruction by the waves?
4. What sounds does the poet describe?
5. What was Abena most sorry to lose? (A poem, P.169)

These exercises were designed to scan detailed information from the poem, to understand cause effect-relationship of events and understand characters of the poem. All these activities exemplify basic comprehension activity which is answered by referring the explicitly stated information from the text. This implies that these activities did not encourage students to reach on own multiple interpretation of the text and allow students to express their feelings, suggestions or connect the text to their life experiences.

From the document analyses, it is understood that unlike some of the activities, most of the activities were found including activities that help students explore multiple interpretation concerning the characters, themes and point of views or author’s views. Similarly, most of the activities allow students to express their personal views, recommendations and advice concerning the characters, themes and point of views or author’s views about the topic through discussion or writing.

D. Analysis of Teacher’s Semi-structured Interview

1. Appropriateness of Literary Texts
   a. Linguistic Level
      When teachers were asked about the appropriateness of the literary texts’ linguistic level for students, almost all teachers said that they are not appropriate. They believed that the vocabulary, language structure, the meaning of some phrases and the symbolic meaning of some of the expressions of the literary texts are very difficult for student’s linguistic background. From the analyses, it is deduced that teachers believed that the linguistic level of the literary texts, incorporated in grade 10 students’ textbook, is difficult for students’ level.
   b. Literary Level
      The other question teachers asked was whether the literary texts are appropriate for student’s literary background. Except the Teacher 1 and Teacher 6, the four teachers such as (Teacher 2, Teacher 3, Teacher 4, and Teacher 5 and Teacher 7) expressed that the literary texts are appropriate. For example, Teacher 4 responded that “I think they (the literary texts) are appropriate to the literary background because students have a similar experience of such type of literary texts even in films.” This participant understood that the literary texts are appropriate to students’ literary background since he thought that students have experienced similar literary texts from films. From the interview analyses, it is learnt that the literary texts, integrated in grade 10 students’ textbook, are appropriate to the students’ literary background as the literary texts are closer to the students’ literary background in many aspects.
   c. Cultural Familiarity
      Teachers were also asked whether the culture depicted in the literary texts are appropriate for students’ cultural background. For this item, more than half interviewees expressed that most of the literary texts are not appropriate for student’s cultural background. For instance, Teacher 1 responded:
      
      *I think that the traditions reflected in most literary texts are not appropriate. For example, in some extracts (literary texts) ceremonies, traditional wedding ceremonies and traditional wearing styles are reflected. These traditions are uncommon for our students.*
      
      This participant understood that the traditions implied in the majority of the literary texts are not appropriate for students’ cultural background. He justified that the specific ceremonies such as wedding ceremonies and traditional wearing styles that are reflected in the literary texts are uncommon for the target students in this study.
   d. Relevance
      According to the interviewees’ response whether they think that the literary texts are relevant to student’s background knowledge and day to day experience, some interviewees understood that the majority of the literary text deals with ideas that are directly or indirectly relevant to the students’ day to day life experience. Regarding this, Teacher 4 reported “I believe that they are relevant. Most of the works (literary texts) describes important issues which are helpful for students present and future life.” This respondent understood that the majority of the literary texts are relevant to the students’ background and day to day life experience as he thought that they contained ideas that are relevant for students present and future life.
   e. Interestingness
      The other question raised to teachers was whether the literary texts were interesting for students’ level. The majority of the interviewee teachers said that literary texts do not match students’ interest. For instance, Teacher 3 reported that “I do not think so because most students feel boredom to read them even they began to read and stop immediately because the literary texts are not attractive students may keep on reading them (literary texts) in the classroom even for enjoyment.” This means that participants thought that the literary texts are not interesting to students as most students feel bored to read.
      From the above analyses, though some teachers replied that the literary texts are interesting for student’s level, more than half of the respondents believed that the literary texts are not interesting to students.
   f. Length
      Moreover, when teachers’ were asked whether the length of the literary texts was appropriate for students’ level, more than half of them believed that the length of the literary texts is appropriate. For instance, teacher 4 reported “I think they (the literary texts) are appropriate. As a grade ten level, students are expected to read purposely. They
should skim, scan or intensively read. Therefore, the length of them is appropriate.” This participant thought that the length of the literary texts is appropriate as grade ten students use different reading strategies. From the analyses, it is implied that teachers think that the length of most literary texts is appropriate to students.

g. Appropriateness of Reading Activities

Under this section, the interview questions raised were if the pre-reading activities help students to get background context (historical, cultural background, activating interest, and linguistic clue) about literary texts; if the while-reading activities help to develop language awareness and help to develop interpretation and personal response.

h. Helping Students to Get Background Context

When teachers were asked if activities help to get background context (historical, cultural background, activating interest, linguistic clue) about literary texts, the majority of the respondents expressed that most pre-reading activities lacked to give background context (historical, cultural background, activating interest, and linguistic clue) about the literary texts. Regarding this, teacher 3 responded “Most literary texts do not have questions or any hints before the reading texts [literary texts].” This interviewee recognized that most literary texts have not pre-reading activities so as to give background context about the literary text. Similarly, teacher 6 reported “As I experienced almost all literary texts lack activities that precede the passage [literary texts]. In fact, few texts [literary texts] are only preceded by expressions like read the poem.” This participant understood that nearly all the literary texts lack pre-reading activities so as to give background context about the literary texts. From the above analyses, some teachers understood that pre-reading activities are not included before literary texts.

i. Helping to Develop Language Awareness in the Students

The other interview question was if the while-reading activities develop language awareness in the students’. All of the participants responded “yes” to this question. For instance, teacher 6 and teacher 7 replied respectively “I think the while -reading help students to understand vocabularies.” “Yes. In the new approach most activities in texts [literary texts] are rich in vocabulary.” Teacher 6 and teacher 7 recognized that most while-reading activities of the literary texts emphasize vocabulary teaching. In relation to this, T2 responded that “Truly. Some of the activities [while-reading activities] asked students the meaning of certain language structure in the text. This could be the language that the writer uses to convey his message.” Teacher 2 understood that some while-reading activities focus on functions and meanings of certain language features of the literary texts. From the analyses, it is indicated that all teachers understood the while-reading activities help to understand vocabulary and certain language features of the literary texts. This implies that the design of while-reading activities that help to develop language awareness in the students is emphasized.

j. Help to Develop Interpretation and Personal Response in Students

The next question teachers asked was if the activities help to develop interpretation and personal response in students. Regarding this question, more than half of the participants replied positively. For instance, one of the participants teacher 7 reported that “Yes. Especially, poems include questions that assess reader's [students] reaction, feelings, or judgments about the poem. In my understanding when readers [students] express their reactions to the poem, they may respond to the message of the writer.” This interviewee understood that the post reading activities require students to bring their feelings, opinion or judgments in relation to the literary texts they read.

From the analyses, it is understood that most of the teachers understood that post-reading activities were available and they develop interpretation and creative response in students. This implies that the design of post-reading activities was given attention and the activities are designed to give students opportunities to make reasoned arguments and connect the text to their own views.

E. Analysis of Data from Questionnaire: The Appropriateness Literary Texts for Students

Under this part, the questionnaire data analyses and findings about the appropriateness of literary texts were presented. The focus areas of the questionnaire analyses were the literary texts appropriateness in terms of linguistic, content, relevance, interestingness and length for the students’ level from the student’s perspective.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Responses</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>VH=5</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I can find out the meaning of new words without the help of a dictionary.</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The language of the literary texts is difficult to comprehend the text.</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The topics of the literary texts are close to my background and day to day life experience.</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>The literary texts are interesting and engage me to read beyond (outside) class?</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The content of the literary texts is worth to cover in class.</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 2, 56.1% (which equals 28.2% low plus 27.9% very low) replied that they can find out the meaning of new words without the help of dictionary at lower level. This implies that the majority of students find out the meaning
of new words literary difficult.

As indicated in the table, for item 2, 40.6% (21.1% who expressed very high plus 19.5% who said high) of the respondents responded that the language of the literary text is highly difficult to comprehend the literary texts; whereas 16.6% of the respondents replied that the language of the literary text is moderate to comprehend. This implies that the language of the literary text is close to highly difficult for the students.

As depicted in the same table with item 3, 53.8% (% 44.8% low and 9.0% very low) of participants expressed that the topics of the literary texts are less relevant to their background and day to day life experience. This implies that the topics of the literary texts are unrelated to the students’ background and day to day life experience.

Likewise, in item 4, a bit less than half of respondents (48.3%), which equals 11.4% very high plus 12.6% high and 24.3% medium, expressed that the literary texts are nearly high or highly interesting engage to read them extensively. On the other hand, a bit more than half of the respondents (51.7%), which equals 33.1% very low plus 18.6 expressed very low, responded that the literary texts are less interesting for them to read extensively. This indicated that the literary texts are less interesting to read extensively.

In the same table, in item 5, by far less than half of the respondents (40.1%), which is the sum of 7.7% very high and 32.4% high, expressed that the content length of the literary texts is highly worthy to cover in class; whereas 22.4% of the respondents said that the length of the literary texts is median worthy to cover in class. On the other hand, 37.4%, which is the sum of 20.9% low and 16.5% very low, reported that the content length of the literary texts is less worthy to cover in class. This implies that it is difficult to conclude whether the content length of the literary texts is worthy to cover in class or not.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Based on the discussion of the findings of the study, it is possible to conclude that the literary texts are not in harmony with the student to teach reading skills successfully. The linguistic level of the texts is very challenging for the students to cope with the texts and the culture depicted in them is far removed from their socio-cultural background to aid comprehension of the texts. The contents and topics of the texts are not appealing and relevant for student’s temporal needs, expectations and lives to make students enjoy in reading. In general, the literary texts are not suitable for students for teaching reading skills interactively.

The reading activities are not well designed to teach reading skills effectively. Top-down reading activities that help students get background context, create interest to the text and practice key language are not covered. The activities also lack to cover language and style awareness tasks which help students to understand the texts in depth and do post-reading tasks effectively. In short, the activities are not well-designed to teach reading skills interactively.

This study has many implications for teaching reading using literary texts in EFL classrooms. Reading literary texts will help our students to understand and appreciate multiple levels of meanings, language and cultures. However, to achieve these objectives different things can be done. For example, students’ text books should be revised so that culturally and linguistically motivating literary texts could be included. In other words, literary texts should encourage efferent (a reading to improve the skill) and aesthetic reading. In addition to this, activities should be re-designed to promote pre, during and post-reading. Until this is done, there are a number of activities teachers should do. For example, teachers could supplement the textbook by bringing different texts that fulfill the criteria mentioned in the literature. In addition to this, they should revise and use the activities provided in the textbook.

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Neologisms and Cameroonisms in Cameroon English and Cameroon Francophone English

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Abstract—Language learning/use is a very delicate task. When a learner/user of a given language is confronted with a difficulty, he/she is forced to create to communicate. This can be observed in most New Englishes. Those varieties of English abound in neologisms and local languages items. From an interlanguage frame, this study looks at some neologisms and Cameroonisms in Cameroon English (CamE) / Cameroon Francophone English (CamFE). The data come from debates on national radio stations and TV channels, conversations among students and university lecturers on university campuses across Cameroon, casual encounters such as public gatherings or during journeys, and from students’ essays. The findings show that, in CamE, most neologisms come from Pidgin English or French while Cameroonisms come from local languages, the inflection of some English words and skilful combination of some English structures. In CamFE, most neologisms come from French and Cameroonisms from home languages and code mixing.

Index Terms—neologism, Cameroonism, CamE, CamFE, coining, French, home language

I. INTRODUCTION

For any language to survive, some of the determining factors are coining and borrowing. If all languages cannot lend some of their lexical items to other languages, they are bound to borrow from them. Khothlova (2005, p. 987) reports that tnduna (a leader), maas (sour milk), mohen (crowned crane), nuna (any insect) among others are well established vocabulary items from African languages into South African English. In Cameroonian home languages, there are no other words for window, machine or cupboard than the ones known in English even if they are pronounced in several ways. As a complex phenomenon, borrowing goes in multiple directions. Home languages borrow from CamE (Cameroon English), English, Pidgin English, French and other home languages, and CamE borrows from home languages, Pidgin English and French. In CamE or Cameroon French, the following local tree species are simply known as iroko (millicia excelsa), mbete, ngolong, bibinga, essock, sapelli (entandrophragma cylindrica), okan (cylindodiscus gabunensis) and azobé (lophira alata) which are loans from local languages. All the timber companies, wood dealers and carpenters know them only by those names. All of this testifies to the dynamism of non-native Englishes as this papers proposes to exemplify with CamE and CamFE (Cameroon Francophone English) The study thus aims to examine the various strategies and processes used to create and form neologisms and Cameroonisms in the two varieties of English in question. The emphasis is on coining, derivation, loanwords, metonymy, re-structuring and code mixing.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Before getting into the review, it is important to define the two main key words of the study. The New Collins Dictionary and Thesaurus (1991, p. 667) defines neologism as “newly coined word, or a phrase or familiar word used in a new sense”. For example, in CamE, these simple expressions ‘high class’, ‘rotten’, ‘four + four’ all mean AIDS; ‘summarily’ means in summary. So, neologism is the inclusion of new item in the language. Cameroonisms are language elements or structures which are only used and understood by Cameroonians. They need some explanations to be understood by other speakers of English, e.g. white stuff (palm wine), country name (family name), country talk (mother tongue). The following section briefly differentiates CamE from CamFE.

A. CamE (Cameroon English) vs CamFE (Cameroon Francophone English)

The complex linguistic landscape of Cameroon with over 239 home languages (Mba 2009), Pidgin English, Camfranglais and the two official languages (French and English) has led to the development of two local varieties of English in the country. CamE which is the variety spoken by Anglophone Cameroonians, i.e. the citizens of the former British Cameroon was till recent considered as the only variety of English spoken by Cameroonians (Simo Bobda 1994a). It is the oldest variety in the country, and amply research has been carried out on it. At national level, it is the medium of instruction (in Anglophone schools), law, official documents, diplomacy, radio and television, newspapers and literature. Its phonology has been studied by a number of researchers (Simo Bobda 1986, 1994, 2010 & 2011; Kouega 1991, 1999 a & b & 2000). Its lexis and grammar are under intensive research (Simo Bobda 1994b; Kouega 2006; Anchimbe 2004; Eponge 2013; Mbufong 2013; Safotso & Nwetisama 2013).
CamFE the second variety resulted from the rush for English by Francophone Cameroonians during the past two
decades. Most Anglophone schools have been invaded by their children, and adult francophone learners of English have
been taking their training in the various linguistic centres across the country very seriously. Though recent compared to
its somewhat parent variety, CamE, Cameroon Francophone English is a dynamic and fast spreading variety. That
variety is spoken by Francophone Cameroonians. A number of studies show that its phonological characteristics are
different from those of CamE (Safotso 2012, 2015a, 2016, 2018a; Simo Bobda 2013; Atechi 2015). For example, the
following words are pronounced differently in CamE and CamFE: fruits, war, students [fri:i, wa, styden] in CamFE and
atypical evolution to Moag’s (1992) and Schneider’s (2009) models. Its lexis and grammar are still under research, and
is mostly done in students’ dissertations. They therefore necessitate in-depth investigations. The present study’s finding
might contribute to it.

B. Appropriation of English in the Outer and Expanding Circles

A number of studies have been carried out on the localisation or Africanization of English (Bokamba 1992; Ayo Bamgbose 1992) and features of New Englishes (Mesthrie & Bhatt 2012). All African ‘Englishes share certain
properties that can be identified as Africanisms in that they reflect structural characteristics of African languages.
Specifically, these properties can be discovered at all linguistic levels: phonological, morphological, semantic and
syntactic’ (Bokamba, 1992, p.126). The following examples by Kirk-Greene (1971 in Bokamba, 1992, p.130) are by
Hausa speakers of English: ‘You are a big somebody’ (i.e. an important person); ‘You are a sociable somebody’ (i.e.
sociable person). Other interesting examples include ‘The guest whom I invited them have arrived’; ‘The book which I
users of English: ‘The car is different with public transport’ for ‘the car is different from public transport’; ‘People are
suffering poverty’ for ‘people are suffering from poverty’. There is either a confusion of preposition or an omission
where one should be. The following examples from Singapore English are also quite interesting: ‘He already go home’
for ‘he has already gone home’; ‘The people died already’ for ‘the people are dead/ have died’ (Williams, 1987, p. 184

In Cameroon, Simo Bobda (1994b) remarks that lexical innovation processes in CamE is done through loans from
French, Pidgin English, and indigenous languages. Their internal processes include semantic extension, semantic shift
by pre-fixation, derivation, compounding, clipping and reduplication, e.g. chief of battalion (major in the army), sub-
lieutenant (Second-lieutenant), breveté nurse (State-registered nurse). Anchimbe (2004) notes that, to name certain
common things CamE users create new names. Naming is generally done by analogy with colour, taste, physical or
behavioural nature, e.g. red oil (palm oil), white mimbo (palm wine), cry die (death celebration), trouble bank
(assistance fund), fever grass (lemon grass used to treat fever), ground beef (palm rat that lives in holes in the ground),
elephant grass (large herb in tropical zone). Safotoso and Nkwetisama (2013) question if CamE is not a holdall as the
language is full of elements from all sources. For example, they list the following local titles as intrusions into CamE:
fon, fai (chief / king), manyi (mother of twins), tanyi (father of twins). Words like nge, mbe, atsafо or ndе are used by
subjects answering to their ruler or local authorities (Safotoso & Nkwetisama 2013, p.120). Other works on the special
use of English by Cameroonians include Safotoso (2015b, 2017a & 2017b) and Epoge (2013). In the domain of
HIV/AIDS, Safotoso (2017b, p.182) describes a rich vocabulary to name the disease and its patients in CamE, e.g.
boarding pass, departure lounge, high class, last hour for AIDS, and rotten for HIV patient. In the register of sexuality,
Epoge (2013, p. 4) reports the following expressions: king of glory, master of ceremony, rector of female, family jewel
for penis, and mouse trap, place of pleasure, hole of pleasure, garden of Eden for vagina.

III. METHOD

The data analysed come from several sources: (1) national TV and radio debates where both Anglophone and
Francophone Cameroonians interact in English on a daily basis on several topics, (2) political campaigns speeches, (3)
conversations student-student and lecturer-lecturer, (4) seminars and conferences, (5) students’ essays and dissertations,
(6) casual encounters and discussions/ jokes in the GCE marking rooms. The items were jotted down each time that the
investigator heard or read them, and documented according to the various categories studied here. So, the material
comes from very rich sources. The analysis is done under the following categories: coining, derivation, loans, metonymical use of some names, restructuring of some idiomatic expressions, French induced Cameroonisms, code mixing and other Cameroonisms. Whenever possible, the Standard British English version of the words or structures studied is provided.

IV. FINDINGS

As already mentioned in, the analysis focuses on the following items: coining, derivation, loanwords, metonymy, re-
structuring, code mixing and some non specific Cameroonisms. Section A below looks at coining.

A. Coining
The following expressions are very popular in the GCE French subject marking rooms: *trasheur, trashé, trasheur, trasheuse, markeress, chiefable, bounssé, bonusser, boxer, boxé, boxeur*. Although that subject for the Ordinary and Advanced GCE Level focuses on the French language, all the discussions, marking guides and instructions are done in English or Pidgin English. Accordingly, all the markers of the subject are bilingual (with at least a French-English BA). They are made up of Francophone teachers who speak CamFE and Anglophone ones who speak CamE. In this kind of intricate situation it is hard to differentiate to which variety belongs each of the expressions analysed here. It is why the items listed in Table 1 which follows are attributed to at the same time to CamE and CamFE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example phrase or sentence</th>
<th>Origin of coinage</th>
<th>Standard British English version</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The chief will <em>trasheur</em> that essay.</td>
<td>Trash</td>
<td>The chief examiner will consider that essay as a trash.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The chief has <em>trashé</em> that essay.</td>
<td>Trash</td>
<td>The chief examiner has destroyed / said terrible things about that essay.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That chief is a <em>trasheur</em>.</td>
<td>Trash</td>
<td>That chief examiner is a poor marker.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That woman is a <em>trasheuse</em>.</td>
<td>Trash</td>
<td>That woman is a poor marker.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That markeress is beautiful.</td>
<td>Mark</td>
<td>That female marker is beautiful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That marker is <em>chiefable</em>.</td>
<td>Chief</td>
<td>That marker is a potential chief.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help me to <em>bonusser</em> this script.</td>
<td>Bonus</td>
<td>Help me add bonus mark to this script.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had <em>bounssé</em> that script well.</td>
<td>Bonus</td>
<td>I had accurately added bonus to that script.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Please, check if I have well <em>boxé</em> this script.</td>
<td>Box</td>
<td>Please, check if I have well marked the boxes boundaries in this script.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tomorrow I will continue to <em>boxer</em> my scripts.</td>
<td>Box</td>
<td>Tomorrow I will continue to mark boxes boundaries in my scripts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That marker is a good <em>boxeur</em>.</td>
<td>Box</td>
<td>That marker marks boxes boundaries accurately.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On va <em>check</em> ce soir.</td>
<td>check</td>
<td>They will do the check in this afternoon.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be remarked that from simple words like *trash, mark, chief, bonus, and check*, CamE and CamFE users are able to coin many new words which well fill in the gap in the GCE marking room. The coinage is generally done by adding a suffix to the English stem. Those suffixes include –*er, -é, -eur, -euse, -ess, - able, -ser, -sé, -ing*. It can be noted that many of them are French ones. In the marking centres, the following vocabulary items are also used: *paramount* (general coordinator), a *couple of kilometres* (transport fee), *scripts due* (scripts payment), *keep fit allowance* (feeding allowance). It is interesting to note that the word *paramount* which is an adjective is turned into a noun in CamE / CamFE, e.g. *Our paramount is absent today*. In other contexts the word also means traditional ruler, e.g. *The paramount will pay a visit to our village tomorrow*. In Cameroon, the GCE markers like those of other examinations do not talk of candidates, but *child or children*, e.g. *This child’s essay is a trash*. In the context of an examination, it is normally the word *candidate* which is appropriate. Although the register studied here is particular to French GCE marking, and may look like the markers playing with the language, some of its items are quite popular among the markers of other subjects and Cameroonian secondary school teachers and students in general. It is not rare to hear in a school premises a student declare: *I did not deserve a fail mark. They certainly trashé my essay* or *That woman is a wicked markeress*.

### B. Derivation

To sound pedantic or because of inaccurate mastery of discourse markers, many CamE /CamFE speakers inflect certain English words in a strange way by adding the suffix –*ly* to them as illustrated below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example phrase or sentence</th>
<th>Word inflected</th>
<th>Standard British English version</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conclusively, I can say that...</td>
<td>conclusion</td>
<td>In conclusion, I can say that...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarily, I can say that...</td>
<td>summary</td>
<td>In summary, I can say that...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additively, he went away...</td>
<td>addition</td>
<td>In addition, he went away.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above expressions are used as rhetorical markers in most essays and dissertations, and are taken as English words by many CamE/CamFE users. *Moreso*...for *moreover,...; to add...for in addition,...; fore and foremost,..., for first,... are also very common in the written and spoken production of Cameroonians.

### C. Loans from Home Languages or Pidgin English

In the absence of an adequate English or French equivalent for some local dishes, CamE CamFE speakers use their local names in their conversations as shown in Table 3 below.
The translation of the concerned items into English as attempted in the table is quite approximate. It is even more a question of explanation than translation. Finding an equivalent for *koki, kwakoko, bongo tchobi, kondre, folere,* etc. in English is almost impossible. The phenomenon is not particular to Cameroon. Many non-native Englishes around the world are flooded with local languages items. For example, Khokhlova (2015, p. 987) remarks that the following Xhosa items are well established in South African English: *abakwetha* (a Xhosa initiate to manhood), *bonsela* (a small gift), *tagahi* (witchcraft), *tudaha* (a tribal discussion). Other vocabulary items from local languages and Pidgin English well set in CamE and CamFE include *tchuk* (push, hit violently), *tchuker* (to knock, stab, push), *doss* / *doser* (to box / knock violently). So, it is striking that many home languages and Pidgin English contribute words and they then get set in CamE and CamFE. The section below looks at loanwords from French.

D. Loans from French

In Cameroon English / Cameroon Francophone English, many French words are fully adopted and understood by the majority of speakers. The words listed in the following table are very popular among university students, lecturers and general public.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word or phrase</th>
<th>Standard British English version</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>exposé</em></td>
<td>presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>capitalisé / capitaliser</em></td>
<td>passed / pass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>informatique</em></td>
<td>computer studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>rattrapage</em></td>
<td>catch-up session / special session</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>centre médico</em></td>
<td>university health centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>mini cité</em></td>
<td>students residential building</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>licence</em></td>
<td>Bachelor’s Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Maîtrise</em></td>
<td>Master’s Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Bordereau number</em></td>
<td>File reference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>délai</em></td>
<td>deadline</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Because of French domination in Cameroon, on most university campuses many common documents and forms are not translated into English. That also applies to the vast majority of university offices and places signposts. Therefore, many Anglophone students refer to them only in their French appellation to be understood. For example, on campus of the University of Yaounde I or Dschang if a student does not say ‘*where is the Centre Médico?’* for ‘*Where is the University Health Centre?*’, or ‘*this is my licence*’ for ‘*this is my Bachelor’s Degree*’, there is every likelihood not to be understood even by some Anglophone students. In contact situations this would be treated as code-switch. But clearly, this is something different in CamE / CamFE as students who use the French expressions in question here do not have any communication problem. They know what they are talking about in French and English. It is the context which pushes them to use the French expressions. Other French words or expressions well established in CamE that have been studied by early studies include *mandat* (money order), *patente* (business tax), *rappel* (arrears), *vignette* (tax disc), *bon de caisse* (pay voucher), *demande d’explication* (query) (Simo Bobda 1994b, p. 245). The phenomenon of borrowing is a general feature of languages. This happens in British and American English too. British English uses *courgette* and *aubergine* from French. For the same vegetable, American English calls it *zucchini* which is a loan from native American languages, and *eggplant*.

E. Metonymical Use of Lecturers’ and Authorities’ Names

According to Moody (1987, p. 206), metonymy is a figurative device by which something is referred to indirectly by something else associated with it. In CamE and CamFE, the names of lecturers and administrative authorities have acquired a metonymical use among students and general public. Some students even ignore the titles of some courses, but only retain the name of the lecturers who teaches them as illustrated by the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example phrase or sentence</th>
<th>Origin of loan</th>
<th>Standard British English version</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A plate of kwakoko</td>
<td>Mbo language¹</td>
<td>A plate of mashed cocoyam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A plate of koki</td>
<td>Bamileke languages²</td>
<td>A plate of crushed beans with palm oil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A plate of bongo tchobi</td>
<td>Bassa language³</td>
<td>A plate of black soup</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’ve just taken some kosam.</td>
<td>Fulfulde 4</td>
<td>I have just taken some local cake made of millet flour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give him some kondre.</td>
<td>Pidgin English</td>
<td>Give him some plantain cooked with pork.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Add more jansan to it.</td>
<td>Pidgin English</td>
<td>Add more aromatic spice to it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He drinks a lot of folere.</td>
<td>Fulfulde</td>
<td>He drinks a lot of boiled flower of Guinean oxalis.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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To talk of their various subjects, Cameroonian students prefer to use the names of the lecturers who teach them. For example, to talk of postcolonial literature, they prefer to say Prof. Adamu, who is the lecturer who teaches that subject. For English phonetics, they simply say Prof. Simo. This kind of figurative language is so popular on Cameroon campuses that some lecturers are simply referred to as King of algebra, King of phonetics, Mr. TEFL, etc. This special use of the language also goes beyond the university campus. In other domains like administration and Territorial Administration in particular, when they talk of Divaha Diboua and Atanga Nji every Cameroonian understands the Governor of the Littoral Region and the Minister of Territorial Administration. In most villages in Cameroon, villagers do not always refer to their chief as ‘Chief X or Y’, but simply use his family name which is understood as his title. This is one of the general features of CamE and CamFE which is found in other Englishes. For example, when British and American journalists talk of the British Prime Minister or the US President they do not always say ‘The British Prime Minister Boris Johnson’ or ‘The US President Donald Trump’. Most of the time they simply say Boris Johnson or Donald Trump, and this is understood by all the listeners.

F. Restructuring of Some English Language Idiomatic Expressions

CamE and CamFE users restructure certain idiomatic expressions of the English language which in their understanding seem illogical. Some of them are provided in Table 6 which follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example phrase or sentence</th>
<th>Standard British English version</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Are you in the house?</td>
<td>Are you at home?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am in church / in school /in the market.</td>
<td>I am at church / at school / at the market.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He is in the plane from London.</td>
<td>He is on the plane from London.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We were in the bus when it broke down.</td>
<td>We were on the bus when it broke down.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In that train there were many passengers.</td>
<td>On that train there were many passengers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In our ship the captain was very kind.</td>
<td>On our ship the captain was very kind.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We went out of the bus in Eséka.</td>
<td>We went off the train in Eséka.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The pilot jumped out of the plane.</td>
<td>The pilot jumped off the plane.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They ran out of the ship / the train.</td>
<td>They ran off the ship / the train.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This category of Cameroonisms is what Simo Bobda (2001) calls taming the madness of English. Indeed, it is hard to a Cameroonian to understand why it is correct in English to say ‘out of the room, in the taxi, in a truck’ etc., but incorrect in the same language to say ‘in the plane, in the ship, in the bus, out of the bus, out of the ship’ while you are in fact inside the taxi as well as the plane, and outside the room as well as the bus. So, to CamE/ CamFE speakers this restructuring is just a matter of logic. The next section examines some French induced Cameroonisms.

G. Some French Induced Cameroonisms

French induced Cameroonisms are mostly found in CamFE as pictured by the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example phrase or sentence</th>
<th>Standard British English version</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I will buy my school fees tomorrow.</td>
<td>I will pay my school fees tomorrow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is my aunt, and this is his husband.</td>
<td>This is my aunt and this is her husband.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is my nephew, and this is her mother.</td>
<td>This is my nephew, and this is his mother.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Different people came to the ceremony.</td>
<td>Different people came to the ceremony.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three beautiful girls</td>
<td>Three beautiful girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ten longs legs</td>
<td>Ten longs legs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CamFE contains many French induced difficulties. Since in Cameroon French, there is no difference between acheter (to buy) and payer (to pay), CamFE speakers think that they can interchangeably use buy or pay in any context. As to the problem with his and her, it is due to the fact that in French the determiner agrees with the grammatical gender of...
the noun (masculine or feminine) and not with the sex of the owner. *Sa case, sa mère, ma fenêtre* will always remain feminine nouns whatever the gender of the owner, e.g. *Marie a un champ, un chien et un chat. C’est son champ, son chien et son chat*. *Champ, chien and chat* are masculine nouns, but their possessive adjectives do not change though their owner is a female. However, in English, it is the sex of the owner which determines the kind of determiner to use as that language does not make use of grammatical gender, e.g. *his dog, his cat* (when the owner is a male); *her dog, her cat* (when the owner is a female). The same French grammar accounts for the difficulty in *differents, longs and legs*. In that language, adjectives agree with the noun they qualify, i.e. if the noun they modify is in the plural form they will take the plural marker, if the noun is singular they will be singular, e.g. *deux longs bancs, un long banc*. The section below focuses on code mixing.

H. Code Mixing

Code mixing which is mixing words and sentences from different languages is very common in CamE and CamFE as illustrated in Table 8 which follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample phrase or sentence</th>
<th>Standard British English version</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Our abattoirs are dirty.</td>
<td>Our slaughterhouses are dirty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If they see me they will sabotage me.</td>
<td>If they see me they will sabotage me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A carton of savon</td>
<td>A carton of soap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People make noise in my quartier.</td>
<td>People make noise in my quarter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drop me at the next dos d’âne.</td>
<td>Drop me at the next security band / humpback bridge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will write a requête.</td>
<td>I will write a complaint.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Go and deposit it at the scolarité.</td>
<td>Go and submit it at the admission office.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your relevé shows what?</td>
<td>What does your transcript indicate?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He went to the beach to bronzer a bit.</td>
<td>He went to the beach to go brown a bit / to get a tan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is a concours on.</td>
<td>There is a competitive entrance examination on.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our class will hold in Salle 4.</td>
<td>Our class will hold in Room 4.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are few brasseries in Cameroon.</td>
<td>There are few breweries in Cameroon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have validé all my units.</td>
<td>I have passed all my units.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She has capitalisé everything.</td>
<td>She has passed everything.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the complex setting of Cameroon, the languages mixed are generally French and English, but sometimes English and Pidgin or English and local languages. The mixing is so fashionable in the two varieties in question in this study that many Cameroonians do it to sound pedantic, e.g. ‘He went to the beach to bronzer a bit’ for ‘He went to the beach to go brown a bit / to get a tan’. It is not also rare in Cameroonian restaurants to hear some costumers say in a joking or arrogant tone ‘Add me some more bouillon’ for ‘add me some more broth’, or ‘Give two more beignets’ for ‘give me two more dough-nuts’. The word beignet is so established in CamE and CamFE, that almost no Cameroonian calls it by a different name. If dough-nut is not called beignet it is named popop (a Pidgin English word). The last section below looks at uncategorised Cameroonisms.

I. Other Cameroonisms

There are some Cameroonisms which are difficult to categorise. Their content is entirely made up of English words (or French words), but cannot be decoded by a non Cameroonian. Table 9 which follows provides some examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example of Cameroonisms</th>
<th>Standard British English version</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blood cleaning</td>
<td>haemodialysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We are together (said while leaving someone).</td>
<td>I remain with you in spirit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am coming (said while leaving someone).</td>
<td>I will shortly be back.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He rained in her.</td>
<td>He heavily ejaculated in her.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The elites within and without the village are...</td>
<td>The internal and external elites are...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The mother of the nation is ill.</td>
<td>The First Lady is ill.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He ate all his school fees.</td>
<td>He spent all his school fees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He ate his future</td>
<td>He jeopardized his future.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That man deserves a red feather.</td>
<td>That man should be decorated.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If some of the expressions in the table are understood by all CamE and CamFE speakers such as *we are together* (said while leaving someone), *I am coming* (said while leaving someone), *he ate his school fees*, a lot of expressions of that kind belong to particular registers, i.e. understood by particular groups of Cameroonians. For example, *blood cleaning* belongs to the medical field and *‘he rained in her’* to the sexual one. Other popular euphemistic expressions used by young Cameroonians to talk of sexuality include *‘being bilingual’* for being *bisexual and homosexual*; *‘to uncup a girl’* for *to deflower a girl*, *‘to input’* for *having sex with a girl*, *écraser son pistache / limé* for *to fuck*, etc.

V. CONCLUSION
Cameroon English and Cameroon Francophone English are full of so many neologisms and Cameroonisms that only those who are familiar with the two varieties of English can understand some speech by their speakers. As dynamic languages, they testify to their evolution. They also constitute the hallmarks which differentiate them from other non-native Englishes. As strange as some of the items studied in this paper may be, they are just natural elements which enrich any living language.

NOTES
1. Mbo language: a language spoken in the littoral region of Cameroon
2. Bamileke language: a group of languages spoken in the west region of Cameroon including fè’fè’, ghoma’la’, medumba, etc.
3. Bassa language: a language spoken in the littoral and centre region of Cameroon
4. Fulfilde: a language spoken in the northern part of Cameroon

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Parents’ Perceptions and Management of Children’s Learning of Chinese as a Heritage Language: A Case Study of Cross-cultural Families in Australia

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Abstract—Parents play an important role in children’s learning of their heritage language (HL) in immigrant countries. Fostering HL learning is a hard task for parents, particularly in immigrant families, and this difficulty is exacerbated in cross-cultural families. The existing studies have not fully addressed the importance of consistent parental perceptions and language management in children’s HL learning. This gap is particularly clear in the research concerning learning Chinese as an HL among cross-cultural families’ children living in English-speaking immigrant countries such as Australia. The present qualitative study used semi-structured interviews to fill this gap by examining the perceptions and language management strategies of three cross-cultural families in Australia whose children are learning Chinese as one parent’s HL. The results suggest that, in English countries, Chinese-background and non-Chinese-background parents in cross-cultural families have quite different opinions about their children learning Chinese, which are reflected in their dissimilar language management strategies. The results highlight the importance and challenges of developing a stable family language policy in cross-cultural families in order to maintain their children’s HL learning.

Index Terms—heritage language, family language policy, cross-cultural family, children’s Chinese learning, parents’ perceptions and language management

I. INTRODUCTION

For more than a decade, researchers have acknowledged that heritage language (HL) maintenance is based on intergenerational transmission guided by family language policies (FLPs) (Fishman, 2001), which emphasise the role of parental language ideology, management and practice (Spolsky, 2004). Empirical studies of children’s language development have also found evidence of parents’ important role and, in particular, parental perceptions and management’s essential contribution to children’s HL skills and proficiency (Budiya, 2017; Kalayci & Öz, 2018; Rowe, Ramani, & Pomerantz, 2016). To date, the existing knowledge about parents’ perceptions of children’s HL maintenance mainly comes from studies of parents who share the same HL background (Hashimoto & Lee, 2011; Li, 2006; Suarez, 2002) or one parent’s perceptions (Brown, 2011; Lee, 2013; Liao & Larke, 2008; S. M. Park & Sarkar, 2007; Vu & Yeh, 2017). Nonetheless, researchers also widely acknowledge that both parents’ ideas contribute to developing a stable FLP (Fernandes, 2019; Kennedy & Romo, 2013).

Prior studies have rarely explored each parent’s perceptions of HL learning in cross-cultural families, and these studies have been largely confined to Spanish, Japanese and Korean as an HL in English-speaking countries e.g., (King & Fogle, 2006; Seo, 2017; Tsushima & Guardado, 2019). Scant research exists on both parents’ perceptions in cross-cultural families of maintaining Chinese as an HL in these countries, including Australia. Thus, the present study sought to fill this gap by exploring how each parent from cross-cultural families in Australia perceives Chinese HL maintenance and how they are able to support their children’s HL learning.

About 4% of Australia’s resident population claim they speak a type of Chinese at home (ABS, 2016). Chinese Australians were among the fastest-growing minority groups in the country, and Chinese was recently ranked the second most frequently spoken home language in Victoria, after English. Chinese as an HL is strongly promoted by families and local communities. Australian Chinese immigrant parents tend to use Chinese as their family language and try to speak Chinese to their children at home instead of English (Shen & Jiang, 2017), as well as sending their children to learn Chinese at weekend community schools. These families’ efforts are supported by government policies and funds, with 28 accredited Chinese community language schools in Victoria alone in 2019 (see https://www.education.vic.gov.au/) and 12,718 new students enrolled in 2017 (Hughson, Hajek, & Slaughter, 2018). These schools act as platforms that allow children to learn both Chinese and the diverse cultures associated with this
language.

By conducting the current research, we aimed to extend the existing knowledge about HL maintenance specifically through an investigation of how cross-cultural parents maintain Chinese as an HL in an English-speaking immigrant country. This study addressed the following research questions:

1. Do Chinese and non-Chinese parents perceive their children’s learning of Chinese differently?
2. How do Chinese and non-Chinese parents manage their children’s learning of Chinese?
   a) What strategies do parents adopt to facilitate their children’s Chinese learning?
   b) What challenges do parents encounter when supporting their children’s Chinese language learning?

II. FLPs AND PARENTS’ PERCEPTIONS AND MANAGEMENT OF CHILDREN’S HL MAINTENANCE

HL maintenance refers to efforts made by immigrants with cultural and emotional connections to languages other than their immigrant countries’ mainstream language in order to preserve their HL (Kelleher, 2010). Studies have highlighted that the family is the most essential source of HL maintenance and that this unit plays a vital role in developing children’s wellbeing, education and language skills and proficiency (Fillmore, 2000; Place & Hoff, 2011). As the family’s foundation, parents are the first promoters of and most influential individuals in children’s healthy growth and educational development, including HL maintenance (Budiyana, 2017).

On the one hand, parents are the primary decision makers in the family regarding children’s language development (Hoff, 2018), and these adults take on the greatest responsibility for maintaining and developing HLs (S. M. Park & Sarkar, 2007). On the other hand, successful HL maintenance is largely dependent on family relationships so that, the closer the connections are between parents and children, the more likely the latter are to be willing to maintain their parents’ mother tongue (Tannenbaum & Howie, 2002). Fillmore (2000) carried out a qualitative study of a Chinese immigrant family in which language shift had an extremely negative effect on the family relationship. The cited author concluded that, in order to maintain their HL, families and parents as the most crucial agents of HL development must provide basic elements such as a sense of belonging to the home country’s culture and of strong identity for the children.

FLPs are a deliberate attempt to foster specific language usage patterns and literacy practices within families based on a plan for language use among family members (Curdt-Christiansen, 2009). According to Spolsky (2004), FLPs are influenced by the family’s internal environment (i.e. language ideology, management and practice) and the social external environment (i.e. sociolinguistic, sociocultural, socioeconomic and sociopolitical context). Parental perceptions of children’s HL learning shape how parents manage and use that language with their children every day, which, in turn, provides a useful perspective on and insights into the extent to which the FLP is developed (Curdt-Christiansen, 2018). However, these internal elements appear to function like a semi-permeable membrane, allowing external forces (e.g. sociolinguistic and sociocultural) to penetrate the family through language socialisation.

FLPs are considered to be an important aspect of children’s language development (Spolsky, 2004) because these plans can generate interactions between children and family members and ultimately determine the framework for how children’s language learning develops (Kang, 2015; Kaveh, 2018). More importantly, FLPs lay the foundation for children’s HL maintenance and guide parents’ efforts to manage and practice the HL with their offspring. These findings are also true for cross-cultural marriage families that may consider bilingualism or multilingualism a crucial child-rearing goal.

To maintain an HL, parents must achieve a balance in their use of different languages in bilingual families and create a consistent FLP (Curdt-Christiansen, 2018; Fogle & King, 2013) with regard to one parent’s HL. In practice, parents from different cultures may, however, have dissimilar perceptions of the relevant parent’s HL. These intercultural families may also have to contend with different languages in their daily lives because cultural differences in beliefs and practices can create conflicts over parenting and other issues (Dumanig, David, & Shanmuganathan, 2013).

For example, a study in Canada (Tsushima & Guardado, 2019) investigated the most crucial factors influencing HL maintenance among children of Japanese women who had at least one child with a non-Japanese partner whose mother tongue was not Japanese. The results reveal that all the participating mothers voiced their support of developing and maintaining Japanese at home, even in families in which maintaining Japanese as an HL had ultimately been abandoned due to the absence of a consistent FLP in the family. Most Japanese mothers in the study clearly expressed their views of their children’s HL development, but they had to change their actual practices because of their partners and society’s differing ideas. Tsushima and Guardado (2019) also confirm that, in cross-cultural families, Japanese mothers experience various feelings of guilt, frustration and anxiety about promoting their children’s development of Japanese as an HL in Montreal, a multi-ethnic and multilingual city. The cited authors point out that, in cross-cultural families, determining how to transmit one parent’s mother tongue to the next generation is a quite high-risk task, particularly for mothers who have to ignore pressures from their spouse and main languages in the society. M. Y. Park (2019) discusses similar challenges faced by Southeast Asian mothers regarding maintaining their HL in cross-cultural families in Korea. All participating mothers in the study perceived the HL as something valuable that they should pass on to their children by making a special effort and adopting language strategies. However, due to different cultural values, the mother’s HL was not fully welcomed by Korean family members who felt that learning the HL could hinder the children’s academic achievement and future career. As a result, most of these mothers were forced to change to using the mainstream language with their children, who were thus prevented from receiving enriching HL input and who
lacked fluency in their mothers’ HL. Given the coexistence of two or more HLs and cultures in cross-cultural and bilingual families, these parents have more difficulty developing a shared perception of their children’s HL maintenance than in families in which the adults share a common mother tongue (Blum-Kulka, 2008; Tsushima & Guardado, 2019).

Cultural background (Killian, 2002) or sociocultural factors (Spolsky, 2004) are a crucial influence on parents’ perceptions in cross-cultural marriages of their children’s HL learning. Culture impacts all aspects of human development, so culture is also manifested in parents’ views about their children’s language choice and development (Rosenblatt & Stewart, 2004). Each culture has its own social values, traditions, customs, languages, ways of communicating and family values, which can shape individuals’ perceptions and opinions of the outside world (Xue & Lu, 2018). King and Fogle (2006) report that the most powerful influence on parents’ language policy decisions is their cultural background, personal beliefs and experiences. Thus, in cross-cultural families, parents with different cultural backgrounds tend more towards having different ideas about educational concepts and methods affecting their children, which, in turn, impact their offspring’s educational achievement and wellbeing. Studies have shown that, if both parents in a cross-cultural family maintain positive perceptions of their children’s HL learning, this consensus is not only conducive to a stable, effective FLP but also benefits these children’s development in terms of level and proficiency (Fernandes, 2019; Kennedy & Romo, 2013). For instance, a study conducted in the United States by Kennedy and Romo (2013) showed that one child had successfully maintained Spanish as an HL in a linguistically mixed family in which the mother was an American and the father was Colombian. The cited research confirmed that both parents had a consistently positive attitude towards their child’s maintenance of Spanish. Meanwhile, both parents actively sought to ensure an effective FLP that focused on presenting, promoting and maintaining the father’s HL in the home.

Although parents come from different cultures in cross-cultural families, parents’ perceptions of the HL and language management can promote significant connections to the relevant parent’s mother tongue and culture. Kennedy and Romo (2013) propose, therefore, that, to support children’s HL maintenance in American society, parents of intercultural families need to reach an understanding and agree with each other on the benefits of raising bilingual children and maintaining HL. In addition, Fernandes (2019) found quite similar results for a child in a Russian-Swedish family that quite effectively maintained one parent’s HL (i.e. Russian) while living in Sweden. In the cited study, Russian language, culture and contacts were highly valued by both parents and seen as important for the children to maintain. The parents not only reached a consensus on supporting their children’s HL learning but more importantly, embedded HL practice into mundane family activities to help the children maintain the HL.

These findings fully support Spolsky (2004) argument that parents’ language ideology shapes how they manage language on a daily basis (e.g. through different strategies). Various studies have highlighted parental strategies’ importance in children’s HL learning, including that differences in these strategies result in heterogenous impacts on children’s language learning processes, experiences, proficiency and educational achievements (S. M. Park & Sarkar, 2007; Tannenbaum & Howie, 2002). Two types of parental strategies for supporting children’s HL development have been identified: explicit and implicit approaches (Meyer-Pitton, 2013). Some parents prefer to adopt more explicit approaches to support children’s language learning such as reading books, telling stories and setting up language tasks, while other parents’ strategies may be more implicit or indirect (Meyer-Pitton, 2013). Indirect activities include travelling abroad with offspring and attending activities, which can provide children with social opportunities to experience a language other than English in real life and thus to increase the children’s interest in learning the HL.

When supporting their children’s HL learning, parents in immigrant countries encounter many challenges related to social, economic, time allocation or other factors (Liao & Larke, 2008; M. Y. Park, 2019; Yan, 2003). These obstacles might arise from within the family (e.g. economic status, parents’ divergent opinions on HL learning and children’s attitudes towards the HL) or the surrounding community (e.g. an absence of HL environments and limited learning resources). Researchers have found that most respondents consider the lack of HL environments and parents’ inconsistent perceptions of their children’s HL learning to be the main barriers to maintaining children’s HL learning in English-speaking countries. For example, Yan’s (2003) study of obstacles to maintaining HLs confirmed that 70% of the parents from different HL groups (e.g. Chinese, Spanish and Hebrew) encountered one or more of the greatest challenges to maintaining children’s HL. These include the absence of HL environments and opportunities to use the HL in English-speaking countries. Concurrently, 37% of Chinese and 44% of Arab immigrant parents reported other obstacles such as their partners’ failure to help and support their children’s HL maintenance. This challenge becomes more apparent and even the main challenge in cross-cultural families due to parents’ inconsistent perceptions of their children’s HL learning. For instance, M. Y. Park (2019) research highlighted the disappointments, anxieties and difficulties that Southeast Asian immigrant mothers in cross-cultural marriages experienced regarding their HL because of their Korean partners and family members’ criticism and opposition.

A few studies have explored both parent’s views on children’s maintaining Japanese, Korean and Spanish as an HL in cross-cultural families (King & Fogle, 2006; Seo, 2017; Tsushima & Guardado, 2019). These studies provide further evidence of the importance of both parents’ attitudes towards their children’s learning of HLs and the formulation of FLPs. For example, Tsushima and Guardado (2019) determined that, when parents from different language backgrounds have dissimilar opinions of children’s HL learning, the children’s opportunities to receive rich HL input (i.e. Japanese) becomes harder, which leads to a loss of interest in that language. The cited study’s results also confirm that the participating Japanese mothers feel frustrated when experiencing many challenges in the HL maintenance.
process, which causes them to give up using Japanese at home.

In contrast, children in families with stable and active FLPs can make progress towards maintaining Spanish as an HL in the United States (King & Fogle, 2006). The cited research found that, despite parents’ different language backgrounds, they both have a positive attitude towards the relevant parent’s HL, and they are willing to adopt language strategies to support their children’s process of becoming bilingual. Thus far, no similar study has been published that has focused on individual parents’ attitudes in cross-cultural families regarding maintaining Chinese as an HL in English-speaking immigrant countries such as Australia. These parents’ degree of involvement in and perceptions of their children’s learning and regular use of Chinese has also not been widely discussed. Therefore, the present research sought to explore these neglected topics to expand this field of knowledge further.

III. STUDY SAMPLE AND METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

This research’s participants were parents from three cross-cultural families whose children were studying one of parents’ HL, namely, Chinese in an English-language context, so that one of the parent’s native languages is Chinese and the other parent’s is English. More precisely, each parent with a Chinese ethnic background and native fluency in Chinese was considered to be a Chinese parent. The potential participants were screened and selected based on a background questionnaire focusing on their linguistic background. Information on the parents’ highest education level and profession was also collected because these variables were expected to influence the parents’ perceptions of learning a new language (Nesteruk, 2010). Those who met the requirement criteria and who were willing to be interviewed further were chosen for the study. In total, six interviewees from three cross-cultural families participated in this research. All the participants’ details are furnished in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Age (Range)</th>
<th>Chinese Ethnic Background</th>
<th>First/Second Language</th>
<th>Chinese Proficiency</th>
<th>Highest Education Level</th>
<th>Profession</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F1 ND</td>
<td>40–50</td>
<td>Non-Chinese</td>
<td>English/none</td>
<td>Very poor</td>
<td>Technical school diploma</td>
<td>Electrician</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F1 CM</td>
<td>40–50</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>Chinese/English</td>
<td>Native</td>
<td>Bachelor’s</td>
<td>Costume designer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2 NM</td>
<td>30–40</td>
<td>Non-Chinese</td>
<td>English/none</td>
<td>Very poor</td>
<td>Bachelor’s</td>
<td>Research assistant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2 CD</td>
<td>30–40</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>Chinese/English</td>
<td>Native</td>
<td>Bachelor’s</td>
<td>Salesperson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3 ND</td>
<td>40–50</td>
<td>Non-Chinese</td>
<td>English/none</td>
<td>Very poor</td>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>Lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3 CM</td>
<td>30–40</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>Chinese/English</td>
<td>Native</td>
<td>Bachelor’s</td>
<td>Pharmacist</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The participants were coded to preserve confidentiality. The first code ‘F’ means Family number so that F1 is the first family. The second code ‘N’ or ‘C’ denotes if the parent has a Chinese ethnic background (i.e. N = non-Chinese background; C = Chinese background), while the third code indicates if the participant is the ‘mum’ (M) or ‘dad’ (D) in the family. Table 1 above also shows whether the Chinese parents are bilingual speakers of English and Chinese. They all have native-level Chinese proficiency even though they are from different places. In contrast, all three non-Chinese parents identified themselves as monolingual in English, and they are unable to communicate in Chinese even though some of them can say something quite basic, such as greetings (e.g. 你好 [hello]) or typical Chinese food names (e.g. 饺子 [dumpling] or 小笼包 [steamed buns]). All the parents except for Family One’s father has completed a bachelor’s or higher degree.

B. Data Collection Procedures and Analyses

In this study, the main data were collected from semi-structured interviews with parents who volunteered and who were filtered by a demographic survey. The survey was distributed to parents whose children were studying Chinese at the primary level in Chinese community schools (i.e. grade four and five). The questionnaire was prepared in a bilingual format (i.e. English and Chinese) to help parents from both language backgrounds better understand the questions. The survey contained questions about parents’ demographics (i.e. parents’ education, age group and profession) and linguistic background.

Based on the criterion of a cross-cultural family, this study recruited six parents from three families for a further interview. The semi-structured interviews were conducted in the language in which the respondents felt most comfortable communicating (i.e. either English or Chinese). To increase the data’s validity and elicit each parent’s independent ideas, the interviews were conducted on a one-to-one basis to avoid any possible interference from others, especially the interviewees’ partners. The list of semi-structured interview questions was also prepared in the two languages and printed out before the interview, and a copy was provided to the individual parents if they requested it. The questions were mainly about their personal views on their child’s learning of Chinese and the ways they manage this process.

Each interview was audio-recorded, lasting about 15 to 20 minutes for Chinese parents and about 10 minutes for non-Chinese parents. All the interviews were transcribed verbatim, and the interviews conducted in Chinese were also translated into English, given the study’s cultural context. The transcripts were then analysed against the identified themes within the parents’ perceptions and approaches adopted to maintain their children’s Chinese skills. In addition, a
comparative approach was applied in the analysis to ascertain the commonalities and differences within and across the three families.

IV. FINDINGS

A. ‘My Husband Agreed to My Son Learning Chinese, But I Know He Does Not Like The Child to Speak Chinese in Front of Him’ – Dissimilar Perceptions Between Mum and Dad in Cross-cultural Families

All six parents related their children’s learning of Chinese to the family’s language background. The parents’ responses included ‘I am sending my child to learn Chinese because I have a Chinese family background and I can speak Chinese’ (F1CM) and ‘I have a Chinese culture and language background, [so,] of course, my children should learn Chinese’ (F3CM). These answers clearly highlight the family background’s importance to children’s learning of Chinese in an immigrant country – a link echoed by the non-Chinese partners. For example, Family One’s father admitted, ‘I did not choose to send my child to study Chinese. [It was] only because of my wife. She has [a] Chinese family background.’ This reaction was shared by Family Three’s father, who said, ‘the main reason for sending my child to community school is … my partner[’s] … Chinese background and as I know she has a very good attachment towards China.’

The phrase ‘family background’ appears extremely frequently in all the parents’ answers. This finding is consistent with those of various other studies of HL learning, namely, that the family’s language background is one of the main driving forces for children to learn an HL in English-speaking countries (Lee, 2013). However, the interviews revealed that both parents from the same family have fewer views in common than the parents from other families with the same Chinese cultural and ethnic background and whose children are learning Chinese as an HL. More details can be found in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chinese Parents’ Perceptions (F1CM, F2CD, F3CM, F4CM)</th>
<th>Non-Chinese (Australian) Parents’ Perceptions (F1ND, F2NM, F3ND, F4ND)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All parents: the child has to learn Chinese because of the individual parent’s Chinese culture and language background.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Australia is a multicultural and multilingual country, so the child should and must learn another new language (F1CM, F2CD, F3CM).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Learning Chinese is good for the child’s future career development and being bilingual will expand his or her future job opportunities (F1CM, F2CD, F3CM).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Chinese is considered a communication tool that could help the child communicate with Chinese people efficiently and politely (F1CM, F2CD, F3CM); it also helps the child talk to older generations such as grandparents (F1CM, F3CM).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Learning Chinese as an HL is fantastic for the child’s mental development (F2CD).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Studying Chinese is not very important in Australia because Australia is an English-speaking country, and, almost everywhere, everyone speaks English in Australia (F1ND, F2NM, F3ND), so the ability to speak English is enough in Australia (F3ND).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The child is wasting time by learning Chinese (F1ND, F3ND).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Learning Chinese might help the child to keep busy (F2NM).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Learning Chinese might be important and necessary if the parents intend to send the child to Chinese-speaking countries in the future (F3ND).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All three Chinese parents in this study showed great interest in their children’s learning of Chinese in contrast to their non-Chinese partners who seldom expressed the same level of interest in their children’s Chinese learning. According to the Chinese parents, HL maintenance and the learning of Chinese is essential for their children’s intercultural and intergenerational communication. HL learning also has personal benefits such as multilingual skills, mental development, diverse career options and personal wellbeing, as well as maintaining Chinese cultural values (see the Chinese parents’ comments in the left column of Table 2 above). These parents appreciate Australia’s multiculturalism. As one interviewee said, ‘[I hope] learning Chinese can help him become a bilingual person, which is better than being a monolingual person in this world.’ (F3CM). Learning the HL is also connected to these parents’ attachment to Chinese culture because they think ‘Chinese culture is very broad and profound’ (F1CM).

Australian parents have quite different views from their Chinese-background spouses. The most typical perception among these non-Chinese parents is that children do not need to learn Chinese in Australia. One parent said:

I don’t think children learning Mandarin in Australia is very important because everywhere we speak English but not Chinese. Yes, it might be important if you want to send the children to Chinese-speaking countries like … China or some places. … Everywhere in Australia, we speak English but not Chinese. (F3ND)

This opinion was shared by the second family’s non-Chinese mother. ‘I wouldn’t say it is specifically important in Australia. I think it’s important for kids who have a [Chinese] background and both parents [are] from China or [are] related to China’ (F2NM).

In Family One, the father’s attitude was even quite negative as he asserted, ‘it’s a waste of money because I never speak Chinese to my son’ (F1ND). This lack of support was mentioned by his wife. ‘My husband agreed for my son to learn Chinese, but I know he does not like the child to speak Chinese in front of him’ (F1CM). These responses indicate that parents without a Chinese cultural and ethnic background do not attach the same level of importance to their
children learning Chinese as their Chinese-background partner do. In general, non-Chinese parents associate their children’s learning of Chinese more closely with the language’s instrumentality, that is, offering more career choices or simply keeping the child ‘busy’ (see the right column in Table 2 above).

B. ‘I Can(Not) Help Her’ – Strategies Adopted by Chinese and Non-Chinese Parents to Assist Their Children to Learn Chinese

The most striking finding about the parental strategies used to support children’s Chinese learning is that all the Chinese participants try to support their children’s learning of that language. In contrast, the non-Chinese parents stated that they only lend occasional, indirect support to their children’s Chinese learning. A summary of parental strategies is provided in Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chinese Parents’ Strategies</th>
<th>Non-Chinese (Australian) Parents’ Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. This parent requires the child to finish homework with high quality work, and they sometimes study Chinese together (F1CM, F2CD, F3CM).</td>
<td>1. This parent buys Chinese books for the child (F2ND).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The parent travels with the child to China (F1CM, F2CD, F3CM).</td>
<td>2. Sometimes, the parents cook Chinese cuisine at home and eat in Chinese restaurants (F3ND).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. This parent speaks Chinese to the child whenever possible (F1CM, F3CM).</td>
<td>3. This parent accompanies the other parent and the child on trips to Chinese-speaking countries (F2ND, F3ND).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The parent reads Chinese storybooks to the child almost every day (F1CM, F3CM).</td>
<td>4. The parents attend Chinese festival activities with the child (F2ND, F3ND).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. This parent provides multi-media materials such as watching Chinese videos or movies (F1CM, F2CD, F3CM).</td>
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</table>

Table 3 shows that all the Chinese parents are extremely proactive in terms of managing their children’s Chinese learning. These adults promote the process via both explicit (e.g. helping them with homework, reading Chinese storybooks and practising Chinese as much as possible) and implicit approaches (e.g. taking the children to China and providing learning materials). These proactive measures have been confirmed by prior studies of other language’s maintenance (Meyer-Pitton, 2013; Polinsky, 2015). Family One’s Chinese mother commented, ‘whenever possible, I will help him learn Chinese’ (F1CM).

Unsurprisingly, the Australian parents without a Chinese background are unable to deploy direct mechanisms to help their children’s HL learning given that these adults are neither proficient in nor capable of using Chinese, as they admitted in the interviews. However, the interview data on these non-Chinese parents highlight their indirect involvement in their children’s Chinese learning, such as buying Chinese books, being part of family gatherings during Chinese festivals, visiting Chinese restaurants and asking children how to say something in Chinese (F2NM, F3ND). Notably, both Chinese and non-Chinese parents see accompanying their children on trips to Chinese-speaking areas to be a useful strategy.

Nevertheless, Family One’s father admitted, ‘I never help my son learn Chinese and do any activities related to Chinese’ because ‘my son is an Australian. He doesn’t need to learn Chinese in Australia.’ This response underlines that parents’ lack of participation in their children’s HL learning is strongly linked to their negative perception of that language. This specific father’s negative attitude could also be related to his career as an electrician since he does not need to use other languages on the job or his educational background does not encourage a positive attitude (see Table 1 above for details).

C. ‘My Child Studies in a Totally English-speaking Environment and Only Speaks English’ – Challenges in Facilitating HL Maintenance

While managing their children’s learning of Chinese as an HL, the parents interviewed face various challenges. These obstacles (see Table 4) are related to social, economic, time allocation or other factors, which corresponds with Liao and Larke (2008) results. For parents from cross-cultural marriages, the barriers could be more serious due to differences in parents’ perceptions, cultural backgrounds and language gaps.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHALLENGES CROSS-CULTURAL MARRIAGE PARENTS ENCOUNTER WHEN SUPPORTING CHILDREN’S CHINESE LEARNING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Chinese Parents’ Challenges</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. An appropriate sociolinguistic environment is lacking, and the child is unwilling to speak Chinese (F1CM, F2CD, F3CM).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The child needs to be encouraged to continue learning Chinese and going to Chinese school when he or she wants to quit the Chinese classes (F1CM, F2CD, F3CM).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The child does not show much interest in acquiring Chinese (F1CM, F2CD).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The other parent does not provide adequate support (F1CM, F2CD, F3CM).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The most common challenge mentioned by all the Chinese parents (F1CM, F2CD, F3CM) is that, despite their support and their children’s efforts to learn Chinese, their offspring still feel that acquiring Chinese is difficult and they have little interest in learning that language. For example, Family One’s mother noted, ‘there was a period that he [her son] was in grade three. One day, my child told me he wanted to give up learning Chinese because he felt it was too difficult to learn and write short essays.’ This difficulty has also been reported by parents in previous studies, who have problems maintaining their children’s enthusiasm about learning Chinese in an English-speaking country (Baig, 2011; Yan, 2003).

The second most common challenge mentioned by Chinese parents (F1CM, F2CD, F3CM) is their children’s negative thoughts about learning Chinese, which can be attributed to the lack of suitable sociolinguistic environments at both the macro (i.e. society) and micro (i.e. family) level. On the one hand, these environments play an important role in children’s language learning and affect their language preferences in daily life (Lie, 2017). Family Three’s mother said, ‘she [her daughter] is studying in a totally English-speaking environment all day and speaking English all time.’ This finding echoes Kang’s (2015) findings that, once children start their schooling, their use of English increases and they do not want to speak the HL in daily life.

On the other hand, the Chinese parents interviewed want their partners to support their children’s learning of Chinese and hope that their spouse will take their side in terms of encouraging their children to learn Chinese (F2CD, F3CM). One mother reported, ‘sometimes, I feel it is hard for me, with only one-person teaching, supporting and encouraging our child to learn Chinese in the long term’ (F3CM). One child even asked his non-Chinese mother to help him get out of doing his Chinese homework. Family Two’s Chinese father said, ‘when the child doesn’t want to learn Chinese or finish his homework, he goes to his mum, who comes to me and convinces me that he doesn’t have to finish the [Chinese] homework’ (F2CD).

The non-Chinese parents under study felt that their extremely limited ability to speak Chinese is one of the most serious barriers to getting involved in their children’s HL learning. For example, Family Three’s father stated, ‘that I don’t know the [HL] language is the biggest obstacle to [my] help[ing] their learning.’ This excerpt provides further evidence that parents’ proficiency in the HL can affect parental language management and strategies in children’s language learning processes (Tam & Chan, 2010).

In addition, these parents also refer to quite practical problems in terms of supporting their children’s learning of Chinese, such as time and money constraints. This type of challenge was clearly a problem for both Family One and Three’s father. One said, ‘I think it’s a waste of money for him to learn Chinese in Australia’ (F1ND). The other father observed:

We discussed a couple of times [whether] to send or not to send … [our] child to the community language school because it’s not just learning a language. It also costs money and also takes [up the] parents’ time. If the financial prospect[s] and the time is [sic] not available, I don’t think we will support … [our] child[s] … going further in [the] community school. (F3ND)

Regarding time management and tasks’ priority, Chinese parents prefer their children to learn Chinese versus to play, while their Australian spouses feel that allocating weekend or leisure time for children to do other extra-curricular activities or sports is more important. One non-Chinese father’s answer clearly articulated this view:

I feel like … the kid lost many things rather than [gained] benefits because sometimes I need to send my child [to Chinese school] on Saturday or Sunday. After that, she comes home to do homework. She cannot play any sports. She cannot spend time with friends on weekends and [do] some other activities. (F3ND)

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study’s results show that parents’ perceptions of language in cross-cultural families play an extremely influential role in their children’s maintenance of one parent’s HL, which is related closely to ethnic background. Each parent within the same family has differing opinions about their children’s learning of Chinese, in contrast to parents with the same cultural background, who share many of their language perceptions and management approaches. For instance, the Chinese parents interviewed, without exception, reported a strong inclination towards and highly positive perceptions of their children’s learning of Chinese, but the non-Chinese parents have many negative perceptions of their children’s learning of Chinese.

These differences in attitude also affect how parents manage the language learning process. For example, Chinese spouses, in spite of extremely limited Chinese sociolinguistic settings in Australia, continue to prioritise their children’s HL learning by offering as much explicit support as possible. In contrast, their non-Chinese partners’ support is largely confined to providing the necessary resources or travelling with their family to Chinese-speaking areas.

Variations in parents’ sociocultural backgrounds and values may contribute to the differences between the cross-cultural parents interviewed in terms of language ideology and management approaches. Whilst their Chinese partners want their children to spend leisure time studying Chinese, non-Chinese parents think weekends should be used for relaxation and other activities. This divergence indicates a difference not merely in the two parents’ cultural backgrounds but more importantly in their language ideology and subsequent language management approach.

Spolsky (2004) argues that individuals’ linguistic values are shaped by four forces within society: sociolinguistic,
sociocultural, sociopolitical and socioeconomic. This finding could well be true of both Chinese parents and their Australian non-Chinese partners in the present study, whose language ideology of inheriting and developing their own language and culture have greatly influenced their decisions regarding their children’s learning of Chinese. The results clearly show that Chinese immigrant parents, who are influenced by Chinese traditional culture, not only ask their children to study their own HL but also set quite high standards for their children’s Chinese maintenance. However, non-Chinese parents, who are influenced by Western mainstream culture, pay more attention to their children’s choice of other extra-curricular activities in their leisure time rather than academic studies.

In short, the presence of one parent with a non-mainstream family background does not guarantee that both parents will have the same level of interest in their children’s learning of that parent’s HL. A specific spouse’s language background in a family can stimulate children of immigrants in English-speaking countries to learn an HL to some degree, but each parent’s different perceptions affects their choices regarding their children’s learning of one parent’s HL, as with Chinese parents in the present research (Kremer-Sadlik & Fatigante, 2015). These different perceptions do not contribute to the formation of a stable FLP, in which both parents must share common perceptions regarding their children’s language development (Curdt-Christiansen, 2018) and work closely together to foster their children’s HL learning (Schwartz, 2010).

The current study sought to enrich the field of HL maintenance in terms of parents’ perceptions and management approaches by conducting a case study involving Chinese as an HL in Australia. However, the results may not be applicable to all cross-cultural marriage families who are maintaining Chinese or other languages as an HL in English-speaking countries due to the small sample size (i.e. only six parents from three families). Given the relatively restricted number of participants, future studies need to increase the sample size and include participants from different ethnic backgrounds, various regions and contrasting educational background and professions (Nesteruk, 2010). This wider focus could greatly help to clarify the present research’s full implications and investigate cross-cultural families from different backgrounds in more detail. In addition, more studies are needed that incorporate children’s opinions in cross-cultural families on HL language learning, which could enrich the current findings and expand this research field’s scope. Whether non-Chinese parents’ HL strategies or activities are developed and implemented independently and willingly also requires further investigation (Walhely, 2017). These parents’ participation could be how non-Chinese parents try to support and show respect for their partners’ decisions, as well as endeavour to avoid family conflicts or arguments.

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The Cultivation of Chinese Learners’ English Writing Competency through Learning-oriented Assessment

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Abstract—This study is to empirically investigate the effect of the learning-oriented assessment on Chinese learners’ development of English writing competency. This experiment was implemented in the writing classroom among 74 English majors from a local Chinese university within one term, and the findings from the analysis of 68 pairs of qualified essays indicate a significant difference between the scores in the pretest and the posttest. Based on the fact that the participants displayed a better performance on the lexical and syntactic level in the posttest, it can be inferred that the participants have shown a tendency of being better at exerting their linguistic ability together with their topic knowledge, cognitive and metacognitive strategies to achieve the communicative goal through the learning-oriented assessment model.

Index Terms—writing competency, learning-oriented assessment, feedback

I. INTRODUCTION

The concept of “Key Competencies” was first put forward by OECD (Organization from Economic Cooperation and Development) in 1997, which raised a strong wave of quality education around the world. In terms of the framework advocated by OECD, the ability to use language, symbol and text, as one component of the Key Competencies, is embodied by the effective use of spoken and written language skills. In China, the quality-oriented education has been greatly emphasized since 1990s, but until 2016 Chinese Students’ Development of Key Competency was formally published, in which the language key competency is defined as the capability of understanding and communicating the information in oral and written form. English writing competency, serving as a key to interactively communicating with the outside world, is definitely an essential part in learners’ all-round development.

English writing is not only the output of the simple combination of lexical, syntactic and discourse knowledge, but also the indicator of students’ comprehensive language competency. As an embodiment of language key competency, it does not function alone, but cooperates with the students’ cultural character, thinking quality and learning ability. It is expected that through the cultivation of English writing competency, students can develop their ability to interact with the society, to express their personal thoughts and emotions effectively, and to implement critical thinking in the cross-cultural communication. Therefore, the cultivation of English writing competency is not just focused on the development of the writing skill, but also concentrated on the enhancement of the students’ cultural awareness, critical thinking and the life-long learning ability. How to cultivate learners’ writing competency has drawn the attention of a lot of teachers and researchers. However, many of them just focus on the theoretical aspect about the principles or the strategies to enhance learners’ writing competency, but few have implemented empirical studies about the effectiveness of those teaching methods or principles. Since learning-oriented assessment takes learning and learners as the priority, which just meets the demands of developing learners’ key competency, this study is to adopt it as the guideline in designing the writing course for English majors. Therefore, this paper is to carry out an experiment of applying the learning-oriented assessment in the cultivation of Chinese learners’ English writing competency and to examine its effect in general and in depth.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. The Definition of Learning-oriented Assessment

Learning-oriented assessment (LOA) refers to the assessment in which “a primary focus is on the potential to develop productive student learning processes” (Carless, 2009). It originated from the redefinition of the roles of assessment in teaching and learning, the doubt of the traditional assessment and the revolution of the modern learning and technology. Since 1990s, there have been heated debates about the functions of language assessment, because the traditional summative assessment fails to provide enough illuminating feedback for learning process and it cannot satisfy learners’ requirements for self-monitored autonomous learning. Among them, Krogstrup (1997) proposed the “dialogue and

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learning oriented evaluation method”, but it was Carless (2006, 2007) who first coined the term “learning-oriented assessment”. Considering the potential advantages of LOA, Carless (2009) put forward the LOA mode aimed at the learning process to promote the learning instead of merely emphasizing the testing results.

Just as pointed out by Bachman and Palmer (2014), the main function of assessment lies in the collection of information, for the stakeholders to make further decisions, especially for teachers and learners. Based on the feedback, they can be better informed so that assessment is used not merely for the summative purpose but also for the formative evaluation of the learning process. LOA is just the one which can fulfill the two functions. Based on their literature review, Zeng etc. (2018) noted that LOA is a “holistic assessment methodology”, which embodies at least three preexisting assessment approaches, assessment of learning (AoL), assessment for learning (AfL) and assessment as learning (AaL). AoL is a reflection of summative assessment, which is to evaluate the status of learners’ achievements. AfL echoes the core idea of formative assessment, but it moves a step further by emphasizing the role of learners in learning so that they can be informed of the learning progress. Not only the teacher but also the learners can be involved in the decision-making in the learning process. AaL may advance even further than AfL, because it intends to balance the weights of learning and assessment for learners. Learners are encouraged and instructed to evaluate their performance and even their peers’ so that their learning motivation can be fully activated. Since the three approaches have their own focus and advantages, LOA is to mediate them all, aiming at a balance among them (Zeng, et al., 2018).

Within the framework of LOA, AoL is to help the teacher and learners to confirm their learning results, and AfL is to clarify the gap between “the desired goal and the current level of learning for both the parties” (Zeng, et al., 2018), with AaL monitoring and evaluating the learning process.

Therefore, it is believed that LOA can effectively realize self-directed learning in which learners should take the responsibility for important learning decisions about goals, resources, strategies, and assessments. Besides, LOA can promote learners’ cognitive ability, because learning tasks are designed to stimulate them to analyze the task, monitor their learning, and also interact with their teachers and peers. Especially in the interactional process, they need to adjust their cognitive and metacognitive strategies to negotiate with the feedback from the teacher and their peers.

B. The LOA Model

Based on the research about assessment for learning, Carless (2009) proposed a triangle-shaped LOA model, which is composed of three elements at the vertices: learning-oriented assessment tasks, developing evaluative expertise and student engagement with feedback. Learning-oriented assessment is the apex, highlighting the designing of the thinking and practicing activities for learners within the relevant discipline, and involving learners in the authentic and contextualized problem-solving process. Evaluative expertise refers to learners’ evaluation ability to judge their own performances and the peers’, which can be achieved by their familiarity with the evaluation model and criteria (Boud and Falchikov, 2007). Student engagement with feedback focuses on learners’ active decoding of the feedback message, which indicates an overlap with the evaluative expertise (Carless, 2015).

According to Jones and Saville (2016), there are three specific learning-oriented methods: mastery learning, dynamic assessment and cognitive acceleration. Mastery learning advocates that learners should continue to learn about a particular topic until they have mastered it. Otherwise, they cannot move to a new topic. However, the effectiveness of this approach has been questioned (Jones and Saville, 2016). Dynamic assessment emphasizes the full development of learners’ potential, so in the learning process, teachers will provide learners with scaffolding instantly in terms of the results of the diagnostic test. This approach mainly gets enlightenment from the Vygotsky’s Zone of Proximal Development for a “cognitive development and transfer of skills to future tasks through intentional systematic mediation” (Jones and Saville, 2016). Cognitive acceleration is to enhance learners’ cognitive development by drawing learners’ attention to the cognitive process. This approach is composed of cognitive conflict, social construction, metacognitive and schema theory. It focuses on the stimulation of learners’ cognitive process by presenting them gradual cognitive challenges, involving them in appropriate group interactions, making them consciously reflect on their own thinking process, and using “the schema of concrete operational thinking” (Jones and Saville, 2016).

Based on the previous theories, Jones and Saville (2016) constructed their LOA model from the macro level and the micro level. On the macro level, the factors, such as setting and monitoring targets and external exam, need to be taken into consideration. On the micro level, the focus is mainly on the classroom, and the classroom activity forms an LOA cycle, including four key points: interaction, observation, evaluation and feedback. In the center of the cycle is the LOA activity, which is manifested by learning tasks and the record of the activity. At the very beginning, the teacher is to design some tasks for learners so that they can interact with the learning task, other learners and the teacher, which will be observed and interpreted by the teacher. Based on the observation, the teacher and learners can get some feedback so as to modify the teaching objective or to guide further teaching, which serves as a new start point for the next cycle of LOA assessment.

By comparing the two models, it can be found that both emphasize the assessment task design, which is to involve learners in the active learning and assessment process. And the assessment task fulfills a diagnostic function as well as a learning one. That is to say, learners, through the designed task, can progress with their learning and self-evaluate it at the same time. Another element, feedback, is also emphasized in the two models. Without feedback, learners cannot effectively interact with the teacher and other learners, which may hinder their learning. However, in Carless’ model, the task is more focused on the contextualized thinking and practice carried out by learners, and learners’ capacity of
self evaluation and feedback decoding.

C. Research Questions

English writing is a comprehensive process which requires learners to fully motivate their exiting language knowledge, and organize their ideas in accordance with the English way of thinking. In the whole process, they need to adopt some cognitive strategies effectively to monitor their production and adjust to the phrasing closer to English. Therefore, all the key competencies of English can be found in the process. But since it is uncertain whether the writing competency can be fostered in the writing process, it is significant to check its teachability by exploring an effective way to help learners to develop it. Combining the elements in the two LOA models, this paper is to apply the LOA approach to cultivate Chinese learners’ English writing competency, because the key idea of LOA is learner-centered, which just coincides with the requirement of developing learners’ key competency. In this study, learners’ writing competency, serving as a focus of the study, is placed at the center of the LOA model, and provides the guideline for the task design, the classroom observation and the classroom feedback. It is aimed to find out the answers to the following questions:

1. Is there any influence of LOA on the Chinese learners’ English writing competency?
2. Which aspects of the Chinese learners’ English writing competency can be influenced?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants in this research were 74 first-year English majors from two classes in a local university in the southwest of China, disproportionately with only 8 male learners, which is a normal situation in the majors like English. Most of them had been studying English for at least 6 years since junior middle school, and they were close to the intermediate level. At the very beginning of the research, they were informed that all the activities organized in the course were to improve their writing proficiency, and if they were not willing to continue, they could refuse to participate in any activities.

B. Instruments

Since the participants were freshmen and their linguistic knowledge had not been systematically internalized, this writing course would serve as a basic writing course to help them reorganize their linguistic knowledge in a logical way and increase their metacognitive ability of evaluating their own and their peers’ writing and monitoring their learning process, so that they could smoothly adjust to the academic writing in their learning later. Therefore, the course designed for one semester included the following eight topics: the typical English sentence types and differences between the English and Chinese sentences, the expansion of simple English sentences, the run-on sentences, the modifiers, the parallel structures, the punctuations, the figures of speech, and the diversity of sentences.

Before and after the course, two writing proficiency tests were adopted respectively. In order to make the rating more objective, the essays written in the two writing tests were evaluated by Jukuu English Essay Assessor, which is a specialized website providing automatic essay scoring services based on standard corpuses. In addition to releasing the scores, it can also provide a general comment and sentence-by-sentence feedback for each essay. Moreover, it can present the teacher some key information based on the comparison of two essays in terms of the mistakes in spelling, grammar and sentence structures, etc., the diversity of the vocabulary, and the length of the sentences. According to He (2013), the Cronbach’s Alpha was 0.694, proving the reliability of the Assessor, and he also noted that it is better at evaluating the essay’s vocabulary and grammar than the logic and discourse. Zhang’s research also indicated that there is a general agreement between the scores given by the Assessor and by the human raters (Zhang, 2017).

Since this research is to examine the influence of the LOA model on learners’ writing competency, we need to find the supporting evidence for learners’ development in language ability, cultural character, thinking quality, and learning ability. However, because these competencies are implicit abilities, which can only be reflected by the learners’ linguistic production, this research decides to analyze the improvement of learners’ writing competency from the factors of mistakes, the diversity of the vocabulary, the length of the sentences, sentence structure and components.

C. Procedure

The writing course was composed of eight topics, so it was designed to be finished in one semester within sixteen weeks, two weeks for a topic. One week before the course, a writing pretest was conducted among all the participants to diagnose their current level of writing proficiency and their problems in writing. On the platform, all the writing tasks in the pretest would be automatically assigned a task number, and for this pretest, that number was 1502551. All the participants were informed of that number and required to input their essays into the Jukuu English Essay Assessor on the website within a week.

During the course, before each topic, a diagnostic task would be held to analyze the participants’ strength and weakness, and their needs, based on which, the teaching objective would be designed. Then, there would be an explicit explanation of the task objectives and the requirements for evaluation. For that, the teacher would present some samples to illustrate the objectives and explain the focus of evaluating one’s writing in that class, which was to help learners to
be familiar with the constructs and the assessment skills needed. After that, a learning activity would be assigned for the learners to apply the evaluative skills to assess their own and others’ writings in the class and provide necessary feedback for each other, which could serve as a formative assessment indicating key information for both the teacher and the learners. Based on the feedback observed, the teacher could adjust the objectives and the instruction for the next topic to satisfy the learners’ needs further.

After the conducting of all the eight topics, all the participants were required again to take the second writing test, and their essays also were input into the Assessor for the same kind of evaluation as the previous one. For the writing task in the posttest, it was also automatically assigned a task number “1814216” by the platform. The writing test was also implemented online within one week when it was convenient for all the participants.

D. Data Analysis

After each test, the scores provided by the Assessor were input into the Excel ready for the data analysis. During the two tests, some participants were absent for a certain reason, and at last, there were only 68 participants left with qualified essays in both tests. Since this research is to investigate the influence of the LOA approach on the learners’ writing competency, the distributions of the pre-test and the post-test scores were first analyzed and described to check the general effect. Then, a paired T-test was adopted to examine the effect of the LOA approach through SPSS 20.

It is known that writing is a good way to indicate learners’ comprehensive linguistic ability and thinking quality, the differences on the lexical and syntactic level between the pretest and the post-test essays were compared and analyzed. The former included the factors like the mistakes in spelling, collocations, the lexical diversity, and the misuse of parts of speech, while the latter covered those like the sentence length and its density, the syntactic structure, and the sentence component.

IV. RESULTS

A. The general Effect of the Loa Approach on Learners’ Writing Competency

As is indicated in Table 1, the data show that the participants have a better performance in the post-test score, for the mean of the post-test scores is 86.434 with a standard deviation of 3.6507, while that of the pre-test scores is 81.34 with a standard deviation of 4.722. In order to check their metacognitive ability to monitor self-learning, the times of modifying the essays before the deadline were also calculated, which indicated that the participants showed a higher level of self-learning frequencies. In the pre-test, the average number of the modifying times is 4.4, and in contrast, that in the post-test reaches as high as 16.7. In the post-test, there are 42 participants who had modified their essays for at least ten times, while in the pre-test, there are only 7 of them willing to modify their essays more than 10 times, which shows that after the course, the learning autonomy has greatly been improved for most of the participants.

| TABLE 1 |
|-------------------|-----|-----|-----|
|                   | Mean | N   | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| pre-test scores   | 81.38| 68  | 4.722          | .573            |
| post-test scores  | 86.434| 68  | 3.6507         | .4427           |

Table 2

| TABLE 2 |
|-------------------|-----|-----|-----|
| Distributions Of The Modifying Times In The Pre-test And The Post-test |
|                   | ≤5 times | 5~10 times | ≥10 times | Total number |
| pre-test          | 51     | 10      | 7        | 68           |
| post-test         | 14     | 12      | 42       | 68           |

Paired samples test was adopted in this research in order to check the influence of the model on the participants writing proficiency. The results indicate that there is a significant and meaningful difference between the pretest and the posttest scores, as shown in Table 3.

| TABLE 3 |
|-------------------|-----|-----|-----|
| Paired Differences | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
| pre-test score     | -6.0588 | 5.0767 | .6156 | -6.2876 to -3.8300 | 67 | .000 |

B. The Development of Learners’ Writing Competency on the Syntactic Level

The average length of the sentences in the posttest is 20.152 words, while that in the pretest is 16.447. In Figure 1, it can be found that, the participants produced more sentences with 17 words or fewer in the pretest, but above the range between 17.654 to 21.147 words, they showed a greater preference for using longer sentences in the posttest.
To find further evidence on the syntactic level, the numbers of words in each sentence were also calculated and analyzed. In Table 4, it can be found that in the posttest, the participants have a better performance in their management of the sentence length. As for the sentences which contain more than 21 words, there are 529 sentences in the posttest, accounting for 39.06% of the total number of sentences in the posttest, while there are 191 sentences in the pretest, accounting for 22.42%. In contrast, for the sentences with a length of 1-10 words, there are 224 sentences in the posttest (15.97%), and there are 207 in the pretest (24.3%).

Since language is a reflection of thought and culture, Chinese and English have a great difference in sentence constructions as a result of the cultural influence. In order to check the participants’ changes in their thinking patterns while composing an English sentence, the mistakes made in sentence structures and sentence components were also accounted, as is indicated in Table 5. It can be found that the number of the mistakes in the two aspects have declined from 25 to 6, and from 44 to 21 respectively.

C. The Development of Learners’ Writing Competency on the Lexical Level

On the lexical level, the diversity of words was measured to evaluate the participants’ development in writing proficiency. In this research, the type-token ratio was used to calculate the diversity of the vocabulary. As is depicted in Figure 2, after the type-token ratio of 5.336, there is a contrast tendency of the distributions of the diversity of words in the pretest and posttest. After that point, the posttest result shows higher ratios until reaching the point of 6.368, where the two lines overlap, ending with a ratio of zero.

In order to further check the participants’ development in writing proficiency, the factors such as mistakes in spelling, collocation, and the misuse of different parts of speech were also analyzed. From Table 5, it can be found that there is a general decline of the numbers of all kinds of mistakes listed. The most obvious change occurs in the mistakes in spelling: In the pretest, there are 55 mistakes, while in the posttest, there are 24. The number of the mistakes in collocation and that of the misuses of parts of speech also decrease respectively from 47 to 30 and from 12 to 8.
V. DISCUSSIONS

Through our data analysis, it is clear that in the posttest, the participants displayed a better performance generally, with a higher mean score and a lower standard deviation. There is also a significant difference between the scores of the two tests. It can be inferred that the participants have shown a tendency of being better at exerting their linguistic ability together with their topic knowledge and cognitive strategies to achieve the communicative goal. Besides, these participants’ behaviors of modifying their essays much more actively in the posttest future prove that they have become more active and independent in monitoring and managing their learning after the course. During the LOA-approached writing course, the learners have been used to adjusting their learning behaviors with the feedbacks given by their teacher and peers. Therefore, even though the feedback was just given by the Assessor in the tests, their cognitive and metacognitive ability still played a part in involving them in modifying the essays again and again until they were personally satisfied.

The data were just a general indication of the participants’ progress after the course, and more detailed evidence can be found in their sentence constructions and word choices. On the syntactic level, the learners’ ability to manipulating the longer sentences in the posttest is much stronger in the posttest, especially for the sentences with a range from 17,654 to 28,135 words. Although the sentences have become longer, the mistakes in the sentence structures and the sentence components are comparatively fewer than those in the pretest. It can be inferred that the learners, through their participation in the course, have become more used to the English thinking patterns while expressing their ideas. Their schema of English sentence patterns and structures are more clearly established, indicating an improvement of their cognitive ability, which can be further supported by their choices of words.

On the lexical level, the higher diversity of words in the posttest shows that the participants have become more conscious of diversifying their words in writing to avoid repetition, which shows their development in their meta-cognitive ability to monitor the writing production. Also, the fewer mistakes in spelling, collocation and the use of parts of speech in the posttest echo the findings that the participants have a better metacognitive ability in monitoring their writing behavior while implementing the communicative aim.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study was aimed at facilitating the Chinese learners’ writing competency through the LOA approach. With the model, the learners showed an improvement in their general language ability, and their cognitive knowledge and their metacognitive ability in writing. Besides, they have also adjusted to the English thinking patterns while composing English sentences. Therefore, the findings indicate a great significant effect of the LOA approach on the learners’ development of English writing competency, especially on the lexical and syntactic level. However, because of the limited energy and expertise, more detailed analysis needs to be made from the discourse aspect, which can provide a more comprehensive picture for the effect of the LOA approach on the learners’ writing competencies. Besides, it is suggested that the LOA approach can be further applied in the other aspects of English teaching, such as reading, listening and speaking, which can help provide a full insight into the approach and fully exert its advantages in the learner-centered era in English education.

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Retrospect and Prospect of the Research on Finiteness

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Abstract—Finiteness has long been a controversial category. In particular, on its cross-language definition criteria, the academia has not reached a consensus so far. An examination of the trend of the research on finiteness can provide reference for its further study. The paper makes a systematic investigation into the research on finiteness, and finds that the research of finiteness has a tendency from phenotype to cryptotype, from verb to clause, from syntax to function, from monolingual perspective to typological one. From this trend, it can be inferred that the definition criteria of finiteness can be made more explicit if these features are integrated into its future study.

Index Terms—finiteness, non-finiteness, typology

I. INTRODUCTION

Finiteness, opposite to non-finiteness, refers to the grammatical form that restricts the verb. According to Nikolaeva (2007), the notion of finiteness as a grammar category is originated from the study of Latin verb classification by Priscianus Caesariensis in his Institutiones Grammaticae. In Latin sentences, the predicate verb needs to agree with the subject in person and number, whereby the verb obtains the property of person and number in the form of cross-reference. Thus, the verb gets its division of finiteness and non-finiteness in class: the one limited by person and number is finite, otherwise non-finite (Cristofaro, 2003; Zhang, 2016). Henceforth, researchers begin a broader investigation of finiteness among more languages, including non-morphological languages, as well as morphological ones. However, so far researchers have not reached consensus on the standard of cross-language definition of finiteness. Therefore, it will be of academic value to predict the future trend of finiteness research. In view of this, this paper first combs and analyzes the finiteness research, and provides a forecast of the future trend in finiteness research.

II. THE RESEARCH OF FINITENESS IN MORPHOLOGICAL LANGUAGES

As mentioned, the notion of finiteness is derived from the categorization of the Latin verbs, then is extended to other morphological languages, and finally to non-morphological languages. The study of finiteness in morphological languages focuses mainly on a general criterion of the finiteness on a cross-language basis, which has undergone a dynamic transition of categories from the explicit to the implicit. Generally, the perspectives of finiteness study cover morphological grammar, generative linguistics, cognitive linguistics, functional linguistics and linguistic typology, etc.

A. Morphological Grammar

The research in this perspective mainly follows the defining standard of Latin verb finiteness by adopting the morphological properties of the verb, including the agreement of finiteness with Subject. Accordingly, the finiteness of the verb is defined as person, number and tense (Huddleston, 1988; Hogg, 1992). However, the universality of this conclusion is questionable. For example, in Akhvakh, the nonfinite structure can also serve as the main clause (Creissels, 2009).

B. Generative Linguistics

Generative linguistics regards finiteness as the property of the clause, making it possible to overcome the limitation of the traditional standard. In its early period, generative linguistics takes finiteness as AUX node, but latter replaces it with INFL (Chomsky, 1981). The Generative Perspective transcends the limits of the cognition of the rank scale of the finiteness, but its standard is still based on morphology and cannot cover all the relevant features of finiteness of all languages. Therefore, its universality across languages has been questioned by such scholars as Noonan (1985), Palmer (1986), etc.

C. Cognitive Linguistics

which is encoded prototypically by the verb. Process involves a successive range of states with various phases which are realized by sequential scanning. Grounding is the semantic function by which cognitive entities enter the ground. For process, grounding is accessed through the specification of modality and tense on the verb; the former assigns a process to the known reality, while the latter anchors a designated process to the time of the speech event.

D. Systemic Functional Linguistics

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) puts more emphasis on the meaning potential of finiteness. Halliday (1994) and Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) explore the grammatical representation of lexicogrammar of finiteness. According to SFL, finiteness is defined as the experiential structure of the verb which carries Primary Tense and Modality that nonfinite clause lacks. In a finite clause, finiteness and Subject constitute Mood that provides grammar resource for the arguability of the proposition.

E. Linguistic Typology

Currently, the researchers who discuss finiteness from the perspective of linguistic typology mainly include Givón (1984, 1990) and Johns and Smallwood (1999) (Nikolaeva, 2007). Givón (1984, 1990) proposes that dependent events cannot be conceptualized as independent processes but as those of main events, and this thematic dependence corresponds to the syntactic dependence of the clause. In this process, there is a structural reduction of the clause as a result of the loss of finiteness. The reduction occurs on a language-specific basis. And between the two extremes of finiteness and non-finiteness, there are many intermediate situations. Johns and Smallwood (1999) find that, among three features of finiteness, i.e. clausehood (MC), tense (T), and agreement (Agr), there are eight possible combinations, at least four of which are related to “non-finiteness” in description: -MC-T-Agr (English infinitives), +MC-T-Agr (Russian and Middle Welsh infinitives), -MC-T+Agr (European Portuguese infinitives), and -MC+T-Agr (Tamil and Lezgian participles). They also point out that finite morphology and dependent/independent position tend to be empirically variable.

III. THE RESEARCH OF FITENESS IN NON-MORPHOLOGICAL LANGUAGES

It is indisputable that finiteness exists in morphological languages such as Latin and English (although its cross-language definition still remains uncertain), but it is certainly disputable whether the category of finiteness exists in non-morphological languages and how to define them if it does. The present literature shows that the present study of finiteness in non-morphological languages mostly focuses on that of Chinese, and the research is mainly concentrated on two disputes, i.e. whether finiteness exists and how finiteness should be defined.

A. The Dispute of Whether Finiteness Exists

Lù, (1947/2005) and Wang L. (1954) first mention that there is no such syntactic category as finiteness in the Chinese language. It is Huang C. T. who formally proposes for the first time that there exists finiteness in Chinese. He (Huang C. T., 1982, 1984) indicates that although Chinese lacks temporal markers, its finiteness still can be defined by other means. In response to this proposal, Zhu (1985), Xu (1986) and other scholars successively put forward their opposite opinions, which starts a dispute about the existence of Chinese finiteness.

Other scholars who advocate the existence of finiteness in Chinese include Huang Y. (1994, 1995), Li T. G. (1999), Hu et al. (2001), Li R. Y. (2003), Lin (2006), Liu (2010), etc., among whom the vast majority think that Chinese has the pair of opposite categories of finiteness and non-finiteness. A few scholars, however, think that there is only one category in Chinese. For instance, Huang Y. (1994, 1995) maintains that all clauses in Chinese are finite, and Li R.Y. (2003) claims that all clauses in Chinese are nonfinite.

B. The Dispute of How Finiteness Should Be Defined

Among scholars who advocate the existence of finiteness in Chinese, there is still no consensus on the criterion of finiteness. The criteria they propose involve modality/aspect, components’ relationship, temporal dimension, etc.

Huang C. T. (1982, 1984) suggests that modal verbs and aspect markers in Chinese should be used as an effective means to distinguish finiteness form non-finiteness, i.e. clauses with modal verbs or aspect markers are finite, while clauses without these markers are nonfinite. He further divides Chinese verbs into two classes: Class A verbs and Class B verbs. The former are verbs that can co-occur with modal verbs or aspect markers, such as shuo (say), xiangxin (believe), etc. which are followed by finite clauses, while the latter are control verbs that cannot co-occur with modal verbs or aspect markers, such as zhibei (prepare), shefa (try) etc. which are followed by nonfinite clauses.

In response to Huang’s opinion, Li Y. H. (1985, 1990) points out that the criterion of modality/aspect is not universal, because some Class A verbs, qing (please) for example, can also be followed by clauses with aspect markers. She proposes that only the structures that combine modality markers or aspect markers can become effective means to distinguish finiteness from non-finiteness, such as hui (will), yao (want) etc. She further distinguishes verbs of gaosu (tell) class from verbs of shuoju (persuade) class, and holds that the former are followed by finite clauses while the latter by nonfinite clauses.

Those who hold the criterion of component relationship mostly arrive at their conclusion by making analogical reasoning from the comparison of the components between English and Chinese sentences. Yang C. K. (1991) points
out that, in Chinese, clauses with verbs as predicates can also act as subjects and objects, which is very similar to the nonfinite verbs in English. Therefore, he proposes that the Chinese language should also have counterparts of finite vs. nonfinite in English. Tan (1993) finds that verbs tend to change in the word order when they are chosen to express all-around meaning. For example, in the two sentences of *ta chi miantiao, fang laijiao* (He seasons with pepper when he eats noodles) and *ta chi miantiao, shenme dou fang* (He seasons with anything when he eats noodles), the former has the structure of V + O, while the latter has the structure of O + V. Therefore, she proposes that Chinese, like English, should also have infinitive structure, which tends to repel all-around expressions, and should be classified as the nonfinite structure, while those verbs that can choose all-around expressions should be viewed as the finite structure. In addition, there are also scholars who make the distinction in accordance with the relationship between the components of Chinese clauses. For example, Yang B. J. (2015) divides the Chinese clause into six categories from “the typical finiteness clause” to “the typical nonfinite clause” by using three dynamic parameters of the Chinese clause: whether the subject exists, whether the verb is the predicate, whether the verb changes with person and number.

There are also researchers who see temporality as the standard of distinguishing finiteness from non-finiteness in Chinese. For example, Shi (1995, 2001) points out that the essence of finiteness of the Chinese verb lies in the time information of the action behavior represented by the verb, i.e. one-dimension of time: in the same sentence, if there are multiple verbs co-occurring at the same time, only one verb can obtain the grammatical features related to time information, and this verb is finite.

The standards mentioned above are all based on syntactic relations, and are still limited to the lexical and grammatical level, which cannot fully cover all linguistic facts. Therefore, their universality remains controversial. In view of this, some scholars attempt at the concept of function and explore the cross-language standard from the semantic level. For example, Zhang (2016), Zhang and Yang (2016), Cao (2018) argue that the standard of defining finiteness cross language should start from the semantics, and explore its manifestation in lexicogrammar stratum according to the constructing potential in the semantic stratum. Besides, He and Zhong (2017, 2018) also advocate to divide the finite and nonfinite clauses in Chinese from the perspective of interpersonal function, and point out that the clause with the primary tense should be finite, and the one without temporal markers or only with the secondary tense are nonfinite.

IV. THE TENDENCY OF THE FINITENESS RESEARCH

Based on the above analysis of the finiteness literature, we can sum up four trends of the current research of finiteness, i.e. 1) from phenotype to cryptotype; 2) from verb to clause; 3) from syntax to function; 4) from monolingual to typology.

A. From Phenotype to Cryptotype

According to the theory of Grammatical Category proposed by Whorf (1945), there exist overt categories and covert categories in human languages. The overt categories, also called the phenotype, refers to the grammatical category with distinguishing formal markers; the covert category is also called the cryptotype, whose covert category cannot be seen directly, and can only be noticed when its components containing the category are used or treated specially.

It can be seen from the analysis above that the attention on finiteness category are initially paid to the most inflectious language (Latin), then to the less inflectious languages (such as English), and finally to the languages without inflections (such as Chinese). This shows that the study of finiteness is carried out along the path of development “from phenotype to cryptotype”. This trend reveals a transition from individuality to generality in the process of linguistic exploration of the finiteness category.

B. From Verb to Clause

At the outset, the traditional grammar thinks of finiteness as the property the verb. The same is also true for the morphological grammar. They both define finiteness by virtue of the morphological characteristics of the verb. Latter research, including that of the generative grammar and the functional school, regards finiteness as the property of the clause, and investigates finiteness in accordance with the configurational relationship between finiteness and other components in the clause (or clause complex). The same trend is also applicable for the research of finiteness in Chinese, in which finiteness is also initially regarded as the attribute of verbs, such as Yang C. K. (1991), Tan (1993), etc., and later is regarded as the attribute of the clause, such as Yang B. J. (2015), He and Zhong (2018), etc. Therefore, it can be seen that the academia’s understanding of the attribution of rank scale of finiteness has gone through the process from the verbs to the clause.

It is of great theoretical significance for the research of the universal standard of finiteness to expand its understanding of the attribute of the rank scale from verb to clause. It is obviously a paradigm of holistic analysis to put the target category in the overall scope of a given meaning dimension for background investigation, and to seek regular understanding by exploring the configurational relationship between the finiteness and other categories. According to this paradigm, the clause is the center of lexicogrammar, which provides a broader observing platform for grammatical units of lower level, because the investigation of these components can only be understood or realized in the relevant clause system (Matthiessen 2001; Zhang 2016). Therefore, although the relationship between finiteness and the verb is
very close, it is more conducive to reveal the potential of finiteness and the criteria of its universality across languages by examining it in the context of the clause.

C. From Syntax to Function

From the perspective of stratification (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014), the study of finiteness follows a trend from lexicogrammar to semantics. As described above, the focus of academia on finiteness begins with morphological features, and then comes to the construing potential of finiteness function, following the track of “morphology → function”.

In terms of the commonness and difference of human languages, the features in the lexicogrammar stratum are different, while the function (meaning potential) in the semantic stratum is common in all human languages (Caffarel et al., 2004). Therefore, it is infeasible to seek the universal definition of finiteness only at the lexicogrammar stratum. However, if we do so based on the functional potential of finiteness at both the semantic land the lexicogrammar, it will be easier to approach the goal of finding a universal definition of finiteness as a common linguistic category.

D. From Monolingual Perspective to Typological Perspective

By the time the study of finiteness begins with Latin, the finiteness is regarded as the individual characteristics of a single language. When the academia begins to explore a universal criterion of finiteness across languages, finiteness has been regarded as a common characteristic of human languages, and it already has the need and the trend of linguistic typology. The present typological study provides a feasible way to the study of finiteness as the embodiment of common potential and difference. However, since it is only based on the morphological characteristics, the persuasiveness of the research conclusions is relatively limited.

V. THE OUTLOOK OF FINITENESS RESEARCH

The four trends of finiteness research are not accidental and discrete, but inevitable and inseparable. As discussed previously, the shift of the grammatical category of finiteness from phenotype to cryptotype reflects the trend of the exploration from linguistic individuality to generality, and the problem of linguistic generality and individuality of finiteness is what linguistic typology focuses on and strives to solve. Since the clause is the link between the lexicogrammar and the semantics (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014), the shift from verb to clause and the shift from lexicogrammar to semantics have much in common. In addition, the understanding turn of finiteness’ strata also provide a broader horizon for typological research of finiteness. This shows that, if the four trends can be combined in the future study, it will be easier to figure out the universal definition of finiteness. Therefore, if the future research of finiteness can take the perspective of typology, involve as many languages (including morphological and non-morphological languages) as possible, attribute the finiteness to the property of the clause, meanwhile explore the meaning potential in common based on the lexicogrammar and seek different realizations in the lexicogrammar based on its meaning potential, the cross-language definition of finiteness will be more accessible.

VI. CONCLUSION

The research of finiteness mainly focuses on its universal definition, which has gone through the process from individual concern to common exploration. From the perspective of the research trend of finiteness, the future study on finiteness may regard finiteness as both a grammatical category and a semantic one, and the horizon should be extended from the lexicogrammar to the semantics, taking into account the two directions of “bottom-up” and “top-down”. At the same time, if the perspective of linguistic typology involves more morphological and non-morphological languages, the dispute on the cross-language criterion of fineness will be easier to solve. Therefore, it is of much academic value to seek a suitable theory of linguistic typology, and to explore the universal definition criteria based on the typological theory.

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Facilitating Students Overcome Their Limitations through Doing Their Own Action Research

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Abstract—An action research titled Facilitating Students Overcome their Limitations through Doing their Own Action Research was conducted with the volunteering students (n=3) to authenticate if students doing action research on their own could solve their issues of learning. In addition to assessment records pre and post-intervention, interview and journals were used as data collection tools. Mixed method was used to analyse data. Assessment records were presented in figures and tables. Data collected from interview and journals were analysed thematically to ascertain with students’ scores post-intervention. Students acknowledge the importance of action research and they intend to conduct their own action research in the future.

Index Terms—action research, limitations, assessment, learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Corey (1953) defines action research as a process in which practitioners study problems and evaluate, improve and steer decision making and practice (p. 6). Hence teachers conduct action research to study and solve their issues, and develop. Ferrance (2000) declares that action research must be conducted for professional development, collegial interactions, self-reflection, positive change and to solve school issues (p. 14).

Action research is common among teachers in Bhutan. Maxwell states that there was a growing interest in action research in Bhutan (2003, p. 1). However, many teachers started to conduct action research after the announcement of Sherig endowment fund of ngultrum twenty thousand funded by the Ministry of Education in 2016. The Education Ministry selected its first batch of 36 action research proposals under the fund (Bhutan Broadcasting Service, 2017).

Although more than 30 action research proposals of teachers in Bhutan are selected for the endowment fund annually, students might have participated in the action research as participants. They might have answered the questionnaires and attended the interviews. Students in Bhutan have no experience about how action research is conducted. Hence, teachers need to task students with the conduct of action research on their own. By identifying their limitations, finding their own strategies and eventually solving issues on their own, conduct of action research will “have an impact on students’ personal development” (Gündoğdu, 2019, p. 135). Therefore, students must be encouraged to do action research on their own. This will not only make them learn, but give them satisfaction in the end because of “taking the responsibility for learning” (Egel, 2009, p. 2023).

Thus, the question of whether making students do their own action research will be successful in the researcher’s classroom setting captured the interest of the researcher. Hence, this study explores the effectiveness of students’ doing their own action research in solving their limitations of learning.

II. RECONNAISSANCE

In this action research, reconnaissance consists of situational analysis, competence of the teacher researcher and participants and review of literature (Royal Education Council, 2018, p. 8).

A. Situational Analysis

Situational analysis is a situation when a researcher critically assesses the realities of the current situation he or she is in and wants to improve upon his or her practices (Royal Education Council, 2018, p.8).

Phuentsholing Higher Secondary – practising school

Phuentsholing Higher Secondary School, Chukha Dzongkhag, Bhutan, was established in 1983. The school was inaugurated and upgraded to a High School in 2000 which was further upgraded to a Higher Secondary School in 2003. In 2004, the first batch of students graduated from class 12 with 100% pass percentage. The school was awarded with Top Ten school certificate in 2009, 2012, and 2013. In 2014, a class 10 student topped whole Bhutan with third position. Though the school result fluctuated in the later years, Phuentsholing Higher Secondary School was recognized by the Education Monitoring and Support Section Division (EMSSD) for commendable increase in pass percentage in 2018 in comparison to 2017. Besides various awards for academic excellence, improving students’ academic excellence has been a challenge.

The participants in this action research were volunteering students (n=3) from one section (n=25) of class 12 Science. Students acknowledged English as their main subject for them to qualify for the next grade. However, the researcher
consistently observed students’ waning interest in learning English. Students’ reluctance to participate in the classroom discussions is one example of students’ weakness. The other issues include students’ pronunciation errors and inability to spell the words correctly. The detail of students’ inability to write correct spelling, mispronunciation of words and minimal classroom participation rate is described in the Pre-Intervention: Baseline Data section.

B. Competence

The researcher has been teaching English for different class levels ranging from Pre-Primary till Class 12 for eleven years. Besides attending one School Based In-service Program (SBIP) on action research in the school conducted by the school Vice Principal, the researcher attended three-day training on writing action research. Until now, the researcher has published one conventional research with the Scopus indexed The Journal of Asia TEFL and one action research with the peer-reviewed Bhutan Journal of Research and Development, a journal maintained by Royal University of Bhutan.

Students have little knowledge about action research. They participate in various action researches conducted by teachers.

III. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Burns (2010) is of an opinion that the main activity that has been going on in education system is action research (p. 3). This is true not only in the context of the world, but also in the context of Bhutan. In relation to this, Maxwell states that action research has been in use in Bhutan since 1998 after teachers and principals from rural areas visited Australia to learn about multi-grade teaching in 1993 (2003, p. 12). However, there is no literature which shows what had happened since then. Nevertheless, the conduct of action research flourished among the teachers in Bhutan since the introduction of a fund called Sherig endowment in 2016. Funded by the Ministry of Education, the grant aims at promoting research culture and addressing challenges related to quality teaching and learning (Kuensel, 2016).

Action research is defined as a reflective procedure which aims at solving a particular teaching-learning problem identified by teachers in a classroom setting (Kasula, 2015, p. 230). Accordingly, much research has been carried out to contribute to effective teaching in the world of ELT (Gündoğdu, 2019, p. 134). However, action research is not limited to teachers only. McGraw-Hill Education (2017) posits that this valuable technique of doing action research can also be taught to students within the classroom (p. 2). By making students do their own action research, Najeeb (2013) shares that students can uphold their independence by learning, reflecting, and using appropriate language (p. 1240).

However, there is a limited number of literatures which reveals about students doing action research on their own. A study piloted by Najeeb (2013) pronounces that in the conduct of an action research, the learners set their own objectives and followed strategies devised by them to fulfil them, and this facilitated the learner to become more efficient and effective (p. 1238).

A rather detailed study was conducted by Gündoğdu in 2019 on the title Helping EFL Students Overcome their Limitations through Doing their own Action Research. The research explored the journey of two EFL students doing their own action research (p. 134). Besides the improved result of both the participants, the research which was conducted at Cukurova University helped these two students gain a lifelong skill which could be applied to other fields whenever they encountered a problem (p. 139).

Studies conducted by Najeeb (2013) and Gündoğdu (2019) proved the success of their students doing action research on their own. Thus, the question of whether making students do their own action research will be successful in the researcher’s classroom setting captured the interest of the researcher.

IV. ACTION RESEARCH QUESTION

This action research revolved around the following main research question:
Can students solve their limitations of learning by doing their own action research?

Aims of the Action Research

This action research aimed at investigating:
1. the kind of interventions the students implemented to overcome their weaknesses.
2. the outcomes of students doing their own action research.

V. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This action research was conducted with the volunteering class twelve Science students (n=3) for three months based on voluntary response sampling method. Voluntary response sampling method is a non-probability sampling method where people self-select for the survey (McCombes, 2020). Data were collected from the three main sources of students’ assessment records, interview and journals. Mixed method was used to analyse the findings. Mixed method is defined as the integration of quantitative and qualitative data within a single investigation (Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality, 2013). Assessment records were analysed descriptively and data from interview and journals were analysed thematically.
In addition to the researcher’s knowledge about students’ lack of interest in English, students were provided with a self-reflection sheet to identify their own strengths and weaknesses in learning English. Following this collection, students were asked whether they would like to conduct an action research on their own to solve their issues. Students were provided with one-week time to decide. After one week, 3 students which accounts to a mere 12% of total students (n=25) volunteered to conduct their own action research.

Next, the researcher conducted a lesson with the three volunteering students on the process of action research. The researcher promised to guide the students and provide assistance wherever they needed. Subsequently, the students were asked to identify one main issue each in learning English and their intervention strategies to solve this issue. They were asked to discuss with their friends, parents and teachers, and arrive to a conclusion of their action plan.

Finally, students were asked to carry out their intervention strategies. Their intervention strategies lasted for three months. In the process, students were asked to maintain a reflective journal each of their journey of study. The researcher met with the students every week and cleared their doubts regarding the process of action research.

In general, the theoretical framework and action research plan adopted in this research was a cyclical and spiral four-stage process, namely planning, acting, observing, and reflecting (Royal Education Council, 2018, p. 8).

A. Assessment Record

Assessment is one of the three main data collection tools. Under this category, the three modes of assessment were spelling test, classroom speeches and rate of classroom participation. As a baseline data, students were conducted with a spelling test and classroom speeches. In addition, students’ rate of classroom participation was recorded. The record of these three assessments was the baseline data for the researcher.

After the intervention process, another round of assessment was conducted. Students were conducted with one spelling test. The researcher continued with students’ classroom speeches. During the English lessons, students’ classroom participation rate was observed and recorded. The post-intervention assessment record of the three volunteering students was compared with the record of their pre-intervention scores. Data gathered from the three tools were analysed descriptively.

B. Interview

After students completed with their intervention process, they were conducted with an unstructured questions interview each. The interview was conducted to ascertain with their post-intervention assessment results, and to gather their perceptions about the conduct of action research on their own. Students’ views gathered from the interview were analysed thematically.

C. Journals

Following the assessment and interview, students’ journals were collected. Journals were collected mainly to refer for students’ experiences of conduct of action research and to verify if their reflections in the journals were in line with the results from the assessment and their perceptions gathered from the interview.

VI. PRE-INTERVENTION: BASELINE DATA

The baseline data of the researcher was the record of students’ spelling test, classroom speeches and classroom participation rate. The three tools were chosen based on the three volunteering students’ identification of their issues. The main issues identified by the three students were spelling errors, pronunciation errors and failure to participate in the classroom. The researcher’s pre-intervention data was automatically the baseline data for student researchers.

Assessment Record

Although assessment record of spelling test, classroom speeches and classroom participation rate of all the students (n=25) of one section was maintained, the following figure presents the assessment record of the three volunteering students. Student 1 identified his inability to spell the words correctly as his issue. Student 2 chose his failure to pronounce most of the words correctly as his problem, and student 3 picked his inability to actively participate in the classroom as his weakness.
As evident from the figure, student 1 whose issue was with spelling error has scored 65% in the spelling test. The test warranted students to write commonly misspelled words. The issue of student 2 was pronunciation error. The researcher recorded whenever students made pronunciation error during the classroom speeches. Student 2 has scored 55%. Student 3 whose issue was inability to participate in the classroom actively has a participation rate of 40%.

Students’ classroom participation rate was measured based on “the frequency of number of questions raised, frequency of clarification sought, volunteering to answer the question, taking initiative in the group work, any sort of misbehaviour, peer interaction and interaction with the teacher” (Rinchen, 2009, p. 11).

Before the student researchers started with their intervention action, they were familiarized with their assessment scores as their baseline data.

VII. INTERVENTION

After three students volunteered to do action research on their own in order to curb their issues in learning English, the researcher conducted a short presentation on the process of action research as suggested by McGraw-Hill Education. The stages included:

“deciding on a topic, creating questions about the topic and projecting answers, collecting data and evaluating the results, looking at the questions and answers again and deciding if changes need to be made, and identifying what was learned from the process and what steps need to be taken moving forward” (2017, p. 3).

Successively, students were asked to identify one pressing issue each of theirs in learning English and devise an action research question. Students were also asked to discuss with their friends, teachers and browse internet, and come to a final decision with at least three strategies to solve their issues. Later, students were asked to make a plan of action about how they were going to implement their strategies. Students completed this action plan in one week.

In the following week, the researcher met with the students and reviewed their plans. All the three students reported to have discussed with the other teachers with regard to finding strategies to solving their issues. None of them had discussed with their friends because no students had the experience of conducting action research.

Beginning third week, student researchers started with their intervention process. In order to keep them on track with their action, the researcher held meetings with individual student researcher on different days. They shared their experiences, and the researcher encouraged them. If student researchers had issues, the researcher solved them instantly. After student researchers completed their intervention action in three months, the researcher conducted an interview with individual student to ascertain their views with the data collected from the assessment, and to gather their perceptions about the action research.

Students’ Intervention

The issue of student 1 in learning English was his spelling errors. Student 2 faced difficulty in pronunciation of words. Finally, student 3 reported his lack of confidence to actively participate in the group and whole class discussion. The detail of student researchers’ issues, aims and intervention strategies are mentioned in the table below.
TABLE 1
STUDENTS’ INTERVENTION PLAN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student researchers</th>
<th>Student 1</th>
<th>Student 2</th>
<th>Student 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Issues</td>
<td>Spelling errors</td>
<td>Pronunciation errors</td>
<td>Failure to actively participate in the class discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aim</td>
<td>Lessen spelling error</td>
<td>Lessen pronunciation error</td>
<td>Actively participate in the classroom discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intervention 1</td>
<td>Learn commonly misspelled words</td>
<td>Listen to BBC news channel</td>
<td>Speak in English with parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intervention 2</td>
<td>Play word games and crosswords</td>
<td>Practice tongue twisters</td>
<td>Listen to BBC news channel for correct pronunciation of words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intervention 3</td>
<td>Attend online spelling competition</td>
<td>Feedback from teachers, parents and friends</td>
<td>Speak to self in front of the mirror</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VIII. POST-INTERVENTION

Following three months of students’ intervention processes, assessment was carried out in three areas. All the students (n=25) of one section were conducted with a spelling test. The test was conducted to compare with the baseline data of student researcher 1 whose issue was with spelling errors. Students were continued with their classroom speeches. This was targeted at student researcher 2 whose issue was with pronunciation. As English lessons continued, students’ classroom participation rate was observed and recorded. The observation was conducted mainly to record classroom participation rate of student researcher 3.

The detail of post-intervention assessment record of the three student researchers is reflected in the figure below.

![Figure 2 Assessment Record Post-Intervention](image)

During the post-intervention, student 1 whose issue was with spelling error scored 70% in the spelling test. The issue of student 2 was pronunciation error. He scored 63% during the post-intervention. Student 3 whose issue was inability to participate in the classroom secured a participation rate of 46% during the post-intervention assessment.

Additionally, the researcher conducted an interview each with individual student and collected their reflective journals to ascertain with the results derived from the assessment post-intervention.

IX. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To discuss the results of this study, it is imperative to revisit the aims of this action research. This study aimed at investigating:

1. the kind of interventions the students implemented to overcome their weaknesses.
2. the outcomes of students doing their own action research.

Answer to aim 1: Investigating the kind of interventions the students implemented to overcome their weaknesses is summarized in the following table.

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As revealed in Table 2, each student researcher identified one issue and three strategies each. Student 1 who had an issue of making spelling errors aimed at lessening the spelling errors by learning commonly misspelled words, playing word and crossword games and attending online spelling competition. The three strategies devised by student 2 were listening to British Broadcasting Centre (BBC) news channel, practising tongue twisters and taking feedback from teachers, parents and friends. Student 2 aimed at lessening pronunciation errors. Student 3 targeted at actively participating in the English classes after speaking in English with parents at home, listening to BBC news channel focusing on correct pronunciation of words and speaking to self in front of the mirror.

A. Assessment Record

Record of spelling test, classroom speeches and classroom participation rate was collected twice, once before and once after the intervention action. The comparative analysis of the record of assessment of the three student researchers is reflected in the figure given below.

![Figure 3 Comparison of Assessment Record](image)

Figure 3 interprets the comparative analysis of the three student researchers’ record of assessment pre and post-intervention actions. The record is measured in %.

With regard to student researcher 1, his score increased from 65% during the pre-intervention to 70% during the post-intervention spelling test. His 5% increase during the post-intervention test signifies the success of the intervention strategies. The student researcher lessened spelling error by learning commonly misspelled words, playing word and crossword games and attending online spelling competition.

Similarly, student 2 showed an increase of 8% from 55% during the pre-intervention to 63% during the post-intervention. Student 2 listened to BBC news channel, practised tongue twisters and taken feedback from teachers, parents and friends. The increase in the pronunciation accuracy proves the success of his intervention strategies.

Finally, student 3 shares a similar success trend. His classroom participation rate of 40% during the pre-intervention increased to 46% during the post-intervention observation. An increase of 6% in his classroom participation rate is due to application of his strategies such as speaking in English with parents at home, listening to BBC news channel focusing on pronunciation and speaking to self in front of the mirror.

The highest increased rate in assessment is 8% by student 2 while the lowest increased rate in assessment is 5% by student 1. The difference in assessment is not astounding. Nevertheless, aim 2 of this action research: Investigating the outcomes of students doing their own action research is answered by the improved outcome of all the three student researchers. The outcome of students doing their own action research is ‘effective’.

B. Interview
An unstructured interview was conducted once post-intervention to ascertain with data gathered from the record of two rounds of students’ assessment. The interview was also aimed at collecting student researchers’ perceptions about conducting action research on their own. Answers to the questions were analysed thematically. In general, interview with one student researcher lasted from around a minimum of 10 minutes to a maximum of 15 minutes.

When the student researchers were asked to share their experiences about conducting action research on their own, all of them reported that they had challenging, yet satisfying journey. They discovered that choosing right strategies to solving their issue was their main trouble. However, they posited that selecting the right strategies could solve all the issues. Thus, the first theme derived from this interview is the right choice of strategies. This is applicable to all the teachers. Teachers must implement right strategies if they want to solve their students’ issues with their subjects.

The second theme concluded from this interview is the importance of autonomy for students to learn by themselves. Student 1 expressed that figuring out his strategies himself was daunting, but fruitful. He added that he would not have thought of his own strategies if he was not provided with this opportunity of conducting action research on his own. The other student researcher informed that he was entrusted with extra responsibility of discussing with his friends, teachers and parents, and this autonomy to learn on his own provided him enough room to explore and come to a conclusion. These points are in agreement with Najeeb (2013) who states that learning hardly takes place unless the learner is in charge (p. 1239). This is yet another lesson a teacher must consider. A more of student-centred classrooms must be set rather than the traditional classroom approach of teacher taking the whole charge from the introduction till the conclusion of the lesson.

The final idea established from this interview is the significance of action research. The researcher asked the student researchers whether they intended to conduct action research on their own in the future. The answers from all the three were ‘yes.’ One student researcher opined that he would solve whatever issues he had with regard to his studies with action research. He has written thus:

If one strategy doesn’t work, I can try with another one. Even if that doesn’t succeed, I can go for yet another one. I can try with all the strategies I know, and after finding out which one works, I can adopt that strategy.

Action research is the best solution to solving the issues.

All the three student researchers intended to do action research in the future. Their intention is to succeed in their studies.

The three themes derived from the student researchers’ answers to the unstructured interview questions ascertain with the increased trend of students’ assessment record. Thus, the automatic answer to aim 2 of this action research: Investigating the outcomes of students doing their own action research is ‘successful’.

C. Journals

The third data collection tool of this action research was students’ journals. The researcher referred student researcher’s reflective journals in order to authenticate their experiences with the results from their assessment and interview. Student researchers specifically mentioned about their positive experiences of conducting action research on their own. One central idea consequent of the three journals was self-discovery. They reported that they were able to discover their own weaknesses and strategies, and finally solve their issues. This is in confirmation with Kemmis and McTaggart’s definition of action research. They define action research as an action aimed at self-reflection and improvement (1998, p. 15). Student researchers dedicated to conduct their own action research in the future. Thus, their reflections in their journals validate their improved result in their tests and the opinions they shared during the interview.

X. Conclusion

The principal question of this action research was: Can students solve their limitations of learning by doing their own action research? The answer to this question is ‘yes’. Student 1, 2 and 3 increased their scores during the post-intervention in comparison to pre-intervention. This result was further validated true with the data collected from student researchers’ interview and journals. All the three data collection tools proved the success of solving their limitations of learning by doing action research on their own.

The success of this action research owed to the three student researchers’ willingness to identify their weaknesses. Their unwavering interest during the course of intervention action took them to the end of discovering answers to their questions. Eventually, with their determination, they could use right strategies and solve their issues, and finally improve their scores. Their weak areas in learning English were strengthened, and this would not have been possible without conducting an action research on their own.

Finally, this action research was carried out successfully as the planned actions were implemented on time according to the timeline. Most prominently, the importance of making students do action research on their own was uncovered. The result of this action research runs in parallel with one researcher’s opinion about the significance of making students do action research on their own. By doing action research on their own, students involve in the discovery of their weaknesses and strategies and “students became aware of their own learning styles” (Gündoğdu, 2019, p. 139).

Thus, teachers are recommended to make their students do action research on their own to discover their own strategies to solving their issues, and finally appreciate the importance of autonomy for self-discovery and individual development.
Limitations

The first limitation to this study is the sample size of three volunteering students. The result of this study would have been more valid to the general mass if the participants were of larger size. The other limitation is sampling method. In voluntary sampling method, it is believed that people who take part in the research tend to have similarly strong opinions compared to the rest of the population. The author could not take on a critical friend to authenticate the data. This is another limitation to this action research.

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Analysis of the Characteristics and Translation Skills of American Slang in the Big Bang Theory

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Abstract—Slang is a carrier of culture and an important part of multiculturalism, which is informal language characterized by plain or colloquial words. Slang used in America has developed its own features which are integrated into all aspects of American people's daily life. This paper aims to explore the characteristics of American slang and study the translation skills of slang expressions based on the slang in the American TV series The Big Bang Theory.

Index Terms—American slang, translation skills, The Big Bang Theory

I. INTRODUCTION

According to the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2014), Slang is a very informal and sometimes offensive language used by people belonging to a particular group, such as young people or criminals. “Slang denotes an informal vocabulary composed chiefly of novel-sounding synonyms (and near synonyms) for standard words and phrases. It is often associated with undignified persons and groups” (Bradstreet, 2010). It has surprising implications for rudeness or disrespect, especially regarding established attitudes and values in mainstream culture.

The idea mentioned above is about the definition of slang, but in fact, all spoken slang in the United States is regarded as American slang. American English distinguishes itself from other language with unique characteristics. And the existence of a large amount of American slang is one of its characteristics. American slang is a sort of colloquial language. Apart from this marked characteristic, there bears other features in slang. For example, the special features include a sense of humor, novelty, conciseness, ephemerality, acronyms, time efficiency, and common colloquialism.

The Characteristics of American Slang

Humor and Novelty
Slang is the product of young people's favorite games and lively activities such as playing with words, renaming things and actions. Some people invent new words for the sake of novelty, or misuse old ones, while others chase them for the pleasure of fashion. People create slang terms for the sense of novelty and the expression of new ideas and new things. It is accepted by both upper and lower classes, especially college students, who tend to use modern vocabulary and have formed a characteristic style. Most slang terms have novel conception, producing humor and witty effects and have been being wildly liked in recent years. For instance, “Social butterfly” means a person who is good at talking and moves around people laughing and talking all night long. The original meaning of “social butterfly” bear nothing connection with talking, but the image of the words is just vivid and imaginable. Another example, “to pan out” means that someone has a successful result. However, the original meaning of the “pan” is a kind of metal container used for cooking or baking. Its meaning comes from a way to search for gold. Gold miners would take a handful of sand and mix it with water in a pan. Sometimes, their efforts “panned out” meaning they found gold. American slang identifies its characteristics in the course of experiment, showing a great interest in novelty and bearing a strong desire for creative and humorous forms.

Conciseness
Conciseness may not be the soul of American slang, but it is the main features of slang. Slang is brief and easy to speak out. One slang term can easily express the meaning which cannot be done by a standard word. For instance, dope (very cool), savage (someone is bold and don’t care about the consequence), I can’t even (difficult to handle), fad (a craze), salty (someone who is agitated) and so on.

Ephemerality
Ephemerality and novelty are unique features. Most slang is ephemeral. We all know that slang spreads very fast, and it is unstable and temporary. Patridge Eric (1989) has pointed out that its brevity is important because almost everyone has noticed that a large number of slang terms are accepted by the masses and classes, most of which are short-lived. When they disappear, they are almost immediately replaced by other novel words. People create those slang terms for the sense of novelty and the expression of new ideas and things in their life. To name only a few, the words “doozy”; “hit it off” and “smart pants” are the examples.

Acronyms and Time Efficiency
American slang is used to use the abbreviation in their life. There existed a large amount of slang formed by shortening or acronym. Some people use abbreviations for making mysterious, especially for those popular slang, others
speak in that way for saving time. For example, b.a.e (before anyone else) means your boyfriend or girlfriend or your significant other. G.O.A.T (greatest of all time). It stands for the absolute best at something.

**Common Colloquialism**

As we mentioned before, slang is frequently regarded as colloquial language. The words of slang mostly come from common people and are used by them in daily conversations. Highly colloquial is the soul of slang. Like colloquialisms and idioms, slang is used in informal conversation or informal essays. The usage of slang not only implies the relationship between the speaker and the listener, but also expresses the speaker’s familiarity towards a certain language.

II. CHARACTERISTICS OF AMERICAN SLANG IN THE BIG BANG THEORY

Sitcom, short for the situation comedy, is a series of regular characters appearing in one episode after another. In the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, it is described as a funny television programme in which the same characters appear in different situation each week. American sitcom is actually one of those sitcoms that have some funny plots in each episode and is well-received in recent years. The following is going to talk about some characteristics of American sitcom named The Big Bang Theory.

A. The Sense of Humor of American Slang

Now, people are living in a new era characterized with affluent information, globalization and cross-culture communication. Cultures with distinctive backgrounds affect strongly in people’s life. Movie and TV series, as the significant carrier of cultures, have played a significant role in people’s everyday life, even working as a way in the cross-culture communication. The outstanding character of video film is that it can present the complete scene, the combination of sound and vision is dynamic, immediate and accessible. This means that communication can be expressed in context, and language learners can easily perceive many factors in communication. Truly, now in China, movies, sitcoms or other videos are employed as a tool for English teaching due to their authenticity. Even some linguists propose that watching video could be a good way to soak in English, and it turns out to be effective and acceptable, especially among young generation. Multitudes of American sitcoms have been imported nowadays, including This Is Us, The Good Doctor, and The Big Bang Theory. The Big Bang Theory, with its vivid, funny description of the story among four extraordinary scientists and their women neighbors, has pulled most audience interest, not just for pleasure but a way of language learning. The following is a transcription from The Big Bang Theory.

Example 1 (Season 12 Episode 14)

Howard: So now we have to download all these forms and fill them out.

Sheldon: We get it. Your life is great. Stop rubbing in it.

Amy: Yeah, quit it.

Sheldon: Is one of the forms the 599B/C?

Howard: Yeah.

Sheldon: All right, well, I don’t want to spoil anything, but you might want to start practicing your “siglature”. Because, it has a doozy of a typo.

In this instance, Howard and his wife Bernadette’s privacy were disturbed by their neighbor’s floodlights on the balcony. To solve this problem, they decided to turn to the special administration for help. And then, they were required to fill out the questions on the sheet. To their surprise, Sheldon should have found some mistakes about the sheet. Actually, it is typical of Sheldon to be picky about everything especially in the field of knowledge. He is such a man who is keen on scientific researches and good at explaining things by using all the theories he has known. In the above-mentioned, the slang “dozy” means “noticeable”. In that dialogue, Sheldon wanted to point out the notable mistakes appearing on the sheet and make Howard notice them. That’s the Sheldon’s way to express his humor and sarcasm in this sitcom.

B. The Cultural Connotation of American Slang

Culture demonstrates itself in the forms of language. Slang, which is more than an exclusively form of language, also mirrors people’s life. Every slang has a sort of experience involving into language and works as a map for us about all areas of different culture. Slang is such a language that embodies a plentiful of social functions of a language. So, to some extent, we may conclude that the prevalence of slang has something to do with its culture. For this reason, American slang, regarding new concepts and development with novel words, is a notable example of the interaction of society, culture, and language. Being similar to any other culture, American slang consists of a lot of cultural connotations and this can be seen in The Big Bang Theory.

Example 2 (Season 12 Episode 1)

A girl in a store: Yeah, It’s weirdly quiet. Nobody’s on the street.

A man in a store: Hhh…well. That’s strange.

A girl in a store: You’re thinking what I’m thinking?

A man in a store: They cut that meteorite open and unleashed a space plague?
A girl in a store: Exactly.
A man in a store: Let me just lock up here.
(Sheldon just arrived at the store and he began to knock the door that was locked.)
Sheldon: Open the door please
A man in a store: Sorry, we are closed.
Sheldon: This is going on Yelp.
In this dialogue, Sheldon was going to a store to get something but he was refused by the man in the store. So he said to the man that he decided to post this bad service on the “Yelp”. In this instance, the word “Yelp” is a review forum run by American multinationals located in San Francisco, California. It develops, mandates and sells Yelp.com and Yelp mobile apps, which publishes crowd-sourced reviews about local businesses. Now in America it develops into a representation of a complaint platform that every customer can share their true feelings about the service in business.

C. The Use of Rhetoric in American Slang

According to Wikipedia, Rhetoric is the art of discourse, designed to improve the ability of an author or speaker to inform, persuade, or motivate a specific audience in a given situation. Sometimes, the use of rhetoric can polish the lines in the movie and add an extra sense of humor. The following is an example from The Big Bang Theory.

Example 3 (Season 5 Episode 6)
(Sheldon seated on a bench with a stranger doing a weird self-talking)
Sheldon: Look at the two of us. Me, a highly regarded physicist. The kind of mind that comes along once, maybe twice in a generation. You, the common man, tired from your labors as a stockbroker or vacuum cleaner salesman, or bootblack. But deep down inside, apparently, we’re just two peas in a pod. You’re the regular pea and I’m the kind of pea that comes along once, maybe twice in a generation. Rain. And the unremarkable alike. (The stranger with an umbrella opening his but Sheldon without umbrella could do nothing but waiting.)
Sheldon: Smart pants!
In this dialog, Sheldon was sad and started to express his dissatisfaction by using some irony words towards a stranger sitting beside him on the same bench. The phrase “two peas in a pod” means “being identical to each other”. Also, it is a metaphor to which belongs the figure of speech. In this instance, what Sheldon attempted to highlight is that he is identical to the stranger in appearance, but actually he is superior to the stranger on the mind and he, such a genius, hardly can be seen in several centuries.

D. The Evil Words in American Slang

Owing to the fact that slang was firstly used by people who lived at the bottom of the society, and many of them were uneducated. Evil words account relatively largely amount of proportion in slang. The purpose of TV series is to serve audience with joyful entertainment or meaningful knowledge. Therefore, when it comes to tackle with evil words in slang, translators oughtn’t only convey actor’s or actresses’ anger, hatred or any other strong emotion through translation, but also can’t let those words ruin all the play.

Example 4 (Season1 Episode17)
Penny: I need to use your window.
Leonard: Sure, go ahead.
Penny: Hey, jerk face, you forgot your ipod. (Throw something out of the window)
(Leonard went back from the window and said to Penny)
Leonard: What’s going on? Penny
Penny: Oh, let me tell you what’s going on. The stupid self-centered baster wrote about our sex life in his blog (Penny went to the window again)
Penny: Drop dead. You stupid self-centered bastard!
From this transaction, we can see that Penny use quite a few evil words such as “jerk face; bastard; drop dead” to show her hatred towards her ex-boyfriend who dumped her ruthlessly and wrote their privacy on public media. The use of vulgar words in slang is an effective way to shape a character by showing his truly strong feelings. However, the translator ought to think thoroughly the translation of the vulgar slang words.

III. TRANSLATION SKILLS IN THE BIG BANG THEORY

When we watch a video, we would firstly be attracted by its image or sound and then we are intended to take notice of its translation in order to comprehend its connotation. In this way, therefore, a good translation can bring readers a satiated experience. A celebrated Chinese translator Liu Chongde (2003) once put forward a suggestion that a good translation should follow these three principles: faithfulness; expressiveness and closeness, which means the reproduction or the recreation in one language should be faithful to the original; be as expressive as the original and be as close to the original style as possible. A famous British translation theorist Newmark also deems that the translator tries to produce the same effect on the target reader as the original reader does on the source reader in communicative translation (2004, P56). Based on the theory we’ve known, the thesis also wants to discuss some translation skills used in The Big Bang Theory. Let’s explore how the translator achieves a better version of translation by using the following
skills.

A. Literal Translation and Free Translation

The so-called literal translation, superficially speaking, it strives to keep the sentiments and style of the original without altering the original words and sentences. Free translation is another translation method, which mainly aims at conveying the meaning and spirit of the original text rather than trying to reproduce the sentence patterns or rhetorical devices of the original text. The advantage of literal translation is that literal translation preserves the cultural characteristics of the source language, and retains its western flavor. Literal translation is as faithful as possible to the original text, so that the reader can better understand the original text. Literal translation promotes the communication and enrichment of the two languages while preserving the cultural characteristics of the source language. The free translation is used to translate a number of idioms and a large amount of slang in English and Chinese, to avoid the translation being too complicated and difficult to understand. Free translation is used to translate certain special words, and make the translations much more smoother. This method is most often used when the translator is unable to give literal translation. Here is an example from The Big Bang Theory.

Example 5 (Season 5 Episode 9)
Leonard: Oh, Hey You work for lunch shift?
Penny: Yeah. I’ve got eight pounds of salmon that’s about to go bad. Do you know how to cook it?
Leonard: Not really.
Penny: Damme it. Should have liberated the iffy chicken. What are you and Professor Fussy face up to tonight?

When Leonard and Penny were talking along the stairs, Penny mentioned Sheldon who is considered as “fussy face”. The word “fussy” usually means an extremely finicky attitude towards somebody or something. In this situation, the translator translated it into “挑剔鬼” in Chinese which has the same meaning or is equivalent to the word “fussy”. So the word “fussy face” is a literal translation that expresses a vivid image of Sheldon who is always picky or fussy about anything.

Example 6 (Season 2 Episode 5)
(Penny and Leonard are in front of the elevator.)
Penny: We are really hitting it off.
Leonard: Don’t look up. There’s camera.

In the above-mentioned, the slang “hit it off” denotes that someone gets along well with another one. The word “hit it off”, its literal meaning is something striking and it is dissimilar from its true meaning. So, in this case, the translator used its free translation "投机" to expose the close relationship between Penny and Leonard.

Example 7 (Season11 Episode3)
Ruchi: You know, we could have gone somewhere more pregnancy-friendly.
Bernie: Oh, it’s OK. One of the great thing about being pregnant is drinking cranberry juice out of a wineglass and watching people freak out.
Rajesh: Bernie!
Bernie: Oh, damn.
Sturat: Hey! What are the odds?

In this example, Bernie was staying with her colleague Ruchi drinking cranberry juice when Sturat and Rajesh happened to see her. She was a little embarrassed that she had just told a tall tale before their coming. The word “odds” in this dialogue usually means “ratio” that refers to the chances of something happening or being the case. In this situation, the translator translated it into “有缘千里来相会”, which has used free translation to explain its meaning. And this translation skill is close to the original idea of the scriptwriter.

B. Annotation

An annotation is often used to add short notes to a book or piece of writing to explain parts of it. In this TV series, it’s common for us to see some obscure scientific knowledge or some special terms. To help us understand the dialogue better, we can still find annotation on the screen or beside the subtle. The following is about Raj’s introduction about wine.

Example 8 (Season 5 Episode 14)
(Howard and Bernadette went into the house together.)
Raj: Can I pour you some wine? I think you’ll enjoy it. The traditional choice with Peking duck is a Sauvignon Blanc, but Siri suggested an off-dry Riesling. I wasn’t sure but I didn’t want to have an argument with her in the middle of Trade Joe’s.

In this instance, we can see both “sauvignon blanc and off-dry Riesling” have annotation on the screen. For Chinese audience, Sauvignon blanc or off-dry Riesling are both unknown for them. So, to ensure audience can enjoy the plot better, annotations are put on the upper part of the screen to explain its meaning. This is not only a good way to transfer a different culture but also a way to let the translation be faithful to the original.

C. Transliteration

Transliteration adopts the way of directly quoting the pronunciation of words, ensuring that the same thing has the
same definition in both languages, ensuring the same connotation and extension, and achieving functional equivalence. Every word has connotative meaning and extended meaning. In cultural communication, if you must find a word in the target language for translation, it will inevitably make the original words lose some meaning. So, finding a corresponding or similar sound in its target language is a good way to narrow the gap between the source language and targeted language. Here is a phenomenon in The Big Bang Theory.

Example 9 (Season 5 Episode 9)
Sheldon: Oh, dear lord, get away from me, you monster!
Sheldon: Shoo! Shoo! Be gone!
Sheldon: There’s a bird outside window, and he won’t go away.
Penny: Oh really? On top of everything else, you’re afraid of birds?

In this example, “Shoo” is one transcription that embodies Sheldon’s scary about birds. In this example, actually there is no word in Chinese that can be equivalent to the word “shoo”. So, to narrow this cultural gap, the translator translated it into the Chinese character “去” which means “leave” in Chinese. In the same time, we can also find that the use of transliteration has also followed both “expressiveness” and “closeness” from three principles of Liu Chongde.

Example 10 (Season 11 Episode 2)
Leonard: Hey, how’s it going?
(Sheldon stared at Leonard with dissatisfaction and said “pff” slightly)
Leonard: What? You got something to say?
Sheldon: I think I just said it.
Sheldon: p-f-f, pff!
Leonard: We are scientists. Isn’t that what we’re supposed to do?
Sheldon: Oh, what would you know about the truth?

In this instance, Sheldon was angry for that Leonard publicly maligned the love of his life, the lady physics.

D. Domestication

Domesticating translation minimizes the heterogeneity of the source text by transforming heterogeneous elements into the content familiar to readers of the target language. (Venuti Lawrence, 1995,p96) This method of “replacement” means replacing the English cultural-loaded expression using the Chinese expression, which may be similar in form and same in meaning or different in form in order to reduce the strangeness of the English expression by using a fluent, natural-sounding Chinese form for our reader’s preferences. Here is an extract from The Big Bang Theory.

Example 11 (Season 5 Episode 9)
Penny: Did Sheldon change the Wi-Fi password again?
Leonard: Yeah. It’s “Penny already eats our food. She can pay for Wi-Fi”.
Get No spaces.
Penny: If you can’t get me to stop eating your food, what makes you think you can get me to stop using your Wi-Fi?
Sheldon: I believe that you’re capable of great change. (我相信你还是会浪子回头的)

In this case, Penny was asking for the Wi-Fi password, but to her surprise, Sheldon changed their Wi-Fi password for revenge. The original text “be capable of great change” is an English way to express a change, but when we take a look at its translation, it is an absolutely traditional colloquial Chinese expression which narrows the cultural gap in this way.

The use of domestication in translation has added a sense of intimacy in the course of understanding a culture.

IV. CONCLUSION

By studying the characteristics and translation skills of American slang, the paper finds out that American slang is becoming more acceptable for its unique features in a certain situation. Its simplicity, humor, novelty and cultural connotation are accepted in different ways for achieving different effects. And people often use slang in some limited occasions, such as among friends or family members. The paper also discusses the translation skills used in the translation of slang expressions. To achieve a better understanding toward subtitles, literal translation can never be enough. Sometimes literal translation can convey the message of the source text, but it’s not attractive for audience. Take The Big Bang Theory as an example, simply translating the meaning of the scripts regardless of the humor of the sitcom will make the sitcom less interesting and attractive to Chinese audience. So, to ensure that the target language speaker enjoys the sitcom to the full extent, transliteration, free translation and other translation skills can be taken into consideration for translators.

As a matter of fact, much more need to be talked about American slang because of its language varieties in American English. Nevertheless, the author is confined to his limited knowledge about this field and can’t find out all the examples explaining characteristics in American slang or examples of all the applications of translation skills. Nowadays, slang has been widely used by people and is being accepted gradually in American society. Therefore, it is of great necessity to know more about it. Watching American sitcoms is an effective way of learning English and slang.
as a part of sitcoms is worth exploring. In the process of learning slang, we can not only tell the attitudes reflected by the speaker but also take in an alien culture.

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A Comparative Study of the Islamic Satan and the Miltonic Satan

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Abstract—Paradise Lost has been treated as a controversial epic in misrepresenting characters among some religious writers. In this wonderful epic or out of that, the Satan’s story is a world of ambiguity and bewilderment for human beings, it still continues being obscure. The interpretation of holy scripts causes some misconceptions, overstating and exaggeration especially about Satan. Satan was expelled from the God’s mercy and from His forbearance. He continued to justify his disobedience, he was considered to be very arrogant. This research is going to survey or investigate the comparative and contrastive points of the Holy Quran and the Paradise Lost about Satan. Christian religion is issuing from Heaven and so is Islam. As well as the Paradise Lost was inspired from biblical verses. Hence some matters in case of Satan can be traced and surveyed looking to Quranic text and Miltonic text in this paper. Muslims believe and respect Jesus Christ’s Prophecy. Islam and Christianity both can be celestial religions with the same roots but some differences. In Paradise Lost Satan is presented as magnitude leading character, but from the other side Holy Quran presented Satan is a very wicked and outcast character. Milton attempted to draw God as a passive character and from the other side he also drew Satan as a so active character in his epic poem. Therefore, the similarities and some differences in favor of Satan would be discussed in this scholarly research paper.

Index Terms—Allah, Qur’an, Shaitan, Jinn, Iblis, extravagance, obeisance, temptation

I. INTRODUCTION

Paradise Lost is an epic poem considers being a work of theology and cosmology that is written by John Milton (December 9th 1608– November 8th 1674) who was a gifted and intellectual English Poet. He is best known for his valuable masterpiece (Paradise Lost). It is one of the greatest works of literary canon ever written. Most of the writers called him as the pioneer and most significant English writer e.g. William Hayley, English poet and biographer, calls Milton: “the greatest English author.” Judging honestly, he remained as a regarded and worthy writer in literature. Paradise Lost was first published in 1667 that contains ten books, but later on the second edition was followed being published during 1674 that was arranged in twelve books. This enormous and immense work of English Literature is written in blank verse style, which was considered being as one of the meaningful literary masterpieces for the people of that age, this enriches literature of Renaissance Period as well as it is still regarded significantly. The biographer John Aubrey foretells that the epic was initiated in about 1658 and was ended in about 1663. Presumably Milton wrote the rich and masterful Paradise Lost at a time when he has totally gone blind by the assistance of some relatives. This precious literary book connects with Bible and includes a biblical story. Bible is a so majestic and yet a prominent source of information for the Paradise Lost. The story revolves or concerns around the temptation of Adam by Satan, the creation of Adam and Eve as well as their expulsion from the Garden of Eden to the earth. The prosperous usage of the language, style, plot and literary elements in the Paradise Lost, gives forth the worthy and value of the work itself. This unique usage is by far out of Milton’s talent and capacity. It is mentionable that Paradise Lost has been a good example for some readers who have been disobedient. For instance, John Dryden—English poet, playwright and first poet laureate—within The State of Innocence (1671) was counted one of the most loved adorers of the Paradise Lost as two men had different political attachment, John Dryden attempted to uphold John Milton to employ his work to afford or manage his own thoughts. He had thought that Satan was the one who avoids to accept slavery and started rebellion against God to collapse his position, might be an undeniable vivid portrait of the king killer, Oliver Cromwell. So that, does it make sense to represent Satan as the hero of the epic?

II. THE TERMINOLOGY OF SATAN

Celestial Religions have always considered Satan as the prince of evil who created problems and difficulties for Admirers of them. According to Oxford Dictionary the word ‘Satan’ has been etymologized from Hebrew "aton (SATAN) named by ichthyologist Carl Leavitt Hubbs, means ‘adversary’. This word has an etymological equivalent term in Vulgate Old Testament as ‘Satan’ from Late Latin. Furthermore, in Arabic language this etymological equivalent term is ‘Shaitan’ or (شیطان). This Arabic version is derived from ‘Shatan’ terminology that means ‘deport away’ or ‘get away’ (Ashori, 2010). So it refers to Satan who had been exiled from the mercy, compassion, grace and blessing of God. In addition, there are many more equivalent expressive terms indicating Satan, e.g. ‘Jinn’, ‘Iblis’, a Greek term, means ‘remain in grief’, or ‘despaired’ (Dehkhoa Dictionary, 1931). In the case that Satan can be intriguingly similar to that
of his Qur’anic counterpart Iblis\(^2\) (Sharihan And Mandy, 1967). Iblis refers to Satan, this term is frequently occurring in the Holy Quran in relation to the fall of Adam and Eve. After Satan’s disobedience to make obeisance to Adam, his refusal resulted in his exclusion from heaven, but not punished in the Hell. He used to be an angel before his disobedience. Iblis or Shaitan is often compared to Satan in Christian tradition. Though Satan refuse to obey the sanction and obedience of God that’s why he was expelled from the Paradise. Satan’s development into a heroic character can deteriorate or depict religion less worthy.

### III. Miltonic Purpose; God vs. Satan

Seventeenth Century marked one of the affluent literary works which was Paradise Lost (1667). This work has been written after Midlevel Age when majority of the people were intricately confused in Religion. After all the epic is concerning around the Original Sin\(^3\) and the seduction along with the fall of humankind from the prosperous paradise with the guile or rebellion of Satan that caused all tragedy of men. Milton’s purpose beyond the epic might not be well-illustrated; although the Paradise Lost asserts, “I may assert th’ Eternal Providence, / And justify the ways of God to men.” (Milton, 1967, p. 5) But, in some extents his purpose goes confusing through the overstating or exaggerating Satan’s role rather than God’s. Even though, he attempts to justify or signify God’s role, but God’s role is very less-explained even it doesn’t go to illustrate His real majesty. But still Miltonic purpose is vague; although he tried to justify almighty’s way to human beings but failed well. In Paradise Lost (1667), Milton proves waging a virtual battle between God and the Satan; this war discredits and degrades God the Almighty other than Satan. Satan’s Character and his role are by far magnified and overstated by Milton. In this regard, the Satan is justified more vividly compared with the God’s role and His character. Satan is deserved or qualified to control everything into the fiery Hell in the Paradise Lost, but holy Quran proves Satan as a lamenting creature who tries to deceive the whole world. As Allah says in An-Nisa Chapter of Holy Quran, “He gives them promises and excites vain desires in them; and the Shaitan (Satan) does not promise them but to deceive.” And as well as God allowed Satan to live according to his own desire or will. The spiritual justification is indeed symbolized throughout the epic poem though Satan desired to defile or ruin the creation of God, but God avoids Satan’s infernal and mischievous intention invisibly within the Paradise Lost. God’s pure intention is explained secretly. In Milton’s God, William Empson (1965) discusses the reason beyond Paradise Lost’s heartenedness, he says, “The reason why the poem is so good is that it makes God so bad.” Such depiction may underestimate the worth of religion or God in the eyes of human beings. Thus such comparison is entirely contradicting with celestial religions; moreover, the overstatement of Satan comparing with God is abominable and disgusting. Milton could find another way to make Paradise Lost more interesting and heartenedness with such an accomplishing and prosperous talent. He could go to make Satan bad other than God. While reading the Paradise Lost, every single reader will come out with a heroic point of view regarding Satan other than Almighty God’s. Milton’s purpose is not very clear and vivid in his work; on the other hand, Akram Nagi Saleh (2020) states that Paradise Lost is written in a time when Cromwell was died, it was just to express his grief.

### IV. Satan’s Creation and the Punishment

The Satan’s fiction has been ambiguous and obscure world for human beings. Satan and Jinns\(^4\) along with their disciples are counted as a very wicked and evil group of invisible creatures (Badruddin, 2001). Prophet Mohammad says that Satan the evil enters to get the human beings tempted or seduced; he comes with the first person into the working area and leaves with the last person for temptation. A large number of scholars have attempted to research and interpret several different holy scripts regarding Satan, so they encountered failure to produce a full detailed description of Satan. Although various scriptural interpretations have been produced; but some of them are neither well-interpreted nor well-explained rather than intemperance. As Tariq Nabi, A professor at Theology and Religion Faculty at Herat University of Afghanistan, remarked in an interview, “Some people state extravagance or excess concerning the holy scripts’ interpretation both in Islam and Christianity, and make a false-based conception.” Satan’s description is considered to be somehow extravagance in Paradise Lost.

Milton came out with Paradise Lost after Oliver Cromwell’s death in order to express his grief about Oliver Cromwell and the commonwealth fall as well (Akram, 2020). But in case of Characters, the essence or existence of Satan is undeniably indisputable and obvious in Abrahamic religions. A number of Islamic scholars consider Satan as the inner forceful instinct that persuades a person toward evil and corruption (Reza, 2010). As well as the creation of Satan is marked to be from intense fire. This fact has been explained both in Bible and Quran, as Allah the almighty points out in Verse: 26-27, Chapter: Al-Hijr of Quran, “And certainly We created man of clay that gives forth sound, of black mud fashioned in shape. And the Jinn We created before, of intensely hot fire.” On the other hand, the fire-created feature of Satan is not well-mentioned in Paradise Lost, yet John Milton’s well-formed descriptive clues imply Satan’s power living in fiery dungeon. Accordingly, Milton indicates in Paradise Lost, “In Adamantine Chains and penal Fire.

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\(^1\) The adjective form of Quran meaning ‘related to Quran’

\(^2\) The abominably devilish name that refers to Satan in the holy Quran

\(^3\) In Christianity, the Original Sin is Adam’s eating of the fruit forbidden by God the Almighty

\(^4\) Refers to invisible creatures akin to Satan (Shebla 2001)
Adam and Eve were living merrily festive in that happy state where their creation was marked. But the seductive and purposive guile of Satan causes them facing the wrath of the God. This is testified very obviously in God’s words in Chapter of Al-Bagara Verse. 35-37, “And We said: O Adam! Dwell you and your wife in the garden and eat from it a plenteous (food) wherever you wish and do not approach this tree, for then you will be of the unjust. But the Shaitan made them both fall from it, and caused them to depart from that (state) in which they were; and We said: get forth some of you being the enemies of others and there is for you in the earth an abode and a provision for a time. Then Adam received (some) words from his Lord, so he turned to him mercifully; surely He is oft-returning (to mercy), the Merciful” Satan is a very self-claimed proud, self-gratified and fire-formed creature whose disobedience for making obeisance to Adam caused him to be punished severely; resulted in Satan’s exile from Paradise and was deprived from God’s forbearance. The desirous and purposive goal of Satan is to get the human beings tempted or to lead them astray. Furthermore, the miscellaneously ill-formed purpose of Satan is also well-instructed in the Paradise Lost, “Th’ infernal Serpent; he it was, whose guile, / Stirred up with Envy and Revenge, deceived / The Mother of Mankind,” (1667). These hints show the power of Satan living in deep fiery Hell. Therefore, Satan is not burnt by the fire that is why he was created from fire.

The punishment given to Satan is contrasting with the punishment implemented on Satan in Islam; the punishment in Paradise Lost is “...Him the Almighty Power / Hurl’d headlong flaming from th’ Ethereal Skie / with hideous ruine and combustion down / To bottomless perdition, there to dwell.” Paradise Lost is concluding the punishment by hurling Satan headlong to the bottom of the Hell. But Allah addresses Satan and those who obey him (Satan) in Quran, chapter of Sad verse. 84-85, “He said: The truth then is and the truth do I speak: That I will most certainly fill hell with you and with those among them who follow you, all.” Therefore, the punishment was not implemented right after Satan’s disobedience; the punishment was delayed to the resurrection day, after all the regretful grieving Satan was driven out from forbearance of the Almighty Omnipotent.

V. INFRINGEMENT AND HEROISM IN THE HOLY QURAN AND IN THE PARADISE LOST

Milton developed Satan into a character of heroism (Jamal Subhi Ismail, 2015). He devoted a number of earlier books to characterizing the Satan in Paradise Lost. Satan’s heroism is almost controversial matter, but many of critics believed Satan as the hero of the story. Regarding Satan’s heroism, in a thesis Jennifer Noud (2013) discusses that William Blake and Percy Bysshe Shelley also believed that Satan was the proper hero of the Milton’s Paradise Lost; they both critiqued Milton’s Satan by finding several imperfections in Paradise Lost. She also discusses that Shelly goes a step beyond Blake when designing his Satan by producing a new tragic hero that does not have a hamartia. In addition, Percy Bysshe Shelley also recognized that Satan is by far better presented and Devil or Satan is rather superior to his God. Both Blake and Shelley confessed Milton’s over exaggeration in favor of Satan. Satan is portrayed highly huge bulk and barbaric creature in Paradise Lost. Milton depicted Satan as ‘Infernal serpent’, ‘Prince of evil’, ‘evil power’, ‘prince of Darkness’, ‘infernal Host’, and so the like in Paradise Lost. He also attempted to describe Satan as the hellish Emperor who rules over his supporters and over the Hell. The rebellious angels raise the palace of Pandemonium (Oxford University, 2005). However, Satan has been extended to build the palace where they sat in council along with other rebellious legions accompanying him. But they are not supposed to make a palace in Hell according to Quran, there isn’t any clue to prove rebellious intention. Moreover, the Satan is emerged as the adverse opponent and hostile rival of the God in spite of the religious scripts. These Miltonic-written verses in favor of Satan are opposing with what has been explained in Quran. Satan has been portrayed as a feeble bulk-holder opponent of Human beings other than God’s. This is more vivid in Allah’s words in Quran Chapter of Al-Baqara Verse. 168: “O men! Eat the lawful and good things out of what is in the earth, and do not follow the footsteps of the Shaitan; surely he is your open enemy.” Satan is considered to be a very malicious invisible creature who attempts to corrupt human beings in Islam. It is believed that Satan is living along with human beings for their seduction and temptation. Prophet Mohammad says that Satan is like blood circulating or flowing in a human’s body. It seems that Satan had attempted to seduce Adam and Eve invisibly rather that being a serpent in Islam as doing so now, Satan’s physics and presence in a different figure while seducing Eve, is not clearly mentioned in Islam, but Milton vividly clarifies, in Paradise Lost, “Th’ infernal Serpent; he it was, whose Guile / stir’d up with Envy and Revenge, deceiv’d / The Mother of Mankind,” (1667, p.1). Satan’s heroism is also doubtful for readers, though some of the readers state that Satan is the hero or protagonist of the story for he can struggle to gain victory over his own troubles and weakness, besides his
accomplishment of his goal for seduction human beings. On the other hand some readers assume Adam and Eve as the moral heroes of the *Paradise lost*. At the beginning, Milton proves Satan as the hero of the story, but Satan is far from considering the object of admiration throughout the story. Satan is neither qualified being called God’s opponent, nor does it make sense for readers to cherish him as the real hero of the story.

VI. DEGRADING GOD; SATAN’S POWERFUL POSITION IN THE *PARADISE LOST*

Milton associates Satan as a force assimilating God’s that is unaffordable and non-victorious for both Adam and Eve. They are placed amid three forces which are God’s, Jesus’s and Satan’s forces that are unconquerable forces dealing with Adam and Eve. Christians believe that Jesus Christ is the son of God; “All things have been committed to me by my Father. No one knows the Son except the Father, and no one knows the Father except the Son and those to whom the Son chooses to reveal him.” Matthew 11:27. This is in contrary with Islam. Muslims believe that Jesus is the messenger of God who was born from Maryam just before Prophet Mohammad who had been appointed to guide people toward monotheism. Quran declares, “When the angels said: O Maryam, surely Allah gives you good news with a Word from Him (of one) whose name is the Messiah Isā son of Maryam, worthy of regard in this world and the hereafter and of those who are made near (to Allah).” In this case, Jesus was neither considered to live in Paradise nor Satan was considered being a force in Islam. And then Adam and Eve have been concerning with God’s force rather than Satan’s.

Satan has been described highly great and much powerful who could have the capability of seduction, the talent of battling against God the Almighty, skill of speech delivery, ability of leadership, portrayed as huge as Titan (who could endanger Jove with huge or firm feet), big or spread wings, firm and single-minded, immortal being and so the like in *Paradise Lost* (1667). From the other point of view, God says in *Holy Qur’an* in Chapter of Hijr verse. 33, “He said: I am not such that I should make obeisance to a mortal whom Thou hast created of the essence of black mud fashioned in shape.” In this section of *holy Qur’an*, Satan indicates that Adam is mortal, and also claims that he is immortal rather than Adam: in addition, Satan’s immortality is depicted through the *Paradise Lost* too. Moreover, Milton enables Satan to stand like a tower, proudly eminent in shape and gesture whose prey is mankind. Milton must have spent to put his heart and soul into the projection of Satan, in spite of his consciously different purposes beyond the projection of Satan’s characterization. This over-focus or concentration over Satan’s Character could have something associated with the dominant projection of Satan. The battle between God and Satan can symbolize the turn or transitions of medieval age to Renaissance age. Satan may depict the medieval period for its association with non-logical or non-reasoning nature.

VII. CONCLUSION

The first edition of Milton’s masterpiece, *Paradise Lost*, was published in 1667. Literally, *Paradise Lost* was one of the great well-structured and extraordinary work of art for human’s knowledge in literature which earned much significance and importance. It has been resulted lots of scholars to conduct investigation or research in favor of literature; likewise, it opens various ties for much more complicated knowledge and it enriches literature of the time. The age when Milton was living called to be the age of reason, but people were still living in a constricted society tied up with religious roots. At last, Milton’s use of Satan’s intonation is very powerful, deceitful, self-independent and of pride that issues his bulkiness and pride in *Paradise Lost*. In contrary, Satan’s intonation is feeble and of lamentation in *Quran*. Moreover, Milton concludes Satan as a very highly-created, proud, independent, forceful, hero, leader and God’s opponent, but *Quran* proceeds to consider Satan as a very weak, feeble, lamenting, and human beings’ opponent. Furthermore, God the Almighty granted freewill for humankind, they are freely permitted to pursue or go along His blessing way or go along Satan’s evil way, besides God the omniscient mentioned the compeunance to be hurled in the combustive fiery Hell and his followers to be acknowledged with brilliant or splendid Paradise. Islam concludes Satan as the open enemy for human beings so whoever follows the footsteps of him would be punished severely in flaming Hell, unless those who enter into submission would be safe and prosperous into the Paradise. Milton did not portray a threatening or fearful portrait of Satan in the *Paradise Lost*. On the other hand, *Holy Quran* mentions Satan as so poorly qualified with a very abominable and outcast character who attempts to seduce men or to put men into miserably flaring fire. Satan is often considered to be a disgusting figure who implements extreme hatred among men in Islam. On the other hand, Milton granted Satan a character as so fearless and unafraid for being damned ever.

REFERENCES


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5 The Arabic word meaning Mary, the Mother of Jesus Christ
6 Messiah Isā refers to Jesus Christ

Jawad Afghan Anwari was born in Farah Province of Afghanistan. He is teaching assistant at English Language and Literature Department of Education Faculty at the University of Farah. At the moment, he is studying his master degree in British and American Literature at Southwest University, Chongqing, China. He received many scientific and excellence certificates, including certificates in Journalism and Sports. He used to be a Journalist at the National Radio and Television and spokesperson for Farah Governor. His literary research scope is Orientalism, Post-colonialism, literature and religion.
The COVID-19 Pandemic: Challenges Faced and Lessons Learned Regarding Distance Learning in Lebanese Higher Education Institutions

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Abstract—In the past few months, due to the Covid-19 (Coronavirus) outbreak, most educational establishments in Lebanon, including schools and higher education institutions, made the transition to distance learning. This research sought to explore the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic and the challenges that it currently poses to higher education. More specifically, it aimed to evaluate the views of language teachers with regards to online teaching to better understand both its advantages and disadvantages in comparison to face-to-face education. The study also offered insight on the educator’s feedback and their presented solutions that will lead to a better experience with online learning. A quantitative cross-sectional online survey was implemented for the purpose of this study.

Index Terms—online education, language teaching, crisis management, educational technology, staff development, educational platforms

I. INTRODUCTION

In the last decade, Internet usage, increased online connectivity and access to new technologies such as smartphones, have paved the way for diverse methods of social interaction, and access to information (Swicord, Chancey & Brice-Davis, 2013). Between 2005 and 2019 the prevalence of social media use among US adults increased from 5% to over 70%. Nowadays, students use the Internet and other forms of technology for a wide range of purposes (Swicord, Chancey & Brice-Davis, 2013). A study reported that students who have regular access to the Internet at home become frustrated when they cannot use it when and where they want, including in the classroom. The participants believed that technology could enrich their overall learning experience (Project Tomorrow, 2006). Research has also linked technology to educational achievements in US classrooms. For instance, Bain and Ross found that combining course content with technology significantly increased students’ understanding of what was taught as well as their overall achievement (2000).

Over the past few months, due to the Covid-19 (Coronavirus) outbreak, most educational establishments in Lebanon including schools and higher education institutions have made the transition to distance learning. Distance learning, according to Greenberg (1998), is a “planned teaching/learning experience that uses a wide spectrum of technologies to reach learners at a distance and is designed to encourage learner interaction and certification of learning” (p.36). Classes have been undertaken in a variety of different formats including pre-recorded lectures or live sessions. The Ministry of Education and Higher Education has launched National Distance Learning projects to provide e-learning services for schools and universities via a range of online platforms including YouTube, Zoom, and Microsoft Teams. Despite the government’s efforts to ease this transition, Lebanon’s financial and banking crisis is resulting in clear setbacks (Wazzan, 2020).

II. ONLINE LEARNING VS FACE TO FACE

Digital media has enriched the teaching and learning experience. Worldwide, the use of e-learning has increased with many governments providing promotional programs and financial support (e.g. United States, Austria and Lebanon). The advancement of e-learning has also been influenced by technological developments and learning management systems including Blackboard- and Moodle-based applications (Paechter & Maier, 2010). Aiming to better understand students’ experiences with regard to e-learning, a study was conducted involving 2,196 Austrian university students which explored their preferred online and face-to-face learning components (Paechter & Maier, 2010). Students mainly appreciated e-learning for its clear and coherent structure, its flexibility and its variety of modes of communication including the fact that the instructor was readily accessible. For face-to-face sessions, students preferred aspects such as the ability to establish positive social relations with their peers and the instructor, the cooperative learning system, and the application of one’s knowledge. Both online and face-to-face learning entailed advantages and disadvantages according to the students. Rates of online enrollments have been growing worldwide, specifically in higher education, suggesting that online learning is becoming a more viable teaching and learning strategy in the higher educational system (Flowers, White, Raynor & Bhattacharya, 2012). In a study surveying university administrators that sought to
learn about their views regarding the future of online education, most participants believed that it could actually deliver economic, learning and teaching advantages (Allan & Seaman, 2010). In addition, it has been suggested that online learning can offer remote access to 24-hour classroom information (Ally, 2011). Despite its numerous benefits, online learning alone does not fully address students’ needs in understanding and acquiring the course material. The development of cognitive and social skills through mutual feedback and debates allow for better cognitive presence (Fletcher & Major, 2006).

III. THE CASE OF LEBANON

Lebanon is presently confronted with a debt, currency and banking crisis that has impacted on its educational sector. Unlike many countries where public schools are the default, trusted, option, much of Lebanon trusts in its private schools, which educate two thirds of its students (Nakhoul & Perry, 2019). The education system in Lebanon was strained and was facing challenges before the Covid-19 outbreak. Multiple schools were shutting down and families were struggling to afford private schooling while public schools were becoming overcrowded with Lebanese students and Syrian refugees having access to only limited resources to provide for their needs (Abu Habib, 2020). As already mentioned above, the Ministry of Education and Higher Education launched a National Distance Learning Project to provide e-learning support for public schools during the Covid-19 outbreak (Wazzan, 2020). The Ministry also invited educators to volunteer in recording lessons and made communication platforms such as Microsoft Teams freely available to students. Teachers are using diverse methods to transmit course information such as sending content via WhatsApp, using Zoom to hold classes, sending recommended readings and assignments via email or simply moving content to a proper learning management system in schools that have access to this facility. According to Wazzan, despite governmental efforts to enhance the speed and bandwidth of the country’s Internet services, educators and students struggle with connectivity issues during online classes (2020). Educators stated that the process of online learning is in overwhelming, but that positive results are achievable. The time needed for course preparation is longer as compared to normal face-to-face classes and teachers are finding it difficult to complete the curriculum. However, many teachers are helping one another by sharing their experiences in order to improve the process of distance learning.

The purpose of this study is to explore the Covid-19 pandemic and the challenges that it is currently posing on higher education. More specifically, it aims to evaluate the views of teachers with regards to online teaching to better understand its advantages as well as its disadvantages in comparison to face-to-face education. The study also reveals insights drawn from the educators’ feedback and presents solutions for an overall better experience regarding online learning.

IV. METHODS

A. Participants and Procedure

A quantitative cross-sectional online survey was designed and implemented for the purpose of this study. The Dean and Chairperson of the English Department at Notre Dame University granted ethical approval. They provided the author with a randomly generated list of 300 teachers’ emails from five different universities: Lebanese American University, Notre Dame University, Haigazian University, Antonine University, and the American University of Beirut. All data and information was stored securely. Email invitations were sent through the author’s private email and linked to an individualized token, allowing each teacher to complete the survey anonymously and only once. Two reminders were sent at a two-week interval. Consent was required prior to participation in the study.

B. Instruments

In the absence of work directly related to how teachers were adapting to online learning, the authors were inspired by a Cambridge University Press survey on a similar topic and created a 13-item questionnaire. The questionnaire was divided into three sections: the first section required demographic information such as the teacher’s age, role in their university and the course being taught; the second section explored the participants’ views on online teaching and its impact on students; the third section addressed the future of online teaching and what help the institution’s was offering to teachers. Participants were asked to choose answers that best corresponded to their online teaching experience or to provide a rating on a 5-point Likert Scale spanning from (1) to (5) (e.g. “How do you feel about using new online resources? Select a number from 1 to 5, where 1 = very uncomfortable, and 5 = very comfortable”). (Appendix).

C. Data Analysis

The data was analysed using SPSS version 24.0. Descriptive statistics were generated to better grasp the participants’ demographics including frequencies of each variable’s characteristic. Pearson’s Chi-Square was calculated to investigate any statistically significant associations between engagements in online teaching and the following variables: the help offered by the institution, comfort in using video applications, technical complications, concerns about academic transparency, availability (of the lack) of equipment, training for teachers and student attendance.

Furthermore, a binary logistic regression was conducted to assess whether the additional preparation required on the part of the teacher was associated with a lack of training from the intuitional and to check if students missing online
sessions or not completing the required work was associated with the lack of help being offered by the institution.

V. RESULTS

A. Demographics

From the 300 teachers and administrators who received the email invitation and reminders, a total of 50 responses were collected. 90% (N=45) of respondents were Instructors, Lecturers or Teachers, and 10% (N=5) were Administrators with teaching duties. There was considerable diversity in the courses being taught, including English, 30% (N=15), Spanish, 20% (N=10), Italian 14% (N=7), Communication Arts, 6% (N=3), Languages and Translation, 24% (N=12) and Arabic, 6% (N=3). The age group stretched from under 30 to above 50. Table 1 provides an overview of the sample characteristics. When asked how long they have been teaching online, all respondents reported 3 to 10 weeks, 100% (N=50). Additionally, 54% (N=27) reported that they teach more than 6 hours per week, 24% (N=12) 4 to 6 hours and 22% (N=11) teach 2 to 4 hours per week (Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 1. DEMOGRAPHICS (N=50)</th>
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<td>Role</td>
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<td>Thoughts on Online Teaching</td>
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<td>Very simple and easy</td>
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B. Transition to Online Teaching

When asked about the factors that affect online teaching, 60% (N=30) mentioned technical complications (e.g. incorrect or unknown passwords, platforms not working as expected or Internet issues), 50% (N=25) stated concerns about academic transparency and integrity and 30% (N=15) reported a lack of training for teachers and/or institutional support. 64% (N=32) of the sample revealed that students missing online sessions or not completing the required work affected online teaching, with 46% (N=23) stating that too much preparation is required from the teacher. The lack of equipment (hardware or Wi-Fi) was also reported to affect sessions (44%, N=22) as did the students’ confusion when introduced to new material (44%, N=22) (Table 2). Interestingly, only 10% (N=5) reported no major issues with regards to online teaching.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 2. FACTORS INFLUENCING ONLINE TEACHING (N=50)</th>
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<tr>
<td>Count</td>
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<tr>
<td>Technical complications (e.g. Password issues, platforms not working)</td>
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<td>Concerns about academic transparency and integrity</td>
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<td>Lack of training for teachers and/or institutional support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students missing online sessions, or not completing required work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Too much preparation required from the teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty for teacher in managing teaching duties and personal obligations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of equipment (hardware, Wi-Fi…)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A reduction in working hours and/or pay for teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student confusion when introduced to new material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No major issues</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. ‘Count’ = number of times each answer was selected; participants had the option to pick more than one response.
With regards to the resources that teachers started using when the pandemic began, the majority of the sample (92%, N= 46) stated that they used video applications for face-to-face instruction such as Zoom, Skype of Microsoft Teams. 54% (N=27) reported using platforms for posting work such as Google Classroom, Canvas, Blackboard or Class Dojo, 34% (N=17) chose digitised books or eBooks, and 44% (N=22) stated using open Educational Resources (OER).

Results also revealed that 86% (N=43) of participants stated that platforms for posting work such as Google Classroom, Canvas, Blackboard or Class Dojo where available to their institution prior the start of the pandemic as along with digitised books and eBooks (54%, N= 27) and Open Educational Resources (46%, N= 23).

C. Views on Online Teaching

In the overall sample, (N=50), the majority of participants 58% (N=29) stated that the difficulty of online teaching was as expected, 24% (N=12) thought it was very simple and easy and, finally, 18% (N=9) reported that it was more difficult than expected. When asked how comfortable they felt using the new resources (1= very uncomfortable and 5= very comfortable), most participants (46%, N= 23) selected 4, 30% (N=15) said 5 and 24% (N=12) picked 3. 68% of the sample stated they would continue using the new platforms once they went back to teaching in the classroom, and 84% (N=42) reported their institution to be very helpful in the process. Finally, 70% (N=35) of the overall participants specified that they covered all their Course Learning Objectives over the period.

A strong positive correlation was found between judgments regarding the ease of online teaching in the current crisis and the help offered by the teacher’s institution, implying that the more the assistance offered, the easier the process was found by teachers r=.58, p<.01. In addition, a positive correlation was found between the use of video applications in place of traditional face-to-face instruction (e.g. Zoom or Skype) and the teacher’s comfort in using new resources r=.28, p=.04. For instance, teachers who used video applications displayed higher levels of comfort with regards to online teaching. A lack of equipment was positively correlated with: (1) the students’ confusion when introduced to new material r=.40, p=.01 and (2) a reduction in working hours and or/pay for teachers r = .38, p=.01. In addition, student confusion was also positively correlated to the reduction of hours and/or pay of teachers, r = .34, p=.04. Platforms for posting work such as Google Classroom, Canvas and Blackboard were positively associated with technical complications r=.40, p=.01. (Table 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SEB</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>.343</td>
<td>.080</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of training for teachers and/or institutional support</td>
<td>.390</td>
<td>.147</td>
<td>.359</td>
<td>.265</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A lack of training for teachers from the intuition was significantly associated the perception that too much preparation time was required from educators F (1; 48) = 7.1, p=.01, with a positive correlation between these two variables, r= .35. And finally, students missing online sessions or not completing the required work was associated with a lack of help from the teacher’s institution, F (1; 48) = 4.7, p=.03. (Table 5).
VI. DISCUSSION

This research examines how the Covid-19 pandemic is posing challenges in the field of higher education and the views of teachers with regards to online teaching. When comparing online vs. the classroom learning environment, online learning was shown to be effective, eliminating barriers while providing increased convenience, flexibility and feedback (Ni, 2013). Interaction in an online environment promotes student-centred learning and encourages wider participation (Karayan & Crowe, 1997; Smith & Hardaker, 2000). However, its advantages may not be realised if a connection between the instructor and student is lacking in terms of lack of student interest in the material itself or the delivery methodologies of the instructor. Literature revealed that it is easier for participants to ignore the instructor in an online context (Ni, 2013). This would support one of the findings in this study when teachers mostly complained about students missing online sessions, or not completing the required work. In a face-to-face setting, the instructor can more easily control and interact with their students, reducing attendance and work completion issues. Another study reported dropout rates to be as high as 80% in online classes (Carr, 2000), which may be attributed to the mode of study itself as holding the attention of students during online learning is viewed as being challenging. The latter could explain teachers’ concerns about the increased number of students missing their online sessions as this may lead to more severe consequences, such as drop out. As mentioned above, Lebanon is currently facing its worse financial and banking crisis since the Civil War which broke out in 1975 (Gardner, 2020). As per the Ministry of Education, 39,189 students switched from private to public schools during the current academic year (Babin, 2020). A large number of private schools are also facing delayed payments from parents, and some parents’ committees are refusing to pay tuition fees. These factors are pushing many students to drop out and enter employment early to help provide for their respective families.

Participants in this study also complained that they encountered technical complications during online teaching such as incorrect or unknown passwords and platforms not working as expected. A paper by Wazzan (2020) revealed that educators and students struggled with connection problems despite the government’s efforts to address the issue. In addition, 46% (N=23) of the sample stated that too much preparation time was required from teachers, which is in accordance with literature affirming that the time needed for preparation is generally longer than expected in online teaching (Wazzan, 2020). With regards to the completion of Course Learning Objectives, 70% (N=35) reported themselves to be confident that they had covered the material. This finding is not in complete agreement with Wazzan’s interviewees, who appeared to find difficulties in prioritizing and deciding how much of the curriculum could realistically be completed (2020).

With regards to institutional help and the support offered to teachers, this study revealed a lack of help was significantly associated with students missing online classes and completing the required work. In addition, a lack of training for teachers from the intuition was significantly associated with educators facing too much preparation time. In the case of Lebanon, the transition to online teaching was sudden and most institutions were unprepared. Literature recommends staff development strategies that focus on educating staff on how to become competent online teachers (Wilson & Stacey, 2004). These strategies must not include only workshops, short courses and website support, but must also teach educators instructional design skills in order to integrate face-to-face interaction into the online environment.

Schools can deliver staff development support online in order to develop skills and knowledge around online teaching. Wilson and Stacey recommend staff development content and an approach spread over four levels. Level 1 includes “show and tell” activities with operational trainings, seminars on activities within the institution and guest speakers. Level 2 delves deeper into learning management system skills, discussion boards, role-play and debates to increase interactivity with students. Level 3 focuses on more complex technical knowledge and forms of online interactivity (e.g. case studies).

Finally, at level 4, educators are encouraged to engage in staff development programs where they become role models for others and act as resource for other staff. It is implied that not all educators embrace change at the same pace or in the same way. Thus, there is a need to encourage the utilization of development strategies that facilitate the transition process for all subjects, including both teachers and students.

VII. LIMITATIONS

In interpreting the study’s findings, it is important to note its significant limitation. The cross-sectional nature of the data prevented causal inferences, as a result no conclusions on causal relationships could be drawn between the variables (Fernie et al., 2018). Additionally, due to the Covid-19 pandemic, participants were recruited via email, thereby increasing the chances of sampling bias. This may have led to the misinterpretation of their responses as well as
response bias. Future studies could use a more representative sample and a data collection method that would minimize sampling bias in order to enhance the general applicability of the results. It is further suggested to actively and randomly distribute the questionnaire to a larger number of interviewees across different locations in Lebanon.

Finally, given the unique nature of the economic crisis, limited literature was available with regards to how challenges of this nature might have a specific impact on teachers. Adopting a mixed approach with the introduction of a quantitative component may have allowed for a better understanding of the variables and how they affected participants.

VIII. CONCLUSION

Technology has provided increased opportunities for educators and learners to interact in both online and face-to-face settings. Both methods of teaching have their advantages and disadvantages. In this study, teachers were generally satisfied with their online teaching experience and they mainly complained about students missing lectures, technical complications, and a lack of institutional help and training. Most of the results were congruent with the literature and some suggestions where listed to enhance the overall experience around online learning. It should be mandatory for institutions to provide staff development programs. Most schools, including within Lebanon, are transitioning to virtual learning due to the Covid-19 pandemic, and measures could be implemented to better facilitate this transition.

APPENDIX. TEACHER’S QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Your role is:
   a. Administrator with teaching duties
   b. Instructor/Lecturer/Teacher
   c. Other: _________________

2. How old are you?
   a. Under 30
   b. 30 to 40
   c. 40 to 50
   d. Above 50

3. What course do you teach?
   ________________________

4. How long have you been teaching online?
   a. Less than a week
   b. 2 weeks
   c. 3-10 weeks
   d. I am not teaching online classes

5. How many hours do you teach per week?
   a. 2 to 4 hours
   b. 4 to 6 hours
   c. More than 6 hours

6. What do you think of online teaching following the crisis?
   a. More difficult that I thought it would be
   b. As expected
   c. Very easy and simple

7. Which of the below statements apply to online teaching? (select any that apply)
   a. Technical complications (lost or unknown passwords, platforms not working as expected...)
   b. Concerns about academic transparency and integrity
   c. Lack of training for teachers and/or institutional support
   d. Students missing online sessions, or not completing the required work
   e. Too much preparation required on the part of the teacher
   f. Difficulty experienced by the teacher in managing teaching duties and other personal obligations
   g. A lack of equipment (hardware, Wi-Fi...)
   h. A reduction in working hours and/or pay for teachers
   i. Student confusion when introduced to new material
   j. No major issues
   k. Other issues. Please write below
      ______________________

8. Which of the below have you continued using after the pandemic?
   a. Video applications for face-to-face instruction such as Zoom, Skype or Teams
   b. Platforms for posting work such as Google Classroom, Canvas, Blackboard or Class Dojo
   c. Publisher platforms for course-related activities such as Pearson's MyLab or MyEnglishLab
d. Non-publisher platforms for course-related activities such as Duolingo, Raz-Kids or Kahoot

e. Digitised books or ebooks

f. Texting applications as a mean of communication with students via Apps such as WhatsApp

g. Open Educational Resources (OER)

h. Educational websites such as YouTube or TedTalks

i. Assessment software with security measures

j. None of the above

9. Which of the below were available in your institution before the pandemic?

a. Platforms for posting work such as Google Classroom, Canvas, Blackboard or Class Dojo

b. Publisher platform for course-related activities such as Pearson’s MyLab or MyEnglishLab

c. Non-publisher platform for course-related activities such as Duolingo, Raz-Kids or Kahoot

d. Digitised books or ebooks

e. Open Educational Resources (OER)

f. Assessment software with security measures

g. None of the above

10. How do you feel about using these new resources? Select a number from 1 to 5, where 1 = very uncomfortable, and 5 = very comfortable.

1 2 3 4 5

11. Do you think that you will continue using these resources once you go back to teaching in physical classrooms?

a. Yes

b. Maybe

c. No

12. How is your institution helping you regarding online teaching?

a. They have been helpful for most part

b. They have not been helpful for most part

c. I am not aware of any available help from the institution

d. I do not need the institution’s help at this time

13. Did you cover the CLOs (Course Learning Objectives)?

a. All

b. Half

c. Quarter

d. Other:

REFERENCES


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Her research has mainly focused on exploring gender differences, cultural diversity, and leadership styles in administration. She has rich experience in school management and her research interests continue to center on issues related to shaping better leaders as well as bridging the gaps in the Lebanese education system, and service learning. She participated in the evaluation of the project “Relief and Reconciliation for Syria” carried out by FLPS/GIR and LERC from NDU.

She has conducted several trainings and workshops on leadership and management and prevention of violent extremism with the British Council. She has published on female leadership in Lebanon and on issues pertaining to gender differences in school administration and service learning.
Abstract—City publicity film aims at appreciating the landscape from a general view and certain scenic spot, planned and organized by the local government or tourism authority. It is consisted of diverse factors from history, culture, geographic features to custom. In terms of people-to-people exchange, it has become the paramount window for foreign tourists to learn more about China, especially Chinese cities with distinctive local cultures. In the process, culture-loaded words play a significant role in scaling up cross-cultural exchange and helping readers to enjoy Chinese culture readily. Therefore, the translation of cultural-loaded words should be valued to a large extent. Regarded publicity film of PingYao County in Shanxi as subject, this paper aimed at identifying words and dialogues with cultural characteristics, and studying the translation of culture-loaded terms from the perspective of the skopos theory. It can conclude that some translation strategies are adopted in the translation of publicity film of PingYao County such as omission, compensation, domestication, foreignization, literal translation, liberal translation and so on.

Index Terms—city publicity film, the translation of cultural-loaded words, the skopos theory

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Research Background

With the growing trend of economic development, it is urgently needed for China to improve its cultural soft power. There is no more time to waste. More importantly, the urgency inspires more scholars to pore over the issue that how to introduce the traditional Chinese culture and time-honored cities into other countries. Thus, urban culture plays an important role in the process. The urban culture has become the soul embedded in a city and its people, which reflect lasting historic charm and glory. However, a lot of words and conventional expressions in Chinese culture are hard to be translated faithfully into other languages, especially with as little as distortion and deletion. Moreover, in the introduction of urban culture, it is impossible to avoid these intricate issues. Therefore, a number of scholars pay much attention to the translation of culture-loaded words. In fact, they are regarded as the cultural and regional characteristics.

B. Research Significance

To be specific, culture-loaded words translation studies involve a wide range of types, in which most works focus on related literature, like A Dream in Red Mansions, The Wolf Totem, The Analects, Moment in Peking, Red Sorghum, Rickshaw Boy, etc.

As the traditional Chinese medicine is in the spotlight in recent years, the culture-related words in those medicine classics also attract more attention in the academia.

Moreover, due to the growing popularity of Chinese TV dramas overseas, a part of researches prefers the study of subtitles, such as that of American version of Empresses in the Palace, Detective Chinatown, Nirvana in Fire, Once Upon a Time, A Bite of China, etc.

However, there are few papers putting emphasis on the introduction of urban culture. Therefore, in order to establish a good image for Chinese cities, the paper will study the cultural elements from the perspective of the publicity film.

C. Research Structure

The research subject is based on the publicity film of Pingyao County, Shanxi province, from CGTN and CCTV. The author has chosen some dialogues and voiceover to conduct the detailed analysis.

Part one is to pen the answer of how to define the publicity-oriented texts and identify the types of them.

Part two is about the introduction of related translation theories and the analysis based these theories.

Part three is to dissect some cases and try to come up the effective and accessible translation strategies and techniques.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

There are the definitions of publicity-oriented texts and culture-loaded words. These are the foundation of understanding this paper.
A. The Definition and Types of Publicity-oriented Texts

Publicity-oriented texts refer to the introduction of development in politics, economy, national defense, science and technology, culture, policies and announcements of governments, the related information involving in exchange with outside world, the publicity in correlation with municipal construction in various regions, foreign businesses and investment, tourism, international activities, exhibitions. Besides, advertising and product presentation are included in the texts. Therefore, it is noteworthy of the complicated background, up-to-date information and various themes, imposing a great challenge for translators. Thus, in order to make it clearer in analyzing different texts, it is necessary and effective to distinguish them in terms of types.

According to Newmark (2001), text type is consisted of expressive, informative and vocative. Moreover, the publicity-oriented C/E translation, especially the publicity film of Pingyao County, put its top priority on the introduction of local culture. That is to say, those videos have to transfer useful information and present attractive moments as much as possible in a limited time. At the same time, the texts also need to focus on exotic features, which will encourage more people to explore the culture they have never seen before. By doing so, they will be accessible to more curious audience. Taking their features into account, it is easy to find out that publicity film incline to informative and vocative.

B. The Introduction of Culture-loaded Words

Various cultures are transferred through their respective languages. Durdureanu (2011) argues that words carry in cultures a myriad possibility for connecting us to other human beings, other situations, events, acts, beliefs, feelings... The indexicality of language is thus part of the constitution of any act of speaking as an act of participation in a community of language users. So, when language is regarded as a means of expression for a particular community, it also produces potential influence on people’s lifestyle and way of thinking. Du (2018) holds that those special words composed through accumulation and assimilation in such a long period of time has been categorized as culture-loaded words.

In order to better study the translation of culture-loaded words, it is necessary to classify them according to various cultural factors. As for the classification of culture-loaded words, the famous translation theorist Eugene Nida divides culture into five categories, namely (1) Ecological culture;(2) Material culture;(3) Social culture;(4) Religious culture;(5) Language and culture. We can see from these classifications that culture-loaded words cover almost all aspects of culture. Therefore, it is very necessary to explore more effective translation methods of culture-loaded words for more efficient communication among different cultures.

III. THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

The skopos theory is the theoretical foundation of this paper. The introduction of the skopos theory and the applicability of the skopos theory are as following.

A. The Introduction of the Skopos Theory

The skopos theory is the core of Functionalist Translation Theory of Germany. It is an approach to translation which was put forward by Hans Vermeer (1978). His work Framework for a General Theory of Translating lays the foundation of skopos theory. And the theory developed in Germany in the late 1970s and which oriented a more functional and cultural concept of translation. It is divided into three parts, including skopos rule, coherence rule and fidelity rule according to later development.

Translation is a purposeful act. Skopos rule is the most basic and important rule of skopos theory. It means translation can play a certain functional role in the target language culture target language users expect. The purpose of translation has a decisive influence on the translation process, namely the result determines the method. Duan (2000) argues that the purpose of translation is further divided into three categories :(1) the basic purpose of the translator;(2) communicative purpose of translation text;(3) the purpose which a particular translation strategy or means is intended to realize, whereas the word "purpose" often refers to communicative purpose.

The coherence rule refers to intralingual coherence. It emphasizes that the translation should be coherent which means that the translation is at least a correct text that makes sense to the target language reader. In other words, the coherence rule emphasizes the readability of the translation. Even in the coherence rule, what is in the original text is not the most important, but merely to provide some information for the translator. The translation should be done from the perspective of the target audience, so as to make the translation coherent and smooth and conform to the language expression habits of target readers. Make sure that the target language readers can accept and understand the translation and make sense in the target language culture.

The fidelity rule means that there should be interlingual coherence between the source text and the target text, emphasizing the connection between the source text and the target text. The translation should be responsible for the original text and be faithful to the content and style of the original text to the greatest extent. But the degree and formula of fidelity largely depends on the translator's own understanding and the purpose of the translation activity.

In the translation, it is difficult to consider the three rules of skopos theory at the same time. Fidelity rule is subordinated to the coherence principle, and both are subordinated to the skopos rule. Therefore, in the process of translation, the translator can choose a flexible and effective translation strategy according to the specific intention of the target text.
B. The Applicability of the Skopos Theory

In terms of the features and purposes of publicity film, they are designed to mainly focus on the target languages and texts. In other words, various areas of translation should be in line with that of target cultures, such as means of expression and figures of speech. In effect, the reader-centered text can be combined with the skopos theory. As the three rules mentioned above, the publicity films, with cultural words, need to take the needs of audience into consideration, especially their sense of identity, language habits, taboos, etc. In terms of the communicative purpose, the text, especially the dialogue in videos, should maintain its concise and accurate features with limited time. As for coherence rule, videos pay much attention on repeating the proper nouns to strengthen people’s impression, closely connecting the first clips and the coming ones. Besides, the fidelity rule refers to the equivalence between different spots and their according English name in videos. In the process of translation, the translator can choose a flexible and effective translation strategy according to the specific intention of the target text from the perspectives of the skopos theory.

IV. Translation Strategies of Culture-Loaded Words in Publicity Film of Pingyao County from the Perspective of the Skopos Theory

Pingyao is a small town in central Shanxi Province into whose history goes back 2700 years when it was first built during the reign of King Xuan (827-782 BC) of the Western Zhou Dynasty. Since the “Province and County System” set by Emperor Qin in 221 BC, the city has been the County seat in all the times. Despite so many events or incidents, it survived practically as it was in the 600 years or more since Ming and Qing dynasties, and ranks as the only intact ancient city of Ming and Qing dynasties well-preserved in China. This research regards the publicity film of Pingyao County as subject to study culture-loaded words of it from the perspective of ecologic, material, linguistic, social and religion culture and the translation strategies under the skopos theory.

A. Ecologic Culture-loaded Words and Translation Strategy

Ecological culture-loaded words reflect the natural, geographical, climatic and other characteristics related to ecological civilization in the region of some cultures. It represents the relationship between man and nature and the ecological environment, including plants, animals, mountains, rivers, cities and towns, and the associative meaning (Zhang, 2013). Due to different geographical location, topography, climate and life, different countries have different ecological cultures. Some ecological and cultural loaded words are unique to China, such as "小满" and "惊蛰" in Chinese, which means that we cannot find corresponding words in the target language. Therefore, the translation of eco-culture-loaded words plays a very important role in cultural communication.

Example 1

ST: 平遥又以窑洞闻名，这是中国西北地区的典型建筑，以砖石结构砌成，冬暖夏凉。常装饰有历史悠久的雕花门窗，烘托出窑洞古色古香的艺术气息。

TT: Pingyao is also famous for its vaulted ceiling dwellings, which are the characteristics of north western China. These Yao Dong dwellings were built masonry and are known to stay cool in the summer and warm in the winter. The doors and windows are often decorated with intricate wood carvings that have survived hundreds of years and give these houses a quaint yet artistic feel.

Foreignization aims to transmit the alien features of the source culture, transplanting the new images and concepts into the target language and culture. Thus, the target language will be enriched and reformed (Ye, 2014). By maintaining the foreignness, the local culture and language habits will be preserved well. Domesticating translation makes the translator invisible and the dominant cultures usually adopt the domesticating translation strategy to produce coherent reading for the target language readers. Then translators are able to keep the coherence within the target text and readers will pay much attention on major information and content, not interrupted by weird words and tedious annotation. The translation text combines the domestication and foreignization altogether, like “vaulted ceiling dwellings” and “Yao Dong dwellings”, contributing a lot to the fruitful cross-cultural communication. On the one hand, tourists are able to catch the information about its basic appearance and function. On the other hand, transliteration maintains the exotic features embedded in traditional Chinese architectural culture. Moreover, the text also complements more functions and artistic style about the special building, so that the vivid picture and people’s imagination will highlight its unique charm and encourage visitors to come there soon. That is to say, the translation achieves its vocative characteristic.

B. Material Culture-loaded Words and Translation Strategy

Material culture-loaded words reflect the production and material achievements of human beings, such as economy, science, technology, food, clothes, crafts, buildings. These words are reflections of daily life of human being and embody the labor and wisdom of human beings.

Example 2

ST: 衙门，库房，镖局

TT: criminal law court, underground vault, armed escort agency

The translation compensation is applied in the translation of material culture-loaded words. According to their distinctive functions, the first step is to find their respective equivalents. With the same role in Western world, like "衙门"
is equal to the court, which is defined as the place where legal trials take place and where crimes are judged. By doing so, the new context is created according to pragmatic equivalence. Then, in order to narrow the range further and avoid the misunderstanding of civil court, the editor complements extra part “criminal”. Thus, the audiences are able to catch the major functions of “衙门”. As for “库房”, in the video, it directly points to store the ancient currency, like silver and gold. So, vault is the equivalent, used for keeping valuable things safe, especially in bank. The “underground” illuminates the specific location and the traditional habits in ancient China. In the translation of “镖局”, after ensuring its basic type as an agency to provide a particular service especially on behalf of other businesses or organizations, “armed escort” will stimulate tourists to associate it with the escort ships or armed guards in modern sense. In the process, cultural default is addresses by bridging different cultures.

C. Linguistic Culture-loaded Words and Translation Strategy

There are nine major language families in the world, among which there are great differences in pronunciation, vocabulary, syntax and grammar. Chinese belongs to Sino-Tibetan language and English belongs to Indo-European language family. Four-character words are an important type of language culture-loaded words in tourism texts. Compared with Chinese, English has the characteristics of conciseness, conciseness and semantic concentration.

Example 3

ST: 老掌柜, 贵客取元宝。掌柜, “财源滚滚，步步高升！”
TT: Dear manager, our respected customer is here for her ingots. May your profits pour in, may you rise step by step.

The liberal translation and amplification are applied in the translation of linguistic culture-loaded words. This follows the coherence rule. It is obvious that the dialogue comes up in an organization with the same function of bank, of which “掌柜” is in charge. Thus, the equivalent “manager” has provided the presupposition and context, which implies the activity of clients. It is liberal translation. Besides, “May your profits pour in, may you rise step by step.” Add the subject “your profits, you”. It is amplification. In particular, the traditional blessings are translated properly, with the same styles and condensed content. When listening to it, the audience can feel its readability and catchy features.

D. Social Culture-loaded Words and Translation Strategy

In the long-term development of history, different societies have different social systems, values, lifestyles, behavior patterns, etiquette and customs, etc. Social-cultural loaded words refer to the words and expressions created by local people under the influence of local unique folk customs, lifestyles, behavior patterns and other factors. Therefore, social culture-loaded words can reflect different customs, historical backgrounds and ideologies.

Example 4

ST: 平遥古镇有一千多座古宅，以钱庄, 镖局等历史悠久的老字号为特色。天一黑，七百米长街就亮了起来，游客可以品尝到许多当地的特色美食，尤其是山西面食。《又见平遥》是一部大型室内情景剧。
TT: The ancient town has over 1,000 ancient houses, featuring banks, escort agencies and other time-honored brands. As it gets dark, a 700-meter-long gourmet street is lit up. Visitors can taste a variety of local specialties, especially Shanxi pasta. “See Pingyao Again” is a large-scale indoor situational experience drama.

Example 5

ST: 这条路叫十米财路。因为看到这个墙上都有铜钱，这个叫铜墙铁壁黄金路。
TT: This is called the “10-Meter Fortune Path”. You can see copper coins in the crevices between the bricks. So, they bless this path to the vaults.

Liberal translation and omission are applied in social culture-loaded words. As mentioned in example 4, “山西面食” is replaced by Shanxi pasta. It is liberal translation. The word “pasta” refers to an Italian food made from flour, water and sometimes eggs, formed into different shapes and usually served with a sauce. In terms of appearance, it can be the counterpart of noodles, a long thin strip of pasta. Besides, the pasta also has a wide range than noodles, if the translators take the variety of local specialty into consideration. To some extent, it amounts to cultural borrowing in an effort to set up a fundamental impression and context regarding to pragmatic equivalence. Besides, something beyond expectation also attracts visitors to try the specialty snack based on geographic features.

In the example 5, the translation of “铜墙铁壁黄金路”，the English version doesn’t repeat the first two objects, which have been illustrated before, but directly point to the final object with simplicity. Another is the shared features with subtitle translation, owing to the type of publicity films. To be specific, there is readability for audience and conciseness. Besides, the former two sentences have explained the specific implied meaning of the path and copper coins. Therefore, although the last sentence in Chinese lists several imageries, it has been redundant for the English version. That’s exactly why the free translation transfers the better quality with effective omission. It follows the fidelity rule.

E. Religious Culture-loaded Words and Translation Strategy

In the long process of historical development, different ethnic groups formed different religions and beliefs. Religious belief is an important part of national culture. Most people in China believe in Buddhism, Taoism and
Confucianism. However, most Westerners believe in Christianity. Because the religious beliefs of Chinese people are different from those of Westerners, it is difficult for Westerners to understand some words and expressions in Chinese religious culture. Therefore, it is significant to apply appropriate translation strategy.

Example 6

ST: “双火节”字面意思就是“土地和火”，大多在农村地区举办有庆祝活动。这个有着上百年历史的节日也提醒着人们中国社会中农业的重要性。每到这个时候，人们会向土地公祈求好收成，向火神祈求火种以取暖烹调。如今仍有许多乡镇庆祝这个节日，但规模最大的还是中国山西的平遥。

TT: "Shehuo" literally translates as "Earth and Fire" and is a festival mostly celebrated in the countryside. It's a centuries-old practice that reminds us of the importance of agriculture in Chinese society. During Shehuo, people pray to the god of Earth for a good harvest and to the god of Fire for giving them warmth and the ability to cook. While the festival is celebrated in many towns and villages across the country, one of the biggest is held in the ancient city of Pingyao in north China's Shanxi Province.

The unique traditional festival is transferred through two different translation techniques, including transliteration and literal translation. As it is almost impossible to find out an equivalent in English, the “Shehuo” preserves the exotic feature successfully. Continuously, the text also explains its literal meaning and implication, related to the agriculture. From the perspective of audiences, the center of skopos theory, what they have commanded is not only the name “Shehuo”, but also its history and implications. Interestingly, the sacrificial culture also shows up vibrantly.

In terms of tourists’ different degrees of understanding of Buddhism, the proper noun “双林寺” is translated through transliteration and literal translation. In particular, the potential allusion is added to complement the cultural default. Involving the nirvana, the narrator continues to illuminate why the process of death is so holy and sacred for Buddhists.

V. CONCLUSION

Publicity-oriented texts involve in many areas in correlation with the information of the outside world. Furthermore, considering the functions to introduce local culture and attract tourists, the publicity film is the typical one, subject to informative and vocative in terms of types. In the process, the translation of culture-loaded terms is so significant in the widespread urban culture, terms which undergo the distinctive feature and incomparable charm. Through the considerable analysis, it is clearer and easier for translators to adopt flexible and reasonable translation strategies in the face of cultural-loaded words under the skopos theory. Ecological culture-loaded words apply the domestication and foreignization translation strategies. Material culture-loaded words apply the compensation. Linguistic culture-loaded words apply the liberal translation and amplification. Social culture-loaded words apply liberal translation and omission. Religious culture-loaded words apply transliteration and literal translation. All of these strategies are applied to achieve special purpose from the perspective of the skopos theory. The skopos rule is the core of the skopos theory. Good translation requires that the translators need to have a good command of both basic language skills and profound cultural background. Only by doing so, can the urban culture strengthen its modern value and gain widespread popularity in the worldwide.

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The Project of “Chinese Culture Going Global” and Its Implications for College English Teaching in China

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Abstract—With the rapid development of China, the project of “Chinese culture going global” came into being in order to make people from other countries have a better understanding of China. However, both college English teachers and students in China suffer from “Chinese cultural aphasia”, and the majority of them are incapable of introducing Chinese culture to foreign friends due to the insufficient attention to Chinese culture teaching, the lack of Chinese cultural knowledge in most college English textbooks, college teachers’ shortage of Chinese cultural knowledge and the strong influence of the western culture on college students, etc. The project of “Chinese culture going global” has three implications for college English teaching: enhancing Chinese cultural consciousness and confidence of college teachers and students in China, enlarging English vocabulary concerning Chinese culture and enriching college students’ Chinese cultural knowledge; and improving Chinese college students' intercultural communication competence.

Index Terms—the project of “Chinese culture going global”, Chinese cultural aphasia, intercultural communication competence, college English teaching in China

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the implementation of the reform and opening up policy in China in 1978, English as an indispensable tool in international communication has become increasingly important. It is no wonder English teaching has long attracted great attention at all levels of education in the past four decades in China, college English teaching is no exception. The initial goal of college English teaching was to help university students in China to understand the language and culture of the English-speaking countries and learn advanced technology from these developed countries. College English teaching has made considerable contribution to the development of Chinese economy in terms of developing talents proficient in English. With the increasing intercultural communication and growing economic strength of China, it is inevitable that Chinese culture is going global to help people from other countries understand China. Accordingly, the project of “Chinese culture going global” came into being to meet the requirements of the development of the world as well as China. In contrast, there long exists the serious phenomenon of “Chinese cultural aphasia” at universities and colleges among college students. The project of “Chinese culture going global” sets new requirements for college English teaching, and college English teaching needs to adapt to the change to keep abreast with the times.

II. AN INTRODUCTION TO THE PROJECT OF “CHINESE CULTURE GOING GLOBAL”

With globalization and the rapid development of China’s economy, some foreign friends are eager to learn about Chinese culture out of curiosity or necessity. The fact that China has not due discourse right in the international world stage, and the Chinese culture is not widely recognized in the world may cause people in other countries sometimes have misunderstanding and deep-rooted stereotypes of Chinese people and culture. Under such a background, the project of “Chinese culture going global” was formally put forward by Chinese government in September, 2006 in The Outline of the 11th Five-Year Plan. Another major reason why China implements the Chinese-culture-going-global project is to increase cultural exchange and trade in the hope of changing the long-existing cultural trade deficit phenomenon. Consequently, all concerned institutions were encouraged to draw upon cultural resources and markets both at home and abroad to promote cultural exchange and Chinese cultural influence. The Outline of the 12th Five-Year Plan issued in March, 2011 elaborated the future enforcement of the project by constructing innovative ways to boost the international competitiveness of Chinese culture. Chinese president Xi Jinping stressed the project in October, 2017 at the 19th National Congress of the CPC that Chinese should cherish Chinese cultural roots while also drawing on other cultures. China shall improve its capacity for engaging in international communication so as to tell the Chinese stories well, thus presenting a true picture of China.

To sum up, the Chinese-culture-going-global project aims to promote intercultural communication, to help the world
better understand China and to strive for more discourse right, hence creating an international environment for China's peaceful development.

III. THE STATUS QUO OF COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF CHINESE CULTURE IN CHINA: CHINESE CULTURAL APHASIA AND ITS MAIN CAUSES

The term of “Chinese cultural aphasia” was coined by Professor Cong (2000) originally to refer to the phenomenon in English teaching that quite a number of Chinese scholars engaged in foreign language teaching can't express Chinese culture in English in the course of communication with people from other countries, especially on the subject of the traditional Chinese culture. "Aphasia" is a medical term, which means the loss of thinking ability and language competence caused by injury or illness. Since the term was invented, the "Chinese cultural aphasia" has attracted widespread attention and generated hot discussion in the field of foreign language pedagogy in China. Zhang (2002) together with his colleague at Tsinghua University, are among the first researchers who make an empirical study on the phenomenon of Chinese cultural aphasia of Chinese college students. They conducted tests on 126 non-English majors in Tsinghua University about their English expression ability of Chinese culture. The contents of the test covered three aspects of culture: food, folklore and historical places of interest. The results showed that the accuracy of the English expressions was only 22.46%, 23.42% and 30.95% respectively. One point should be stressed that students of Tsinghua University are undoubtedly the top students from all parts of China as Tsinghua University ranks first or second among nearly 3000 universities and colleges in China. Other researchers from different universities also conducted a series of surveys and confirmed that Chinese college students do have the phenomenon of Chinese cultural aphasia, especially the ability to express Chinese culture in English is seriously lacking. (Liu, 2012)

The main causes of the "Chinese cultural aphasia" are as follows:

A. College English in China Has Not Given Enough Attention to the Teaching of Chinese Culture.

School education in China has long been criticized for being examination-oriented due to numerous social and historical factors, among which are the fierce competition, the pursuit of fair play and so on. Likewise we cannot discuss college English teaching without mentioning the importance of College English Test (CET for short), which is considered the guideline on college English teaching and learning nationwide. CET is devised and set by Ministry of Education of P.R. China, and held twice a year to this day which has a significant washback effect on the curriculum of college English.

College English Test Band 4/Band 6 (CET 4/6 for short) is the second largest scale national exam in China even today, second to College Entrance Examination. The purpose of CET is to accurately measure the English proficiency of college students of non-English majors in China. Undoubtedly CET4 and CET6 certificates are taken seriously because of its authoritative and wide social recognition, not only at school but also in students' future job hunting. It is not surprising that employers regard the CET certificate as an important requirement of new employee. Once a majority of colleges and universities refused to award college graduates bachelor’s degrees unless they passed CET 4. CET has been playing an important role in promoting college English teaching in China, which motivates not only college students to learn English, but also motivates college teachers to do a better job as students' CET scores are seen as measure of the English teaching level of colleges and universities. Despite the positive role of CET4 and CET6 in English teaching in China, CET brings some negative influence on college English teaching as well. In order to help students pass CET4, many college English teachers have been using the examination-oriented teaching model which focuses on vocabulary, grammar, rhetoric and other linguistic phenomena. Quite a number of college English teachers spend class time on text explanation and translation, test skills development while forgetting the most important function of English study is not language per se, but intercultural communication. English culture is touched on as background material which helps the understanding of the English test papers, and Chinese culture has little place. As a result, English culture is not given due attention in college English classes in China, let alone Chinese culture. Since the first CET in 1987, CET has undergone changes in question types to meet the requirements of the times. It is not until December, 2013 that CET first added a new question type: paragraph translation on topics about Chinese economy, history, social development, culture and so on from Chinese into English, making up 15% of the total test paper scores. Since then, the learning of Chinese culture in college English class has been emphasized, but there is still a long way to go in spreading Chinese culture.

B. College English Textbooks in China Do Not Contain Adequate Chinese Cultural Knowledge.

Zhang (2002) once pointed out that teaching materials are one of the main causes of the phenomenon of Chinese cultural aphasia. Textbooks can exert considerable influence over what teachers teach and what students learn. Probably nothing influences the content and nature of teaching and learning more than the books and other teaching material used (Cunningsworth, 2002). At present, most of the current college English texts are adapted from English newspapers, magazines and other original reading materials, which mainly introduce society and life of English-speaking countries. These college English textbooks generally introduce the background information of the texts including knowledge of western culture, but few of them involve Chinese culture. Shortage of Chinese culture in college English textbooks results from the guidelines on college English teaching and the common assumption that as Chinese we should have
acquired the relevant knowledge at school or in life. The teachers' references on idiomatic English expressions of Chinese culture were not available for college English teachers. Li et al. (2007) analyzed three sets of most popular college English textbooks (New Horizon College English, New College English and College English), and found that the proportion of Chinese culture in the textbook material was only 6.25%, 2.5% and 2.9% respectively. Thanks to the positive backwash effect of CET in 2013, college English textbooks added translation passages of Chinese culture in revised editions, but the percentages are still relatively low in the teaching materials and the proportion of the Chinese culture and western culture is still in the state of imbalance.

C. Most College English Teachers in China Lack Systematic Knowledge of Chinese Culture

Generally speaking, the teacher is an extremely important figure and highly respected in Chinese culture as teachers play a very important role in the study and development of students. However, most college English teachers can’t exert such influence on students in terms of Chinese culture in that they do not have systematic knowledge of Chinese culture themselves. According to the research of Xiao and other scholars (2010), who undertook the questionnaire survey on college English teachers in Shandong Province about their Chinese cultural knowledge, the results showed that their mastery of Chinese culture was unsatisfactory. The following reasons may explain why. China as an ancient civilization had suffered invasions since the Opium War in 1840, which led to the downplaying of traditional Chinese culture and the overemphasis of the advancement of western culture. Overemphasis on economic development accounts in part for the neglect of traditional Chinese culture and values. Higher education exhibited the same tendency of the downplaying of Chinese culture. Most college English teachers in China received master’s degrees in English at colleges and universities which attached great importance to the understanding of western culture while neglecting Chinese culture. Such education emphasizes the introduction of western culture into China instead of spreading Chinese culture to foreign countries, which directly results in college English teachers’ lack of systematic home country culture, and the corresponding English expressions are also limited, let alone imparting such knowledge to students.

D. Western Culture Permeates Chinese College Students’ Daily Life

As early as in 2002, African American freelance writer Wole Akande pointed out: “The aggressive spread of market economics and communication technologies---often under the control of Western multinationals---brings new challenges to local cultures and values in Africa and other non-Western societies.” Chinese culture is no exception. As discussed above, the negotiation of traditional Chinese culture in modern China gave way to western culture which has gradually permeated in China. The reform and opening up policy in China in 1978 further contributed to bringing western culture and values into Chinese daily life. Western cultural infiltration also has something to do with the development of modern western economy and globalization, but the infiltration has been one-way for a long time. The long-term cultural trade deficit has made western culture pervasive: McDonald's, KFC and other foreign fast food restaurants have become ubiquitous in cities in China; Christmas, Valentine's Day and other western festivals have been widely observed by businessmen and young generation; Hollywood movies spread the values of individualism and materialism, which are previously associated with western culture. On the contrary, Chinese local culture has lost a lot of ground in this competition between the east and the west. College students are at the critical stage of life and are always more open to new cultures, so they have been the most-affected groups of individuals in introducing western culture. Therefore they are familiar with western festivals, lifestyles, music, the culture and customs of English-speaking countries. Ironically, they have little knowledge of the local culture of their own country, and English expressions of Chinese culture.

IV. THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE PROJECT OF “CHINESE CULTURE GOING GLOBAL” TO COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING

It should be noted that the project of “Chinese culture going global” is a long-term national project, which requires the collaborative efforts of the whole country, including the education departments and schools and institutions at all levels. As far as basic education and higher education are concerned, the related sectors should first define, sort out and classify the essence of fine Chinese culture that can easily get across to people from other countries at national level, and provide unified and idiomatic translations of the cultural products including literature, arts, movies etc. Equally important for the relevant sectors of education, especially higher education departments, is to draw up a cultural syllabus which combines English expressions and Chinese culture organically. Education sectors have already taken numerous steps to meet the requirements of the project of “Chinese culture going global” to this day. The Outline of the National Medium-and Long-term Education Reform and Development Plan (2010-2020) formulates clearly that the ultimate goal of Chinese culture education is to make students capable of intercultural communication, so that they can not only conduct academic exchanges, but also introduce Chinese culture to foreign friends. The Guidelines on College English Teaching (2017), college English teaching syllabus in China, was made accordingly, which stipulates clearly the purpose of College English study: College students learn and master English as a communication tool to learn and exchange advanced scientific, technological or professional information, to understand the society and culture of foreign countries, to enhance their understanding of different cultures, to be aware of similarities and differences between Chinese and foreign cultures, and to cultivate intercultural communication competence. In addition, college students learn English in order to use English to spread Chinese ideology and culture, and to promote the extensive
communication with people of all countries. In the broad sense, the project of “Chinese culture going global” has affected college English teaching in China. Specific implications the project have for college English teaching will be dwelled upon in the next part.

A. Enhancing Chinese Cultural Consciousness and Confidence of College Teachers and Students in China

Cultural consciousness and confidence is of far-reaching significance to enhance national confidence and identity, but it takes years or even decades to build up such consciousness and confidence. Fei Xiaotong (2005), a famous Chinese sociologist, pointed out: “Cultural consciousness takes arduous process. Only on the basis of understanding our own culture while experiencing many different cultures, can we have the qualifications to establish our own position in this emerging multicultural world.” It should be clarified at the beginning that cultural consciousness is not only the exploration and reconstruction of traditional Chinese culture, but the interaction and exchange with various cultures of different countries.

Any foreign language learning should be based on one’s own native language culture, otherwise a foreign language learner cannot have a thorough understanding of both cultures. As is discussed above, the strong influence of the western culture causes the college students, sometimes even English teachers in China inevitably to imbibce the western culture in the course of English learning, and their values, outlook and even the way of thinking can be affected to some degree. Some college students admit their wholesale adoption of the western culture. On the other hand, they do not identify with the native Chinese culture. It is high time to enhance cultural consciousness and confidence of local culture of Chinese college teachers and students.

Firstly, both college English teachers and students should have confidence in the greatness of fine Chinese culture. China is a large country with abundant cultural resources, and Chinese culture has a glorious history with more than 5000 years, which has been continuing till today. Secondly, both college English teachers and students in China should bear in mind the importance of Chinese culture in English teaching and learning, fully understand the requirements of The Guidelines on College English Teaching and our mission of telling the stories of China well and presenting a real China to the world. Thirdly, college English teachers should motivate themselves and students to learn Chinese culture by appreciating fine Chinese art and so on. English teachers may lead the students to have a discussion about the Chinese culture reflected by the latest blockbuster The Wandering Earth, a Chinese sci-fi movie with unique Chinese plot and themes. The idea of moving the earth instead of deserting it reflects traditional Chinese attachment to their homeland, in contrast to themes of exploration in western cinema. The use of collective efforts of professional staff worldwide to accomplish the major project of moving the earth presents comparison between individualism common in Hollywood movies.

B. Enlarging English Vocabulary Concerning Chinese Culture and Enriching College Students’ Chinese Cultural Knowledge

As we know from the above discussion, most college English teachers in China do not have systematic knowledge of Chinese culture themselves. The Chinese saying goes: To give the students a glass of water; the teacher should have a bucket of water. Here knowledge is compared to water and this saying implies that teachers should have a much better command of professional knowledge or expertise than students in order to do a better job. So first of all, Chinese college English teachers should develop the mentality of lifelong learning of Chinese culture, and make full use of teacher training, online resources to accumulate their own Chinese cultural knowledge, so as to influence and better guide students to learn Chinese culture. It is widely acknowledged that teachers serve as role models, and sometimes have far-reaching influence on students in many aspects.

Secondly, both college English teachers and students should consciously and purposefully develop the good habit of acquiring Chinese cultural knowledge. The more they appreciate the fine cultural productions, the better understanding they will have toward the wisdom of Chinese culture such as harmony, benevolence, inclusiveness, courtesy and so on. As college English textbooks in China do not include adequate Chinese cultural knowledge, measures could be adopted to solve the problem. To begin with, the proportion of Chinese cultural content should be appropriately increased, and the content of Chinese and western culture should be balanced. Next, college English teachers should supplement Chinese cultural materials with idiomatic translation to help students accumulate English vocabulary of Chinese culture and Chinese cultural knowledge, especially material about the topics of Chinese customs and festivals, tourism, geography, kung fu, food, language and Chinese characters, art that foreign friends are generally interested in.

Thirdly, English teachers should encourage students to read extensively in their spare time on Chinese culture, including some English novels written by Chinese scholars like Moment in Peking by Lin Yutang. English newspapers could also be recommended to college students such as China Daily, which aim to provide timely news of China and stories of Chinese to English speakers. Such extensive reading will expand students’ English vocabulary, enrich their Chinese culture, improve college students’ ability to express Chinese culture in English, and more importantly, help college students in China to stimulate the interest of learning Chinese culture.

C. Improving Chinese College Students’ Intercultural Communication Competence

The World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages (2015) made by ACTFL (the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) specifies five teaching goals for language learning (commonly referred to as the 5Cs):
Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities. The Guidelines on College English Teaching (2017) issued by the Ministry of Education in China also defines one of the teaching objectives of College English as promoting intercultural communication competence. The project of “Chinese culture going global” shall not be accomplished without intercultural communication competence.

Nevertheless, as is elaborated before, college English teaching in China has not given enough attention to the teaching of culture, especially Chinese culture despite the fact that English education is supposed to be the main channel for the cultivation of intercultural communicative competence. For a long time, college English teaching in China focuses on the instrumental functions of English language and cultivation of English skills. In other words, the cultivation of English language skills is overemphasized and intercultural communication competence is neglected. Even if cultural teaching has been strengthened in recent years, the goal of intercultural communication teaching is limited to the understanding of western culture. Western culture plays an absolutely dominant role in college English syllabus, teaching contents and all kinds of examinations including CET.

Intercultural communication comprises a two-way interaction of participants, not one-way communication. This feature determines that in college English teaching, both the western culture and the Chinese culture should be given appropriate attention. Gao (1994) pointed out that, during the foreign language learning, learners’ mother tongue level will be improved correspondingly as learners improve their foreign language proficiency. The understanding of native culture and the target language culture is mutually beneficial. So language learners’ potential is fully tapped, which boosts language learning in turn. Furthermore, intercultural communication involves not simple cultural understanding, but more importantly, the cultural sharing and even the influence of communicative participants.

Liddicoat (2004) suggested four cultural teaching activities in the language classroom as “culture learning, culture contrast, culture exploration and the identification of third identity” between cultures. Guided by such principles, college English teachers can take the following steps to improve students’ intercultural communication competence. First of all, college English teachers help students to learn culture in many ways as mentioned in the previous part. Besides culture learning, college English teachers should lead students to make comparisons between Chinese and western cultures, and guide students to appreciate the differences and similarities of different cultures, enhance students’ cultural awareness, and eventually improve their intercultural communication competence. Next, college English teachers should encourage students to explore cultures by taking advantage of various online platforms like Facebook to make international friends to develop intercultural communication competence. Thirdly, college English teachers educate students to remain “third identity” and free their minds from preconceptions and stereotypes while conducting intercultural communication activities. Last but not least, college teachers should remind students the importance of empathy when telling Chinese stories to ensure Chinese culture going global. Berger (1987) defines empathy as “the capacity to know emotionally what another is experiencing within the frame of reference of that other person, the capacity to sample the feelings of another or to put oneself in another’s shoes.” Briefly, empathy is the ability to understand and share feelings which are being experienced by another human being. We should respect each other during intercultural communication and find the common feelings and dreams as human beings for a better life, a better world.

V. CONCLUSION

The core of the project of “Chinese culture going global” is spreading the fine Chinese culture, enabling people from other cultural backgrounds to understand China more comprehensively, and creating a harmonious environment for China’s development. Under the guidance of such a project, the goal of college English teaching in China can no longer be limited to understanding the culture of western society, but to make Chinese culture spread to the world. The focus of college English teaching in China should be shifted to improving college students’ ability to use English in intercultural communication and of telling Chinese stories to the world.

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A Critical Discourse Analysis of the Campaign Speech of a Ghanaian Opposition Leader

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Abstract—Referring to politicians’ use of language to promote their ideologies before, during and after elections, campaign speeches represent a key genre in political discourse. In this study, we examine the campaign speech of a Ghanaian opposition leader, Nana Akufo-Addo, at the manifesto launch of his party. We analyze his use of language to create identity and solidarity with the electorate, with the aim of persuading them to accept and support his ideas and ultimately vote for him. Drawing on Fairclough’s three-dimensional model of critical discourse analysis (CDA), the study revealed that Nana Addo utilised the pronouns I, you, our and we and repetition to create a positive bond, identify and show solidarity with the electorate. Also, these strategies were aimed at persuading voters to endorse him as the most credible candidate for the position of president. This study contributes to CDA research on the nexus between language, politics and society.

Index Terms—CDA, Nana Addo Dankwa Akufo-Addo, campaign speech, identity, solidarity

I. INTRODUCTION

According to Nyako (2013), “the practice of politics is mainly anchored on speeches delivered by seekers of political power and directed at their supporters and society as a whole” (p. 1). Therefore, campaign speeches are strategically crafted to convince the electorate of various policies, programs and ideas. Through the speeches, politicians surreptitiously influence and control how their audience receive and perceive the information being given to them. The main intention behind a political message is to legitimize a political position believed to be more credible than the other. To achieve this, politicians carefully package their messages in a manner that can be easily accepted by an audience through the employment of strategies that place the speaker of the message in an in-group position with the audience.

The main motivation of every politician is to capture power and one of the means through which power can be obtained is the effective use of language or discourse. There is a relationship between language and various social issues, thereby resulting in a connection between language and power in a number of ways: language indexes power, expresses social power, and is involved where there is contention over and a challenge to power (Wodak, 2001). The idea that there is a relationship between discourse and power is reinforced by Harvey (2006 as cited in Fairclough, 2010, p. 4) who argues that “power is partly discourse, and discourse is partly power - they are different but not discrete, they ‘flow into’ each other; discourse can be internalized in power and vice versa; complex realities of power relations are ‘condensed’ and simplified in discourses.” This means that within every discourse lies strategies embedded in “subtle ideological underpinnings, persuasive and authoritative (power) elements” intended for the audience (Nyako, 2013, p. 2). Therefore, there is the need to conduct a thorough analysis of Nana Addo’s campaign speech to ascertain how he uses language to create identity and show solidarity with the masses. The main objective of this study is to critically analyze Nana Akufo-Addo’s campaign speech at the manifesto launch of the New Patriotic Party (NPP) ahead of the 2016 general elections in Ghana. We specifically focus on the strategies he employed to create identity and show solidarity with the electorate.

Nana Addo Dankwa Akufo-Addo

The political profile and trajectory of Nana Addo Dankwa Akufo-Addo began when he was elected in 1996 as the NPP’s Member of Parliament for the Abuakwa constituency. He served as Member of Parliament from 1997-2008. In 2001-2003 when the President Kufour led NPP won power, he was appointed as Attorney General and Minister for Justice, and subsequently became the Minister for Foreign Affairs between 2003-2007. In a fiercely contested NPP presidential race, which involved eighteen (18) presidential aspirants, Nana Akufo-Addo was elected as the NPP presidential candidate for the 2008 general elections. He lost the 2008 and 2012 elections to the NDC candidate John Evans Atta Mills and John Dramani Mahama respectively.

In the build-up to the 2016 general elections, some issues surrounding the election of Nana Akufo-Addo informed our decision to examine his speech. Bearing in mind that he had been a runner-up for two general elections, there were discussions in the media on whether he would be third time lucky. This question lingered in the minds of NPP delegates and Ghanaians in general; more importantly, when in March 2014 he announced his decision to seek his party’s nomination for the third time ahead of the 2016 elections. Eventually, he secured an unprecedented, landslide victory of
94.35% of the votes in the party’s presidential primaries in October, 2014, in a contest involving seven aspirants. It was therefore anticipated that since he lost both the 2008 and 2012 elections, the 2016 campaign would be intense, making the speeches to be delivered during the campaign extremely important.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

There are several studies that focus on the relationship between language and politics, political personalities and how politicians use language to persuade the electorate. Obeng’s (1997) study on language and politics discussed certain features of a text that make the text political. He outlines some contextual features such as content, purpose of the discourse, setting among others and, more importantly, rhetoric as major components in the area of politics. Obeng argues that an important aspect of political rhetoric is the ability of the politicians to communicatively ‘sell’ themselves, their ideologies or policies to the electorate. This suggests that to be a successful politician, the use of special arguments, speech forms and the art of persuasive language is key. Similarly, Wang’s (2010) work on the features of Barack Obama’s speeches indicates how Obama uses simple language to persuade his audience to accept and support his stance. Using systematic functional grammar, and focusing on transitivity and modality, Wang (2010) reveals that Obama uses simpler, short sentences instead of complex ones, easy and colloquial language structure, which shorten the proximity between him and his audience.

Sarfo and Krampa’s (2013) study on “Language at war” examined six speeches of George Walker Bush and Barack Obama. The finding of this study shows that Bush and Obama projected terrorism negatively while anti-terrorism was projected positively, by carefully selecting emotionally charged vocabularies and expressions. In a similar study, Nyako (2013) analyses language, power and ideology, using critical discourse analysis of selected speeches of Nana Addo Dankwa Akufo-Addo and John Dramani Mahama. In the study, Nyako (2013) discusses how description, interpretation and explanation reveal the implicit underlying issues which the two presidential hopefuls employed to persuade their audience to validate their overt interest for power. The findings of the study show that Nana Akufo-Addo and John Mahama utilised persuasive strategies such as self-projection, blurred agency, literary devices, intertextuality and speech acts to persuade their audience and by extension the electorate.

Opoku-Mensah’s (2014) work on the “Rhetoric of Kwame Nkrumah” focused on the examination of the political speeches of Kwame Nkrumah. Using Aristotle’s (2007) Levels of Proofs and Rhetorical Regimes, Perelman and Olbrechts-Tyteca’s (1969) Argument and Bitzer’s (1968) Situation as correlative approaches for the analysis of the data, the study revealed that as part of Nkrumah’s political speeches, he constantly employed logical association. Using this tool, Nkrumah associated two entities either positively or negatively in order to promote good or bad publicity for different entities. The findings showed that Nkrumah used negative association in describing Western colonial powers in order to engender negative public opinion against them. He also employed negative associations to target political opponents in Ghana and Africa, who either served as political threats or opposed his ideological position. With regard to positive association, Nkrumah rhetorically associated his political party, the Convention Peoples Party (CPP) as the only viable political party in Ghana while relegating the other parties to the background.

Anderson (2014) also analyzed some selected speeches of John Evans Atta Mills. The main focus of Anderson’s work was to identify inherent stylistically significant features prevalent in the selected speeches to find a possible relationship between the background of the political actor and the prevalent stylistic features. Utilising meta-function as postulated by Halliday (1970, 1978, 1985) and Onah’s ‘Concept of Peace’ as perceived in the African traditional culture as frameworks, supported by Fairclough’s (1989, 1995) three-dimensional model to the study of a text. The study showed that Atta Mills employed strategies such as repetition, positive self-projection and code-switching as stylistic features. According to Anderson (2014), political actors use these stylistic features or strategies to present to their audience the kind of personality they would like to be associated with. Therefore, in order to achieve this goal, they develop a conception of themselves and present this to their audience. In the case of Atta Mills, he projected himself through his choice of words as a competent leader, one who has a grip of the country’s economic situation and has the requisite solution to improve it and as selfless servant who is ready to sacrifice his all to the service of the country.

Taking the 2016 American presidential election into consideration, Jenson (2016) discussed the underlying discursive structures in Hillary Clinton’s presidential campaign discourse. The specific aim of the study was to identify elements of gender references, persuasive techniques, social inclusion and exclusion. Employing a corpus-assisted CDA framework, the study revealed that Clinton’s main purpose for her campaign was to construct a narrative of herself as president of the United States of America as well as push the boundaries of the historical perception of the American presidency with regard to gender. As far as social inclusion and exclusion were concerned, Clinton’s use of pronouns revealed her attitude towards her supporters and opponents alike. Also, elements of rhetorical tools of persuasion were fundamental in the speeches of Hillary Clinton bid to become president in America. However, in this study, we look at how Nana Addo employs pronouns and repetitions in his campaign speech to create identity and solidarity with the electorate.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)
CDA focuses on social problems, most importantly on the role discourse plays in the production and reproduction of power abuse and domination (van Dijk, 2001). Wodak and Meyer (2009) reinforce this idea by stating that it does not only focus on the linguistic element per se, but on complex social phenomena that have semiotic dimensions. Therefore, CDA, in sum, links linguistics analysis to social analysis (Wood & Kroger, 2000). According to van Dijk (1993), CDA is an approach that analyzes discourse structures involving the study of the way social or political power, dominance, inequality, bias or resistance to such practices in society are mediated through the linguistic system. That is, the critical analysis of texts is important in explaining the relationship between language, ideology and identity. Also, employing CDA as an analytical tool shows how individuals or a group of people in a particular society use language to achieve a particular aim.

There are different versions of CDA outlined in the literature. Ruth Wodak (2001) and other scholars developed the discourse-historical approach (DHA) working in the traditions of Bernsteinian sociolinguistics and the Frankfurt School. The approach is particularly associated with large programs of research in interdisciplinary research teams focusing on sexism, anti-Semitism and racism. The distinctive feature of this approach is that it attempts to integrate systematically all available background information in the analysis and interpretation of many layers of written and spoken text (Wodak, 2006). van Dijk (2001), on the other hand, developed a socio-cognitive approach, which is characterized by the interaction between discourse, cognition and society. This approach began in formal text linguistics and later incorporated elements of standard psychological models of memory, together with the idea of frame taken from cognitive science.

Furthermore, Fairclough’s socio-discoursal approach has been central to CDA in the past twenty years. The main idea behind this theory is a “contribution to the general raising of consciousness of exploitative social relationship, through focusing on language” (Fairclough, 1989, p. 2). He provides a dialectical theory of discourse and transdisciplinary approach to social change (Fairclough, 1992, 2003). The theory is situated in Halliday’s Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). Fairclough proposes a three-dimensional approach to analysing discourse to assist analysts to appreciate the interconnectedness that exists between language, social and political thought. These include: discourse-as-text, discourse-as-discursive-practice and discourse-as-social practice. In this paper, we employ Fairclough’s three-dimensional approach, focusing specifically on discourse-as-text (for a detailed discussion on the other two aspects of the framework see Fairclough, 1989,1995; Ofori, 2015). We chose this approach because it provides us with detailed information on working within CDA. As Fairclough argues, “to fully understand what discourse is and how it works, analysis needs to draw out the form and function of the text, the way that this text relates to the way it is produced and consumed, and the relation of this to the wider society in which it takes place” (Richardson, 2007, p. 37). By employing discourse-as-text, we are able to do a critical textual analysis of Nana Addo’s speech and connect to the entire Ghanaian society and see the relations or the link between the speech and the society the speech was meant for.

B. Discourse-as-text

This aspect of Fairclough’s three-dimensional approach to analysing discourse deals with “the linguistic features and organization of concrete instances of discourse” (Blommaert, 2005, p. 29). It focuses on how the various propositions are arranged in a text. By the arrangement of the text, we mean the choice to select the patterns in vocabulary such as wording and metaphor, grammar-transitivity and modality, cohesion device over another-conjunction or schemata; and textual structure-episode marking or turn-taking (Blommaert, 2005). This practice of analysing a text is in sync with Halliday’s (1970) Systematic Functional Grammar, which talks about textual structure in terms of analysing the whole structure of the discourse. The utilisation of textual analysis in CDA does not only focus on the linguistic form and content; however, it also centers on the function these forms perform in a text. Therefore, in the process of critically analyzing a text, it is imperative for analysts to explore the hidden agenda from the linguistic features used in the text. Some of the linguistic items that researchers must pay attention to in the analysis of a text are metaphors, pronouns and rhetorical devices such as repetition and anaphora. In this study, we focus on pronouns and repetition.

1. Pronouns

Syntactically, a pronoun is a word that can function as a noun phrase used by itself and that refers either to the participant in the discourse, for example I, you or to someone or something mentioned elsewhere in the discourse, for instance, she, it, this. Our focus in this study is the discoursal function of the pronouns Nana Addo used in his campaign speech.

Speakers use pronouns to achieve a particular purpose in a text. Pronouns, whether personal or impersonal pronouns, have different functions in a communicative situation, depending on how the speaker uses them. Personal pronouns can be divided into three depending on person, number and gender. Bache (2000) observes that the 1st person singular pronoun can function as I in the subject position and me in the object position. This 1st person pronoun refers to the speaker or writer and adds subjectivity to the speech; more importantly, it gives the speaker a personal voice which shows commitment. That is, the speaker becomes personal and relational, culminating in a positive impact or effect on the audience because they can see an actual person who potentially has a shared ideology with them. Similarly, the 1st person pronoun also makes the speaker more accountable to whatever he/she says or does (Bache, 2000). Furthermore, by employing I, the speaker elevates himself to a power position and excludes all others, which makes him/her the one with the authority in the communicative situation.
The 1\textsuperscript{st} person plural is \textit{we} in the subject position and \textit{us} in the object position. Both can be used to include and exclude the audience. We can be inclusive by including the address, for example, \textit{I + you} and also functions as exclusive by excluding the addressee(s) while including other people. That is, the speaker + the speaker’s family + the government (Bibler & Leech, 2015). In the same vein, \textit{you} and \textit{we} can be used to refer to people in general. According to Bache (2000), the pronouns \textit{we} and \textit{us} also show authority like the 1\textsuperscript{st} person singular. In this case, the person who uses \textit{we} or \textit{us} is deemed to have authority over others to speak on their behalf.

The 2\textsuperscript{nd} person singular and plural \textit{you} can both function in the subject and object position. The communicative function of this pronoun is that it is used to address a specific person or person(s) spoken to, where the personal pronoun appeals to empathy from the hearer (Bibler et. al., 2015). In the context of this paper, Nana Addo employs this pronoun to express solidarity between the addressees and himself. Therefore, the speaker and the audience become one entity having the same beliefs and ideologies. This also reduces the potential distance between the speaker and the recipient(s).

2. Repetition

Repetition is used in speech as a rhetorical device to bring attention to an idea. There are times when words are repeated in a spoken discourse without the speaker’s conscious awareness. However, in campaign speeches, politicians carefully select words, phrases and sentences to reinforce a particular message to the audience. This means that when repetition is intentionally used, it can have a rhetorical effect of intensification. That is, its usage does not show the difference between denotative and connotative meaning of words, but the skillful arrangement of words to achieve a particular effect (Bazzanella, 1996). There are several functions of repetition as stated by Johnstone (1994), that is, it functions “didactically, playfully, emotionally, expressively, ritualistically; repetition can be used for emphasis or iteration, clarification, confirmation; it can incorporate foreign words into a language, in couplets, serving as a resource for enriching the language” (p. 6).

IV. DATA COLLECTION

The Akufo-Addo speech analyzed in this study was obtained from www.myjoyonline.com, a major online news portal in Ghana. It offers its audience with a broad online source for up-to-the-minute news on politics, business, entertainment and other issues affecting the African continent and the world as a whole. In addition, it has a content arrangement with easy and accessible subject matter navigation. The data obtained from the website was a scripted speech delivered by Nana Akufo-Addo in the build-up to the 2016 general elections in Ghana. The speech was delivered at the launch of the party’s manifesto on Sunday, October 9, 2016 at the Trade Fair Center, Accra, Ghana.

In the run up to the 2016 general elections, seven candidates availed themselves to be voted to the high office of president. Out of the seven, one candidate (Nana Akufo-Addo) was purposively selected because he had been defeated in defeated in two previous elections. Therefore, it was anticipated that his campaign speech would be carefully crafted and embedded with several strategies to gain the confidence of the electorate.

We categorised the speech based on the number of paragraphs. In total, there were 62 paragraphs in the speech. Out of this number, we compiled 25 paragraphs on pronouns and 10 on repetition, resulting in a total of thirty-five (35) paragraphs. These were discussed with specific reference to Fairclough’s discourse-as-text. The entire data was divided into 8 excerpts, four (4) each for the two strategies.

V. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS

Utilising Fairclough’s three-dimensional approach, specifically, discourse-as-text on the data, we identified that Nana Addo employed two strategies in his speech: the use of pronouns and repetition. Thus, the analysis is structured in two parts. The first part analyses how he employed pronouns to create identification and express solidarity while the second part examines his use of repetition.

A. The Use of Pronouns

The value of using a pronoun in speech or writing is to substitute a noun in order to avoid monotony when it is repeated. Pronouns can also be used to refer back to something to avoid repetition. Partington (2003), however, argues that in political discourse, personal pronouns are often used as a form of address either to refer to an audience or to the speaker. That is, the use of pronouns in political speeches goes beyond substitution of a noun in traditional grammar, but it is used to express inclusiveness, self-responsibility, solidarity or unity among others. Politicians’ use of pronouns to refer to themselves or their audience constitutes a significant part of their message intended to either to foreground responsibility and agency or obscure these. Therefore, the pronouns \textit{I, you, our} and \textit{we} are more frequently used by politicians compared to other pronouns.

In excerpt 1 (paragraph 22, 33, 42 and 44) Nana Addo uses \textit{I} to assume full responsibility of his utterance. That is, the function of this pronoun, within the context of his speech, is to inform the audience to trust him. For instance, \textit{I} with the expressions \textit{I want a Ghana where every citizen has access to potable water} (excerpt 1 paragraph 22), \textit{I stand before you as a small and honest man, with a big heart for Ghana} (paragraph 44) and \textit{I am appalled by the poverty and deprivation that I see around the country, because it is unnecessary} (excerpt 1 paragraph 42)... indicate that Nana Addo
shared the same sentiments with the electorate in connection with problems like energy crisis, poverty and unavailability of potable water in certain parts of the country. Hence, these challenges should be addressed. He identifies with the plight of the electorate and suggests that he feels their pain. That is, we are in this together, which is an important way to show solidarity. This clearly portrays the kind of Ghana Nana Addo wants for the electorate; a Ghana free from the problems stated above.

Again, in excerpt 1 (paragraph 33) I have met hairdressers, the vulcanizers, the tailors and the food sellers, who have been reduced to penury ... demonstrates that Nana Addo has physically met some workers who complained of the current problems Ghana is faced with, especially the energy crises, popularly known as dumsor. Hence, to surmount these problems, he presents himself as a responsible leader to the electorate and as leader who will lead them to a promise land devoid of problems. Also, in excerpt 1 (paragraph 43), he uses I to show some form of commitment, ... that is the quality of governance, a government of integrity, I am offering the people of Ghana. Nana Addo projects himself as a man of integrity who is committed to changing the economic fortunes of the country unlike the then government. Similarly, he reminds Ghanaians of his leadership credentials and experience as shown in excerpt 1 (paragraph 47) that I know that the programmes by themselves will not do the trick ... this is further illustrated in excerpt 2 (paragraph 53) I fully understand the consequences... and I offer myself as a man born before Ghana’s independence ... these are indicative of Nana Addo’s attempt to show to the electorate his long standing political experience and his commitment to a more purposeful and functional Ghana. These carefully worded statements echo Bache’s (2000) idea that when the pronoun I is used to refer to a speaker, shows authority and commitment. That is, the speaker becomes personal and this has a positive effect on the audience.

Furthermore, in excerpt 2 (paragraph 44), Nana Addo makes use of the pronoun you to connect with his listeners and appeal to their emotions, cajoling them with a description of himself as a small and honest man who has better plans for Ghana: I stand before you as a small and honest man, with a big heart for Ghana. It is important to state here that in the run up to election 2008 and 2012, Nana Addo was projected as a man of integrity; therefore, this statement was a reaffirmation of this positive trait to the listeners to see him as an honest man. Also, in excerpt 2 (paragraph 53), he employs you as in, if they cannot, they will try and bully you, purposely to inform the audience about the likelihood of his opponents to deploy ‘rough’ tactics. Thus, he tries to reveal the negative agenda of the NDC to the listeners in order to persuade them to distance themselves from his opponents. In so doing, he creates a positive bond and identity with the electorate, and encourages them to support him and his policies, and most importantly, endorse his candidature as the president of Ghana.

Again, in excerpt 3 (paragraph 17), Nana Addo includes the audience in his speech by using our as in I want a Ghana where our young people can feel and be confident of a vibrant future ... to refer to the speaker and the Ghanaian people. The use of our in this context is Nana Addo’s way of showing identification and solidarity with the listeners. That is, he recognizes the fact that there are no jobs for the youth. He places the audience within the same communicative situation as himself by putting himself and the listeners on the same rank because they are all aware of the same problems. For instance, by using expressions such as our young people, our current sad situation our lot and our goliath, Nana Addo tries to connect and identify with the listeners (Ghanaian people) to see the challenges of the country and rally behind him for victory in 2016. Also, by using our, he reduces the personal distance between himself and his listeners by including them within the context of his speech. That is, the listeners are able to relate with his message. This corresponds with Bibler et al.’s (2005) view that the 1st person plural our helps to create solidarity between the speaker and the recipient and also reduces the distance between them. Thus, Nana Addo employs our to signal to the electorate that they are all part of grand agenda to salvage the country from the hands of the incumbent government.

Nana Addo’s use of we drawn from excerpt 4 (paragraph’s 20, 36, 37, 38 and 61) can involve the speaker and his own party, NPP, the speaker and the Ghanaian people or the speaker, his own party and the Ghanaian people. In excerpt 4 (paragraph 20), Nana Addo states to his listeners the kind of Ghana he wants to see: I want a Ghana where we appreciate the importance of the environment... He further enumerates some of the achievements of the NPP government from 2001-2008 and including himself and his audience in excerpt 4 (paragraph 36): we were all witness to the buzzing of business atmosphere and the daily expansion of enterprises. In excerpt 4 (paragraph 37): we gave rise to the legend of Africa Rising..., Nana Addo positions himself and includes his party in the speech. That is, we in this context refers to Nana Addo and the NPP. The use of we in paragraph 46 communicates the same effect. This means that he has authority to speak on behalf of his political party about their achievements in the past and the kind of programmes they intend to introduce that will accelerate the development of the country. By doing this, Nana Addo pitches the achievements of his party against their opponents, realizing an instance of Us versus Them dichotomy within van Dijk’s (1995, 1998) concept of ideological square (see Ofori, 2015; 2018). According to Bache (2000), the 1st person plural we shows that the speaker has authority to speak on behalf of others. Maybin, Mercer & Hewings (2007) posit that we can have four different functions, namely, the speaker and one other speaker; the speaker and a group; the speaker and an entire country; and the speakers as a whole. Following from of Bache (2000), Nana Addo uses we to show that he has the authority to represent and speak on behalf of his party. In relation to Maybin et al. (2007), he employs we to create a shared sense of responsibility and group cohesion, which means that Nana Addo and his audience belong to the same group that has the objective of winning the 2016 elections.
The above discussion on the pronouns *I*, *you*, *our* and *we* have shown how Nana Addo uses language to create identification and show solidarity with his listeners. In the next section, we discuss how he uses repetitions to achieve the same effect.

**Excerpt 1**

“…For my part, I fully understand the consequence of putting your signature to a contract” (paragraph 2).

“I want a Ghana where every citizen has access to potable water” (paragraph 22).

“…I have met hairdressers, the vulcanizers, the tailors and the food sellers, who have been reduced to penury, because their businesses could not survive the energy crisis” (paragraph 33).

“I am appalled by the poverty and deprivation that I see around the country, because it is unnecessary…” (paragraph 42).

“I am disgusted at the cavalier attitude towards corruption in public life. I believe that the everyday petty and oppressive corrupt practices that blight the lives of ordinary Ghanaians… That is the quality of governance, a government of integrity, I am offering the people of Ghana” (paragraph 43).

“I stand before you as a small and honest man, with a big heart for Ghana” (paragraph 44).

“I offer myself as a man born before Ghana’s independence, but the good Lord has been good to me …”. (paragraph 45)

“I know that the programmes by themselves will not do …” (Paragraph 47).

**Excerpt 2**

“I stand before you as a small and honest man, with a big heart for Ghana” (paragraph 44).

“You have heard all our speakers today state clearly that we are offering solutions to the problems that face our country.” (Paragraph 12).

“If they cannot, they will try to bully you. That is the opponent we have in this election” (paragraph 53).

**Excerpt 3**

“I want a Ghana where *our* young people can feel and be confident of a vibrant future…” (Paragraph 17)

“My fellow compatriots, *our* current sad situation cannot and should not be our lot…” (Paragraph 38)

“So let me speak the words of David to *our* Goliath…” (Paragraph 54)

**Excerpt 4**

“I want a Ghana where *we* appreciate the importance of the environment and we know and acknowledge that *we* are custodians of the forests, the lands and the animals for generations yet unborn” (paragraph 20).

“We were all witness to the buzzing business atmosphere and the daily expansion of enterprises. *We* all saw how many Ghanaians living in the diaspora…. *We* all saw our currency restored …” (paragraph 36).

“We gave rise to the legend of Africa rising, and was, indeed, its poster boy. It is a tragedy that *we* now are famous for all the wrong reasons and hope that …”. (paragraph 37).

“My fellow compatriots, our sad situation cannot and should not be our lot. I have said it often and I will keep saying it: *we* are not destined to be poor…” (paragraph 38).

“We believe in the programmes that *we* have drawn up in our manifesto, because they offer the solutions ….”. (paragraph 46)

“… fellow Ghanaians, *we* are many and they are few and the battle remains the Lord’s”.

**B. The Use of Repetition**

Repetition is another strategy Nana Addo employs to create identification and express solidarity with his listeners. The use of repetition is considered as a significant strategy due to its frequency in his speech.

In excerpt 5 (paragraph 17, 21), there is a repetition of the expression *I want a Ghana*, and this is used sixteen (16) times consecutively in fourteen paragraphs. Nana Addo uses this construction together with other statements as a way of showing solidarity and identification. In this way, he creates a picture of a Ghana that is in sync with the aspiration and desires of his listeners. He skillfully utilises repetition to emphasise the kind of Ghana Ghanaians want and desires of his listeners. He skillfully utilises repetition to emphasis the kind of Ghana Ghanaians want as illustrated three times in excerpt 5 (paragraph 17): *I want a Ghana* where *our* young people can feel confident of a vibrant future. *I want a Ghana* where *hard work pays and competence rewarded.* *I want a Ghana* where *honest labor is remunerated with honest returns.* This repetition is used to promise a better future for the young generation and the labor force. That is, Nana Addo knows what Ghanaians want; therefore, in order to achieve that goal, he identifies himself with them. It can be argued that the effect of this repetition is that it persuades the audience to vote against the incumbent government.

Nana Addo consistently repeats the clause: *if he looked a little closer* as stated in excerpt 6 (paragraph 32, 33), drawing the attention of the sitting president to the suffering of Ghanaians. He uses this clause to point to the fact that the president has failed to see the agony and struggles of Ghanaians because he has turned a blind eye to the predicament of the electorate. It is important to state here that the then president, John Mahama, had said in one of his addresses to the people of Ghana that he has taken the posture of *odwani funa* to wit ‘dead goat.’ That is, he is not bothered by any comment against his presidency. Thus, Nana Addo repeats the clause to subtly draw the attention of Ghanaians to the posture and the uncaring attitude of the president. For instance, he states that the president has refused
to create jobs for the unemployed youth, who are desperate for jobs. By saying this, Nana Addo establishes some kind of affinity with the electorate, sharing in their sufferings and sentiments. It becomes more evident in excerpt 6 (paragraph 33) when Nana Addo employs this same expression twice, if he looked a little closer, to chronicle the numerous crises facing the country. According to Bazzanella (1996), when repetitions are intentionally used, they serve a rhetorical or an intensifying effect. Thus, Nana Addo repeats this expression to intentionally outline the failures of the president in an attempt to win the electorate to his side, by claiming that when they vote him into power, he will pay attention to their needs.

In excerpt 7 (paragraph 39, 40, 41), there is the repetition of the statement: I am passionate about within the context of Nana Addo’s campaign speech. This statement is used in connection with education as seen in excerpt 7 (paragraph 39): I am passionate about education…; rule of law as shown in excerpt 7 (paragraph 40): I am passionate about the rule of law …; and separation of powers as he indicates in excerpt 7 (paragraph): I am passionate about promoting a state structure that rests on a true separation of powers… Nana Addo associates his passion with education because “Free Senior High School Education” was one of his popular campaign promises since he was elected as the presidential candidate for the NPP in 2007. He repeated this promise in 2012; hence, it was not surprising that he repeated it again in the 2016 manifesto. It is a way to reinforce his commitment to implement free education when he is voted into power. This promise of free education is likely to resonate with the electorate because nearly every parent would want his/her child to enjoy free education. Also, he connects his passion to the rule of law because he is an astute lawyer and has been at the forefront fighting for the rights of others (human right activists). Therefore, he intentionally repeats this passion for the listeners to know that he will ensure that the rule of law works in Ghana. This posture of Nana Addo is likely to create a positive representation with the listeners, who think there is injustice in the country. Therefore, by passionately assuring the electorate, he encourages them to vote for him since a vote for him is a vote for a Ghana where the rule of law works. Nana Addo’s choice to repeat I am passionate about casts him in the mold of a leader who is passionate about education, the rule of law and separation of powers.

In the final excerpt (excerpt 8), Nana Addo consistently repeats the expression they have more three times in three paragraphs as a way of identifying himself with the electorate as the in-group while categorizing the government in power as the out-group. This is also another instance, which illustrates van Dijk’s (1995, 1998) concept of ideological square, where a social group presents themselves in positive terms while describing and others in negative terms. Nana Addo portrays the government in power as having more resources unlike them the NPP and Ghanaians as shown in excerpt 8 (paragraph 58, 59, 60): they have more money than us…; they have more outboard motors, more roofing sheets, more laptops, more sewing machines …; and they have more giant-sized billboards than us… It is often alleged in the Ghanaian media that politicians distribute money and other items to influence the electorate to vote for them. In most cases, the government in power is accused of taking advantage of incumbency to share all manner of items to voters because they have the resources. Hence, Nana repeatedly uses the expression they have more to negatively represent the activities of the ruling government to the listeners (that is, the money and items they are distributing to influence voters) while presenting himself, the NPP and Ghanaians positively (that is, in spite of incumbent’s resource, they have the numbers to win the elections.) In line with Bazzanella (1996), Nana Addo intentionally repeats the expression they have more to show that the ruling party is misusing state resources to influence voters, thereby encouraging the electorate to vote against them.

Excerpt 5
“I want a Ghana where our young people can feel and be confident of a vibrant future. I want a Ghana where hard work pays and competence is rewarded. I want a Ghana where honest labour is remunerated with honest returns” (paragraph 17).
“ I want a Ghana where the cleaning of surroundings …” (paragraph 21).

Excerpt 6
“If he looked a little closer even at the rank and file of his own party, he would recognize that this is, indeed, an economy in crisis.” (paragraph 32).
“If he looked a little closer, he would see the number of teachers and nurses who have worked for three years and told they will be paid for three months. If he looked a little closer, he would see the number of businesses …” (paragraph 33).

Excerpt 7
“Yes, I am passionate about education…” (paragraph 39).
I am passionate about rule of law because it is the bedrock of a successful, well-ordered and prosperous society.” (paragraph 40).

Excerpt 8
“They have more money than us, but the battle is the Lord’s” (paragraph 58).
“They have more outboard motors, more roofing sheets, more laptops, more sewing machines to give away, but the battle is the Lord’s” (paragraph 59).
“They have more giant-sized billboards than us, but the battle is the Lord’s” (paragraph 60).
VI. CONCLUSION

In this study, we have examined how a Ghanaian opposition leader, Nana Addo-Addo, employed language to create identity and show solidarity with the electorate, with the aim of persuading them to accept and support his ideas and ultimately vote for him. To achieve this, he frequently used pronouns such as I, you, we and repetition in his campaign speech, which were discussed within the context of Fairclough’s discourse-as-text. The pronoun I, as used by Nana Addo, shows authority and commitment; that is, he becomes personal, and this has a positive effect on the audience. Conversely, he used you to create some kind of bonding and identification with the electorate, thereby encouraging them to associate with him and his policies, and most importantly, endorse his candidature as the president of Ghana. He employed our to signal to the electorate that they are all part of a grand agenda to salvage the country from the hands of the ruling government. He also employed we to create a shared sense of responsibility and group cohesion. Finally, he used repetition to reinforce his ideas and to persuade his audience to endorse him as the president of Ghana.

APPENDIX


REFERENCES

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Dual Implementation of the Dual Nature and Dialogue in Extensive Reading — A New Perspective of Reading A *Unicorn in the Garden*

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Abstract — This paper attempts to show a new perspective to read James Thurber’s famous short story — A *Unicorn in the Garden* in the extensive reading class by the way of analyzing the dual dialogues in it based on Halliday’s explanation to his interpersonal function, thus studies the dual implementation of its dual nature: first, to realize the conversation between the heroin and hero through the analysis of their unconventional dialogues; and then realize the actual conversation between the writer and the readers. In this way, students’ interest in extensive reading can be motivated to some degree; furthermore, it can provide students with a new and relatively easy way to combine the learning of basic subjects with more professional ones; finally, students can be aware of the multi-disciplinary demand for the purpose of training excellent English majors with all-around education and providing them with the chance to improve and challenge themselves in extensive reading classroom.

Index Terms — interpersonal function, dual dialogue, dual nature, mood, subject, finite, statement

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading has always been studied by both language teachers and researchers and the significance of it has already been recognized. Alderson (2004) once argues that reading’s the most important skill to master. Deanne (1995) emphasizes that when students learn to read well, they can read anything they wanted. However, the atmosphere of learning and teaching in extensive reading is not satisfying enough. Several researchers and teachers try to search for effective methods to improve the current situation, but they find it’s not an easy task. Short story is one of the most common genres appearing in extensive reading materials. The way to deal with short stories partly decides on the teaching efficiency of this course. Halliday made great contribution to linguistics and students always need to make great efforts to understand his theories. Few teachers or researchers try to help their students to combine finding out the fascination of appreciating short stories with interpreting Halliday’s theory in a relatively simpler way in extensive reading class, which just aims to motivate the students to read and lay the challenge for improving and developing themselves.

A. Reading and Extensive Reading

Reading always plays a critical role in language learning and teaching, and it’s “a complex, multifaceted pursuit” (Koda, 2007, p.227). Even though both the teachers and students can recognize its prominent position, the challenging situation often happens in extensive teaching class. Students are either lack of interest of reading because of the vocabulary problems or lost in the superficial plots there even facing to the most classic short stories in the world.

Given the significance of reading in language learning and teaching, it’s worth revitalizing the nature of reading not only in theory, but also in practice to find an exact approach to extensive reading teaching, which must make a difference to second language teaching and learning (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). Several researchers and teachers commit to studying the reasons and try to solve the not satisfying atmosphere in extensive reading classroom.

B. Focus and Necessity in Extensive Reading

Current researches on reading mainly concentrate on grasping four key elements in a process of making meaning from print. Alderson (2011) argues that the process of reading is “the interaction between a reader and the text” (p.3). In the process, readers combine information from a text and their own background knowledge with meaning building, which involves readers’ ability to read at an appropriate rate with adequate comprehension and to use a wide variety of reading strategies to accomplish a purpose for reading. In reading teaching, intensive reading and extensive reading are

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the two basic approaches. “Extensive reading is reading of longer passages with a focus on enjoyment and/or learning new information while reading” (Nunan, 2013, p.8). In order to achieve the reading comprehension including literal comprehension, inferential comprehension, critical or evaluative comprehension, appreciative comprehension, applied linguistics emphasize that extensive reading must be above a certain amount to develop a good reading habit and raise their interest for reading by gradually accumulating the knowledge of vocabulary and language structure. Therefore, reading more to cultivate the language sensibility for English learning is crucial for both beginners and advanced or intermediate-level learners. While, for the learners with intermediate or advanced level, on the one hand, they should learn to conclude, summarize the authors’ ideas and opinions; on the other hand, they need to melt these ideas and opinions with their own ones, actually they prefer to further develop their own opinions by reading to acquire English efficiently (Oxford, 1990). Based on improving students’ reading ability, extensive reading class should provide a chance to experience the sense of achievement by reading to deal with difficult problems. In English extensive reading class, to find a proper perspective and combine it with a challenging analysis is an accessible way to raise students’ interest of reading according to the author’s teaching experience. The analysis for the exact materials in extensive reading class must get contact with other major fields; however, it should be different from them to stand out the unique character of extensive reading class. Extensive reading class can act as a bridge to connect some cross disciplinary areas (Nunan & Bailey, 2009). Once students, especially the ones with intermediate or advanced level, can get some essential knowledge about the difficult subject they’ll study on, they can get proper psychological preparation for the difficulty of their future study and their interest of reading can be aroused with necessary foundation laid in due time. Researches for extensive reading, which based on the second language reading theory, almost focus on reading assessment, reading skills, reading problems and reading strategies in and out of reading class. In actual extensive reading classroom, students are easy to be lost in difficult words and outstanding characters. Even though, the analysis for characters is interesting to some degree, some students still neglect the deeper perspective to explore the textual codes arranged by the author. Due to this, their interest in extensive reading class can’t last for long. In the author’s opinion, the key to successful extensive reading class lies not only in providing students with information from the texts, but in providing them with a chance to experience new perspective to get insights into the passages, especially the short stories; it should aim to provide a challenge to understand deeply; to provide an awareness to get rid of cross-disciplinary barriers; to provide a goal to be advanced readers. In order to achieve this, extensive reading classroom must emphasize the significance of designing and help students to autonomously explore the challenging part of it to lay a foundation for other disciplinaries consciously. For the students who are not proficient enough, teachers’ modeling and scaffolding seems extremely important (Harmer, 2007). Students should be encouraged to construct their own way of reading by trying to analyze the materials creatively and bravely.

C. Short Stories in Extensive Reading Class

Short stories appear more frequently in extensive reading class, comparing with the novels and poems, etc. Teachers get used to adopting the traditional way of studying literature, which usually involves consulting the background knowledge about the era, the society and the authors; then they guide students to explore the implied meaning of the titles; read between the lines to beyond the lines to get insights into the author’s original purpose and the implicit meaning; next, it’s necessary for the readers to analyze the characters, their features and the relationship among them and to exact era; they’d better know the clues to connect the different sections and how the ending correlates to the beginning to emphasize feature of that era; in all, readers should always ask themselves several questions to clarify not only the content of the story, the background information about the era; but also why the author wrote them; what his intention was; and how he organized it and why he arranged it like this; what the advantage of organizing in this way was and what the advantages of wording in the story were. Reading is like a journey and every journey is a pursuit (Foster, 2016). As reading teachers, she should lead students to find a unique way of experiencing the colorful life by reading short stories; she should teach students to explore something beneath the story’s surface, that’s the thing left untold and unfulfilled because of its brevity (Hamilton & Kratze, 1999). As readers, it’s a good chance to experience a new way of life. It requires the readers to create a mental world by using textual codes, especially authors’ different ideas in order to get a better understanding towards the life. According to the author’s experience in teaching extensive reading, extensive reading class should not just aim to build students’ reading skills to promote reverence for literature; they need to motivate students to discover their own reading innovation point and apply them autonomously to explore human nature. Both the students and teachers should play an active role in the process of doing so. If the teacher can find a new angle to analyze, students can experience the freshness and the challenge can stimulate them to read to get more knowledge, not just the short story itself.

II. The Nature of Dialogue

Halliday puts forward three language metafunctions in his An Introduction to Functional Grammar: ideational function, interpersonal function and textual function. And he defines interpersonal function as: that people use language to communicate with others, establish and maintain relationship, influence others’ behaviors and express their opinions. (Halliday, 2000)

He also studies the realization of interpersonal function from grammatical level, that is, from the perspectives of
mood, modality. With its organization as a message, the clause is also organized as an interactive event involving speaker, or writer, and audience. According to his opinion, “in the act of speaking, the speaker adopts for himself a particular speech role, and in so doing assigns to the listener a complementary role which he wishes him to adopt in his turn” (Halliday, 2000, p.68). The most fundamental and hidden types of speech roles are giving and demanding. There lies an interaction between the speaker and the listener. When the speaker is doing something, he is also requiring something. It is an exchange, in which giving implies receiving and demanding implies giving in response. The commodity being exchanged is either goods- &-services or information. Halliday also defines the four primary speech functions as offer, command, statement and question. “These, in turn, are matched by a set of desired responses: accepting an offer, carrying out a command, acknowledging a statement and answering a question” (Halliday, 2000, p.69).

III. THE DUAL IMPLEMENTATION OF THE DUAL NATURE IN THE APPRECIATION OF THE SHORT STORY IN EXTENSIVE READING CLASS

The author tries to appreciate the famous short story The Unicorn in the Garden by analyzing the theory of speech functions. The author limits her study to just concentrate on the analysis of the simple dialogues between the husband and his wife, even though there are only three short conversations between them. She intends to prove that the dialogue here breaks the common rules of speech functions and responses. Just because of the breaking of the common rules, the readers can read out the different kind of relationship between the hero and heroine. And it’s useful and possible for readers to understand the real implied meaning among the simple words which can help them to capture the essence of the short story.

In order to make the point above understood, the author ticked out the conversations between the husband and the wife in the story and edited in the common way of dialogue, in which readers could see their same external pattern. With the author’s analysis, readers could get the exact meaning hidden between the lines.

(1) Husband: “There’s a unicorn in the garden,” he said. “Eating roses.”
Wife: “The unicorn is a mythical beast,” she said...

According to Halliday’s theory, in the act of speaking, the speaker adopts for himself a particular speech role, and in so doing assigns to the listener a complementary role which he wishes him to adopt in his turn (Halliday, 2000). The husband here gives a statement to his wife, and what he desires is the acknowledging of the statement from his wife. Even though the husband doesn’t add a tag to the statement, he really needs a response. It’s a common way for the wife to respond like: “Is there? Yes, it’s eating roses.” This is the typical interaction between the speaker and the listener; it is an exchange, in which giving implies receiving and demanding implies giving in response. The husband here is waiting for his wife’s acknowledging, at least her interest to know more. But the wife answered: “The unicorn is a mystical beast.” with her indifferent expression and her indifferent action of turning her back on him, which obviously shows her distrust. As readers, it’s easy for them to be impressed with the wife’s uncommon response. Readers’ interests are inclined to be aroused to guess the relationship between the husband and wife; and why do the couple communicate with each other like this? Does the author want to tell readers something more with this intentional arrangement? When the readers think a lot, then they can find the enjoyable process of reading, in which they always try to communicate with the passage writer spiritually. The analyzing of the dialogue between the husband and his wife not only serves as a way to know more about the relationship among the characters in the short story, but an access to talk with the writer and touch the soul of the writer, thus, readers can realize the dual dialogue in reading. More examples from this short story can prove this and the extensive reading teachers’ task is to guide their students to explore such perspective.

(2) Husband: “The unicorn,” he said, “ate a lily.”
Wife: “You are a booby,” she said, “and I am going to have you put in the booby-hatch.”

In the second dialogue, the husband told the wife that the unicorn had ate a lily. This unicorn was an exciting event in his otherwise dull boring life, therefore he went upstairs to share with his wife. He’s giving a statement and he’s requiring an acknowledgment. The response required should be: “Really? Yes, he did eat a lily.” This should be the expected response. Instead, his wife not only showed disgust with the story, she actually threatened to send him to a mental hospital. She called him “booby” and was going to have him put in the booby-hatch. “Booby”, in this context, means a crazy person. The booby-hatch is a mental institution, a place where the insane are kept. It’s hard for the readers to imagine that the wife treated her husband in this way. Readers’ imaginations could be stirred by the words here. Did the husband always do anything so strange before that the wife couldn’t stand it anymore? What did he do? How terrible relationship between the husband and the wife! With the speculation and astonishment in readers’ mind, they usually wanted to go on their reading and they were eager to know what’s going on and verify their guessing.

(3) Husband: “We’ll see about that,” he said.
Wife: (no answer)
Husband: “He has a golden horn in the middle of his forehead,” he told her.
Wife: (no answer)

In the third dialogue, the “interact” is similar to the first two dialogues, or we should say there’s no interaction at all, but the husband’s monologue. The husband’s statement is lack of the expected response from his wife. He said two statements here. For the first statement, he said “we’ll see about that”, he made himself be involved. This is not a
common giving. Maybe he needed the wife’s contradiction to him. For the second statement, it’s a kind of giving. The expected response should be a kind of acknowledgment, like “Does he? Yes, he has a golden horn in the middle of his forehead.” But the husband didn’t wait for his wife’s response at all; he went back to the garden.

From the wife’s point of view, maybe her husband was crazy because there is no such animal as unicorn in real life and her husband claimed to find one in their garden eating roses, lilies, etc. But the husband would say that he was simply being imaginative and creative. And the policeman and psychiatrist would decide that the woman was insane to say such things about her husband. In real life we find the same dilemma often. It was difficult to decide who was telling the truth and normal, and who was not.

When the wife said that her husband was crazy and should be put in a nuthouse, he said: “We’ll see about that,” which meant “We’ll see who will be put in a nuthouse.” It was possible that at this moment he began to lay a trap for his wife. At the same time, the wife called the police with a gloat in her eyes and told them her husband was ill and needed a psychiatrist. From the perspective of literature appreciation, this was another evidence to show their special relationship by which the author of the story showed his own attitude towards the marriage, love, etc. By analyzing their speeches, it’s obvious that they did not love each other. They did not even have much to say to each other. The husband said that he saw a unicorn; he was either dreaming or making it all up. It could be an attempt to start a conversation with his wife, but the wife was cold to him and refused to show any interest. In this story, the author seems to show his sarcastic attitude toward love, marriage and human relationship in general. The wife in the story did not believe what her husband said at all. And if he meant it to, be a joke, she did not enjoy the joke either. She thought her husband had gone crazy, but if he had, it did not worry her. Instead she was happy that now she had an excuse to get rid of him. It is a parody to the proverb: “Don’t count your chickens before they are hatched,” meaning that you mustn’t be too confident that something will be successful. According to the nature of dialogue, we should say they are not successful dialogues in terms with the functional grammar. But just because of the lack of the nature of dialogue with which we are familiar, the short story becomes more charming. It’s worth reading and researching its implied meaning between the lines. In fact, the real fun comes in and the true value of reading realizes when students try to appreciate short stories in this way.

IV. THE REALIZATION OF THE INTERACTION BY MOOD SYSTEM

When coming to look closely at statements and questions, and at the various responses to which these naturally give rise, students can find that in English they are typically expressed by means of a particular kind of grammatical variation; variation which extends over just one part of the clause, leaving the remainder unaffected. It is called the mood, and it consists of two parts: (1) the Subject, which is a nominal group, and (2) the Finite operator, which is part of a verbal group (Halliday, 2000). The conversations above can be divided into eight complete sentences and the author of the story used the Primary tense to show them, including past, present and future at the moment of speaking, it is time relative to ‘now’. Modality means the speaker’s judgment of the probabilities, or the obligation, involved in what is being said. Just from the simple conversations here, it’s hard to understand the modality. In order to retain the characteristics of extensive reading, the teacher needn’t to analyze the consisting parts of the modality elements sentence by sentence, but they are obliged to provide a chance for the students who are interested in researching to know more. What they can do in extensive reading class is to show their students a direction to investigate the similar structures among typical sentences which embody the general principle behind the expression of mood in the clause. Hence the mood element has a clearly defined semantic function: it carries the burden of the clause as an interactive event. So it remains constant, as the nub of the proposition, unless some positive step is taken to change it. If the readers can learn to appreciate the short stories in this way, they will not only understand more about the authors’ attention and something more beyond the words, but also meet the demands of their inner desire to get improved in English by reading, especially the ones with intermediate and advanced levels.

In order to understand the interpersonal meaning of conversation, readers need to know exactly about the structure of Mood. Halliday believed that the four primary speech functions of offer, command, statement and question are realized by Mood. Apart from analyzing the nature of the dialogue mentioned above, students had better be lead to study more about the main Mood elements in these statements to understand the construction of its interpersonal meaning, which aims to bridge the gap between basic subjects and more professional ones and lay some challenges for students with intermediate and advancing levels. In this way, extensive reading teachers can put the goal of developing students’ interdisciplinary ability into practice naturally and then students can judge their ability and learning demands from a different perspective.

V. CONCLUSION

According to the author’s years of extensive reading teaching experience, effective measures are waiting to be proved and can be taken by the teachers to change the not satisfying teaching and learning atmosphere in it. The most significant point is to find out the best matches, that it, some kind of the measures only can be effective enough when it was adopted to solve the corresponding problems. This paper plans to prove that some English majors lose interest in extensive reading class is because they can’t be satisfied, especially they can’t find the point to push them ahead. If the teacher can help them to explore a new perspective to appreciate the articles, at the same time, they can recognize the
difficulty and the necessity of laying wide range of foundations for future study by raising the difficulty in analyzing the seemingly simple short stories, which can definitely stimulate the spirit to challenge in their mind. Then, to get the nature of extensive reading and to solve other problems in English learning is not a trouble for them.

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A Study on the Translation of Financial English Terms in The Wolf of Wall Street from the Perspective of the Skopos Theory

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Abstract—The study of the language of financial terms has not come to the attention of the linguistics for many years. But the rapid development of globalization makes it gradually more significant. This kind of professional terminology is used very frequently, and it can even be called vulgar words to a certain extent. However, people often do not even know much about the meaning of these commonly used words. Therefore, it is of great practical significance to conduct special research on financial related terms. (Zhang Heyou & Song Huiman, 2019). This paper will give depth summary and analysis of linguistic features and translation strategies of financial English terms in The Wolf of Wall Street from the perspective of the Skopos Theory. By analyzing the definition and features of financial English terms as well as its translation strategies, the problems existing in the translation of financial English terms will be investigated so that the Skopos Theory can be put into practice, putting forward the relevant elements and principles as to the term-translation, which confers the theoretical meaning and actual value to the financial English terms. This paper will make the research on the terms of The Wolf of Wall Street, which is the innovation of the paper, strengthening the interest of the study.

Index Terms—financial English terms, translation strategies, the Skopos Theory, The Wolf of Wall Street

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Content of the Skopos Theory

The Skopos Theory was presented by Hans J. Vermeer (Vermeer 1987, p. 29). The connotation of the theory is mainly reflected in his ideas. The Skopos theory is the basis of the Functionalist Translation Theory. That is to say, the research of the Functionalist Translation Theory is mainly based on the Skopos Theory.

Apart from Vermeer, Christiane Nord is another important person who generalizes the previous research on the theory. His book Translating as a Purposeful Activity: Functionalist Approaches Explained plays a very important role in the translation field in which he gives a profound analysis of the Functionalist Translation Theory, including the Skopos Theory (Nord 2006, p. 27). Christine Schaffner has also formulated her own views about the Skopos Theory. She says, “Functionalist approach is a kind of term for the research of scholars who argue the purpose of the translation teaching is the most important criterion in any translation” (Schaffner 1998, p. 232). As for the Skopos Theory, it emphasizes the role played by the translator who must accept the consequence brought by his or her translation decision, as Toury (1999: 19) declares “it is always the translator himself or herself, as an autonomous individual who decides how to behave, be that decision fully conscious or not. Apart from the skopos theory and the fidelity rule, the coherence rule is also included the Skopos Theory. Under the guidance of the coherence rule, the syntactic and semantic of the translated version should be coherent. The wording and phrasing should also be in accordance with the language norm and custom of the target language so that it will be meaningful in actual communication (Munday 2010: 79).

In general, the Skopos Theory regards translation as a human action. Any action has its intention, so translation also has definite intentions which are based on the source language context so that the cross-cultural communication activities can be guided by the translators.

B. On The Wolf of Wall Street

The study on the translation of financial English terms should not be confined to those financial-related textbooks, because more and more novels start to choose financial business as their setting, in which those financial English terms are shown by the dialogues between the characters or by the expansion of the plot, which is good for the beginners of the financial English who can read the financial-related novels instead of those relevant textbooks. The wolf of Wall Street is a typical novel which is set in the financial business. It mainly tells us the life of Jordan Belfort who is lost in sex and drugs but finally becomes the legend of the Wall Street and how he makes his first fortune at the edge of the law (Belfort 2008: 2). This paper is based on that novel, expecting that it will turn out to be an interest when it comes to the process of the study on the translation of financial English terms.

Apart from the interest, the basic terms of finance in The wolf of Wall Street will have a considerable attraction on the new financial learners. If they start with those tricky terms, it is easy for them to give up. That means, they will not feel...
pressed as a learner. This paper will make the summary of those rudimentary financial-related terms in that novel as well, so it will be easier for them to enjoy the novel without much worry about the financial terms. The more addicted they are to the novel, the more easily they will feel to master those terms.

Generally speaking, intent readers of this paper are those new learners of financial English. That is the reason why I choose to make the analysis of the terms in The Wolf of Wall Street. I hope they will become more interested in the financial English after reading my paper. If they can really learn something in this paper, it will be shown to be a success.

C. Definition and Importance of Finance

In general, finance refers to a field that deals with the study of investments, including currency trading and currency circulation in our economic and social life (Chen Jinming 2004: 6). In terms of one nation or one area, its financial structure includes three parts, financial instruments, financial institutions and the financial market. Financial instruments are the receipt of ownership or bonds. Financial institutions consist of the central bank, commercial bank, city bank and some other non-bank financial institutions, such as the insurance company, fund company, bonding company and so on (Huang Da 2006: 108). The financial market can be divided into the currency market and capital market according to the time span.

The importance of finance lies in its ability to accelerate the capital accumulation and concentration of production, increasing the efficiency of resource utilization. Besides, finance can reserve, shift and allocate economic resources, managing and controlling the risks, which is in favor of establishing the incentive mechanism, improving the work efficiency and saving the capital cost (Chi Guotai 2005: 5-8).

Finance has a deep connection with the national economy, which functions as the core of our social and economic life. Therefore, the importance of the translation of financial English terms is easily to be seen.

II. FEATURES OF FINANCIAL TERMS IN ENGLISH

A. Source of Financial English Terms

There are millions of words in English. Most of them come from English itself called native words, including ordinary words and professional terms, which are mostly employed in history. Some other words come from the linguistic culture of non-English speaking nations called loanwords (Lu Guoqiang 2007: 5).

At the same time, with the frequent association with other nations and rapid progress of information technology, financial English has assimilated large numbers of loanwords during its development. It has absorbed the words of Latin and Greek in the early period as well as the words in philological literature from different nations (Wang Rongpei 2005: 210-212).

B. Features of Financial English Terms

1. The use of prefix to express certain meanings

Some financial English terms are formed by the combination of common words with the prefixes to express the meaning related or unrelated with original roots. Let’s take the following examples to examine the formation of some financial terms.

For example “non-institutionalized credit” is in such case. Its denotation is that the credit is not given by the financial institutions but by the folk people. So it can also serve as “民间借贷”.

Another example is “unwarranted diversion of financial resource from designating uses”. Its denotation is that the financial funds are diverted before they are authorized for specified use. We can easily know that the funds mentioned in above phrase are illegally employed combined with the economic quotation in our nation. So we use the meaning “挤占挪用” that we all know. “Overdo obligations to supplier” means unpaid funds. Thus, we can translate it into “货款拖欠”. “disintermediation” refers to the phenomenon that the intermediary function of the bank has been reduced. The original root of the word is “intermediation” which means arbitration. The prefix “dis” be put before the original root owns the opposite meaning that is “脱煤现象”.

2. The use of suffix to express the relative meaning as the original root

Some English financial terms are formed by the combination of original words with the suffixes. The word is converted to another part of speech or the original meaning is shifted, such as “profiteer” which represents speculator. It stems from the word “profit” which can be a noun or verb. “Acceptor” stands for “承兑人”. Its original root “acceptable” is an ordinary word which means agreement or containment. However, it regards as a specialized term “承兑” in the financial English. “Endorser” indicates “背书人” which is the factor of the word “endorse”. “Administrative receiver” does not refer to the person who does the administrative work but a professional term of “破产清算管理人” which stands for those people who can sell their assets or maintain the company when the company goes bankrupt. “Accountant” means “会计师”. It is the factor of the word “account”.

3. Terms containing figures of speech

The use of figures of speech is a practical activity that can have an impact on people’s mind, attitude and behavior. The word expression can be polished by the use of figures of speech so that the emotion can better be reflected (Chen
A.  Deficiency of Current Translation of Financial English Terms

The deficiency of the Chinese version of those financial English terms lies in the difference between domestic financial background and the international financial market. In China, the financial market and business are immature, so most of those financial English terms are rarely seen by us Chinese. The terms can refer to different things in different context, so the Chinese version should be demonstrated by the language norm of Chinese people. Sometimes the translators need to add some explanations in order to avoid misunderstanding. In addition, new financial phenomenon and products are constantly showing up by the expansion and penetration of the financial-related activities. That is to say, the translators have to pay more attention to the political and financial news, updating their own financial knowledge and base and learning the way of expression in abroad.

The problems existing in the translation of financial English terms are caused by the translators’ lack of necessary fiscal knowledge and background. They even cannot understand the terms correctly. For one thing, they sometimes have misunderstanding when they comprehend the meaning of the terms. For another, they fail to divide the sentence structure, clearing of the logical relationship between sentences. Even if the main idea of the sentence is correct, it cannot be considered as the correct understanding if they misunderstand the adverbial of cause of the adverbial of
condition. Moreover, when they make the demonstration of the translated version, they will not use the sentence mode in accordance with the financial English terms or they will not organize the sentences well by the language norm of Chinese. The sentences translated by them are usually long and complicated. Then, it is difficult for readers to understand even the professional people cannot totally understand those sentences.

Nord put forward that the translated version can be meaningful only when they can be understood and accepted by the readers (Nord 2001: 31). After the translation, the version should be checked and corrected by others.

B. Purposeful Translation at Lexical Level

The thesis starts from the lexical analysis since word is the smallest free form found in a language. The financial English is one branch of scientific English which is often used in the specific field. That is to say, it is difficult for the English learners to use financial English terms flexibly even if they can talk in English freely, because financial English terms have their specialty.

The words with fixed order, describing the things happened in the financial field can be called the financial English terms. According to the Skopos Theory, when different translators need to translate the same financial English terms, they should adopt the same Chinese version. Under most circumstances, the financial English terms should be translated according to the same criterion. Besides, these words can also be found in the dictionaries. In fact, there are a large number of the financial English terms. So I will take examples in *The Wolf of Wall Street* to analyze the translation strategies.

### Table 1

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<tr>
<th>English</th>
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<tr>
<td>stock</td>
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<td>future</td>
<td>期货</td>
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<td>option</td>
<td>期权</td>
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<tr>
<td>insurance</td>
<td>保险</td>
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<td>loan</td>
<td>贷款</td>
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The words in table 1 are some basic words selected in *The Wolf of Wall Street*. Different financial actions are classified by these basic words. But actually, these words are generally used when large financial actions take place. No matter when these words show up, their Chinese version will not change and always remain the same. Besides, some relative actions associated with financial rules can also be called the financial English terms.

### Table 2

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<th>Chinese</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>creditor</td>
<td>贷方</td>
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<tr>
<td>coupon</td>
<td>证券</td>
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<tr>
<td>shareholder</td>
<td>股东</td>
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<tr>
<td>remittance</td>
<td>汇款</td>
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<tr>
<td>collateral</td>
<td>抵押品</td>
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Some tables listing the financial English terms can be found in the financial-related books. Those words have the unchanging meaning. Financial English learners tend to start from mastering the terms. Therefore, translators should take their responsibility when they translate the terms since a small mistake may lead to a severe consequence on the beginners. The translators who translate the financial-related novels should be more cautious, because most beginners like to read those kinds of novels which can be easier for them to read and learn. So, if there is any mistake, beginners will learn the wrong version and it is difficult for them to forget the wrong one but remembers the right one. That is to say, the translator should make sure every translated version remains identical in the target language contexts.

In addition, some abbreviations concerned with the financial institution or financial events in *The wolf of Wall Street* also consist of large parts of financial English terms. That is to say, no matter what kind of financial contexts they are, the expression of the translated version should remain the same.

### Table 3

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<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Chinese</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EPS=earnings per share</td>
<td>每股收益</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROE=return on equity</td>
<td>资本收益率</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the financial field, there are a large number of abbreviations used in the financial English terms. These abbreviations used in the terms containing more information will be more convenient for the authors, which means the translated version by the translator can be more concise even if the ideas expressed are much more complicated. Meanwhile, translators should set the same criterion for the translated version these abbreviations. So the translated version should correspond to certain abbreviation. Whether the financial context is novel or not, the translated version of these abbreviations needs to conform to the same criterion. Thus, their Chinese versions remain independent of different contexts.

C. Purposeful Translation at Phrasal Level

There is a big difference in thinking pattern, grammatical features and expressive techniques between English and Chinese. Translators can adopt relative strategies when doing the translation of financial English terms so that the translated version can be more standard.

1. Literal translation with expressive words

   The translator needs to give some expressive words based on the literal translation, because some terms can only be partly equal between the source language context and the target language context.

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The literal translation of “open-mouth translation” is “张嘴政策”. However, readers may not understand its literal meaning. Thus, translators need to give some expressive words to explain. Then, the more appropriate version can be “美国联邦储备机构利用发表声明来影响货币市场”. The denotation of “white knight” is “白衣骑士”, which is specially used when the target company is more inclined to be acquired by the buyer. So it can be translate as the third party acquirer with good intentions.

2. Conversion of the word or its part of speech

When the translators do E-C translation, they tend to make the conversion of the word or its part of speech in order to conform to the Chinese standard.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>money laundering</td>
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<tr>
<td>洗钱</td>
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</table>

Translators make the conversion of “money laundering”, which is translated as “洗钱” so that it will be easier for the Chinese to understand. In fact, “lean back” refers to the nonfeasance of the government before intervention in the financial market. Now, the verb of the example is transformed into a noun. In this way, the terms can be translated as “政策调整前夜”.

3. Omission or Combination of the Terms

Some financial English Terms can be omitted or combined into the expression familiar by the Chinese.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6</th>
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<tr>
<td>terms and conditions</td>
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<tr>
<td>条款</td>
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</table>

Translators can make the combination of “terms and conditions”, using two Chinese word for the translation which is “条款”. As is well known to all, the profound and complex meanings can be expressed with concise words in Chinese, such as “dollar-denominated assets”. The complete version of it is “以美元为面值的资产”. For the sake of the conciseness, it can be omitted into “美元资产”, which is not merely concise but also clear.

4. The reduction or expansion of the terms

Some terms should be addressed by the reduction or expansion of the words, further illustrating their connotation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the private sector of the economy</td>
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<tr>
<td>私有经济</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Readers can know the meaning of “the private sector of the economy” as “经济中的私人所有成分”. However, it is too long and complicated. So the translators can expand its meaning into “私有经济”. In Chinese, it still means the privately-owned economy, which will not cause misunderstanding among the readers of the translated version. The denotation of “misalignment” is “unconformity” which can be further translated as “the disorder of the exchange”.

This paper puts forward some problems existing in the translation of financial English terms and finds out the reasons for those problems. Then, the paper illustrates that the translation of financial English terms belong to the applied translation which can be guided by the Skopos Theory.

This paper takes the results of other people as a reference, obtaining my personal point of view. The creative point is that all the examples mentioned in this paper are selected in The Wolf of Wall Street, which can be easier for the financial beginners to understand. In addition, this paper is based on relative financial phenomenon and discipline, hoping to help policy makers and financial employees better master these specific terms so that they can make standard policies and launch financial related activities.
It is feasible to apply the Skopos Theory to the translation of the financial English terms. Under the guidance of the theory, the paper will have its academic value. The major findings of the paper can be divided into two aspects, translation strategies of financial English terms as well as its principles under the guidance of the Skopos Theory.

For one thing, the paper gives an introduction of the Skopos Theory, including its meaning, its principles and its guidance for the translation of financial English terms. For another, the paper generalizes and concludes the strategies adopted in the translation of financial English terms.

According to the Skopos Theory, the translation of financial English terms should conform to the skopos rule, fidelity rule and the coherence rule in order to achieve the intention of translation. Financial English terms are specific words or the words with fixed order. Although the financial English terms consist only of a few words, it is still difficult to translate them due to its specialty. Therefore, the exact translation strategies should be sorted out for the sake of the translator.

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Persian Clitics in Virtual Networks

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Abstract—Today, almost everyone is a virtual network user. Currently, almost everything is done through the internet and social networks occupy a large part of this space. Meanwhile, the telegram network is an environment that allows people to do advertising, training, etc. at the highest speed. The study of clitics is an issue that has always been of interest to linguists. This article examines the Persian clitics in the telegram virtual network. The theoretical framework for conducting the research is Zwicky’s classification (1977), and the data were collected by library method and analyzed by analytical method. The results of the research show that three types of simple, special and dependent clitics can be found in the studied corpus. These clitics, which prevent affixation, are used as an enclitic in Persian language. The findings include four types of simple clitics, two types of special clitics, and four types of dependent clitics, that each one has a different frequency. The results also indicate that the highest usage of the clitics is related to the dependent clitics and the lowest amount is related to the simple clitics in the whole corpus.

Index Terms—morphology, clitics, persian clitics, virtual networks

I. INTRODUCTION

Clitics are dependent morphemes that exist in almost every language in the world. They have both lexical features and some syntactic morpheme features. The study of clitics encompasses important branches of linguistics, such as word formation and syntax. For nearly two centuries linguists have been aware of the existence of clitics in the world's languages and they have largely recognized the difference between them and other linguistic components. However, the serious studies have been conducted in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century which among them researches of Wackernagel (1892) and Sapir (1930) can be mentioned.

In the last quarter of the twentieth century, linguists became increasingly interested in the distinctive features of clitics and efforts have been made to obtain objective criteria for distinguishing them from affixes and words. Zwicky (1985) offers several criteria for distinguishing the word from the clitics. His criteria indicate that in general, compared to words, clitics use similar features of affixes (especially inflectional affixes). The study of the clitics is one of the most important topics in linguistics because on the one hand it is related to the syntax and on the other hand to the morphology and this duality is itself a sign of the importance of this issue. The subject of this article is very important for those involved in linguistics and language teaching, researchers, linguistics students, and even the general Persian language users. Another issue is the need to investigate this topic in cyberspace, because, today, almost everyone uses social networks.

Currently, most things are done with the internet to speed things up and prevent repetition and error and save time and social networks also cover a large part of this space. Among them, the telegram network is the environment that provides the highest level of advertising, education, medicine and so one to human beings. Therefore, the study of their application in telegram can be considered. So, in this article, we intend to study the Persian clitics and its types in the texts available in telegram and answer the following questions: Can the Zwicky's classification of clitics (simple, special, dependent) be found in Persian telegram messages? And if so, which type is more used? To do the research, we selected the data from the Persian texts of the telegram messages. We collected 300 messages by using the library method and performed the research in an analytical method.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELEVANT STUDIES

In the early eighteenth century, Klavans (1982) states that J. Herman used the Greek word (Klino), which means "leaning and bending,” to make enclitic and proclitic words and after that, the word “clitic” is used for such elements (p. 7). In linguistic texts, Sapir (1930), Bloomfield (1933), Nida (1963), Matthews (1989), Hudson (1986), Robins (1989), Comrie (1981) have studied the clitics and the topics related to the clitic making in different languages, and then have presented various subjects about them.

In Pashto, if an element which has stress comes before the verb of the sentence, the clitic comes after this structure (TEGEY, 1975, p. 132). Talman (2017) has studied the clitics in Jacobo language. He has been collecting and reviewing data for five years and believes that the clitics in this language are mostly seen in a simple and enclitic form. Verbal and adverbial proclitics appear as dependent morphemes and suffixed phrases. He shows that clitic usage occurs in this
language following a specific syntactic structure and a rich morphology construction. From the perspective of where they connected, the clitics are divided into two groups: enclitic and proclitic (Haeupl, 2002).

Booij (2005) states that the clitic pronouns in the Italian language are used before the host word therefore, they are called proclitic (p. 166). According to the Booij, the clitics are used after their host word in the infinitive and imperative forms of verb, and so they are called enclitic. Clitics are similar to affixes in that they are phonologically dependent on a host. In this sense, proclitics act as prefixes, and enclitics act as suffixes. But the important point is that, there is not always a one-to-one relationship between lexical-syntactic and phonological features of words. One of the main reasons for this discrepancy between lexical-syntactic and phonological structures is the existence of the clitics and therefore, the study of clitics is also a study of the interference of lexical-syntactic and phonological structures.

Bonet (2019) studied about clitics and clitic clusters in morphology. She showed the distinction between simple clitics and special clitics in her work. She indicated that simple clitics often have a non-clitic variant and appear in the expected syntactic position. Bonet illustrated that special clitics usually appear in a position such as the sentence or in the noun phrases or in the determiner phrases. Arosio and Giustolisi (2019) is another study which has been done on agreement and interference in direct object clitic Production in Italian monolingual children. Also, Vender et.al (2018) did a research about the production of clitic pronouns. They studied this topic on bilingual and monolingual dyslexic children. They analyzed the performance of the children in a clitic elicitation task. Results of their study showed that these monolingual and bilingual dyslexic children, performed worse than control group especially in the simple present tense and in the present perfect tense. The result in general indicated that clitic production is a challenging issue for dyslexic children, so that they are not able to produce certain correct grammatical tenses.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Klavans (1985) argues that, it is possible to provide a single theory about the clitics. However, special distinctions must be made in this regard. These distinctions are parameters which can show the similarities and differences of the clitic system in different languages. Klavans argues that the clitics are lexical elements which have their own lexical-syntactic and lexical-phonological characteristics that include syntactic categories as well as sub-categories and believes that the definition based on the framework proposed by Liber (1980) does not distinguish clitics from words or affixes. Klavans claims that what separates clitics from words or affixes is that, clitics are usually attached to the group syntactically and this is the group that is the realm of clitics function. From this point of view, a clitic is different from an affix that is added to the word class. That's why Klavans uses the term "group affix" to refer to clitics.

Booij (2005) considers the clitics as small words that rely on the host word used before or after them, such as pronouns and articles, and cannot be considered as phonological words alone (p. 166-168). Then he cites Italian as an example, in which those lexical morphemes, must have at least two syllables (of course, there are exceptions in this language). But most pronouns in this language are monosyllable. Therefore, these pronouns act as clitics and they choose their side word as host and they bring prosodic constituent with that word. According to Spencer (1991), clitics are usually made up of complete words historically and sometimes they turn into inflectional affixes (p. 350). Haspelmath (2002) considers freedom of movement as one of the main and distinctive features of clitics from affixes; this means that clitics can be used in different places in a sentence. Anderson (1992) considers special clitics to be a group affix and classifies them into two groups, derivational and inflectional. He believes that auxiliary verbs, grammatical tense, pronouns, possessive markers, nominal dependencies can be considered as examples of inflectional clitics.

Zwicky (1977) and Pullum and Zwicky (1983) divide clitics into three categories: simple clitics and special and dependent clitics. In addition to the abbreviated and dependent form, simple clitics also have a complete vocabulary. The simple clitics ‘s’ and ‘ve’ are used in the same syntactic position as their full forms and they have exactly the same syntactic role. He only recognizes the difference between simple clitics and full clitics in the sense that, simple clitics must be phonologically connected to the host.

In English, simple clitics lack word accent; because they have no vowel. Therefore, when they connect to host words, post-lexical phonetic rules are applied. After applying these rules, clitics can be pronounced as a stress less part of a larger phonetic structure which are called clitic group. Special clitics are in supplementary distribution with their full form. In each context, a form is used that is no longer used in the other context. Dependent clitics do not have complete lexical forms and they are only added in the form of clitics which dependent to host words; like possessive sign (‘s) in English which lacks a complete form.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

In this section, we study on the collected data and its clitics. We identify and separate the clitics in the selected texts and examine the types and frequency of occurrence of each of them according to the Zwicky classification (1977).

A. Simple Clitics

1- Enclitic form -æm instead of hæm

1) /emsal hær doye in kara ro ænam dade vë ketabešem kolli foruš dašte/
(This year, she did both, and her book sold well.)

2) /soval tekrairiye unqedram teshmine deqiqa nemide/
(The question is repetitive. It doesn’t give an exact estimate.)

In formal style of Persian language, hæm is used as an increase adverb. But in colloquial Persian, the abbreviated form (its clitic form) æm is used. According to the Zwicky’s classification (1977), this clitic, is a simple one and as you can see, it is used in sentences which are informal. According to Zwicky, this clitic is an optional clitic in Persian. In sentence number 1) we can also express æm in (ketabešæm) as hæm in ketabeš hæm and in example 2) instead of æm in (unqedram), hæm is also used. This clitic is a complete form of the clitic æm. As a result, because the complete form of it exists, it falls into the category of simple clitics. Another thing to note is that both abbreviated and complete forms of this clitic can be used in the same sentences and contexts. So, they are not in complementary distribution. This clitic occurs only after the host word, it is clear from the examples provided and their structure. Therefore, the clitic æm is an enclitic.

2- Enclitic form -o instead of ra
3) /lotfan meno bebæxsid/
   (Please forgive me.)
4) /in toyi ke bayzed češmato baz konio dorost entexab koni/
   (This is you that have to open your eyes and choose the right one.)

In Persian, the sign of the object ra is used in sentences that have the object. In the above examples, the clitic o is an abbreviated form that often is found in colloquial speech and informal texts. According to Zwicky (1977), this clitic belongs to the group of simple clitics. Because, there is a complete form of this clitic, that is, the accusative sign ra. The reason that this clitic is simple can also be deduced from its optional nature. As you can see, in the examples we can also use the full form ra instead of the clitic. It is noteworthy that we also see this clitic in the examples after the host word. As a result, it is considered a kind of enclitic. Also, both complete and abbreviated forms of this clitic have the same and equal distribution and so they are not in the complementary distribution.

3- Enclitic form -o instead of conjunction væ
5) /sælam ketabe amuzešiye androydo java ægær kæsi dare lotfen befreste/
   (Hello, if anyone has an Android and Java training book, please send it.)
6) / doktore daxeli beræm ya qelbo oruç behætere/
   (Should I be visited by the internist doctor or Cardiologist?)
7) /taze demo dæstga hæm nemixad/
   (It doesn’t just want a device.)

This clitic is also simple and there is a complete form of it (conjunction væ) in Persian. You can also use each one optionally, i.e. the full and abbreviated form, in sentences and finally, we can point out that this clitic is an enclitic; because it is used after the host word.

4- Enclitic verbs
8) /ægær bær in baværi ke sæng berayæt mo?jeze mikonæd mo?jeze rox xahæd dad/
   (A miracle will happen if you believe that the stone make miracles for you!)
9) / zibatæ rin hekmæ te dusti be yade hæmin ælʔan dare etefaq miyofte /
   (The most beautiful wisdom of friendship is to remember each other.)

Enclitic verbs are the present tenses of the verb "to be", which appear as an enclitic form. These verbs have complete form too. For example, in sample (8), the clitic I; is exactly equivalent to the full form of the verb hasti, that is, the second person singular of infinitive form of the verb "to be". The use of this type of clitic is also optional. Therefore, they fall into the category of simple clitics.

B. Special Clitics

1- Enclitic pronouns (possessive and accusative)
In this section, each time, we specify only the possessive and accusative clitics and explain about them. Therefore, other types of clitics may be used in the following examples, but they are not separated and are not discussed here.
10) /be næzeræm adæm ba royahaʃ zændeʃ /
    (I think man is alive with his dreams.)
11) / royahat ro zændegi kon risk kon çon zændegi hæmin ælʔan dare etefaq miyofte /
    (Live your dreams, take risks, because life is happening right now.)
12) /xorðæʃ ve bæd beqiyaʃ ro ændæxt sæatl æʃqal /
    (He ate it and then threw the rest in the trash.)
13) /modam ba tæveqoʔatæmæn zændegi mikonim /
    (We constantly live with our expectations.)
14) / gahi xodeʃtan ra be qædem zæden ve morure xaterat deʔvæt konid /
    (Sometimes invite yourself to walk and review good memories.)
15) /xuban daʔmiyiʃendo mandegar mehreʃsan xæles æst /
    (Good-natured people are permanent and lasting, their love is pure.)
In Example 10, both clitics are possessive. The first clitic refers to the first person singular and the next to the third person singular. In example 12, the first is the accusative clitic and the second is the possessive and both are the third person singular. They are all special clitics. According to the Zwicky's classification (1977), special clitics either do not have a complete form or, if they have a complete form, do not have the same and equal distribution, that is, their distribution is not entirely consistent with each other and they are in complementary distribution. This means that in any case, the enclitic pronoun must be used in its context, whether the clitic or the complete form, and it is not possible to choose it voluntarily in all contexts and sentences.

C. Dependent Clitics

1- Indefinite clitic -i

16) /mæqz tæʔæsobe ʔæǰib i bæraye xaterate bæd daræd ke be ?onvane yek mekanisme defæʔi der Jaehete baqæ maʔæhub mišævæd /
(The brain has a strange bias for bad memories, which is considered a defense mechanism for survival.)

17) /bæstegi be qaziye pærvænde daræd ke če hokmi æz in Jaehæt bæræye qætel sader konæd /
(It is up to the judge of the case to issue a verdict in this regard for the killer.)

18) /mæqæleʔi nevæsteʔæm be zæbane engelisi jaeheta eraʔæ der næšriye ye æmli peʔuæšiye xareʔæ væ næmayeye ay es si der zæmimyæ ʔomran /
(I have written an article in English for presentation in a foreign scientific-research journal and ISC index in the field of civil engineering.)

The clitic (indefinite -i) can also be considered a dependent clitic. That is due to the fact that they do not have a complete form and are dependent on the host obligatorily. Indefinite -i indicates the unknown names (indefinite nouns) and its host words. As written in Example 17) /bæstegi be qaziye pærvænde daræd ke če hokmi æz in Jaehæt bæræye qætel sader konæd /, the type of the verdict is not clear. In fact, it is unknown. Another type of indefinite i, known as valdat-i, exists in Persian which means being one. It indicates "1" of the nouns. For example 18) /mæqæleʔi nevæsteʔæm be zæbane engelisi jaeheta eraʔæ der næšriye ye æmli peʔuæšiye xareʔæ væ næmayeye ay es si der zæmimyæ ʔomran / which mæqæleʔi means 1 article. This clitic is also a type of enclitics because it is placed after the host word.

2- Indefinite relative clitic –i

19) /mowzhayi ke daraye lækehæye qæhveʔi æmma saqeye sæbz hæstænd mæʔmulan teye færayændhaye šimiyayi reside šodeʔænd /
(Bananas that have brown spots but green stems are usually ripe during chemical processes.)

20) /mæbahes ke ma ælʔan dær danešghæ dagiergæšim ba mæbahæ konkur motefævat hæst /
(The topics we are discussing at the university now are different from the topics in the entrance exam.)

21) /tænasobe ændam mæsiri hæst ke bæraye šoruʔæ zængægiye behætæ aqaz mikenim /
(Fitness is the way we start to live a better life.)

According to Zwicky's classification (1977) indefinite relative clitic –i is also a dependent clitic. Because it doesn't have a complete form like indefinite i clitic. Also, because it is obligatory, there is no need to consider complementary distribution for this case. This clitic is always used in Persian relative clauses, and for this reason, is also called relative -i. It is attached to the head noun, and after the noun is mentioned with the indefinite relative clitic –i, the description of that noun or noun group is expressed in the relative clause. As you can see in the examples, this clitic is also after the host word and before the conjunction. Examples 19) to 21) indicate this point. In example 21) this clitic has been mentioned between noun and verb.

3- The ezafe kasre clitic e

22) /sistem hengame entæxæbe rešte xæta mide bæyæd čikær konæm mige dær sæbte etælaʔate šoma moškæli piš amæde /
(The system shows an error when choosing a subject. What should I do? It says there is a problem registering your information.)

23) /bebæxšid bæræye amargæri æz sait čikær konæm /
(Excuse me, what can I do to get statistics from the site? Should I use analytics tools?)

One of the clitics that we use in all noun groups, verb groups and etc., without any grammatical or syntactic constraints, is the clitic e. According to Zwicky (1977), this clitic is also a subset of dependent clitics, because there is no complete form of it. For this reason, like other dependent clitics, it does not include the study of complementary distribution. As can be seen in the examples, this clitic added to the final letter of the host words in formal and informal speeches to make them readable. This shows that this clitic is enclitic and is used to link words to each other. This clitic is commonly used in both additional and descriptive compounds and as assumed, this clitic is often used in Persian sentences.

4- vocative clitic -a

24) /xodaya fæqæt to ma ra kefaæyat æst /
(God, only you are enough for us!)
This clitic is only added to noun groups and it is not widely used in Persian, except for a few specific words such as xodaya, which can be seen in the example above, and in the present study, it has been used in only 2 cases. This clitic can be seen more in literary texts and poems. Vocative clitic -a usually comes after the head of the noun groups.

| Persian clitics in virtual networks based on Zwicky's classification |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Simple clitics | Special clitics | Dependent clitics |
| enclitic form | enclitic form | enclitic form | enclitic verbs | enclitic pronouns (possessive and accusative) | indefinite clitic | indefinite relative clitic | The ezafe kasre clitic |
| number | 15 | 12 | 16 | 140 | 252 | 84 | 95 | 1600 | 2 |
| Total | 183 | 252 | 1781 |
| percent | 8.26 | 11.37 | 80.37 |

Figure 1. Frequency distribution of clitics in the whole corpus

V. CONCLUSION

The present study examined the Persian clitics in the telegram virtual network and studied the types of clitics and the frequency of their occurrence based on Zwicky's classification (1977). The results of the study showed that the Zwicky's triple classification of the clitic corresponds to the Persian language. Based on the data analysis, it was determined that all three types of simple, special and dependent clitics exist in Persian and can be separated. Types and frequency of clitic occurrence can be seen in Table 1. It is worth mentioning that in Persian, there are two clitics (definite maker clitic –e / -he) and (emphasis -a /-ha) that were not seen in the studied samples. In this study, among the types of clitics examined, the most frequency occurrences were belonged to dependent clitics, with 80.3%. However, simple clitics with 8.2% had the lowest number of clitics in the whole corpus.
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On How to Cultivate English Interest in Primary School

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Abstract—At present, the following problems generally exist in primary school teaching: the obsolescence teaching mode; the depressing classroom atmosphere; the little oral practice and the disappearing interest of English. In addition to these problems, teaching methods, pupils' life environment, pressure from parents and many other elements resulting in many pupils' learning interest are decreasing in the beginning and bring about a phenomenon that many pupils in some degree are weary of learning. It makes our teaching work difficult, what is more, it will influence pupils' English learning at different step of junior, senior and college. So it is very important that cultivating pupil's learning interest at the stage of primary school. The focus of this paper is to use various teaching methods to stimulate and cultivate their interest in learning English according to pupil's psychological characteristics and development needs.

Index Terms—cultivate, English interest, primary school

I. INTRODUCTION

Because of engaging in tutoring and training courses, and also contacting many high school pupils during leading the internship, there is one common thing in their learning process that is the lack of interest in learning English. The majority of pupils are like a pool of stagnant water, who are blindly and passively learning English without emotion. As Arends (1998) said that the most ferocious and terrible enemy in teaching is that the pupils are not interested in your lessons. Therefore, interest is very important in class teaching. Why does this thesis choose this primary stage of primary school to develop interest in English rather than junior high school? Because the primary school English teaching is the foundation of basic education, the period of English education enlightenment and the critical stage of cultivating and fostering talent. Therefore, as a teacher it is very important to explore the ways to stimulate their interest in learning English. Some training methods are shown in the thesis, if they are put into practice, the quality of teaching will be improved.

II. LEARNING INTEREST

A great man once said that I think, for everything, only interest is the best teacher, it is far more than the sense of responsibility.” An author described that learning must also meet your interest, so we can get benefit. In author’s view, interest is a strong learning motivation, and also is the starting point for success. So, what is interest? Why is it so important?

A. The Concept of Learning Interest

What is interest? It refers that a person’s positive learning tendencies and emotional state. Interest can become the reason of learning for it can promote learning (Krapp, 1992). Interest is also produced in the learning activities and can become the result of learning for it can produce new interest and improve original interest. So, learning interest is the cause of the study, and also the result of learning.

At the same time, many domestic and foreign scholars have also studied the definitions of learning interest. A domestic scholar, thinks that learning interest is the starting point of learning enthusiasm and initiative (Carrole, 1992). It can stimulate pupils to know world, gain scientific and cultural knowledge and explore the internal law of things with pleasant emotion color. An author thinks that learning interest is a tendency of pupils desire to learn knowledge (Qiu, 2014). The tendency contacts with certain feelings and reflect the intrinsic motivation in learning, which accompanies with epistemic motivation, rational emotion and positive learning attitude. In addition, a scholar defines interest as a unique variable motivation (Ye, 2018). She thinks that interest is a psychological state between people and attractive things, and it accompanies with the emergence of concentration and positive feelings.

To sum up, learning interest is a kind of psychological state that people desire to learn knowledge and strive to know world. It has the characteristics of the initiative and positive.

B. The Importance of Learning Interest

Interest plays a huge role from the definition of learning interest. Learning interest can make pupils focus their attention and produce good psychological state of tension. Pupils can produce positive impact in the process of learning knowledge. If not interested in learning, you won’t pay attention to learning. Only pupils are interested in something, they are willing to actively use their brains and seriously thinking. They try to acquire more knowledge in the quickest, most effective method. As Confucius said who likes is better than one knows, who enjoys is better than who likes.
Interest plays a promoting role in the development of intelligence. It’s the key to develop intelligence. There is an opinion that all intellectual work relies on interest. An investigation is the impact of interest on the success or failure of learning. The survey shows the impact of interest on success occupies 25%, intelligence accounts for 15%. However, the impact of lack interest on failure occupies 35%, intelligence is equal to zero.

C. The Classification and Structure of Learning Interest

From point of the structural features of interest, interest can be divided into individual interest and situational interest. At present, this theory has been generally accepted by domestic and western psychologist. In the field of education, researchers mostly make a deeper analysis from the classification of situational interest and individual interest.

Individual interest refers to a psychological tendency that it relatively and fixedly points to a certain object, activity, or a particular field of knowledge. It mainly based on the preexisting individual knowledge, individual experience and emotion. Another important feature of individual interest is internal. Individual is interest in something due to the internal demand of subject, not external causes. Pupils are interest in English, not because they are asked to learn by their parents, but because they like the language and are willing to learn it well. Later, the researchers further divide the individual interest into potential and realistic individual interest, and potential interest is associated with emotion and value. And they put forward the situational interest based on the text, task and knowledge.

Situational interest is defined as an emotional state aroused by conditional stimulus. It is often generated by certain conditions and concrete objects in the environment. Situational interest has been found to have a significant influence on pupils’ motivation in learning. It primarily influences learning by paying stronger attention to the learning material. Many primary teachers often use situational teaching method, because the content of primary textbooks is very easy, colloquial and close to life. It can make classroom atmosphere active and stimulate their learning interest. Situational interest is associated with variable elements that teachers may have controlled over such as task design and teaching methods. It may have a stronger potential than individual interest for teacher to use in motivating pupils to learn. The study shows that the situational interest includes two stages: the interest is aroused in the first stage and is sequentially kept in the second stage. Researchers think that the second stage will have a closer contact with the whole situational interest rather than the first stage.

Another scholar, divided the interest into two categories: emotional interest and cognitive interest. Among them, emotional interest is readers’ emotional reaction caused by information and cognitive interest is readers’ acquiring knowledge from materials.

III. THE RESEARCH OF PUPIL’S INTEREST IN LEARNING ENGLISH

According to survey and teachers’ teaching experience, from two aspects the pupil learning interest can be analyzed. One is the present situation of pupil’s learning English, the other is the factors of leading to this present situation that pupils’ enthusiasm cools down as time goes on.

A. The Present Situation of Pupil’s Interest in Learning English

It is found that the development of primary pupils’ learning interest can be divided into three stages through observing.

Firstly, pupils are eager to learn English. English learning as a foreign language is a fresh thing for pupils. They have known some English daily greetings and a few words when they are very young, such as “Hello”“Goodbye”“Apple” and so on. Their special curiosity makes them look forward to learning English. So, pupils are very interested in learning English.

Secondly, English is very interesting at beginning of learning. Pupils are attracted by vivid and interesting English class when they are involved in the world of English learning. Several groups of words can meet pupils’ curiosity, such as animals, fruits, sports and so on. Teachers create situation in teaching according to characteristics of pupils’ age and psychology. They let pupils speak and enjoy English by using the teaching way of TPR. For example, pupils can sing songs, guess words and play games in the class. At that time, they will happily say they like having English class after class.

It is clear that most of pupils are interested in English learning. But, can it last for a long time? Of course, it is not true. Most of pupils’ interest can only stay in the surface for it can’t stand the test of time and difficult setbacks.

Thirdly, the enthusiasm decreases with time and the difficulty of knowledge. After more than several years of learning, enthusiasm gradually cools down. If researchers understand pupils carefully, it’s not difficult to find out the reasons why their interest gradually cools down. They think learning English is no usage. The grammar knowledge is too boring, trivial and difficult. They waste time to learn English, but the result is not good, so they give up learning English at last.

B. The Influencing Factors of Pupil’s Interest in Learning English

There are other three major influencing factors of pupil’s interest in learning English. They are school, family, and pupils’ personal qualities.

The effect comes from school, such as teaching tools: computer multimedia, projector and so on. Primary school
pupils are in a lively and active age and it is difficult for them to focus their high attention on the whole class. Teachers can attract pupils’ attention and enhance their interest in learning by providing pupils with a lot of teaching tools and competitive activities. According to domestic survey and teaching experience, teachers know that the use of multiple teaching tools can bring about good teaching results. In this way, pupils learn English happily and understand knowledge quickly. Next is teaching methods. In this part of the research mainly focus on all kinds of teaching activities, the influence of game activities and competitive activities on the learning interest has been confirmed by many researchers. Interactive English teaching means that pupils widely participate in cooperation in the classroom teaching environment through interacting among teachers, pupils, language materials and other factors. It is a process of learning English by communicating with English and studying effectively. Practice has proved that the interactive class activities can improve and stimulate interest in learning English for primary school pupils. Then, it’s the attitude of teachers. The result of the survey shows that the teachers’ encouragement and praise, the attention for pupils and the more exercise opportunities can improve their interest in learning. Teachers’ behaviors of learning help have significant positive influence on pupils’ interest in learning. On the contrary, teacher’s negative emotional behaviors will have a significant negative impact on the learning interest and learning efficacy of pupils. Finally, learning materials and learning tasks also have a great influence on learning interest. Too hard learning tasks and materials will dampen pupils’ learning enthusiasm. In addition to those, the domestic survey finds that the too much difficult listening tasks and that pupils’ study concept, teachers’ teaching ability and the attention to grammar and reading also have a great influence on interest.

The effect comes from family. The effect of family mainly includes the attitude of the parents towards English learning, the interest of parents towards native language and a second language, the interaction and direct communication between parents and children and the support degree of parents for language education. It is known that a good family learning atmosphere, parents’ education ideas and the other family education ways are closely related to children’s extensive, stable and positive qualities of interest. If parents don’t take English seriously and they think learning English is useless, which will make children to look down on English inevitably. The effect comes from pupils. The learning interest of the pupils is so different due to the differences of age, gender and prior knowledge. Grade 3 in primary school is a good period to develop learning interest in terms of age. And the learning interest of grade 6 is the highest. But the high school pupils’ interest is decreasing with increasing of grade. The girl pupils have a higher English learning interest and stronger language sense than the boy pupils in terms of gender. A scholar links the interest with motivation and puts forward an idea that interest is a positive reaction. It bases on pupils’ background knowledge and produces learning motivation. If pupils are very interested in English learning, they will have a higher motivation and like studying.

IV. THE METHODS OF CULTIVATING PUPIL’S INTEREST IN LEARNING ENGLISH

After analyzing the influence factors of pupils’ learning interest, some good ways can be found to cultivate their learning interest. Pupils’ interest in learning English will be developed from five aspects.

A. Mobilizing Classroom Atmosphere and Learning Enthusiasm

Pupils are still at the age of curious, naughty and active. So, in class teachers should try to use lilting, humorous, incentive and suspense language, organize teaching with facial expressions and gestures and create an open, comfortable teaching environment for pupils. The comfortable classroom atmosphere can let pupils learn English with relaxed and happy mood, and they dare to speak English, actively thinking and constantly produce the interest of learning English and display their ability. The new textbooks have a lot of life content, which pupils are familiar with, so teachers should properly change the classroom into their activity places and display their individuality freely. It can stimulate their learning interest in this way. As we all know, a good beginning is half of success.

The play is the nature of children, the teachers should make full use of textbook before class and carefully design a series of informative, interesting and educational teaching games including listening, speaking, reading and writing. For examples, guessing riddles, reading rhymes, spelling game and singing English songs. Let them take an interest in English, and fall in love with English. The design of games must be interesting, scientific and educational, thus pupils can use their brains to think some questions for themselves in the process of games. When teacher teaches the Unit One in book of Grade Five in a class, this unit requires pupils to describe a person’s appearance by using the sentence “What’s …like”. At that time, teacher does a demonstration firstly. For example, this is a boy. He is tall. He has a short hair. He is funny. He wears a blue T-shirt. Who is he? He is..... Let the pupils learn how to describe a person’s appearance through the game. When pupils heard playing the game, the classroom atmosphere suddenly is perked up and pupils’ attention immediately focused, so the pupils are eager to join in it. The atmosphere is brisk and teaching achieves very good effect.

B. Using Visual, Vivid Teaching Methods

In order to make the class not boring, teachers can make use of visual and vivid teaching tools to teach knowledge in class, such as pictures, stick figures, slides, material objects, charts, videos and so on. The visual aids can help pupils understand and master necessary emotional experience effectively. In that the visual teaching aids have vivid
characteristics, they can fix pupils’ attention and improve pupils’ learning interest.

When it comes to English grammar, teachers always use boring, trivial and complicated way to describe grammar. In order to gain good teaching effect, teachers can use visual, vivid and flexible way to teach grammar knowledge. For example, the First Unit part two of Grade Six is “How Tall Are You?”. The difficult content is adjective comparative. When teacher teach adjective comparative “bigger, taller, smaller, heavier, longer, shorter, fatter and so on”, teacher brings two oranges, two bananas, two apples into the class. Firstly, teacher makes several dialogues with pupils and then explains it in Chinese like this:

T: “What are these in my hands?”
Ss: “They are apples.”
T: “This is the first apple, and another one is the second apple. Which one is bigger?”
Ss: “The first apple is bigger.”
T: “And the second apple is smaller?”
Ss: “The second apple is smaller.”
T: “Good. So the first apple is bigger than the second apple or the second apple is smaller than the first apple.”

When teacher makes several dialogues with pupils, teacher also writes the important sentences and the words of adjective comparative on the blackboard and explained them. If pupils correctly used the adjective comparative sentence pattern, teacher would reward them apples.

In this way, it can help pupils understand and use the adjective comparative. The usage of visual teaching aids can attract pupils’ attention and stimulate their learning interest.

C. Making Flexible Use of Textbook and Creating Situational Teaching

The textbooks of primary school are generally brief and their forms are very single. This requires teachers to put language materials into different situations where teachers can listen, see and touch when teachers prepare lessons. So, pupils not only can learn a few words and some short dialogues, but also learn some vivid language materials that can be used in many situations. As English teachers, they should specialize in teaching materials carefully and be very familiar with contents that have learned and to learn. It is necessary to increase some teaching contents appropriately. When teaching new lessons, teachers firstly can review knowledge that have learned last time and then pave the way for a new lesson by introducing some interesting topics. Thus, pupils’ knowledge and enthusiasm will increase as time goes on just like a snowball.

Dialogue is coherent speech in certain situations. Dialogue is meaningless without situation. Teachers can present dialogue content by creating a situation before teaching new knowledge. This way is real and vivid. It has a great help for pupils to understand and master new dialogues. The biggest characteristics of new English textbooks are colloquial and lifestyle. Teaching materials include a large number of situational conversations, such as shopping, asking the way, making a phone and so on. The content is close to life and the length of article is short. Pupils can apply these situational conversations to life directly.

For example, if teacher teaches the lesson of “How Much Is It?”, teacher will decorate the classroom into a shop. The desk is seen as a counter. Teacher puts all kinds of goods and prices them. Teacher and pupils play customers and salesperson respectively. In that way, teacher can design a real shopping situation by using visual teaching aids, actions, gestures and expressions. The new content is presented in real situations, thus pupils can understand it quickly. Therefore, pupils can learn English unconsciously, without pressure and burden.

D. Establishing Pupil’s Confidence in Learning

The English teaching activities should be pupil-centered and teacher-supplemented, teachers should tap their potential and cultivate pupils’ interest in English fully. It is pupils themselves who learn and are given space to develop learning ability. Teachers should guide pupils to develop their learning potential, cultivate pupils’ creativity and let them really enjoy the joy of learning success, instead of constantly having lessons and teaching knowledge in class. That way will only be counterproductive.

When pupils make mistakes, pupils should encourage them more rather than criticize. When pupils answer the question correctly, pupils should give great praise to them and that will cause pupils’ learning confidence. As we all know, if pupils trust their master, they would follow his way. So teachers don’t mean to praise and encourage pupils, especially for some pupils of poor study ability. Pupils should more favor their good aspects, timely find their shining points, increase their confidence and enhance their power.

E. Carrying out Various Kinds of English Extracurricular Activities

Pupils can learn English in classroom and also through all kinds of extracurricular activities. Teachers can organize different forms of extracurricular activities according to the pupils’ age, personality, skills and interest. These activities provide pupils with good study environment, add fun for pupils, cultivate the pupils’ spirit of innovation and improve their practical ability.

The common forms of activities are as follows:

In the first place, it is necessary to hold English corner. English corner is very popular in the society. Because it can improve people’s and English lovers can join in the English corner. They can talk interesting topics or study problems.
Teachers should encourage pupils to speak, even if they make mistakes, it doesn’t matter. The most important is that they dare to speak English.

In the second place, it is regular to hold English contests. Pupil’s competitive spirit is very strong. They always want to be stronger than others and desire to show off. The content of English contests can be colorful, such as writing, recitation, singing, guessing game and so on. Pupils should hold these activities. Teachers and pupils constitute panel of judgment. The winner will be given a big prize, but the contests must be fair.

In the third place, pupils can often play English dramas. It is useful to play children’s dramas, the classic fairy tale fable story and dramas in textbook. Pupils can use their facial expressions and body language to play dramas. It benefits pupils a lot.

In addition to the above activities, there are other kinds of extracurricular activities. It is the necessary supplement for class to organize rich and colorful extracurricular activities, so it’s good for teachers to carry out activities regularly.

V. CONCLUSION

Language learning is a long-term process and pupils need accumulate knowledge over a long period. This is a long war. How to defeat the war? I think learning interest is a key to defeat the war. When children learn English at young age, they are excited, curious and willing to learn English. But, their enthusiasm will gradually cool down as time goes on. How to maintain the pupils’ interest in learning is an important and difficult task for teachers. A good English teacher has not only rich English knowledge, but also unique, diverse, innovative teaching methods. Let pupils will to learn, love to learn and learn well by those ways. Maybe all kinds of difficulties in the teaching process will be met, but pupils can’t give up this task and any one of pupils. Except teachers, school and parents also play an important role in this long war. Schools and parents should give great support for the teaching work. Schools should equip with a full range of teaching facilities and create a good teaching environment. Parents should encourage children and supervise their study, and create a good family learning environment. Only teacher, school and family make cooperation each other, children will not be tired in the process of learning English.

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The Enlightenment of Second Language Ego to Oral English Teaching in Senior High School

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Abstract—Affective factors play a vital role in second language acquisition. Language ego, as a crucial affective factor, should be taken into consideration when teachers teach oral English in senior high school. Learning a new language is the process of acquiring a new language ego. A positive second language ego can promote students’ English learning. A negative language ego, especially inhibition, can become the major hindrance to students’ oral English learning. However, many English teachers cannot realize the importance of second language ego, which causes many problems in oral English teaching. In this paper, the author elaborates the concept of language ego and demonstrates that the primary focus of developing a positive second language ego in senior high school is to overcome inhibition, which is beneficial to oral English learning. Furthermore, the author also gives some suggestions to English teachers concerning solving problems when they teach oral English. As a result, students can get into an optimal learning state, then the efficiency of oral English teaching can also be improved.

Index Terms—second language ego, oral English teaching, inhibition, senior high school students

I. INTRODUCTION

When the National English Curriculum Standards for Senior High School was put forward in 2018, the main aim of English teaching in China was changed accordingly. Now, the main aim is to cultivate students’ core competence, which integrates language competence, cultural awareness, thinking quality and learning ability. Consequently, the focus of English teaching is concerned about students’ individual development. Along with this change, to make English teaching more effective, much attention should be directed to the study of learner’s individual differences and affective factors. Research at home and abroad has shown that the learner’s affective factors impact greatly upon their English acquisition. However, most studies mainly focus on these factors, namely, motivation, empathy, anxiety, and inhibition, while only a few scholars have researched second language ego.

In recent decades, many scholars have found that second language ego is closely related with language achievement. Zukowski (1997) did relevant research on the existence of the second language ego and emphasized its existence. He also believed that learning a language is earning another identity. Kinginger (2004) conducted case research on an American student who studied in France. It showed that after one-year learning, the student changed a lot, especially in her self-cognition, which is the process of forming second language ego. At home, Tian Xumin (2000) began to study language ego, but she only illustrated the concept of second language ego. Zhang Jushe (2016) studied how to improve college students’ comprehensive reading ability with the effect of positive second language ego.

In general, all these studies mainly concern the interpretation of second language ego or the relationship between second language ego and language acquisition. Research which integrates second language ego with oral English teaching is lacking. In senior high school, students’ second language ego matures gradually if they learn English, therefore scholars should attach great importance to their second language ego. Currently, as an essential part of language competence, oral English is relatively difficult to master. According to the research, many students, who mastered a large amount of language points, had a low level of oral English. Although they can get good grades in the examination, they cannot communicate with native speakers effectively. Thus, to improve oral English teaching, overcoming the negative influence of second language ego is an issue that needs to be researched.

II. RELATED THEORIES

A. Language Ego

In the 1970’s, Guiora proposed the concept of language ego. He believed that language ego was formed when people learn their native language. In this period, the learner developed the sense of boundaries of their language. Meanwhile, they develop their mode of thinking, feeling and acting in their native language. In addition, Guiora (1980) suggested that language ego may account for the difficulties that adults have in learning a second language. According to Guiora (1980), language ego is formed at the age of five. He claims that language ego boundaries are permeable in the early stages of development, but later become fixed and rigid. It indicates that adults’ language ego permeability is lower than that of children. In addition, language ego develops and reinforces gradually in the process of communication.

B. Second Language Ego
When people learn a second language, they not only form an outline of the new language, but also their new language ego. Guiora (1980) believed that the second language ego is the new identity of the learner when they study a new language. Brown (2007) also believed that when human beings learn to use the second language, they also develop a new mode of thinking, feeling, and acting, namely, a second identity. In general, when people speak a second language, they are forced beyond the familiar into experiences and feelings which they have not previously encountered while speaking their native language. H. E. Hinchey (1997) explained this with his observation that the formation of second language ego goes through five stages, including form, feeling, perception, concept, and consciousness.

C. The Relationship between Language Ego and Second Language Ego

From the above illustration, the concepts of language ego and second language ego are clear. These two concepts are related to each other in some respects. For English learners, it cannot be avoided that there is a long period of time in which they must overcome the conflicts between these two types of egos. In the initial stages of learning, second language ego would cause many threats to their native language ego and learners would be frightened, stubborn and even resistant to engaging in the L2 (second language) communication. If learners give up and continue to resist, second language ego would not be formed and second language would not be acquired either. On the contrary, if learners try associating L2 learning with L1 learning, they will integrate these two language egos and the L2 regime of communication will be predominant and their native language ego would be interrupted. Thus, their second language ego is formed gradually. Furthermore, these two language egos are both essential, for without language ego, second language ego cannot be constructed.

D. Inhibition

According to Brown (2001), adolescents have already acquired a language ego. Therefore, when they learn a second language, they often form a positive mechanism to defend their native language ego because they think their native language ego is threatened. Additionally, they would feel worried and anxious when they have difficulty in learning a second language. Currently, inhibition comes out. In other words, inhibition, one of the defense mechanisms, comes out at the first stage of formation of a second language ego. As a result, students would be reluctant to speak English in class because they are afraid of making mistakes. In general, inhibition is detrimental to students’ learning and how to reduce its negative influence is challenging.

III. THE CURRENT SITUATION OF ORAL ENGLISH TEACHING

Oral English, as one of the productive skills, plays a crucial role in developing students’ communicative competence. In the last few years, many English teachers have spared no effort to improve students’ spoken English. However, there are also some problems which hinder the development of oral English and teaching efficiency.

A. Neglect the Importance of Oral English Teaching

In China, exam-oriented education has influenced English teaching for several decades, and has simultaneously brought many bad effects to oral English learning. Although the new curriculum reform and the National English Curriculum Standards for Senior High School (2018 version) have been put into practice, there are a few changes about the aims of English teaching. Nevertheless, lacking professional and updated teaching ideas, many English teachers do not know how to effectively teach oral English under the background of English teaching reform. To find out English teachers’ attitude to oral English teaching in senior high school, relevant research was conducted by the author. According to the results of questionnaires and interviews, the author found that English teachers cannot adopt the appropriate methods when they teach oral English. Under such circumstance, some teachers claim that oral English teaching is difficult to implement and time-consuming. In their perspective, the most important thing for senior high school students is to master the knowledge which would be tested. Oral English is therefore viewed as being less important than paper-based tests. As a result, teachers prefer to pay more attention to the practice of grammar knowledge, reciting of vocabulary and reading of texts. Some teachers even change teaching schedule arbitrarily in the senior high school. They change the oral English class into a reading or grammar class. Although students’ English language input is abundant, their English output is limited. According to the new curriculum standard, oral English is the essential part of English learning. Neglecting the importance of oral English teaching can impede the development of students’ communicative competence, even resulting in “dumb English”.

B. Overemphasize the Forms of Oral Activities

Teaching activities are important for both students and teachers. Good oral activities can promote students’ oral English learning while bad activities would do much harm. Nowadays, many teachers put great emphasis on fluency when they teach oral English. Many activities mainly focus on form rather than meaning. According to some research, many activities presented in the classroom such as dialogue only focus on the performance of mechanical practice, where students are required to use the restricted sentence structure which is preset by their teachers. In China, high school students in Grade one have learned more than 2000 words, which theoretically can help them have simple conversations with native speakers. However, the reality is opposite. There are many students who cannot communicate with others effectively and even do not know how to start a conversation. One important reason is that teachers cannot
provide a context for students when they teach oral English. Therefore, students cannot improve communicative competence although they have mastered many sentence patterns. In other words, reciting the fixed dialogues is not helpful for students to communicate proficiently. Furthermore, the oral activities mostly focusing on forms are liable to create a monotonous classroom atmosphere, where the students may gradually lose their interest in oral English.

C. Focus on Accuracy When Speaking Out

English, as the second language, students in China always feel shy and anxious when they speak it. Because they are concerned about accuracy and are afraid of making mistakes, some students would not speak anything in oral English class. As English and Chinese are different in many aspects, such as phonology, morphology, and syntax, when students speak English in class, they often pay more attention to these aspects, which leads to lots of difficulties in oral English learning. In practical communication, the accuracy of words and grammar is overemphasized by many students because they fear their mistakes would bring misunderstanding to others. However, the importance of fluency is underestimated. To some extent, many students intend to attain accuracy at the cost of fluency. This is the reason why there are some pauses or silence when the students speak English. In conclusion, over-stressing accuracy can harm the development of students’ oral English.

D. Lack the Awareness of Intercultural Communication Competence

Intercultural communication competence is reflected in the “appropriateness” and “effectiveness” of communicative behavior. However, many researchers found that many senior high school students in China lack the knowledge of intercultural communication. In oral English class, students have learned some language points successfully, but they cannot use them appropriately after class, especially in practical communication. Many students tend to pay much attention to superficial language points but the implied meaning of them is often neglected. It is found that many students do not know how to deal with cultural differences, or show respect to other countries’ cultures and thus fail to establish a correct perspective of cultural values. In the English textbook, there are many cultural phenomena which are crucial to oral English teaching, but students often pay less attention to these matters even ignoring them. An example can be illustrated to reflect the misunderstanding of communication which is caused by the cultural differences. Many Americans said that it makes them uncomfortable when Chinese students express their desire to visit. Some students are inclined to say: “Are you busy?”, while their American teachers think it’s a question so answer it directly. Then, there is a misunderstanding. To show their respect, many Chinese students are inclined to express their desire in an implied way. However, Americans are direct and they tend to express explicitly. There is an expression which is more appropriate, “I’d like to visit you this afternoon if you’re free.” It shows that culture is different, so students are supposed to find an appropriate way to express when they communicate with others. Above all, lacking the awareness of intercultural communication competence, students’ oral English cannot be improved easily.

IV. THE INFLUENCE OF SECOND LANGUAGE EGO ON SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS’ ORAL ENGLISH

Different learners have different levels of inhibition. The level of inhibition is the main factor which influences the formation of second language ego. Children’s language egos are dynamic and growing and flexible through the age of puberty. Thus, second language ego at this stage does not pose a substantial threat to their language egos, so their inhibition level is low. Compared with adolescents, children can achieve a high level of oral English much easier. However, adolescents’ language egos are often closed when they learn a new language. In other words, the flexibility of their second language ego is relatively weak. As a result, they have to try to form a new language ego so that they can acquire a second language. To some extent, the success of students’ oral English depends on whether the learners’ second language ego is positive or negative. Moreover, whether the learners’ second language ego is positive or negative in oral performance is decided by the defensive mechanism especially the level of inhibition. If students have a high level of inhibition, it is strenuous for them to form a second language ego.

Senior high school students are becoming mature, both physically and psychologically in this period. Previous studies suggest that they have a high level of anxiety and affective filter in second language learning. Undoubtedly, a high level of anxiety means much inhibition and less positive language ego. Zukowski (1997) held that the deliberate and conscious development of a second language ego could facilitate the development of many important communication abilities. For the language learner, if there is less inhibition when they form a new language ego, they would achieve a high level of oral English more readily. On the contrary, with much negative language ego—inhibition, students’ oral English development will be greatly hindered.

Above all, second language ego has a great influence on oral English. Therefore, English teachers should attach great importance to the function of second language ego in oral English teaching to reduce the excessive bad effects of defense mechanisms and help students form a positive second language ego.

V. ENLIGHTENMENT TO ORAL ENGLISH TEACHING

A. Create a Relaxed Classroom Environment for Students

The classroom environment has a great influence on students’ oral English learning. From classroom observation,
many researchers found that the atmosphere of English classrooms is tedious and monotonous in senior high school. As a result, a lot of students take a negative attitude to the oral English class, and are anxious or nervous when their teachers ask questions. However, when there is a relaxed and comfortable classroom atmosphere, students are willing to invest considerable effort to learn oral English, and lastly, their learning efficiency would be improved. On the other hand, students will be stressed and nervous if they are involved in an oppressive environment. Hence, faced with the challenges of oral English teaching, English teachers should realize that a relaxed environment is important for students. Therefore, English teachers should try their best to change or improve the classroom atmosphere. This means that teachers should not force students to learn something or make the classroom threatening when they teach. In addition, the relationship between teachers and students is also important. He Jianhui (2012) held that an equal and harmonious relationship between teachers and students can ease the tension within the students. Above all, many students are more willing to speak out in a relaxed atmosphere. Specifically, English teachers should focus on the following aspects. They should be warm, sensitive, and open-minded. Meanwhile, they should avoid apathy and a harsh tone when they teach. What is more, teachers should realize that they are not only the organizers and guides of the teaching, but also good facilitators who provide necessary help when students need it. Furthermore, those teachers who patiently listen to students’ suggestions more readily create a harmonious classroom learning environment.

B. Encourage All Students to Speak Out

After the concept of “language input” was put forward by Krashen (1982), he asserted that many comprehensible language inputs can activate the inherent language acquisition mechanism in the learner’s brain. Later, Canadian linguist, Swain (1993) argued that language output can reflect the mechanism’s acceptance and recreation of the input, which shows the human psychological cognitive process of language. Language output, including speaking and writing, plays a crucial role in acquiring a second language. If students are not willing to open their mouths to speak English, they will not learn oral English well and never reach the requirement of the new curriculum standard—communicative competence. As a result, second language ego cannot be formed easily. Some students are unwilling to speak English because their classmates don’t speak, which is a bad thing for both teachers and students. Negative second language ego is also responsible for this phenomenon, because it can make students feel unsafe and depressive to some extent.

To encourage all students to speak out is not an easy job, so teachers must spare no effort in establishing creative ways to make this possible. For example, teachers can change the form of oral English classes to attract students’ attention and interest. Specifically, teachers can bring competitions or games to the class. The competitions or games can be conducted between different learning groups and every student has the opportunity to speak English. Additionally, He Jianhui (2012) claimed, to attract students’ interest, the type of activities should be varied. For example, the following oral activities are good choices: summarizing the main idea of the passage, retelling the text, talking about feelings. In addition, dialogues, group discussions, debates, interviews, and role play can be utilized. Furthermore, all activities should match most students’ current level of oral English. If the activities are too easy, many students will lose interest in oral English. If the activities are too difficult, there would be lots of students who cannot finish the task or may even lose confidence to speak English. Consequently, the negative influence of second language ego will increase in some degree. Above all, it is essential for teachers to realize that all students of different levels should have the choice to speak English.

C. Treat Students’ Mistakes in a Right Way

As mentioned above, many students are afraid of making mistakes in oral English, which is harmful to the formation of second language ego. The new language ego is sensitive and vulnerable in the early stage of learning. Thus, any mistake or error can be a big threat to nurturing second language ego. As a result, teachers’ attitudes to students’ mistakes are crucial for the development of second language ego. If the students are criticized strongly by the teacher when they make mistakes in oral English class, the inhibition or avoidance would come out to defend their fragile second language ego. This kind of defend mechanism might make students perform negatively in oral English. Therefore, teachers should learn to accept students’ mistakes and should not correct mistakes directly and immediately. Teachers can encourage students by telling them that more mistakes mean that they will make greater progress. Moreover, teachers should choose a proper time to correct students’ mistakes because the interruption of students’ speaking can do great harm to the development of oral English. Additionally, teachers should use words of compliment frequently rather than blame in the process of correcting the mistakes. Only in this way can students’ confidence be strengthened, and their second language ego can gradually form, and this is beneficial to the development of students’ oral English.

D. Cultivate Students’ Awareness of Intercultural Communication

As one of the core competence of English, intercultural communication is an essential factor for the successful acquisition of the second language ego. Oxford (1992) once put forward the idea that learners would experience anxiety because of fear or the experience of losing oneself in the target culture. Language is also a carrier of culture and an indispensable part of culture. Therefore, if the students want to speak English as well as native speakers, they should be familiar with the western culture which will facilitate their oral English acquisition. Clearly, how to cultivate students’ awareness of intercultural communication is worth considering.
In oral English class, teachers should take full advantage of the textbook to introduce foreign culture to students. However, on account of the limited cultural content in many textbooks, teachers should also add more cultural knowledge to enrich the class. For example, the materials about foreign literature and arts can be a good choice for teachers. They can hold some activities such as performing drama to encourage students to understand more foreign culture. And thus create meaningful experience for students, helping them form a positive second language ego. In addition, teachers must help students take an inclusive attitude to different cultures. The most important thing is to help them realize that culture is not correct or wrong. In a word, cultivating students’ awareness of intercultural communication is a long but valuable journey and plays a great role in the process of second language ego in oral English learning.

VI. CONCLUSION

Second language ego, as an important affective factor, has great influence on students’ second language acquisition. A positive language ego can facilitate students learning, while a negative language ego especially inhibition could impede students’ development of oral English. Currently, there are many problems in oral English teaching which are caused by students’ negative language ego. The author interprets the effects of second language ego to oral English learning and demonstrates that the focus of developing second language ego in senior school is to overcome inhibition. Furthermore, some enlightenment for English teachers is included. Teachers should put great emphasis on the impact of second language ego, take some measures to reduce the level of inhibition and help students develop a new second language ego in teaching process. This paper is an attempt to address the issue of developing a second language ego, an area of study deserving greater research.

REFERENCES


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Gender-based Study of Interactive Metadiscourse Markers in EFL Academic Writing

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Abstract—This study aimed at exploring the gender differences in the usage of interactive metadiscourse markers in a sample of EFL academic essays written by male and female EFL majors joining the College of Languages and Translation, Al-Imam Mohammad bin Saud Islamic University. Further, it aimed at supporting the results with justifications in light of the cultural difference and discursive psychology approaches. To achieve this aim, thirty academic essays written by EFL male students and thirty essays written by EFL female students were analyzed based on the metadiscourse framework proposed by Hyland (2005). In order to achieve an acceptable degree of reliability, the essays were first analyzed electronically using a concordance software program. Then, all the interactive metadiscourse markers were examined qualitatively in context to determine their actual functions. The findings of the study indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between male and female students in using some interactive markers namely transitions, frame markers, and code glosses, in which the female students surpassed male students. The qualitative analysis, on the other hand, indicated that the student’s psychological and cultural variations might be a source of gender differences regarding the employment of metadiscourse markers. The study also provided some implications for researchers, writing teachers, and textbook publishers in terms of enhancement of metadiscoursal proficiency in EFL writing classrooms.

Index Terms—metadiscourse markers, gender-based study, interactive metadiscourse markers, written discourse analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is considered as the most essential tool of communication in which the absence of language means the absence of communication. One of the important parts of communication is writing skill, as it compasses a lot of different communicative functions. In this context, writing can be defined as a system for interpersonal communication using various styles of language. In the academic context, writing skill has an extremely significant educational role as key element both for understanding and learning. It develops self-expression and individual progress, and allows people to gather, refine, share, and preserve knowledge and understanding (Graham, 2006).

For EFL students, writing skill is even more important. The capacity to write an academic essay is an important phase in foreign language learning. It effectively promotes acquiring the target language through engaging learners in an active process of selecting appropriate vocabulary, forming meaningful sentences, and using other principles of academic writing to communicate their intended ideas and thoughts clearly and effectively (Miller & Cohen, 2001). Thus, to compose comprehensible communicative writing, the learners need to consider certain important interactional components called ‘metadiscourse markers’.

Metadiscourse term goes back to Zelling Harris (1959) as a way to understand language in use, and how writers succeed in directing a reader’s grasp of a text (Hyland, 2005). In other words, metadiscourse is the interpersonal markers used to arrange a discourse or the stance of the writer towards its content or its reader (Hyland, 2005). The accurate employment of such markers in academic essays can significantly raise their quality.

Reviewing previous literature tackling discourse analysis, it was found that there are many frameworks for exploring metadiscourse markers (e.g. Adel, 2006; Hyland & Tse, 2004). Some researchers limit metadiscourse markers to components that help structure the text (direction, purpose) as a text which is known as the “reflexive” model (Ädel, 2006). On the other hand, many scholars have taken a broader perspective and referred it to the way authors and speakers represent their understanding of the topic and the intended audience in the discourse; this is well-known as the “integrative” or interactive’ model (Hyland, 2005). The present study focuses on the interpersonal model (Hyland, 2005) since this model is one of those which was taken as a reference and adopted by numerous studies in the field of language studies (Pasaribu, 2017; Kan, 2016; Yeganeh & Gheoreishi, 2015). The study also mainly focuses on factors that can influence academic writers’ linguistic choices vary, one of the most important is gender. In linguistics, gender has been primarily regarded as an independent variable that impacts linguistic production (Jing, 2011). Despite a quite large number of studies have targeted the gender differences in second language academic writing (e.g., Javid, Farooq
& Umer, 2013; Kubota, 2003; Waskita, 2008), the gender differences in terms of Hyland (2005) interactive metadiscourse markers usage in academic writings of EFL learners in general and in Saudi context in particular has received little attention. Thus, it deserves additional investigation and warrants comprehensive analysis. Hopefully, this study aims to fill an important gap in previous research on gender differences in academic writing in EFL context.

A. Purpose and Questions of the Study

This study aimed at exploring the gender differences in the usage of interactive metadiscourse markers in a sample of EFL academic essays written by Saudi male and female EFL majors. It also aimed at identifying which interactive metadiscourse sub-categories predominate in academic writing and how they are distributed according to cross-linguistic preferences of both genders. Further, it focused on supporting the obtained statistical differences with the justifications in light of the cultural difference and discursive psychology approaches. With these aims in mind, the study seeks to answer the following main question:

- What are the significant gender differences in the usage of Hyland (2005) interactive metadiscourse markers in academic writing between male and female EFL majors at Al-Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University?

The following sub-questions were derived from the main question:
1. Which interactive markers are predominantly used by female EFL majors? and why?
2. Which interactive markers are predominantly used by male EFL majors? and why?

B. Significance of the Study

According to Newman (2003), most studies on gender differences are based on quantitative methods only, so they rarely explain the motivation for gender differences in language. Accordingly, the present study intended to explore the gender differences in terms of interactive metadiscourse markers in depth using both quantitative and qualitative methods. The researcher expects that the combination of the cultural difference and discursive psychology approaches in justifying the gender differences in the present study have the potential to shed some new light on gender differences studies.

Moreover, the results of this study may have important pedagogical implications to enhance academic writing efficiency and the written communication skills of EFL students. This could be reached by providing valuable insights and important implications for interventionist approaches for teaching EFL learners to improve their metadiscoursal proficiency and to use metadiscourse markers more effectively taking into account the effect of gender factor.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Concept of Gender

In language and gender studies, linguists have studied the concept of gender from different perspectives. During the 1960s, gender was seen as biological sex. This movement was called the essentialist movement. However, in the early 1970s, there was a movement away from essentialist and dichotomous conceptions of gender to a performative model where gender is seen as the accomplishment and product of social interaction (Holmes & Meyerhoff, 2003). Therefore, according to Coates (2016), gender is no longer seen as given but rather as something that we ‘do’. The present study adopts the idea that gender is a ‘performative’ concept that is done as a result of the social practices toward individuals and the way that individuals interpret these practices.

B. Language and Gender Area of Research

In the field of discourse analysis, some researchers direct their efforts to understanding why gender differences appear through a functional approach where the same linguistic form may serve a variety of functions, depending on the context of its use (Holmes, 1995). According to the functional approach, gender is seen as inherent to the individual. From this perspective, gender can be treated as an independent variable, whose effects can be assessed on dependent variables (Holmes & Meyerhof, 2003). On the other hand, some scholars focus instead on communicative styles in which they take elements of the social context into account. The communicative approach conceptualizes gender as a role that depends on social structural position and the expectations associated with that position (Holmes, 2003).

However, the current study adopted the functional approach. It sought to explore the effect of gender factor as an independent variable in the usage of interactive metadiscourse markers. Moreover, it attempted to figure out the reasons behind those variations in the light of difference theory and the discursive approach.

C. Key Approaches to Language and Gender Research

During the last few decades, many approaches to gender differences mirrored in language have developed building on each other. Cameron (1992) asserted that the science of language and gender is divided according to these different points of view. In order to situate this study within a theoretical framework, this section will provide a general overview of the main phases in the study of language and gender.

First of all, the deficit Approach. This approach considers language of women as an essentially imperfect and powerless compared to language of men as it is limited in vocabulary, simpler in structure, and lacking in substance (Tej & William, 2006; Pearce, 2007). Later on, appeared the dominance model, a contextualized approach that links
gender differences in language to the imbalance in economic power that men have over women in society (Hare-Mustin and Marecek, 1994). In spite of its effective role in stressing the connection between power and language, this approach has some shortcomings as being limited only to the effects of power which do not explain clearly differences between males and females.

Around the mid-1980s appeared the difference approach was formed and remained popular until the early 1990s (Locher and Graham, 2010). This approach was represented by Deborah Tannen in her book You Just Don’t Understand (1990), in which she argues that male and female conversation is cross-cultural communication, and men and women stem from different subcultures because they grow up in a different environment. This positive view allows linguists to examine the female language outside of the oppressed framework (Coates, 2004). The social constructionist framework sees gender as a social construct rather than as a given social category (Holmes, 2007). Gender is no longer seen as a fixed category, but rather as a social construct (Coates, 2004).

The discursive approach which falls under the social constructionism finds context to be the foundation for the variations. Linguists focusing on language and gender are also exploring how some variables related to culture, e.g. race, class, economics, and geography help in constructing gender (Butler, 1990). Accordingly, both genders must develop disparate strategies and skills to function appropriately in and to accommodate with cultural and sociolinguistic needs in the society they live in (Cameron, 1997). This method emphasizes the need to conceptualize the term ‘gender’ as a verb, not a noun (Coates, 2004).

D. Metadiscourse Theoretical Considerations and Models

According to Hyland (2005), metadiscourse is “a widely used term in current discourse analysis and language education, referring to an interesting, and relatively new, approach to conceptualizing interactions between text producers and their texts and between text producers and users” (Hyland, 2005, p.1, as cited in Alsubhi, 2016).

Several attempts to conceptualize the concept of metadiscourse resulted in many different models (Deborah Schiffrin, 1980; Joseph Williams, 1981; John Sinclair, 1980; William Vande Kopple, 1985; Crismore et al., 1993). However, Hyland (2005) provided the probably most comprehensive framework for the study of metadiscourse which is adopted in the present study.

In order to resolve the long-standing controversy around metadiscourse, Hyland (2004) set three essential principles for reconsidering the theoretical basis of the concept. The first principle is that metadiscourse, as distinct from propositional aspects of discourse, are essential elements of the text meaning that help relates the text to its context by taking into consideration the reader’s needs, existing knowledge, understandings, relative status, and intertextual experiences. The second principle is that these markers embody the interaction between the writer and the reader through some aspects. The third principle is that metadiscourse refers only to relations which are internal to the discourse rather than external or experiential.

According to Hyland (2005), metadiscourse markers are divided into two categories: interactive and interactional markers; the former deal with means of discourse organization and represent writers’ evaluation of which section or idea needs more clarification in order to limit and direct any possible misunderstanding of the text. The latter are concerned with the strategies of regulating writer’s personality in the text, as well as the amount of reader involvement (Hyland, 2005). The current study focuses on examining interactive since they are an important part of all kind of writings, especially for EFL writers, as they highlight the ideas and information organization in coherent and convincing ways to the audience (Hyland, 2005).

Interactive markers, according to Hyland (2005), enable the writer to control the flow of knowledge to specifically define his or her desired interpretations. Interactive markers include five categories: First, ‘transitions’ consisting of a set of devices, mainly conjunctions, used to label additive, contrasting, and consequential discourse steps in contrast to the outer sources. Second, ‘frame markers’ which refer to borders or schematic structure elements of the text, e.g. sequencing and labeling text stages items. Third, ‘endophoric markers’ help in making ideas expressed in a text more notable and connected for the reader through linking between text sections. Fourth, ‘evidentials’ reflecting the external sources of the text ideas/knowledge. Finally, ‘code glosses’ signaling the rewording of knowledge regarding the ideation.

E. Gender Studies of Metadiscourse Markers in Writing

Some literature that examined the effect of gender on the use of metadiscourse markers (Ädel, 2006; Francis, Robson & Read, 2001; Tse & Hyland, 2008) assured that male and female writers did utilize metadiscourse markers differently in their written texts. A recent study by Seyyedrezaie and Vahedi (2017) investigated male and female authors’ type of stance markers usage by analysing sixty English, Persian articles, and English articles written by Persian speakers. Five categories of stance markers (textual, epistemic attitudinal, deontic and causation) were identified according to Xu and Longs’ (2008) classification. They found that males and female authors held the same habits in utilizing markers of stance. Results showed also that the male writers outperformed females in using epistemic markers which made their writings more convincing. However, this study was limited to an examination of a five categories of stance markers of Xu and Longs’ (2008) model in TEFL articles. It could have been optimized if a larger sample size across different fields and various genres had been investigated.

In the context of academic essays written by male and female EFL students, Yeganeh and Ghoreyshi (2015)
conducted one of the most pertinent studies concerning the role of gender on using booster and hedge. They attempted to explore the role of gender in applying metadiscourse markers in forty English research articles written by native speakers of Persian. The results revealed that gender plays an important part on the use of two metadiscourse features, booster and hedges. While Females preferred using hedges, Males inclined more to using boosters. This study helped in predicting the results of the current study since it has investigated gender differences in EFL academic writing. However, only forty research articles were randomly chosen in this study which is relatively small sample for approaching generalization of the research results unlike the present study which focuses on (60) academic essays. Also, opposite to the current study, this study was limited to only two subcategories of the interactional marker.

In the same context, Serholt (2012) conducted a study to investigate the gender differences in the use of hedges and boosters. Her study was conducted by analysing (20) randomly selected comparative essays written by Swedish advanced learners of English. Results revealed that females exceeded males in their inclination to offer robust devotion to their given information while both genders used hedges more than boosters. Opposite to the present study, Serholt’s (2012) study was limited to only (20) academic essays as well. The study also examined only two metadiscourse markers which are hedges and boosters. It could have been optimized if larger sample size had been used and more metadiscourse markers have been investigated.

### III. METHODOLOGY

#### A. Research Design

The present study is a descriptive comparative study. The research methodology employed in this study is a mixed method approach (quantitative as well as qualitative), in which that the data is collected qualitatively and analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively, using frequencies of the metadiscourse markers.

#### B. Participants

The study sample included sixty (30 male and 30 female) Saudi EFL undergraduates; joining the College of Languages and Translation, Al-Imam Mohammad bin Saud Islamic University. The participants were chosen randomly in the second semester of the academic year 2018/2019. All the participants are from the fourth year (level seven) to ensure that all students have finished the same required courses of academic writing and grammar. Also, they are expected to be at upper intermediate or advanced English proficiency level since they have accomplished the requirements of the previous levels. Their aged

#### C. Data Collection and Research Instruments

The instrument for collecting data was an essay writing test, the test consisted of two writing prompts; participants have to choose one and write a complete opinion essay about the chosen topic. The data set of the study sampled a group of academic essays. The data consisted of (60) opinion essays. As the average length of the single essay was from (250) to (300) words, the corpus of the study altogether consisted of (17,000) words. The interpersonal model of Hyland (2005) was employed as an instrument to analyze interactive metadiscourse markers used in the students’ written texts to find whether or not male and female writers were different in using these markers in terms of frequency and type.

#### D. Data Analysis and the Study Procedure

The study is a contrastive investigation of gender differences in terms of metadiscourse markers used in (60) academic essays written by Saudi undergraduates. After receiving the required permission from the institution, the participants were briefed about the purpose of the treatment, and their approval was ensured to participate in the study. Sixty students were randomly selected to set for the essay writing test. The researchers analyzed the sixty essays in two consecutive stages. The focus of stage one was on examining the possible similarities and differences between males and females in the usage of the interactive metadiscourse markers, based on Hyland’s (2005) classification, electronically with the help of a computational linguistic tool called ‘AntConc software’ and manually in which the essays were read word by word carefully. Stage two focused on examining the type and frequency and of metadiscourse markers then compare the results of the two gender groups using the concordance analysis tool AntConc software. In the quantitative analysis, three analytical procedures were used, the frequency of occurrence per 1000 words, the proportional percentages of metadiscourse categories to the total use, and the Chi-square test, to increase the results’ accuracy.

In light of the difference and discursive psychology approaches, the differences in the usage of interactive metadiscourse markers by male and female students were justified.

### IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results obtained from both quantitative and qualitative analysis indicated significant gender variations between Saudi male and female EFL majors in interactive metadiscourse markers use. The major gender differences were marked in the general usage of interactive markers as well as in each subcategory as follows:

#### A. Overall Differences in Using Interactive Markers
Quantitative analysis of the study corpus indicated that female students employed a higher proportion of interactive markers as well as devices of every single subcategory compared to male students except for two devices. The first is endophoric markers where males have exceeded females by a difference of only four markers. The second one is evidential markers where both genders have recorded a low but identical number of frequencies. See Fig. 1.

![Interactive Markers](image)

The mean frequency of interactive markers in the essays written by male and female students was (m=95) and (m=168) respectively. This result implies that the female students focused more on organizing the text to guide readers rather than on involving the reader in the text. This finding was compatible with Crismore (1993) and contrary to other previous studies (Tse & Hyland, 2008; Ghafoori & Oghbatalab, 2012).

A Chi-Square test was run to determine the significance of male and female students’ different application of interactive metadiscourse markers in their opinion essays. The obtained results, as shown in Table (1), a statistically significant difference in the global use of the metadiscourse markers was found between males and females, P-Value = 0.027 < 0.05.

![Transition Markers](image)

Some reasons can explain this variance between the two genders in the intensive use of interactive markers. It has been proved that females are more status-conscious than males. Accordingly, they tend to use more standard precise expressions such as metadiscourse markers in their writings. According to Tymson (1998, cited in Merchant, 2012), females are process-oriented in their communication, so they tend to focus more on readers’ conception and recapture of the real meanings presented in the text. On the other hand, males are described with goal-driven communication style which makes their writings to be informative.

This finding of the female higher use of interactive markers is compatible with the results of Crismore’s (1993) study. In her investigation of the use of metadiscourse markers in persuasive essays written by U.S male and female university students, she concluded that female students applied more metadiscourse markers in general, including interactive markers. On the other side, this finding disagrees with some other studies (Hyland & Tse, 2006; Ghafoori and Oghbatalab, 2012). In their analysis of twenty applied linguistics research papers, Ghafoori and Oghbatalab (2012) have found that English male and female writers showed a relative similarity in their overall use of interactive markers.

The variation in the results of the above studies could be attributed to the genre of discourse as Crismore (1993) utilized persuasive essays and Ghafoori and Oghbatalab (2012) used academic research papers in their investigations. Hyland and Tse (2006) proposed that the difference in men and women use of language might be affected not only by gender but also by different factors as disciplinary discourses and writing genre. Thus, it is possible to say that the use of interactive markers in opinion and persuasive essays seems to be influenced by gender.

### B. Differences in Using Transitions

The quantitative analysis revealed that female students used more transition markers than male students, (see Fig 2). The total frequency of transition markers in females’ essays was (749) with mean of (m=33) which equalizes (65%) of the total number of transitions used in both genders’ texts. On the other hand, the total frequency of transition markers in males’ essays was (404) with mean of (m=18) that equalizes (35.04%) of the total number of transitions in the corpus.
Statistical results of Chi-Square test, as it is shown in Table (2), revealed that p-value is 0.014 < 0.05, which means that Chi-square analysis has revealed a significant difference in transition markers employed by male and female students.

As it is seen in Fig. (2) above, both genders applied addition markers the most which inclines with the results of (Pasaribu, 2017; Vali & Kianiparsa, 2010). In line with Alsubhi’s (2016) finding, the conjunction "and" was the most frequent transition marker in the corpus. It was used (516) times by female students which equals (44.75%) of transitions in the corpus, and (273) times or (23.68%) by male students. A possible explanation for the high frequency of additive markers in male and females’ essays can be referred to the influence of the mother tongue of the participants (Arabic) that is presented in using long sentences; as Arabic discourse is recognized by parallelism in structure and diffusion of coordination (Hinkle, 2002).

Transition markers are the most used interactive markers in the present corpus. This result is in agreement with the findings of other related studies (Heng and Tan, 2010; Javaid and Mahmood, 2017; Zakaria and Malik, 2018) which asserted that transitions were the highest used metadiscourse markers among English learners. It seems quite natural that transitions were frequently used by the students since they are the conventional way of structuring cohesion in the text (Hyland, 2005). Pasaribu (2017) also found out that EFL students focus extensively on prepositional connections in their writings to clarify meaning.

Female greater use of transition markers is in agreement with Hyland (2012) in which he found that female philosophers tended be heavy users of transition markers in their writings compared to male philosophers. It also agrees with Rahmat, Tan, Yean, Yahaya and Whanchits’ (2020) study. In their study, they asked male and female students to write reflective essays to find out how they felt about their experience learning English in Malaysia. Female learners reported (57.2%) more transitions compared to the male writers (42.8%).

Female tendency to apply more transitions could be attributed to the cultural and psychological differences between the two genders. Women's communication style including negotiation, mediation, and facilitation is very effective especially in academic writing (Basow & Rubenfield, 2003). This type of communication style is clearly reflected in transition use which helps in marking the text structure (arrangement) by establishing logical connections between sentences, paragraphs, and sections. “This influences the reader friendliness of a text and primarily involves the management of information flow” (Tse & Hyland, 2008, p. 12, cited in Hyland, 2013).

### C. Differences in Using Frame Markers

As it is shown in Fig. (3) below, female students employed about (56%) of frame markers in the whole corpus while males used (44%) which indicates a slight difference between the two groups. This result coincides with Sukawas’ (2016) study that revealed that female Thai students used higher frame markers in their letters to the editor and news reports compared to male encounters. Rahmat et. al. (2020) confirm this finding by reporting that female writers (61%) used more than male writers (39%) in their study. This finding suggests that female students showed more tendency to convince and persuade with the discourse by signaling relationship of the ideas and ordering materials.
A Chi-Square test was run to determine the importance of male and female students’ different application of frame markers. Statistical results, as shown in Table (3), revealed that p-value is 0.022 < 0.05; Chi-square analysis also revealed a significant difference in frame markers employed by male and female students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>P</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Test Statistic</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
<th>N of valid cases</th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>39.797</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>36.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A closer analysis of the subcategories of frame markers indicated that female students showed a higher frequency of using sequencers and labeling stages markers compared to male students as "now" and "in conclusion". On the other hand, both groups tended to use fewer announcing goals as "would like to" and shift topic markers "in regard to" in their essays. This indicated the fact that both genders tended to elaborate on the relation between ideas rather than announcing the discourse goals. It seemed that they were following what Wahab (2006) referred to as ‘the Asian rhetorical model’ that is evasive, as they tended no to express their intentions explicitly.

D. Differences in Using Endophoric Markers

The quantitative analysis indicated that the use of endophoric markers was quite low in both groups’ essays with only about (0.5) token per 1000 words for both genders of students as shown in Fig. (5).

Though this result is in agreement with many results of some previous studies (Alsubhi, 2016; Davaei, 2013), it was not surprising due to the genre conventions (opinion essay) that do not require referring to information in other parts of the text, and the short nature of such essays in which the word count was approximately between (250-500) words. According to Hyland (2005), endophoric markers are largely a feature of hard disciplines writings such as science and engineering texts. They are usually used to mark the correlation between visual data and verbal information in order to make the content more explicit.

E. Differences in Evidential Markers

The quantitative analysis indicated that the use of evidential markers was quite low in both groups’ essays with only about (0.5) token per 1000 words for both genders of students as shown in Fig. (5).
This finding is compatible with the findings of Alsubhi’s (2016) study which revealed similarity in using evidentials between man and women writings. On the other hand, Davaei (2013) come to a conclusion that evidentials were the second frequent subcategory in discussion/conclusion section of articles written by male and female writers.

The low use of evidentials in both groups could be justified by considering the genre of text they were asked to write, opinion essay, that writers are not in imperative necessity to refer to other markers to express their opinions. Whereas other different genres such as research articles always have the need to use evidentials as sources to support their arguments.

F. Differences in Code Glosses

The results of the quantitative analysis regarding code glosses showed that male and female students showed a slightly different tendency in employing code glosses in their texts, as shown in Fig. 6.

The analysis showed that the mean of code glosses in male essays was (m= 2) while it was (m= 4) in the female students’ texts. The obtained result is in line with the findings of Pasaribu’s (2017) study, where male participants exceeded females in using interactive metadiscourse markers in EFL academic essays except for code glosses and evidentials in which female writers showed higher application. On the other hand, Tse and Hyland (2006) analysed male and female writers’ application of metadiscourse markers in academic books in three areas Philosophy, Biology, and Sociology. Although the general result indicated that the similarities were more than differences, there were some gender preferential uses of metadiscourse identified such as the female higher frequencies of transitions and code glosses. According to them, this finding suggests that being concerned with reader’s direct understanding of the text, female writers focus on using straightforward and explicit exposition in their writings (Tse & Hyland, 2006). This disagreement between the two studies can be justified by considering the genre and authors of the texts; two different genres of academic opinion essays written by undergraduates and opinion columns written by experienced columnists may not be the same in this case.

A Chi-Square test was run to determine the importance of male and female students’ different application of code glosses. Statistical results, as shown in Table (4), revealed that p-value is 0.031 < 0.05, Chi-square analysis also has revealed that the difference in code glosses employed by male and female students is enough to be significant.

| Table 4. RESULTS OF CHI-TEST OF FEMALE AND MALE STUDENTS’ USE OF CODE GLOSSES |
|------------------|----------|-----------|----------------|--------------------------|
|                  |          | Test Statistic | P-Value | N of valid cases | Level of Significance |
| P                 | df       |             |          |              |                  |
| 0.05              | 9        | 18.422       | 0.031    | 61            | 16.92             |

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Regarding the subcategories of code glosses, male students deployed a higher proportion of reformulation devices (11 times), whereas females tended to show a more frequent use of exemplification devices (33 times) than male students as in the examples below.

**Examples from Females’ essays**

"Here, we can take benefits from English literatures by translating known English plays *such as* Shakespeare’s."

"*For example,* Saudi airlines it is a good place to work in as translator."

**Examples from Males’ essays:**

"When you take your degree from languages and translation college you will be proficient in translation and literature. *That means* you can join education jobs or you can find jobs that need translation."

"This allows colleges’ graduates to be able to work in many fields such as business or media. *This means* that graduates of the college are not limit to specific jobs."

This result inclines with Pasaribu’s (2017) result which asserted that female students “were heavy users of examples.” (P.10.). Pasaribu’s research had multiple dimensions and much broader objectives and findings than the current paper, as it addressed the use of all meta-discourse markers by both genders. It concluded with overall equality between genders in using discourse markers. "... The study indicated that both groups share similarities, in which they employed more interactive markers than interactional markers. Both genders were heavy users of transition markers which help them connect ideas in the discourse..." (P.9). Hence, finding a female preference for using more ‘examples’ is not a substantial finding of the Pasaribu research to be used as evidence for the current findings.

A possible explanation of this result can be as follows: The females’ frequent use of code glosses suggests that they were able to provide additional information, by explaining, elaborating, exemplifying or rephrasing a stated idea, to clarify the intended message enough for the reader (Hyland, 2005). That could be attributed to the fact that women’s language is characterized by a supportive and cooperative style (Tannen, 1994). In other words, female students were inclined to reflect the reader-friendliness of their texts and to show a reader-oriented attitude wherever they felt that the reader might be facing difficulties in understanding a certain idea or to make sure that the reader grasps what the writer intended to get across by applying code glosses.

**V. CONCLUSION**

The major aim of the present study was to explore the influence of gender on the interactive metadiscourse choices of EFL male and female students by examining metadiscourse markers in a sample of academic essays. Through the analysis of subcategories of interactive metadiscourse markers in a corpus of (60) opinion essays written by Saudi EFL male and female students, it was found that there was a significant difference between the two genders in terms of making use of interactive metadiscourse markers namely transitions, frame markers, code glosses. On the other hand, the qualitative analysis showed that the nature of cultural, social and psychological composition of male and female students played a crucial role in determining the type and frequency of metadiscourse markers. Also, it was revealed that gender was not the only factor that affected the metadiscourse choice of male and female students. Some of other factors such as the cultural and genre-type factors might have huge influence on interactive metadiscourse marker employment. In other words, metadiscoursal choices are highly influenced by the discourse genre and the context.

For example, low application of evidentials and endophorics in the present study can be attributed to the genre-type of ‘opinion essays’ where writers write freely depending on their personal experiences to strengthen their claims. Opinion essay genre does not require citation and references from other resources as in scientific researches. According to Hyland (2005), citation tended to be a feature of hard-science knowledge. In some other genre-types, metadiscourse choices are heavily influenced by disciplinary considerations rather than gender (Hyland, 2012). For example, in Tse and Hylands’ (2008) study, female philosophers tended to use more interactive features than male and were particularly heavy users of transition markers. Whereas in Biology, the study reported broad gender differences as males used more transition markers.

Findings drawn from the present study hopefully can provide useful insights and important implications for interventionist methods to teach EFL learners to enhance their metadiscoursal proficiency and to use metadiscourse markers more effectively taking into account the effect of gender factor. Furthermore, the instruction of metadiscourse markers requires an investigation of variables affecting the acquisition of discourse markers, such as the explicit and implicit teaching of them and the effect of input enhancement and output tasks on their acquisition according to gender-type of the students.

Finally, researchers can expand upon the findings of this study through the following considerations:

- Similar studies may examine gender differences in using discourse markers in other types of essays and with students at varying levels of language proficiency, to obtain a more in-depth understanding of discourse markers use.
- Further studies could also examine larger samples to improve the generalizability of the present findings.

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Analysis of Fossilization Process of the Second Language Vocabulary from the Perspective of Memetics

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Abstract—Vocabulary acquisition is important in the second language acquisition research. Research shows that the fossilization of the second language exists generally. From the perspective of Memetics and according to the reason and process from different stages of the second language acquisition, this study helps learners to know vocabulary petrochemical causes and process more clearly, which can achieve better preventive action and improve learners’ learning efficiency.

Index Terms—memetics, the second language vocabulary, fossilization process

I. INTRODUCTION

When students learn second language, they usually have some language problems. For example, pronunciation with a strong accent, nasal /n/ and side sound /l/. These linguistic phenomena, which persist in learners’ interlanguage for a long time and are difficult to change, are described as fossilization. The concept of fossilization was first proposed by Selinker in 1972 for characterizing lack of grammatical development in second language learning. It is widely accepted as a key contribution of second language acquisition (SLA).

Based on the abundant studies on second language fossilization, the errors of fossilization can be categorized into phonological fossilization, lexical fossilization, syntactic fossilization and pragmatic fossilization. In this thesis, lexical fossilization will be explored among English majors’ oral English. Second Language vocabulary acquisition plays an important role in second language acquisition. Generally speaking, in the process of second language learning, with the improvement of the language level of second language learners and the increase of learners’ vocabulary, the vocabulary ability of learners should also be improved. However, the researchers found that the vocabulary ability of middle and senior second language learners developed to a certain extent slowly or stagnated, the emergence of vocabulary acquisition plateau (lexical acquisition plateau), that is, lexical fossilization.

There are several reasons why Chinese learners produce lexical fossilization in the following aspects:

A. Internal Causes

(1) The influence of the theory of “language acquisition mechanism”.
“Language acquisition mechanism,” theorists believe that there is a mechanism in the human brain that specializes in language acquisition. It can make the language knowledge of the external transmit through the ordinary grammar into the learners’ language ability. But this acquisition mechanism naturally disappears in puberty. According to this statement, a person’s transitional language after the age of 12 will be petrified before reaching the target language.

(2) Mother tongue transfer
Mother tongue migration is the transfer of language patterns or rules from the mother tongue to the application of the target language by foreign language learners, such as the word “chair” also means “chairman, speaker, university professor’s position” and so on, and “chair” in Chinese does not have these meanings.

B. External Causes

(1) The input quality of vocabulary learning is not high.
Krashen (1981) believes that learners must understand their existing level of language input with a slightly higher than they understood, that is after i+1, he can only be learned language.

(2) Impact of feedback
The feedback of teachers is not clear enough, the feedback itself is not informative and knowledgeable, and the learners’ feedback to teachers is divided into understanding and cognition, which is not conducive to learners correcting mistakes.

(3) Lack of intrinsic motivation for foreign language learning.
China has always been based on examination-oriented education. Learners under the pressure of the examination language learning often appear to be more passive. Over time, students gradually developed a fixed way of thinking and expression, and eventually developed into a petrochemical language form.
II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section, a review about the study on the lexical fossilization will be illustrated. The earliest study on lexical fossilization is reported in 1988, whereas Chinese study on lexical fossilization is much later.

The Hyltenstam (1988) study is the first case that dealt with lexical fossilization in the literature. His informants comprise 24 bilingual speakers: twelve in Finnish and Swedish and twelve in Spanish and Swedish, then twelve monolingual Swedish speakers serve as control group. All together, there are 36 informants. Both quantitative and qualitative analyses are taken. Quantitative measures like lexical density, lexical variation, and lexical sophistication are used to estimate lexical characteristic and quantitative measures like, lexical error analysis is used. In addition, the results show that as for the distribution of error types and the frequency of errors there are significant differences between the bilingual speakers and monolingual speakers. Thereby Hyltenstam draws the conclusion that the results have some bearing on fossilization.

According to Laufer’s (1998) one-year study, she finds that Israel High School students’ receptive vocabulary and controllable productive vocabulary developed very rapidly. However, their productive vocabulary does not increase at all. Moreover, the proportion of using low-frequency word is quite low in the written English and the complexity of vocabulary does not have an obvious progression as expected. Thus, she examines that the vocabulary plateau exist during the learning process of productive vocabulary. Paula Jullian (2000) has got the same conclusion. Based on her study of Spain High School English learners, she finds lexical acquisition plateau also happened among these students.

Many Chinese experts’ researches have also proved that the vocabulary will fossilize among Chinese English learners. Zhou Dajun and Wen Boyan (2000) have a four-year investigation, especially investigate the polytechnical learner’s vocabulary. The result is that the vocabulary size increase fast in the first two years of college study, while for the later two years it stops increasing. Thus, the vocabulary size of the graduate is just equal to the size that they have learnt in the first year.

Liu Shaolong’s (2001) research presents that the growth of vocabulary depth and that of breadth are not even. The acquisition of vocabulary breadth develops much faster that of the vocabulary depth. With the slow growth of vocabulary depth acquisition, the plateau phenomenon appeared.

Zhang Shujing (2003) investigates the English vocabulary reaction for part of the Chinese students. The results prove that many subjects do not have exact understanding of the words, and compared with the native speakers, their vocabulary knowledge still has a long way to go. Moreover, there is systemic gap between the second language psychological words and first language psychological words. It shows that the vocabulary knowledge structure of second language learner has problems, and quite amount of semantic relations have not been completely established between the first and second language, and cannot be regarded as fully acquired. This is just the strong evidence of what has been mentioned in the previous part, Jiang’s (2000) psychological analysis of lexical fossilization theory.

From the colligation and collocation perspective, Pu Jianzhong (2003) makes a research on the Chinese learner corpus and notices that the depth level of vocabulary among Chinese L2 learners is still at a low status. The authenticity and accuracy of vocabulary use are far from the standard level.

Cui Yanyang and Wang Tongshun’s study (2006) shows that during the research on the vocabulary process, there is no significant difference between the freshman and sophomore students, and between the junior and senior students. Yet there is obvious difference between the sophomore and junior student. Hence, they think that the lexical fossilization would happen twice, within the first two years and the last two years.

Wen Qiafang (2006) has undertaken a follow-up survey of Chinese English majors’ vocabulary changes in oral English. Through the analysis of speaking fluency, vocabulary’s diversity and the breadth of vocabulary frequency, she summarizes that the second and third year in college are the prime time for English majors’ vocabulary growth. It also proves the fossilization phenomenon does exist in the spoken language among Chinese English learners.

Yang Shideng (2007) reported a quantitative research on 125 English majors and got the conclusion that the productive vocabulary development under the L1 circumstances was different from that of the native speakers. The productive vocabulary does not grow linearly. Conversely, the development slows down year by year, which means that there is rapid growth in the first and second year. During the third and fourth year in college, the learning of productive vocabulary starts to fossilize. The senior stage of undergraduate study is a fossilized period for English majors.

III. LEXICAL FOSSILIZATION AND MEMETICS

From the perspective of memetic, this paper analyzes different stages of the second language acquisition in detail and then gives some suggestions to prevent the lexical fossilization. It’s able to improve learners’ learning efficiency. However, we should have some basic knowledge about lexical fossilization and memetics.

A. Lexical Fossilization

The concept of fossilization was first proposed by Larry Selinker, a famous American linguist, in Interlanguage (1972). Since then, linguistic circles, especially psycholinguistic circles, have begun to study fossilization. The Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics defines “fossilization” as “fossilization is a occurring process in the process of second language or foreign language learning, that is, incorrect linguistic features become a permanent or stable way of speaking or writing a language.” In second or foreign language learning,
fossilization occurs at all levels of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. For example, fossilization of pronunciation characteristics is the cause of learners’ foreign accent.

Vocabulary learning plays an important role in the whole second language acquisition. Academics generally believe that learners have a process of transforming receptive vocabulary into productive vocabulary in the process of improving their language level and vocabulary size. However, foreign language learners have more receptive vocabulary than productive vocabulary in quantity. However, the study finds that the vocabulary switching of language learners is not entirely the case. In the initial stage of foreign language learning, the acceptance of vocabulary is proportional to the output, while in the higher stage, the acceptance vocabulary can generally grow faster, but the productive vocabulary is not on the rise, but a relatively stable stagnation. The experimental studies of Wu Xudong and Chen Xiaoping (2000) and Laufer (1998) also fully prove this point. This shows that fossilization of productive vocabulary competence exists in foreign language learning, and it is also a common problem in the development of foreign language learners’ vocabulary competence.

Therefore, this paper will analyze the causes and processes of fossilization of vocabulary in second language acquisition from the perspective of Memetics and according to the different stages of memes, aiming at helping learners understand the causes and processes of fossilization of vocabulary more clearly, so as to achieve better preventive effect, reduce fossilization area and improve learners’ learning efficiency.

B. Memetics

Memetics is the study of information and culture based on an analogy with Darwinian evolution, exploring the concepts and transmission of memes in terms of an evolutionary model. Proponents describe memetics as an approach to evolutionary models of cultural information transfer. Critics regard memetics as a pseudoscience. Memetics describes how an idea can propagate successfully, but doesn’t necessarily imply a concept is factual. The term meme was coined in Richard Dawkins’ 1976 book The Selfish Gene, but Dawkin’s later distanced himself from the resulting field of study. Analogous to a gene, the meme was conceived as a “unit of culture” (an idea, belief, pattern of behaviour, etc.) which is “hosted” in the minds of one or more individuals, and which can reproduce itself in the sense of jumping from the mind of one person to the mind of another. Thus what would otherwise be regarded as one individual influencing another to adopt a belief is seen as an idea-replicator reproducing itself in a new host. As with genetics, particularly under a Dawkinsian interpretation, a meme’s success may be due to its contribution to the effectiveness of its host. Memes are transmitted through the human brain and are “a form of information that exists in one person’s memory and can be copied into another’s memory”. (Susan Blackmoor, 1999). The two main elements of meme are imitation and creation. Memes can exist as long as they are within the reach of people’s consciousness and thinking. Memes do not spread as accurately as genes do. They change according to people’s living habits and cultural differences. Blackmore pointed out: “There is a huge selection pressure in the evolution of memes, so there are not many potential memes that can survive. Only a few memes can be successfully copied from one person’s brain to another brain, from one person’s brain to print, or from one person’s voice. The memes we encounter in our lives are usually successful memes, that is, the ones that win in the competition for self-replication. These winning memes are called strong memes.” (Blackmore, 1999)

There are four steps of successful replication of memes: assimilation, memory, expression and transmission. In the assimilation stage, effective memes should have the ability to “sensitize” receptors and be noticed, contacted, understood and received by receptors. During the memory stage, memes can stay in the receptor’s mind. In the stage of expression, receptor’s memory memes can be externalized into physical shapes: text, pictures, behavior, story and so on. Memes in the stage of transmission have strong stability. They can be transmitted through books, photographs, artifacts, CD and other physical carriers to ensure that information does not lose and deform.

IV. ANALYSIS OF LEXICAL FOSSILIZATION FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF MEMETICS

From the perspective of Memetics and according to the different stages of memes, this paper analyses the causes and processes of fossilization of vocabulary in second language acquisition, which can help learners understand the causes and processes of fossilization of vocabulary more clearly, and reduce fossilization, then improve learners’ learning efficiency.

A. Assimilation Stage

For domestic second language learners, vocabulary learning is seemed as a key to learn language. Of course, in the process of recognizing English vocabulary, there are also some interesting words according to learners’ purposes and interests. For some students who have just come into contact with English, they would like to know how to express some things around them in English. Some naughty students often ask their English teacher how to say “I love you” and “I miss you” in English. Some students ask “cat” and “dog”. It is obvious that pupils are interested in words like “miss, cat and dog”. English learners of different grades have a certain interest in learning some different words. When they encounter the words they are interested in, they pay more attention to the words than other words. At the same time, they remember the words faster than other words. For most English learners, there exists the phenomenon of assimilation in their vocabulary learning. In the assimilation stage, fossilized vocabulary memory begins, and learners have a special fondness for the Chinese meaning of some words which are close to their own life. For example, when
learners see the words “hell” (shell, frame, surface, character, appearance), “lick” (lick, defeat, overcome, wave, tap, roll), they will be more impressed by the meaning of “shell” “lick” than other meanings.

B. Memory Stage

The lexical fossilization can be seen in Memory stage initially. When English learners memorize vocabulary, they usually memorize it according to their mother tongue system, which will form a “gap” and have certain limitations on the memory of English vocabulary. Everyone has different cultural backgrounds, living environment, living habits and so on. These factors are the main reasons for this “gap”. For example: the word “envy” means “envy” and “jealousy” in English, but “envy” and “jealousy” are antonyms in Chinese.

There are certain limitations on the memory of English vocabulary. Some words in English contain too many meanings, and if they are understood by their own native language system, there is no connection between them, which will cause memory impairment. For example, “volume” means three meaning in English, but in our mother tongue system, these three meanings are incompatible. It’s more difficult to remember it.

In the process of memory, if learners do not fully grasp their mother tongue, especially for some suspected similar words in their mother tongue, they can not fully understand and distinguish the main differences between them, which will lead to the difficulty of distinguishing English vocabulary. For example, when people need to express the meaning of “rabbit”, most people think of “rabbit”, but seldom think of “hare”.

Due to the inadequate understanding of English vocabulary, including English and American words with the same national meaning but different writing forms, it can also lead to memory deficiencies, such as the Chinese meaning of “corn” in English vocabulary for “corn” (American English) and “maize” (British English).

In addition, the imperfect compilation of textbooks is also a major reason. In the textbooks of elementary and junior middle schools, there are many words with multiple meanings that often give only part of the meaning. The learners’ memory of these words will only stay on that part of the meaning.

All these factors have certain hindrances to English vocabulary learning and greatly deepen the fossilization of vocabulary.

C. Expression Stage

The expression stage is the embodiment of fossilization. Expressions mainly refer to learners’ oral and written expressions, sometimes reflected in reading comprehension. Due to the fossilization of learners’ memory in the memory stage, learners maintain incomplete memory and understanding of vocabulary. When they express their Chinese meanings in English, it is difficult for them remember the words that have fossilized English words in their brains. Similarly, in reading comprehension, when learners encounter words they know and interpret the original text according to them, it is always difficult to understand the wishes and feelings expressed by the author, because their memory of the word has been fossilized. The meaning expressed by the author is not what the learner remembers, but may be another meaning of the word, and the meaning is just right. It’s something that learners don't remember. For example, “fry” in Chinese means “fry”, “fish seedlings”, “fish seedlings”, “small animals living together in groups”; “egg” in Chinese means “eggs”, “encouragement”, “incitement”; “fan” in Chinese means “fanatics”, “fans”, “fans”, “fans” and “blowers”.

Faced with these words, learners often remember several meanings in front of them. In the stage of expression, especially when translating one's mother tongue into English, because of the fossilization of similar words, learners usually think of words that are easy to come into contact with in learning when they want to express a special and subtle emotion. This greatly limits the learners’ ability to express language and makes it difficult for them to express their feelings vividly and touchingly.

D. Transmission Stage

Learners can express and transmit the language in transmission stage. The actors in this stage are mainly teachers and learners. In the normal teaching process, if teachers always use one meaning of a word to explain, fossilization of the word will gradually form in the students’ brain of course. If teachers always use their mother tongue to translate English, and do not interpret and distinguish their mother tongue from many kinds of English, learners’ vocabulary acquisition will be fossilized. In classroom interactive learning, some learners use words whose meanings have been fossilized to express their emotions, which can lead other learners to accentuate the fossilization of the words unconsciously.

V. STRATEGIES TO REDUCE FOSSILIZATION OF SECOND LANGUAGE VOCABULARY

We have analyzed the causes of lexical fossilization from the perspective of Memetics in detail, and here are some suggestions to lexical fossilization.

A. Rebuilding Cognitive Concepts in Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition

Nation (2001) holds that “knowing a word” means that learners must understand the morphology of the target word, the syntactic restrictions and collocations of the word, the pragmatic functions of the word and the meanings of many words, including spelling, pronunciation, syntax, word frequency, collocation, the restrictions on the use of the word and the distinction between receptive knowledge and productive knowledge of the target word. Richards (1976)
proposed that vocabulary competence includes eight aspects: (1) Native speakers’ grammatical competence will be relatively stable and change little in adulthood, but their vocabulary knowledge will continue to expand; (2) knowing a word means knowing the frequency of its occurrence in written or spoken language and often using it together with other words; (3) Clearly knowing that the use of the word is limited by its functions and occasions; (4) the syntactic behavior of the word; (5) the root of the word and derivative forms; (6) the semantic connection network between the word and other words; (7) the semantic value of the word; (8) the different meanings of the word. Therefore, in assimilating and memorizing second language vocabulary, we should not simply memorize the pronunciation, spelling and translation of a word, but pay attention to the development of vocabulary knowledge, comprehensively understand the content of vocabulary knowledge and rebuild the cognitive concept of second language vocabulary acquisition.

B. Making Full Use of Semantic Fields to Reduce Fossilization of Second Language Vocabulary

In linguistics, a semantic field is a group of words with related meanings. The words in a semantic field are usually part of a category, such as weather words or animal words. Linguistics generally agree that any given language has a finite number of semantic fields and sub-fields. For example, words like “aluminum”, “iron”, “nicke”, “l silver”, “cop-per”, “lead”, “tin”, and “gold” refer to a common concept “metal” and they are closely related in meaning. So they belong to the same semantic field. That is to say, in order to determine the meaning of a word, we must first compare the relationship between other words in the same semantic field and the position of the word in the semantic field (Wu Qianguang, 1988). When we acquire second language vocabulary, we put vocabulary into the semantic field to memorize, express and disseminate, and improve productive vocabulary by contacting a large number of meanings and collocations in the semantic field.

VI. CONCLUSION

Successful replication of memes generally goes through four stages: assimilation, memory, expression and dissemination. In assimilation stage, effective memes are noticed, touched, understood and received by the recipients, in memory stage, expression stage, memes are externalized into perceptible physical shapes, such as language, text, pictures, behavior, etc. Memes in communication stage have strong stability, ensuring that information is not lost and deformed.

Through a detailed analysis of the four stages of successful meme replication, this paper has proposed two strategies to effectively prevent lexical fossilization: Rebuilding cognitive concepts in second language vocabulary acquisition and making full use of semantic fields to reduce fossilization of second language vocabulary. It will help learners to understand the causes and processes of fossilization of vocabulary more clearly, so as to reduce lexical fossilization area and improve learners’ learning efficiency.

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Huan Gao was born in Shanxi, China in 1995. She is a second year postgraduate student in Shanxi Normal University and she will get her master degree next year.

She has been studying second language acquisition with her advisor for a long time, and has made some small progress. She has been awarded academic scholarship for two years and was awarded as an excellent graduate after finishing undergraduate courses. She also researches learners’ second language acquisition with a long period of time.

Gao holds that it’s her duty to make a contribution to second language acquisition.
Cultural Differences in Mulan between Chinese Version and Disney Version

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Abstract—This article puts Chinese Mulan and Disney Mulan's plots as the starting point, analyzes of the adaptation of the plots to show the different cultural significance given by different nationalities. The purpose of this paper is to research the cultural differences reflected in the films made by Hua Mulan in different countries. In this era of globalization, and in the face of different cultures, only by taking its essence and its dross will produce masterpieces that attract worldwide attention. There are indeed many cultural differences between the Chinese film Mulan and the American film Mulan. After analyzing the reasons for the differences, this study summarizes the enlightenment of these differences to cross-cultural research and shows some views.

Index Terms—cultural differences, collectivism, individualism, patriarchy and feminism, equality consciousness

I. INTRODUCTION

From ancient times to the present, the heroine Mulan has been using “Mulan Ci” in “Haw to reply Haw, Mulan as Household Weaving”. “I didn't hear the sound of the machine, but I heard the sigh of the woman”. The traditional image of ancient Chinese women exists in the hearts of every Chinese. In the American Disney animated film Mulan, it gives another interpretation of Hua Mulan and the whole heroic deeds from the perspective of Westerners. Disney has studied a large number of historical documents in order to produce "Mulan" with "Chinese flavor", and in the end, it presents us with the legendary story of Mulan and her well-known story, which is regarded as the closest to Chinese culture in the eyes of Westerners. “Men are superior to women and they defend their country, but daughters should obey the four virtues, pray for crickets, respect for ancestors, dragons and so on.” As a Chinese audience, they do not feel that these Chinese elements in the film are abrupt and difficult to accept, which shows Disney's sincerity. In spite of these, the collision of Chinese and Western cultures and values can be seen everywhere in the film. From the point of view of the cultural differences between China and the United States, this paper analyzes the differences between the two films by comparing the interpretation of the same theme of Mulan. In particular, this paper makes a comparative analysis of the plot and theme of Hua Mulan in the performance of the two films, so as to explore the cultural difference caused by it. Hua Mulan is a well-known heroine of the Chinese nation, first appeared in Mulan Ci. After the remake and production of the Disney Company, it presents a film and television masterpiece different from that recognized by Chinese nation. The film is Disney's first classic based on Chinese stories, adapted from the Chinese folk poetry, which successfully combines oriental stories with western culture. Hua Ying(2017) called it an example of the use of Chinese stories and Chinese elements in animated films.

A. Background Analysis of Mulan Film

During the Northern Wei Dynasty, the Rouran nationality of the northern nomads continued to harass the southern areas, and the regime of the Northern Wei Dynasty stipulated that each family had to send a man to go to the front. But Mulan's father was too old, frail and sickly to go to the battlefield, and his brother was still young, so Mulan decided to join the army for her father and began her more than ten years of military life. Going to the border to fight is a hard thing for many men at that time, but for Mulan, she has not only to hide her identity, but also has to kill the enemy with her friends, which is even more difficult than ordinary people who join the army. The good news is that Mulan finally completed her mission and returned home triumphantly decades later. Because of her meritorious service, the emperor pardoned her crime of deceiving the monarch and thought that she was capable of serving in the court. However, Hua Mulan refused because she had an old father to take care of and asked the emperor to allow him to return to his hometown to compensate and honor his parents.

B. An Introduction to the Characters of Mulan
Hua Mulan first appeared in the narrative poem *Mulan Ci* in the Northern and Southern Dynasties, which was written in the Northern Wei Dynasty and was originally included in the Ancient and Modern Music Records of Chen in the Southern Dynasty. The monk and wise master said in the Ancient and Modern Music Records: "Mulan is not known." It was more than 300 words long and was embellished by the literati of the Sui and Tang dynasties. Adam Key (2015) mentioned *Mulan Poetry* is a rare masterpiece in the history of Chinese poetry. It portrays for the first time the image of an immortal heroine who enlisted in the army for her father, which is both legendary and moving. Mulan is both a strange woman and an ordinary person, a heroine and a civilian girl, a vigorous warrior and a delicate daughter. She is industrious, kind-hearted, resolute, brave, honest, simple, alert and lively, besides, she loves relatives and serves the country, does not admire senior officials and loves peaceful life. Mulan has a heroic character and feminine characteristics. The kind and brave nature, calm wit and perseverance are the necessary connotation of Mulan's heroic character, also the infinite love and dedication to her parents even to the motherland is the greatest source of spiritual strength of her heroic character. At the same time, the whole poem is closely linked to "Mulan is a girl", from "not hearing my mother's voice calling a girl" to "Mulan does not need Shang Shu Lang", from "Mulan household weaving" to "wearing my old clothes", it has always maintained its feminine characteristics. Therefore, the image of Mulan is very real and touching.

II. AN ANALYSIS OF THE DIFFERENCES IN TWO VERSIONS

A. Different Reasons for Joining the Army

Whether it is the original text of *Mulan Ci* or the animated movie *Mulan*, the most direct reason for disguising as a man to join the army is that the father in the movie Mulan is old (the father in the movie Mulan still suffers from injuries). It is difficult to play the role of a normal soldier to resist the long journey to be made on foot of going south, and doing meritorious deeds and even joining the army itself is a meaningless act of death, and flowers as daughters are needed to join the army for their father. Although the most direct reason is the same, what is highlighted in *Mulan Ci* is "filial piety", which has always been respected by Chinese culture. Zheng Jiming (2018) holds the concept of "filial piety first" makes Mulan give up her female identity and play a warm-blooded man who protects his family and defends his country. In the movie *Mulan*, in addition to rescuing the father in trouble, flower self-consciousness is more prominent, which is a western concept. Hua Mulan, who disdained the "three from the four virtues" and the so-called "women's way" at that time, even could be said to be unorthodox at that time. From another point of view, Mulan's joining the army was a kind of exploration and awakening of self-consciousness.

B. Views and Attitudes towards Ancestors (Deceased People)

There has always been worship and respect for ancestors in the blood of the Chinese people, and they will also show a solemn attitude towards those who have passed away. This is our culture. Therefore, the images of ancestors rarely appear in Chinese film and television works, and even if they appear, they will be portrayed very seriously. In *Mulan* of Disney's version, the ancestors of the ancestral temple argue with each other in the state of their souls and make a lot of jokes, which shows that the attitude towards ancestors in Western culture is not as serious as that in Chinese culture. Michelle Anya Anjirbag (2018) holds it is an optimistic and not too taboo attitude, in other words, this is the difference in how Chinese and Western cultures treat death.

C. A Very Different Ending

In the Disney film *Mulan*, Mulan finally defeated the Xiongnu, declined the emperor's reward, returned to his hometown, and was married to Li Xiang. In this film, the protagonist goes through all the hardships and dangers and finally makes extraordinary honors and achievements, which is the realization of personal value. In the Chinese film *Mulan*, Mulan did not win the war. After being abandoned by the general, Mulan would have been completely defeated that had it not been for the timely mortgage of Prince Wentai. Finally, Mulan went to Xiongnu alone to rescue Wen Tai. For the sake of the overall situation and life, she sacrificed her personal happiness to let Wen Tai marry the Xiongnu princess in order to make friends and stop the war.

III. CULTURAL DIFFERENCES REFLECTED IN MULAN MOVIES

A. The Concept of Collectivism in China and the Individualism of Disney

The concept of collectivism in China advocates that individuals are subordinate to society and weaken their interests in order to be subordinate to groups, nationalities, countries and families. The most obvious is reflected in the Chinese concept of family. Every member of the family is closely related to the whole family. If a member does something wrong, the whole family should bear the burden. In the film, Hua Mulan, as a member of the family, in order to cater to her parents' wishes and the glory of the family, she gave up her dream and went against her will to join the imperial concubine election at the court. For her, whether she can be elected to the palace or not is closely related to the honor of her family. So when she lost the election, she felt ashamed to face her parents. "if I want to be myself, I will break my parents' hearts," she told herself. She decided to change herself for the sake of her family. Chinese collectivism is reflected not only in the concept of family, but also in the concept of "sacrificing the ego to achieve the greater oneself". 

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When Zen crossed the northern border of China, the army gathered to protect the emperor, but the emperor said, "No, please protect my people." Under such dangerous circumstances, the emperor thought that the safety of the people all over the world was more important than his own. When Mulan's father was named to join the army, although he was too old to join the army, he did not refuse and insisted on going to the border. For him, "this is a task to defend the country and family, and I will die without regrets." The American version of Mulan adds some American individualistic features. When the emperor heard the news of the Xiongnu attack, he ordered the general to post a recruitment notice throughout the city, and said: "Small soldiers can also make great achievements." The emperor's words show the importance of personal ability and strength. In the battle with Chanyu, Mulan saved the emperor, at this time Mulan's personal strength surpassed the others, which proved that the small soldiers mentioned by the emperor could also make great achievements. The layout of this plot highlights the individualism of the United States, American individualism believes that competition is more exciting than cooperation, and individual glory transcends collective glory. During the battle with Chanyu, Mulan did not follow the orders of the general, adhered to her own point of view and finally won the war. American individualism emphasizes the consciousness of "oneself", the individual will transcend the collective will, and believes that the individual has the right to fight for the protection of his private ownership and to adhere to his own views and beliefs. This cultural feature focuses on individual will and achievements and respects individual decision-making.

B. Right Distance (Concept of Hierarchy and Sense of Equality)

Although Chinese society has been influenced by American culture in some aspects in recent years, the influence of Confucianism on Chinese culture is innate, and the most prominent feature is the existence of the concept of hierarchism in Chinese family and society. China. As a "high-power" country, believes that people are born unequal. In the family, children should respect their parents and the elderly, and this kind of respect is not equal, but has upper and lower levels, and children should unconditionally accept the criticism and responsibilities of their parents, even if the parents are wrong. Parents have the right to interfere with their children's choices for the future. In the film, Mulan's parents did not discuss with Mulan and decided to sign Mulan up for election to the palace. Mulan went to run against her will in order to listen to her parents' arrangement. She knows that if she goes against her parents' wishes, it is unfilial, which is not desirable in traditional culture. In such a high-power country, superiors and subordinates have a relationship between upper and lower levels, so they are not an equal relationship. The higher a person's status, the higher his rights. When General Li Xiang asked to go to the battlefield, the prime minister refused his request and said, "The general is your father, but I am the prime minister in front of the emperor." The prime minister used the power of his superiors to reject Li Xiang's request and made him obey. But when the prime minister received an edict from the emperor asking Li Xiang to lead his troops to battle, although he did not want that result, he had to obey in front of the emperor's orders, because he knew that the power of the emperor was beyond him. Generals, prime ministers and emperors, each of them are at different levels, and their subordinates must be subordinate to their superiors. But the United States, a low-power country, advocates fairness and equality. Thomas Paine shouted in "Common sense" that all independent Americans are equal, and that there is an equal relationship between the people and the president. In the film, when Hua Mulan successfully rescued the emperor, the emperor bowed to her and Mulan gave the emperor a hug. The emperor is the superior, Mulan belongs to the subordinate, the superior bows to the subordinate and hugs, which is a kind of disregard for hierarchy and appreciation for equality. In Disney's Mulan, the emperor ordered Mulan and General Li to escort three princesses to Chigu to get married. On the way, Mulan chatted with the three princesses and finally became friends with the princess. In China, due to the influence of the concept of hierarchy, it is impossible for the princess to become friends with the guards. Equalitarianism is crucial in American culture. There is an equal relationship between parents and children, between superiors and subordinates, between teachers and students, and even between presidents and civilians. The Disney version of Mulan has a lot to do with the two major values of Americans: one is the civilian hero, and the other is the sense of equality. The concept of "civilian hero". The heroes in Disney's films are all common people, which can be said to be imperfect. This kind of characters satisfy people's desire and pursuit of heroes. In Mulan, Hua Mulan is in an ordinary home, but she finally becomes a heroine, which fully satisfies the aesthetic plot of the American audience. The concept of "sense of equality". The sense of equality is a basic value in the national values of American western culture. Under the idea that boys are preferred to daughters in ancient China, Mulan can join the army for her father and eventually become a heroine. Disney incorporated this idea of equality between men and women into the film, fully showing the equality of the people and strong national consciousness.

C. Male Chauvinism and Feminist Consciousness

Due to the different values and cultural backgrounds between China and the United States, the hierarchical relationship between men and women is different. China is deeply influenced by Confucianism, and the idea that men are superior to women is deeply rooted in traditional ideas. In ancient times, "a woman without talent is virtue". Because in the past, most Chinese thought that women were narrow-minded, short-sighted and unsuitable for education. A woman's mind and freedom are imprisoned like a foot-bound "three-inch golden lotus". "Zhou Li Tianguan nine concubines": "Nine concubines in charge of the law of gynecology, with nine teachings: women's virtue, women's words, women's appearance and women's meritorious service." China's influence on women has "three obedience and four virtues". Fu Jing (2014) believed the establishment of "three obedience and four virtues" is based on the principle
of "internal and external differences" and "men are superior to women", in order to adapt to the stability of patriarch. In the American Disney's Mulan, the image of Mulan makes Chinese viewers look both familiar and unfamiliar. In the eyes of the Chinese, Hua Mulan can not only weave cloth at home, but also kill the enemy and serve the country on the cold battlefield. She fully shows the form in addition to the little daughter peculiar to women in ancient China. After the end of the war, Mulan's mood is very happy and cheerful, the happy scene also shows that Mulan is eager to restore the strong desire of women. In Disney's Mulan, Hua Mulan is a girl who failed in blind date and love. She is not the traditional Chinese woman at all and joined the army in order to fulfill her filial piety. But the frank woman who wants to realize her value, thinking that women do not have to marry a wealthy family in order to win honor for their families, showing a strong American characteristics of equality between men and women.

D. Traditional Inheritance System and Free and Independent Culture

In ancient Chinese society, Xia Yu changed the Zen concession habit of the tribal alliance, passed the throne to his son Qi, and began the identity inheritance system of "father's death and son's succession", thus forming a political pattern of "family and the world". This pattern is to protect the special interests of the dominant social groups. The Shang Dynasty was an important period for the reform of the inheritance system. In the early Shang Dynasty, the inheritance system was dominated by "brothers and brothers", supplemented by "father and son", and then "father and son" gradually became the mainstream of the throne succession system. In the late Shang Dynasty, the throne succession system of "father and son" was completely established. In the Western Zhou Dynasty, the system of inheritance of the eldest son was carried out in terms of identity inheritance, which was the privilege of the aristocracy, and only the eldest son of the eldest son had the legal right of inheritance. The difference reflects the strictness of the identity inheritance system in ancient China. During the Spring and Autumn and warring States period, the inheritance system was quite chaotic, but from the general situation, the status of the "brother and brother" system went from bad to worse. After entering the warring States period, "father's death and son's succession" replaced the "brother's last brother and" system, and the patriarchal principle of "father's death and son's succession" and "the difference between the elder brother and the elder brother" was established. The identity inheritance of the Qin Dynasty followed the eldest son inheritance system of the Western Zhou Dynasty, which formed the basic principle of ancient identity inheritance, that is, the long-door long-grandson system. In special cases, there was also a designated inheritance system. The traditional impression given by the United States, especially this superpower, is freedom and independence. The freedom and independence of the United States is established in a strict legal system, and no other country can be as free and independent as the United States. The cultural infiltration of freedom and independence of the United States has permeated a short history of more than 200 years, also has trained generation after generation of free and independent American aspiring youth. Americans advocate freedom and independence, freedom because of independence, independence because of freedom. The United States has been advocating the idea of freedom and independence for nearly a hundred years, and it has been put into practice as the idea of being in power. There is no doubt that the American people advocate freedom and independence. In 1775, the United States broke out the War of Independence in order to resist the British economic policy, and issued the Declaration of Independence in 1776. One of the paragraphs fully reflects his yearning for freedom and independence. These words are as follows:

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their creator with certain unalienable rights, that they are among these are life and liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. we, therefore, the Representatives of the United States of America, In General Congress assembled, appealing to the supreme judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the same, and by authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, that these United States Colonies and Independent Colonies...

In the United States, people believe that the ideal of a better life can be achieved through unremitting efforts, that is, people must prosper through their own hard work, courage, creativity and determination, rather than relying on the assistance of specific social classes and others.

IV. CONCLUSION

Through the comparison of Chinese and American films, we can see that different cultures will have different interpretations of the same text, and will inadvertently add their own values in the process of interpretation. Taking mulan as an example, for Mulan, a traditional Chinese character, Disney localized its character and part of the plot on the premise of keeping its original plot, so that Mulan finally became a self-seeking Chinese girl who was also recognized by Western values. While the West is carrying out cultural transformation, China should also actively seek to take the lead in global development. If its own culture is completely allowed to be localized by other cultures, then cultural misreading, cultural aggression or cultural conflicts are inevitable. In the process of cultural exchange, the weak local culture should avoid being consciously flattered and externalized, and should reflect its own characteristics and cultural characteristics as much as possible. The cultural characteristics and cultural consciousness embodied in mulan provide us with a special perspective to better observe and analyze the cultural differences between China and the United States.
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The Role of the Experiment in the Study of the Language Material

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Abstract—The article deals with the role of the experiment in the study of the language material. As it is known the learning of voices is very difficult, and it requires great attention. In this case it is necessary to use the opportunities of experimental phonetics. It should be stressed that the role of experiment in the investigation of the language facts through experiment has long been proved. The author uses expedient to investigate the acoustic peculiarities of the language voices. The intonation is used to be closely related to the various emotions of a person in the speech acts. In recent years, the application of principles, conceptual schemes, ideas and concepts derived from psycho- and sociolinguistics and linguistic pragmatics in the field of intonation has become widespread. Intonation must be studied at the communicative level. Semantic categories expressed in intonation units usually refer to the communicative components of speech. In the grammatical structure of the sentence, they can correspond to the composition of any length. Accordingly, the "sphere of activity" of intonation units can have different components from word to sentence at the hierarchical level.

Index Terms—language, system, tone, experiment, frequency, length, material

I. INTRODUCTION

A characteristic of all living languages is that they are constantly changing. In order to follow all the processes that take place in language, to have an understanding of the origin, functions and essence of language, to be aware of the theories about language, it is necessary to read and analyze the works of many linguists and philosophers. This research aims at the above-mentioned goals. Due to the interest in modern linguistics, the number of researches in this field is increasing. One such study is related to the definition of the nature of language. Although there are different theories, concepts and opinions of scholars on the nature of language, it has not been possible to reach a consensus on this issue. The relevance of this topic chosen for the research is the study of the issue in English-language sources.

It is noteworthy to mention that the ambiguity of intonation is reflected in the multifaceted aspects of communication, which manifests itself in the form of a corresponding connection to the interactive discourse. The speaker’s choice of intonation should reflect not only the linguistic information but also the different shades of emotion. The following types of the intonation have been distinguished by D. Crystal: 1) emotional; 2) grammatical; 3) informational; 4) textual; 5) psychological, and 6) indexical.

To illustrate the importance of intonation in a language, consider the following examples:

/He is not driving to class tomorrow// (O, səhər dərsə maşınla getməyəcək).

1. If we put emphasis on the word /class/ in this sentence, then we can give information about what he will do and plan in the morning.
2. If we emphasize /driving/, the meaning will change completely. This emphasis draws our attention to the means of transport. That is, he will go to school in the morning, not by car, for example, by bicycle.
3. Now put the emphasis on /He [hi:] o (male g.). In this case, it is emphasized that the one who left was not another person, but he (the man).

It is noteworthy to mention that the meaning can be changed by emphasizing different words. It should be noted that the rising and falling tones also have such differences in meaning.

For example:
/I don't get too excited; I am not planning to walk you down the aisle// (I'm not too excited. I don't plan to spend you in the aisle).
/I do// (Me too)

The fact that this sentence is not a descending tonal shows that this idea is a simple truth.

Now let's use the sentence /I do// in another context:
"I do?" Don't be a fool, you know better than that!"

In this sentence “I do? (Me too?)” is said in a shield tone, and it is doubt, surprise, and so on. reports.

Let us look at the intonation patterns in the tag questions. Unlike other types of questions with a shield tone, the distinguishing questions ask the listener to confirm the answer and imitate the emphasis. /That is your wife, isn't she?// the pronunciation of this sentence shows that I am very sure that it is your wife there. Therefore, divisive questions are never asked in a shielded tone.
In general, it should be noted that intonation and its analysis have always attracted the attention of linguists. Difficulties and uncertainties in intonation have always been in the focus of linguists. The difficulties created by intonation are understood and accepted by the researcher as a means of accurately performing any pattern of intonation acquired by the researcher. However, none of this situation is considered a problem. This means that practical skills can be taught. Thus, most of them can be perceived by hearing, ie without any instrumental means. In addition, the lack of an appropriate instrument cannot be attributed to recent research. This shows that the problem of intonation is more theoretical than practical.

Studies have shown that there are many features that distinguish intonation from other prosodic features. Among these differences, the main and primary place is meaning. Other features, both prosodic and non-prosodic, have no meaning.

II. SCIENTIFIC NOVELTY OF THE RESEARCH

As is well known, research into the nature of language has been going on since ancient times. Although this issue is somewhat abstract, it is very interesting and controversial. Many books have been written on the subject, research has been conducted, and theories and concepts have been put forward. However, in general, the essence of language has not yet been finalized. With the exception of this research, no research has been conducted in our country on English language sources. The fact that the research was conducted using English-language sources made this work more authoritative. The analysis of the views on the definition of the essence of the language in this research work based on the material of the English language can be considered as a scientific novelty of this work.

III. DISCUSSION

According to the theory put forward by V. von Humboldt, the study of the form of language occupies a central place in the linguistic theory. Following W. von Humboldt, the American linguist U.D. Whitney also claims that the form of language occupies a central place in the linguistic theory. They are divided into two parts according to the form of the language: 1) the internal form and 2) the external form [Akhundov 1988, p. 166]. It does not matter whether the language is divided into internal or external forms because its purpose is to help a person to learn his/her own behavior and the behavior of others. Therefore, some linguists directly associate the form of language with thinking. Such linguists as V. von Humboldt, F. de Saussure, U.D. Whitney, N. Chomsky, F.Y. Veysalli and others can be mentioned. If we refer to F. Veysalli, it can be understood that the connection of language and thinking helps a person to open his soul [Veysalli 2010, p. 9].

Language and thinking are known to have a crucial role at every step of a person, for example, in the enrichment of his life activity, in the formation of his consciousness, in the change of his way of thinking, in his achievements and so on. N. Chomsky expresses the language like this: ‘Language is a competence and a means of realizing competence’ [Veysalli 2011, p.73]. Some linguists equate the means used by language for its own purposes with the technical means of language and divide them into two groups: phonetic means and mental means. The sound and the formation of the sound composition of words and word forms are phonetic means. In general, in the initial stage of speech, the one-phoneme stage, not the morpheme, should be considered the initial stage. Basing on the opinion of F.Y. Veysalli 3 types of languages can be distinguished:

The III type of the language. The first speech sound could be specific to the next stage of human activity. Studies show that in the first few people it may be the sounds they make when they pass out after a hard day’s work.

The II type of the language. The efforts of various sciences (linguistics, zoopsychology, child psychology, etc.) show that human initial speech is very simple, and human language is made up of some meaningful units that are divided into components.

The I type of the language. This language consists of acoustic images that can be divided into components. The second and third types are very simple, while the first type is a more organized language and can be divided into both phonemes and morphemes [Veysalli 2010, p. 109].

In his book named “Language” L. Bloomfield describes the language like the following: “...linguistics should always proceed from the phonetic form, not from the form of meaning” [Bloomfield 1933, p. 162]. I.A. Baudouin de Courtenay also expressed his way of thinking about the language. He writes in his article named "Humanization of language": "Language sounds are formed, interacting with each other and characterized by a certain sequence" [Veysalli 1993, p. 21]. I.A. Baudouin de Courtenay distinguishes three aspects of the language: phonation - speech, pronunciation of sounds; auditory - hearing, comprehension of what is said; cerebration - protection, preservation, consideration of everything related to language, thinking [Veysalli 1993, p. 21]. F. de Saussure’s views on the language are also observed to be interesting. He describes the language as following: "Language is a system regulated in all its internal parts; it depends on the object it expresses, but it is free and is conditional (arbitrary) in relation to the object" [Saussure 2003, p.112]. He writes as well: "Language is a system of signs, in this system the connection of sound with meaning is important, and both sides of these signs are equally psychological” [Saussure 2003, p. 18]. He expresses this with the French term langue. This system is opposed to the term speech password, the two are collectively referred to as
language, which corresponds to the expression of linguistic activity in our language. The encounter of F. de Saussure's language, speech and language activity can be seen more clearly in the following scheme [Saussure 2003, p. 23]:

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Language activity
  (thinking, sounding, hearing, understanding)
  (language)  
  parole

Language as a system
  (langue)
  speech

synchronous maintenance

diachronic maintenance

A. Blokh writes about the language: ‘Language is a system of sound symbols, with the help of which a social group acts together’ [Blokh 1945, p. 5]. According to E. Cassirer, “language is neither a mechanism nor an organism, nor a living thing, nor a dead thing. A physical object is understood under this term. This is not a thing at all” [Blokh 1945, p. 30]. V. von Humboldt’s definition of language is more valid: ‘... language is not ergon, it is energy’ [Veysalli 1993, p. 30]. In ‘An Introduction to Language’ by V. Fromkin and R. Rodman, language is “... not just a collection of words. ... we cannot create meaning by arranging words in sequence. Language consists of sounds, words, and possible sentences. Knowing our language means that we also know the sounds, words and their combination rules in that language” [Victoria, Robert 1993, p. 11].

A. Akhundov, the Azerbaijan linguist can be given as an example who is known to be closely involved in the essence of the language. He answers the question: ‘What is the language?’ ‘Language is a social phenomenon. ... language, which is the wealth of the masses, is the only means of expression for them’ [Akhundov 1988, p. 75]. Considering the above, we can generalize the language like the following: language is a system, a set of rules necessary for the development of certain units; language is arbitrary, there is no direct connection between what is expressed and what is expressed; language consists of sounds, they arise from those sounds, they are pronounced and heard; language is symbolic; language is the carrier of thought, people express their thoughts in language [Rajabov 1987, p. 31].

According to F.Y. Veysalli, “… language is a very complex and at the same time multifaceted institution” [Veysalli 1993, p. 95]. It is both an individual and a collection of society, and in a sense an abstract being. Therefore, the role of language in speech and hearing, which is one of the important aspects for the existence of human language, is great. This means that language should be accepted as a leading tool in the communication process. Language acts as a means of communication because language units are realized, coded and accepted by a man. Listening plays a leading role in the language communication as well as speaking. Depending on the strength and frequency of the sound, air waves enter the listener’s ear, become a mechanical process, reach the nerves, and the nerves create arousal in the same auditory center. Thus, the transmitted information is understood and the communicative function of language is fulfilled. In the communication model, 4 components must be distinguished from each other: the linguistic base of communication; articulatory base of communication; acoustic communication base; perceptual base of communication [Veysalli 1993, p. 96].

The language of each dialect and individual must be studied separately. It is possible to search for similar or different acoustic images through our observations in the speech of each individual [Bloomfield 1933, p. 73].

From an acoustic point of view, the structure of language sounds is very complex. Every sound must be pronounced and heard because it is born out of the need to say something to someone [Bloomfield 1933, p. 186]. For this, it must have certain acoustic features. Speech signals used in the acoustic structure form the basis of speech. This is due to the vibration of the vocal cords that are pronounced and transmitted. The sound should be pronounced in such a way that the person to whom the information is sent can hear and understand it in the required form. Sound propagation depends on the strength of the air pressure, climate and space. According to calculations, the speed of sound in 11° air is 331 m per second [Bloomfield 193, p.186]. During sounding, the sounds produced by repetitive waves are periodic (this includes vowels), and the sounds produced by irregular waves are non-periodic (including sonorous and ringing consonants). The first group includes musical or tonal sounds, and the second group includes sounds made from a mixture of tones and noise.

IV. THE EXPERIMENT AND ITS RESULTS

Learning sounds is a job that requires a lot of attention and effort. In this case, it is necessary to use the possibilities of experimental phonetics, which has already been confirmed as an exact science. It should be noted that the role of experimental phonetics in the explanation of linguistic facts were proven many years ago. The advantage of the experiment was also noted by L.V. Sherba. He writes: “I have known for a long time that it is impossible to reveal the meaning of the personal form of a verb through personal observation, for example, in Russian. My linguistic ideas are always based on language materials and linguistic facts obtained from experiments” [10, p. 167].

Unlike intonation, other prosodic features mainly serve to define the meanings of different linguistic units. For example, accents and tones, which are considered to be such features, can perform different phonological functions. Thus, emphasis has functions such as distinguishing, height, demarcation, and so on. However, it is a fact that although they share segmental characteristics, they do not make sense in isolation. This fact distinguishes intonation from them. For example, what the speaker says in a descending tone means "completeness, integrity." The shield tone means "question" or "incompleteness". The following can illustrate the mentioned facts:
These examples show that intonation has a different meaning than other prosodic features. However, we wanted to emphasize that the main meaning of intonation patterns is hidden. They are defined accordingly in a broader discourse function depending on the propositional content of the sentence. Due to these features, intonation patterns mainly reflect the "emotion" or "attitude" of the speaker rather than grammatical functions and categories. Therefore, many scholars conclude that intonation patterns are more natural and universal than free and specific. One of the main features of intonation that distinguishes it from other prosodic or other linguistic features in general is that the difference they identify is not discrete, but gradual. For example, descending intonation may fall from different heights and from different distances. In this case, no clear division between discrete divisions and forms can be determined. In addition, these differences have the power to affect the parallel degree of meaning. True, according to some scholars, language differences can be identified in a basic discrete way. However, these scientists do not accept the gradient mentioned above. Accordingly, the formation of the status of intonation as a "language" phenomenon is questionable. This suggests that neither the phonetic nor the functional features of intonation suggest that it is a true linguistic phenomenon.

D. Bolinger wrote about this in his article "Beyond the tongue". It has been found that intonation has similarities and similarities with other paralinguistic features (eg, screaming, calling, shouting, etc.), as well as with gestures. It is true that A. Martine does not include intonation in the definition of language. Thus, according to this scientist, the main principle that defines the language of intonation is "double articulation". According to this principle, meaning mediates or creates a connection between intonation and form. But, as mentioned above, meaning is expressed directly through intonation. A. Martine believes that due to these facts, intonation cannot be included in the definition of language. This idea can also lead to the isolation of intonation in linguistics. But we cannot agree with this opinion. Almost all intonation differences are a sign of degree. They are considered categorical units showing high and low transmission, ascent and descent, and other phonetic differences. Furthermore, as noted above, not all intonation meanings are related to "feelings" or "attitudes." Thus, the transmission feature does not always have a "natural" and universal meaning. This feature varies from language to language. It is also clear that although some aspects of intonation are left out of the language, other aspects of it are included in the language. According to many linguists, these difficulties in the sense of "intonation" are reflected in its terminology. Thus, according to some scholars, intonation reflects both "linguistic" and paralinguistic features. We can conclude that our main goal is to determine whether aspects of intonation are "linguistic" and "non-linguistic." It is unfortunate that, as noted above, scholars are divided on this issue.

Each sound requires a certain amount of time to pronounce. The acoustic appearance of the speaker is based on three parameters: tone, intensity, time. Each of these parameters allows us to correctly determine the acoustic aspects of communication. The experiment can be considered successful by accurately determining the acoustic aspects of vowel sounds.

In English /My mother was too dry to answer/ and /You always know when he is happy/ The intonation contour of the sentences was determined on the basis of the values of the acoustic parameters of the sentences. The obtained acoustic indicators are given in the table and a graph is drawn on their basis.

/My mother was too dry to answer/  
/You always know when he is happy/  

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<td>170</td>
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The intonation contour of the sentence /My mother was too dry to answer/ and the values of the main tone frequency indicate that the exhaustion intonation has taken place.

While the average tone frequency of vowels in a sentence is 139 hs, in the end the basic tone frequency is much lower than the average tone frequency. For example, at the end of a sentence, the main tone frequency is 110 hs. The interval difference in the sentence is 29hs. However, at the beginning of the sentence, the melodicity is 145-190hs higher than the average tone register. The peak of melodicity in the sentence is recorded in the second syllable at 190hs,
which is completely typical for the intonation contour of the translated sentences (see: table 1, gr. 2). Analysis of the time parameter shows that it differs from the values of the melodic parameter. The average pronunciation rate based on absolute values is 113 m/s. However, there is a slowing down of the pronunciation temp towards the end of the sentence length values. The absolute length of the vowel /a/ in the last syllable of the sentence is 95 m/sec. The increase in the values of the time parameter towards the end indicates the intonation of exhaustion. Analysis of the intensity of the sentence shows its weakening direction. The average intensity is 68 db. At the beginning of the sentence, the amplitudes are 74-75 db, and the intensity in the last syllable is 59 db. The interval difference in intensity values is 6 db. (see: table 1, gr. 1).

GRAPHIC 1.

/You always know when he is happy// The average tone frequency of vowels in the analyzed sentence the mentioned sentence is 148 hs.

At the end of the sentence, the melodic performance is much lower than its average tone frequency. This is 148 hs: 118 hs. The interval difference between the melodic indicators is 30 hs. At the beginning of the sentence the melodicity is much higher than the average tone register - 170-182 hs. The peak of melodicity in the sentence is 182 hs in the third syllable. The results obtained are typical for the intonation contour of the sentences (see: table 2, graph 2). Analysis of temporal indicators reveals that it differs from the values of the melodic parameter. The average pronunciation speed in the sentence is 104 m/s. Towards the end of a sentence, the pronunciation slows down, which is natural for metaphorical sentences. The absolute lengths of /æ/ and /ə/ in the last syllables of the sentence are 106-112 m/sec. The increase of the values of the time parameter towards the end is an indicator of exhaustion intonation. The intensity of the sentence indicates that it is in a weakening direction. The average intensity in the analyzed sentence is 67 db. The intensity at the beginning of the sentence is 73-77 db, and the intensity in the last syllable is 56 db. The interval difference in intensity values is 21 db. Based on the results of the oscillographic analysis, it indicates the realization of the intonation of exhaustion in the analyzed sentence.

REFERENCES


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She has been working at the department of English Grammar of Azerbaijan University of Languages since 1996. She has obtained her Ph.D. in Philology on the thesis under the title “Experimental-Phonetic analysis of Discourse intonation (on the materials of the English and the Azerbaijani languages)”. She is the associate professor of Azerbaijan University of Languages. Her research fields are known to be Grammar of the English language, general linguistics, comparative-historical and comparative-typological linguistics.

Her published textbooks and manuals are the following:

She is the author of nearly 70 scientific articles.
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Theory and Practice in Language Studies (TPLS) is a peer-reviewed international journal dedicated to promoting scholarly exchange among teachers and researchers in the field of language studies. The journal is published monthly.

TPLS carries original, full-length articles and short research notes that reflect the latest developments and advances in both theoretical and practical aspects of language teaching and learning. We particularly encourage articles that share an interdisciplinary orientation, articles that bridge the gap between theory and practice, and articles in new and emerging areas of research that reflect the challenges faced today.

Areas of interest include: language education, language teaching methodologies, language acquisition, bilingualism, literacy, language representation, language assessment, language education policies, applied linguistics, as well as language studies and other related disciplines: psychology, linguistics, pragmatics, cognitive science, neuroscience, ethnography, sociolinguistics, sociology, and anthropology, literature, phonetics, phonology, and morphology.

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Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 15 to 30 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

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- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
  - Submission of extended version
  - Notification of acceptance
  - Final submission due
  - Time to deliver final package to the publisher

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