Journal of Language Teaching and Research

Contents

Strategies to Motivate Children to Engage in Leisure Reading: Qualitative Insights from Nigerian Children

Isang U. Awah

Department of Social Policy and Intervention, University of Oxford, Oxford, United Kingdom

Abstract—Some research done in the Western world indicates that children's reading engagement is affected by certain factors and that children can be impacted in such a way that they will choose to engage in leisure reading. This paper, which arises from a study that explored the reading habits of a group of 9-12-year-olds in a book club in Nigeria, examines the factors that affected the reading engagement of the participants and suggests evidence-based strategies that could motivate children to engage in leisure reading. Through an interpretivist theoretical perspective, the study gathered data using the methods of collage making, observation, questionnaire, and interviews, and analysed them through inductive thematic analysis. Findings indicate that the participants read for pleasure, though their level of reading engagement differed. Findings also reveal that the reading engagement of all the participants may have been, in varying degrees, influenced by different factors such as the pedagogy of reading, access to reading materials, the reading environment, and the availability of social networks that support leisure reading. Insights from the study could guide on practices that strengthen children's engagement in leisure reading.

Index Terms—children's leisure reading, affecting factors, motivating strategies, reading engagement, Nigerian children

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper reports on the factors that affected the reading habits of a group of 9–12-year olds in a book club in Nigeria and also suggest evidence-based strategies that could motivate children to engage in leisure reading. It arises from a qualitative study which explored the extent to which the children read; how, what, when and why they read when they did leisure reading at home, in school and the book club; and the different factors that affected their reading motivation and reading engagement. 'Leisure reading', used here interchangeably with 'recreational reading' and 'reading for pleasure', is the volitional act of reading that is undertaken by individuals and groups because of the feeling of enjoyment or satisfaction that they get from the act (Cremin, Mottram, Collins, Powell, & Safford, 2014), and 'reading' in this paper primarily refers to 'leisure reading'. Some studies have linked the poor educational outcomes in Nigeria to the reading habits of Nigerian children and argued that the children do not engage in leisure reading. However, there has been no in-depth investigation of either the extent to which Nigerian children read or the different factors that impact on their reading habits. This study therefore addressed these gaps. While this paper will briefly discuss the extent to which the participants read, its focus will be on the different factors that affected the participants' reading engagement and the strategies that could be used to motivate Nigerian children to read. It will also examine the relevance of factors identified by studies in the United States and the United Kingdom to the participants' reading habits. This paper was previously published in a conference proceeding as "'We Love Reading, But...': Nigerian Children on Factors that Affect Their Reading Habits" with DOI: 10.36315/2019v2end035, but has been substantially revised with expansions of key ideas, examples, and elaborations.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Nigeria, which has an estimated population of over 200 million people, is Africa's most populous country (Data World Bank, 2020). However, about half of the country's population live below the poverty line (Data World Bank, 2016), and in the past decades, student achievement has been repeatedly low (Adesulu, 2018; World Bank Report No: 115391-NG, 2017). The absence of a reading culture, i.e. regular engagement in leisure reading, is often cited as being responsible for the low student achievement in Nigeria (Ihejirika, 2014; Makinde, 2018), and educationists have made repeated calls for the promotion of recreational reading in Nigerian children and youths (Adesulu, 2016; Adekunle, 2017).

Some studies in Nigeria support the argument that Nigerian students have a poor reading culture (Olasehinde, Akanmode, Alaiyemola, & Babatunde, 2015; Tunde-Awe, 2014). Sotiloye and Bodunde (2018) argue that most students only read to pass examinations and hardly engage in any reading outside school books. However, other studies suggest that the claims that Nigerian students have a poor reading culture may be inaccurate (Haliru Abdulkarim,

Mohammed & Dangani, 2015; Aramide, 2015), but these contradict Oyewusi and Ayanlola's (2014) findings that most students preferred to read for pleasure than for academic purposes. While these studies differ in their findings, most of them seem to emphasise the positive relationship between a reading culture and academic performance. This is not unusual as research suggests a strong link between leisure reading and student achievement.

Recurring evidence indicates that leisure reading offers many benefits including a positive impact on academic achievement (Sullivan & Brown, 2015), reading proficiency (Clark, 2013), increased general knowledge (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1998), vocabulary development (Chew & Krashen, 2017), writing ability (Barrs & Cork, 2001; Parry & Taylor, 2018), children's attainment and their attitudes to reading (Cremin *et al.*, 2014), and positive emotional and social consequences (Mar, Oatley, & Peterson, 2009). In addition to providing pleasure, reading literature helps in cultivating imagination (Cliff Hodges, 2010a; Cremin, 2015).

Despite the benefits that leisure reading offers, many children and adolescents who can read are not engaged readers (Mullis, Martin, Kennedy, & Foy, 2007). This is not altogether surprising as studies carried out in Western countries suggest that children's engagement with leisure reading is influenced by many factors, some of which are the methods of teaching literature in school (Rosenblatt, 1978/1994), choice of texts (Clark & Phythian-Sence, 2008), and reading aloud (Layne, 2015; Cremin *et al.*, 2014). Rosenblatt (1978/1994) argues that if a literature text is introduced to children with a question on what they learn from the text, the children will adopt an efferent, fact-accumulating attitude when reading the text, and may likely not derive pleasure in reading the text. On the other hand, when reading is done for the sheer pleasure that it gives and nothing is expected of the child except to enjoy the stories, the child is likely to associate reading with pleasure and engage in it repeatedly (Pennac, 2006; Gordon, 2018).

Although leisure reading is a choice, children can be impacted in such a way that they will more likely than not make the choice to read (Cremin *et al*., 2014; Layne, 2009). For instance, allowing children and young people to choose or self-select what they read leads to a positive attitude towards reading and accordingly, better engagement in, and enjoyment of leisure reading (Clark & Phythian-Sence, 2008; Cremin, 2007). It is also important to recognise and respect the range of reading that children engage in as many young readers are disempowered and inhibited in their development as habitual readers due to school definitions of literacy (Coles & Hall, 2002; Manresa, 2018). Though choice and interest empower and positively influence children to read, the choice could have a negative impact if it is provided haphazardly (Clark & Phythian-Sence, 2008).

Another factor identified to impact children's reading engagement is reading aloud (Cremin *et al.*, 2014, Lockwood, 2008). When teachers read aloud to their students, they instil a love of reading in the students, and the students are likely to get hooked on books as they associate reading with pleasure (Layne, 2009, 2015; Cliff Hodges, 2011). However, despite the possible benefits, reading aloud also has the potential to bore children and take away the pleasure from reading if the book seems never-ending and requires memory for descriptive detail rather than for plot-filled action (Chambers, 1993).

Other factors revealed to play a critical role in leisure reading are access to engaging and suitably challenging texts, an enabling adult, the reading environment, and social networks that support leisure reading. Suitable texts must be available and accessible to children when they want to read them (Chambers, 1991; Clark & Douglas, 2011). Chambers (1991) also argues on the importance of the reading environment which he describes as being made up of the place (setting), the availability of books, time available for reading, interruptions the reader may experience, the mood of the reader, and the attitude of the reader. According to him, the reading environment greatly influences the reader's experience of reading. The argument for the right setting is supported by Layne (2009) and Cremin *et al*. (2014).

A child's reading engagement can also be positively influenced by the presence of an enabling adult, that is, an adult who loves books and recreational reading, knows children's literature, discusses books regularly with the child in a manner the child finds engaging and appealing, knows the child's reading tastes, suggests suitable and engaging books to the child, and reads aloud to the child (Layne, 2009, 2015). Studies on successful literacy achievement often appear to feature either a teacher or a parent (Cremin *et al.*, 2014). The positive impact of an enabling adult on a child's reading engagement is strongly supported by Klauda (2009) and Cliff Hodges (2010b).

In addition to the factors discussed above, social networks and affordances that support children's leisure reading such as libraries and literary programmes have also been identified to play a major role in nurturing children's love for reading and their development of a reading culture (Campbell-Hicks, 2016; Adkins & Brendler, 2015). Reading motivation is as much intrinsic as it is contextual, and having networks and affordances that support leisure reading can motivate young adolescents to read (Loh, Ellis, Paculdar & Wan, 2017; Francois, 2015).

Some reading-related studies in Nigeria have suggested that Nigerian children's reading habits are affected by factors such as a minimal experience of print immersion, absence of collaboration between the home and school in the provision of reading empowerment for the child, a hostile examination system, and the imposition of an ill-motivated and ill-equipped reading teacher (Onukaogu, 2001); the lack of intrinsic motivation for reading, lack of choice of what to read, negative attitude to reading, and competing activities (Ilogho & Michael-Onuoha, 2015); the escalating level of poverty, a growing culture of TV viewership, unidentified dyslexics (Okebukola, 2005), and shortage of reading materials, a dearth of libraries, internet usage, and lack of encouragement from parents (Olasehinde *et al.*, 2015). However, there appears to be no in-depth investigation of the factors that affect the reading engagement of Nigerian children. Additionally, the reading-related studies carried out in Nigeria had participants who were students in either

secondary or tertiary institutions. Hence, there is a need for an in-depth study of the factors that affect the leisure reading practices of primary school children in Nigeria. Addressing this gap is important as studies indicate that primary and elementary years are critical periods in the formation of lifelong reading habits (Cullinan, 2000; Cunningham & Stanovich, 1998).

This study, therefore, explored reading for pleasure done by a group of 9–12-year-olds in a book club in Nigeria to shed light on the children's reading habits and the factors that affected their reading engagement. However, this paper shall majorly discuss the factors that affected the participants' reading engagement and shall suggest strategies that could be used to motivate children to read.

III. THEORETICAL APPROACH, METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

A. Theoretical Approach

The epistemological stance that this study was based on is constructionism. Constructionism holds that all knowledge is contingent upon human practices, and is constructed in and out of the interaction between human beings and their world, and also developed and spread in an essentially social context (Crotty, 1998). Based on the exploratory nature of the research and the constructionist epistemological stance, an interpretivist theoretical perspective was adopted. This perspective encourages the researcher to recognise data as text to be interpreted. Also, individual participants interpreted their engagement with reading for pleasure and the factors surrounding it based on their personal experiences, and the understanding of the participant's engagement with reading for pleasure came from the interactions with them and the data they provided.

B. Methodology

The methodology used was a case study. The case or unit of analysis for this study was the Krown Book Club (KBC) in Nigeria, and the main participants were the 9–12-year-olds that attended KBC during two different vacation periods in 2017. A few participants were slightly outside the age range. The research was carried out in a book club rather than in a primary school because the researcher wanted participants who were likely to be readers. Attendance at KBC is based on paid registration which may be done weekly or monthly, and the monthly cost of registration for a child would be the equivalent of about 20 per cent of the monthly salary of an average middle-income person in Nigeria. That means the children who attend the KBC were from high-income homes. There were fifteen participants in the study, seven boys and eight girls, and they all attended different private, fee-paying schools. Secondary participants who contributed to the study were 15 parents representing each child as well as three staff members of the book club.

C. Methods

Data were gathered through the qualitative methods of creating visual images (collage-making), observation, questionnaire and interview; secondary participants provided data only through questionnaire. Details of the different methods are below.

(1) Collage-making

This method was inspired by the 'critical incidents' collage-making used by Cliff Hodges (2010b) in her study of 12-13-year-old readers. The purpose of collage-making was to find out the extent to which the participants had engaged in leisure reading in the past year. It required participants using cut-out coloured papers to create a collage of their leisure time activities in the past year. Participants drew a river on white cardboard and divided the river into six sections that represented the three school terms and the three holidays in a year, with a holiday section coming after a school term section. Following a guide (Figure 1) which showed what activity each colour represented, participants pasted on each section cut-out coloured papers that indicated both the activities they had spent time on and the amount of time they believed they had spent on the activity.

Figure 1: Activities for the Collage and their Assigned Colours

Thus, the more time a participant spent on a particular activity, the more the activity's assigned coloured paper featured on the participant's collage.

(2) Observation

Physical space could affect children's attitudes to reading (Loh, 2015) and strategies such as making books visible and creating programmes to excite readers encourage reading (Loh *et al.*, 2017). Observation was used to identify details of the book club, the reading environment it provided, the network of resources that support reading it offered, and to determine how much the physical space of the book club enhanced the participants' engagement with leisure reading. The observations were written down as fieldnotes.

(3) Questionnaire

The study employed a qualitative questionnaire to generate data from participants, their parents and the staff of KBC, therefore three different questionnaires were designed and administered. The questionnaires generated data on the participants' reading habits including the extent to which they read, their reading behaviours, attitudes to reading, estimates of their reading frequencies, books read, out-of-school activities, and the influence of the participants' home environments and KBC on the children's reading habits.

(4) Interview

The forms of interview used were face-to-face semi-structured group interviews and semi-structured individual interviews. The interview schedules had both open-ended and close-ended questions which explored the reading habits of the participants; how what, when and why they read when they read at KBC, at home and in their schools; and the different factors that affected the reading engagement of the participants; and what reading-supporting social networks were available to the participants. The length of the interviews varied, with most lasting for between 30 and 40 minutes. To ensure a range of views, each group interview had between five and seven participants.

D. Data Analysis

The collages were analysed in terms of the activities represented by the colour-coded papers. This involved counting the total number of paper pieces on each collage and the number of each of the different coloured paper pieces on the collage, and then working out the percentage of the collage that each colour represented. Analysis of the collages was converted into texts. All the interviews were fully transcribed and data from questionnaires and observation were fully written up. All the data were analysed through inductive thematic analysis following Braun & Clarke's (2006) guide to doing thematic analysis. The data was repeatedly looked through for familiarisation, the data sets were broken into smaller units, and each unit was carefully reviewed several times to generate codes. The codes generated were relevant to the research questions and were sorted and collated into themes which were carefully reviewed to see what story they told about the data. Cross-case analysis was also done to identify recurring themes as well as note differences in the different data.

IV. RESULTS

Findings from the data indicate that the participants read for pleasure, though their level of engagement with reading for pleasure differed. The findings also reveal that to varying degrees, the reading engagement of all the participants was affected by different factors.

A. The Extent to Which the Children Read

The collages of the participants, some of which are Figures 2, 3, 4 and 5 below, reveal that all the participants did leisure reading, but differed in the extent to which they read. In the collages, leisure reading is represented by the yellow colour:

Figure 2: Shehu's collage   Figure 3: Jide's collage

Figure 4: Zara's collage   Figure 5: Jane's collage

Data from observation, interview and questionnaire also indicate that the participants had a range of reading engagement and attitudes. Some of the children were engaged readers who read a lot, the majority of participants read moderately, and a few read minimally. Most participants spent about 30 minutes reading each time they read, a few read for a longer period, while others read for a much shorter time. Some participants only read printed materials, but most of them read printed as well as electronic materials, and a few listened to audiobooks in addition to reading both printed and electronic materials. The popular reading materials read included fiction, comics, crime and detective books, adventure books, and factual books. Some of the favourite authors for these children included Jeff Kinney, R. L. Stine, Geronimo Stilton, Shakespeare, Ben Carson, Enid Blyton and Roald Dahl. The participants had different motivations for reading, but many stated that reading was fun and interesting.

B. Factors that Affected the Children's Reading Engagement

In this section, the different factors that affected the reading habits of the participants will be analysed. It is important to emphasise that the extent to which each participant was affected by the different factors varied. For instance, for each participant, the access to reading materials depended on how well-off the participant's parents were such that the richer the participant's parents, the more reading materials were available to the participant and vice versa.

(1) Pedagogy of Reading

The present study is in line with studies conducted by Layne (2015) and Rosenblatt (1978/1994) which indicate that children's attitude to reading and literary texts is often affected by the reading practices used. In the data of both group and individual interviews, the theme of being asked questions after leisure reading repeatedly came up. For most of the participants, there was no reading aloud at school; however, almost all the participants who attended schools where teachers read to the class, reported that after the reading aloud sessions, the teachers usually asked questions. The practice of asking children questions during or after reading aloud sessions was also used at KBC. The participants were unequivocal in stating that they did not like being asked questions after leisure reading. Peter likened the experience to being given an exam or a test to write, which suggests that he was no longer listening for the pleasure the experience gave, but to be better prepared to answer the questions that would follow.

The practices of asking questions after reading also affected the participants' attitude to the literary texts read in class. Paul narrated that even though he liked certain books used at school and thought they were interesting, he did not want to read them as the books had questions that his teacher usually made them answer. This shows that the pedagogical practices of reading used could discourage children from reading a book even when the children found the books engaging. It also supports Pennac's (2006) advocacy that children should be allowed to read purely for the pleasure that reading gives rather than as a means of teaching literacy skills as doing otherwise would make the child cease associating reading with pleasure, which may have the likely consequence of making the child stop reading.

(2) Choice of Texts

Findings from this study support the arguments that the opportunity to choose the texts they read greatly affects children's motivation to read (Clark & Phythian-Sence, 2008; Cremin, 2015) and that children will more likely read books that they have selected for themselves (Cremin, 2007). All the participants said that they always self-selected the books they read at KBC and were free to change the books at any time. Most participants also self-selected the books they read for pleasure at home. However, in Mike's case, his father usually chose the books he read at home during the holidays, most of which Mike did not like but was still forced to read. Mike described the books his father gave him to read as 'hard books'. He liked Enid Blyton books, but his father did not allow him to read these. In Mike's collage (Figure 6), yellow, the colour that represents reading, is missing in the holiday sections even though it features prominently in the school term sections.

Figure 6: Mike's collage

When asked about this during the collage-making activity, Mike said he did not do any leisure reading during the holiday periods; data from his interview further confirmed that he did not enjoy the reading he did at home. This may likely be because the home readings were done at his father's behest and involved books chosen by Mike's father. It is possible that by stopping Mike from reading the books which Mike liked and forcing him to read the books he did not like, Mike's father was reducing Mike's potential to engage in leisure reading.

Adanna self-selected the books she read but complained that her father stopped her from reading Jeff Kinney's Diary of a Wimpy Kid (DOAWK) books because "they don't teach anything." However, this did not appear to negatively impact on her reading engagement as data from her collage, questionnaire and interview indicated that she was an engaged reader. Perhaps this was because she was allowed to read other books she self-selected. Additionally, she admitted that she still read DOAWK books but only when her father was not around. A few other participants also complained that their teachers chose the books they read during the reading time at school and that usually, they did not like the books and hence did not read them. There's a strong likelihood that the participants may have read the books if they had self-selected them.

(3) Reading Aloud

Studies indicate that another factor that plays a critical role in children's engagement with reading for pleasure is reading aloud (Layne, 2009, 2015; Lockwood, 2008), and this study examined the participants' experience with this. A few participants said their parents had read to them when they were younger and that this had stirred in them an interest in leisure reading; however, two of these participants were also of the opinion that parents didn't need to read to their children after the children had learned to read. Most participants said that they never had the experience of being read to when they were young. For many participants, outside KBC, no-one read aloud to them. Six participants reported that someone at school, usually the class teacher, sometimes read aloud to their class while two participants reported that someone at home read aloud to them. Many participants claimed that they enjoyed being read to at KBC and that the reading aloud made them interested in reading the book. One of these was Karen:

> *Karen: Aunty Ese was reading a story that ended up to be (sic) one of Aladdin's story. So, then I now picked up that book, I now found the story and now read it. I now found some other stories in that same book as Rumpelstiltskin.*

However, there were also cases when the child did not enjoy the reading aloud because of the reader, as this excerpt from Peter shows:

> *Peter: Teachers spoil the books for me… they have destroyed it for me…whenever I read on my own, I give it a kind of feeling… I give it some voices…which makes it better for me… But when they are reading it for me, they would use their voices which now makes it very useless.*
> *Interviewer: Okay, if they read those books in an interesting voice would it make you more interested in reading them?*
> *Peter: Yes….It also depends on the teacher.*

Peter's responses suggest that for him, the meaning of the texts possibly lay in how the texts were read by the reader. His use of strongly negative words to describe the reading aloud done by his teachers indicates that he did not enjoy the reading aloud; howbeit, it was not because of the books involved, but because of the manner and the voice used by the teacher(s). When Peter read, he gave voices to the different characters and this, it is believed, made the characters more real to him, and allowed him to experience the reading in a deeper and more pleasurable way. The finding from Peter indicates that in addition to using suitable and engaging texts for reading aloud, the reader should read in a manner that is engaging and exciting to the listener.

(4) Access to Engaging Books

The study findings indicate that access to engaging texts may also have affected the extent to which the participants read. These results agree with Lockwood (2008) who identified access to suitable and engaging texts as another key factor in motivating children to read. When asked if they usually had access to the books they wanted to read, six children responded with a 'yes' while nine children responded with a 'no'. However, when further questioned about access to books, five of the six children who responded with a 'yes' to the question of access to books said that it was

not always easy for them to access the texts they wanted to read. Findings suggest that outside KBC, some participants had no access to books that they liked. Access to engaging texts, whether at home or through the school library, was dependent on economic factors. Caleb, whose collage (Figure 7) indicates that he did very little reading in the year, said that he had no books of his own, there were no reading materials in his home, and it was difficult for him to have access to the books he liked.

Figure 7: Caleb's collage

On the contrary, participants like Charles and Shehu who had more access to engaging texts at home and at school were more engaged readers; Shehu's collage, Figure 2, is seen in Section 4.1. The limited access to books did not affect every participant in the same way; Odachi was an engaged reader even though she had few reading materials at home and her school library did not have many books. However, she was an outlier here. While the access to reading materials may not guarantee that all children will become engaged readers, the lack of easy access to reading materials certainly discourages children from reading.

(5) An Enabling Adult

Most of the children in my study said that their parents read a lot, and some discussed books with them. Among the five participants who had someone at home discuss books with them were Karen and Ngozi, and both said that the book discussions encouraged them to read books, supporting the argument on the importance of an enabling adult in a child's reading engagement (Chambers, 1991). Data from Karen's collage, questionnaire and interview indicate that she was a very engaged reader whose favourite pastime was leisure reading; this may have been because she had an enabling adult.

A few participants had enabling adults that were non-parents. For instance, Paul's 19-year-old brother was an engaged reader who showed much interest in Paul's leisure reading and often discussed books with Paul. A few participants stated that their teachers sometimes discussed the books they had read with the class. Unfortunately, for some participants, it was only at KBC that they had an enabling adult as neither their parents nor teacher showed much interest in their reading. In addition to reading aloud to the children, staff members at KBC discussed books regularly with the children and suggested texts to them. Some of the children reported that they enjoyed reading the books recommended by staff members. An example is Charles, another engaged reader:

> **Charles**: *Usually, the books Aunty Lizzy suggests are really interesting, like The Titanic.*

Through book discussions and recommendations, Aunty Lizzy guided Charles to books he found engaging and thereby helped him do more leisure reading than he may have ordinarily done. This supports the argument that an enabling adult could help children read more.

(6) The Reading Environment

Chambers (1991) argues that where readers read affects how they read and their pleasure, willingness and concentration, and recommends that a suitable reading environment be created for children. Although he does not include the weather in his definition of the reading environment as shared in the 'Literature Review' section, findings from this study suggest the inclusion of the weather as it is a part of the features of a place and also featured prominently in the data on factors that affected the participants' reading. The subject of the hot weather repeatedly came up as one of the factors that prevented the participants from either reading or completing a book. There were also complaints about not having a comfortable place to read, and about having to read in a noisy place. Shehu reported that he could not read in his home in the daytime and only read at night because his house was "really noisy". In a group interview, participants said their reading engagement was affected when the environment was not comfortable, and that that happened even when the book was interesting. They also said they either read more or enjoyed the book better when they were in the right reading environment:

> **Interviewer**: *If you had an interesting book and a comfortable place would you read more?*
> **Charles**: *Yes. Because in my school, my homework was to read but I still liked the book so when I was reading it, they said read for 30 minutes. I timed myself… I ended up reading more than 30 minutes, for 40 minutes because of how comfortable and interesting the book was.*

***

> *Interviewer: If you read in those places [the ideal reading environment he described], do you find out that you tend to read longer than if you read anywhere else?*
> *Paul: Well, I enjoy the book better.*

These findings on how the reading environment affected the participants' reading practices suggest that the participants may have done more leisure reading if they always had the ideal reading environment.

(7) Social Networks and Affordances that Support Leisure Reading

Among the social networks and affordances that support leisure reading are school libraries and public libraries, and schools can promote leisure reading by providing easy access to plenty of suitable texts (Lockwood, 2008). Even though the children in my study attended schools that had a library, the libraries varied in size and in how many books they had. Schools that charged more fees had bigger and better-equipped libraries, and vice versa. Additionally, the schools differed in the rules and policies that governed the students' use of the library. Some participants attended schools where students were not allowed into the library, others attended schools where students could visit the library but were not allowed to borrow books, and others were in schools where students could visit the library and borrow books from the library. For instance, in Rose's school, the children were not allowed into the library; the headmistress randomly selected books and gave the children to read, and the children had no say in this. Sometimes, Rose liked the book she was given and read it, and at other times, she did not like the book and did not read it. In some of the school libraries, there were no spaces designed for reading. Therefore, though school libraries have the potential to encourage children to read and build a reading culture, in the schools my study participants attended, this potential was yet to be fully activated and realised.

Public libraries help to close the book gap between children of different backgrounds by providing all children with access to high-quality reading materials (Celano & Neuman, 2001). Also, they could offer literary activities such as author readings and summer reading groups which nurture children's love for reading (Krolak, 2005). Sadly, apart from one participant, the children in my study had never been to a public library and did not know of any as these are not common in Nigeria. Adanna, the only participant who had visited a public library, reported that she had only been there once, and this, a while back, suggesting that she may not have found the experience worthwhile enough to return to the library.

V. DISCUSSIONS

As the results reveal, the reading engagement of all the participants was, in varying degrees, influenced by factors such as the pedagogy of reading, choice of texts, and reading aloud. Findings indicate that some participants were negatively impacted by the pedagogy of reading both at home and in school. Specifically, the practices of asking children questions after reading demotivated the children. Accordingly, one strategy to get children to do more leisure reading might be to change the pedagogical practices of reading and allow children to read solely for the pleasure found in the activity as suggested by Pennac (2006).

Findings from this study support the argument that children should be encouraged to read what they enjoy reading in whatever format they prefer as doing otherwise may reduce the potential for pleasurable engagement in reading (Cremin, 2015). Participants like Mike whose collage (Figure 6 in Section 4.2.2) indicate that he did not do leisure reading during the vacation periods, may have done more recreational reading if he had been allowed to always self-select the books he read at home. Therefore, another strategy that could motivate children to read is allowing them to select the texts they read. The experience of having someone read aloud to them also affected the children's reading engagement. However, while participants like Karen were driven to read the books they had heard read aloud, a few like Peter did not enjoy being read to, primarily because of the reader's reading style. Hence, it is important to note that while reading aloud has the potential to whet in children an appetite for books (Layne, 2009, 2015), its benefits are best realised when the activity is done by an experienced reader whose voice and manner of reading are appealing to the listener(s).

The participants reading habits were also affected by their access to engaging reading materials, supporting the argument on the importance of access to suitable reading texts (Clark & Douglas, 2011). While at KBC, all the participants spent significant time in leisure reading as they had easy access to reading materials. However, outside KBC, not all the participants usually had access to the books they wanted to read suggesting that children whose parents could not afford to register them at a book club may not have easy access to engaging reading materials. Making reading materials easily accessible to children is another strategy to encourage them to do more leisure reading. This study supports the argument that an enabling adult plays a key role in helping children to read more (Cremin *et al.*, 2014; Cliff Hodges, 2010b); the example of Charles and Aunty Lizzy in Section 4.2.5 beautifully demonstrates this. Therefore, it is recommended that adults read and discuss books with children as these will help the children discover the joy in reading books.

Another factor that affected the participants' reading engagement was the reading environment. Where the participants had the right reading environment, they better enjoyed their leisure reading and read for a longer time, whereas the reverse was the case where the environment was not conducive for reading. Accordingly, creating the right reading environment could be another strategy to get children to do more recreational reading (Chambers, 1991; Cremin *et al.*, 2014). Findings from this study also support the argument that social networks such as school libraries, public

libraries and literary programmes which support leisure reading could positively impact on the reading behaviours of children (Loh *et al*., 2017; Campbell-Hicks, 2016; Adkins & Brendler, 2015). As already stated, most participants had limited access to these networks and only one participant had visited a public library. Whilst data indicate that being at KBC boosted the participants' reading engagement, the children may have done more leisure reading if they had the opportunity of benefitting from the many literary exposures and experiences that a public library could offer. This study supports the argument for public libraries that have great quantities of a wide variety of high-quality books of various topics, genres, and perspectives, and offer literary activities as this will help to nurture in children a love for leisure reading.

VI. FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

The reading environment provided by the book club may likely have influenced how much reading the children did. It is therefore recommended that the same study be constructed with similar participants in a different location, one that does not provide an environment that supports leisure reading. Findings from this new study could show the extent to which my study's findings were affected by the reading environment provided by KBC, and more importantly, would give useful insights about how children read in locations that are not set up to support reading. Book clubs are not very common features in Nigeria and hence, the vast majority of children in Nigeria have never been to one. Conducting a similar study outside a book club will therefore give further understanding of how the majority of children in Nigeria read during the vacation periods.

Even though this research was rigorously carried out, the findings cannot be generalised as the participants represent only a portion, a small one at that, of Nigerian children. Further research focusing on children who attend public schools and/or children who live in rural settings is recommended. Children who come from less privileged backgrounds than my study's participants will probably have fewer of the social networks and affordances that support leisure reading than my study's participants do; however, it is still important to examine and know what specifically is available to these children to understand their reality and come up with strategies that will have a positive impact on them, too.

VII. CONCLUSION

This paper has provided insights into some of the factors that affected the participants' reading engagement. Specifically, the paper has discussed how the reading engagement of participants was affected by the pedagogy of reading, choice of text, reading aloud, access to reading materials, an enabling adult, the reading environment and the availability of social networks and affordances that support leisure reading. These insights will help parents and educators to reappraise their support of children's reading habits and adopt practices that will encourage children's appreciation of reading. This, it is believed, will help more children in Nigeria to do more leisure reading and, ultimately, lead to a strengthening of Nigeria's education system and an improvement in student attainment. Additionally, this research provides empirical evidence from Nigeria to complement the wealth of research in the Western world.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

REFERENCES

[1] Adekunle (2017, June 21). Study shows Nigerians don't read. Vanguard. https://www.vanguardngr.com/2017/06/study-shows-nigerians-dont-read/ (accessed 10/09/2020).
[2] Adesulu, D. (2016, March 24). 80% fail NECO, WAEC, JAMB over the dearth of reading culture — Ignite Africa. Vanguard. http://www.vanguardngr.com/2016/03/80-fail-neco-waec-jamb-dearth-reading-culture-ignite-africa/ (accessed 15/09/2020).
[3] Adesulu, D. (2018, July 4). Breaking: WAEC releases 2018 WASSCE results as 50% pass Math, English. Vanguard. https://www.vanguardngr.com/2018/07/breaking-waec-releases-2018-wassce-results-as-50-pass-math-english/ (accessed 15/09/2020).
[4] Adkins, D., & Brendler, B. M. (2015). Libraries and reading motivation: A review of the Programme for International Student Assessment reading results. *IFLA Journal* 41(2): 129–139. doi: 10.1177/0340035215578868.
[5] Aramide, K. A. (2015). Effect of parental background factors on reading habits of secondary school students in Ogun state, Nigeria. *Journal of Applied Information Science and Technology,* 8(1), 70-80. https://www.jaistonline.org/vol8_no1_Aramide.pdf (accessed 10/09/2020).
[6] Barrs, M., & Cork, V. (2001). The Reader in the Writer. London: Centre for Language in Primary Education.
[7] Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology,* 3(2), 77-101. https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa.
[8] Campbell-Hicks, R. (2016). Early literacy programmes in public libraries: best practice. *The Australian Library Journal,* 65(2), 121-129. doi: 10.1080/00049670.2016.1121770.

[9]   Celano, D., & Neuman, S. (2001). The Role of Public Libraries in Children's Literacy Development: An Evaluation Report. Pennsylvania Library Association Technical Report, Pennsylvania Department of Education. http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.611.4915&rep=rep1&type=pdf (accessed 26/09/2020).

[10]   Chambers, A. (1991). The Reading Environment: How Adults Help Children Enjoy Books. Stroud: Thimble Press.

[11]   Chambers, A. (1993). Tell Me: Children, Reading and Talk. Stroud: Thimble Press.

[12]   Chew, P. G., & Krashen, S. (2017). Vocabulary acquisition and self-selected reading: a test of the reading hypothesis in Singapore. *The International Journal of Foreign Language Teaching,* 12(2), 1-7. http://ijflt.com/images/ijflt/articles-december-2017/Research%20Art%201%20Vocabulary.pdf (accessed 10/09/2020).

[13]   Clark, C. (2013). Children's and Young People's Reading in 2012. Findings from the 2012 National Literacy Trust's annual survey. London: National Literacy Trust. https://literacytrust.org.uk/research-services/research-reports/childrens-and-young-peoples-reading-2012/ (accessed 10/09/2020).

[14]   Clark, C., & Douglas, J. (2011). Young People's Reading and Writing: An In-Depth Study Focusing on Enjoyment, Behaviour, Attitudes and Attainment. London: National Literacy Trust. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED521656.pdf (accessed 10/09/2020).

[15]   Clark, C., & Phythian-Sence, C. (2008). Interesting Choice: The (Relative) Importance of Choice and Interest in Reader Engagement. London: National Literacy Trust. https://literacytrust.org.uk/research-services/research-reports/interesting-choice-relative-importance-choice-and-interest-reader-engagement-2008-review/ (accessed 26/09/2020).

[16]   Cliff Hodges, G. (2010a). Reasons for reading: why literature matters. *Literacy,* 44(2), 60-68. doi:10.1111/j.1741-4369.2010.00552.x.

[17]   Cliff Hodges, G. (2010b). Rivers of reading: Using critical incident collages to learn about adolescent readers and their readership. *English in Education,* 44(3), 181-200. doi: 10.1111/j.1754-8845.2010.01072.x.

[18]   Cliff Hodges, G., (2011). Textual drama: the value of reading aloud. *English Drama Media*, 19, 19-25.

[19]   Coles, M., & Hall, C. (2002). Gendered readings: learning from children's reading choices. *Journal of Research in Reading,* 25(1), 96–108. doi:10.1111/1467-9817.00161.

[20]   Cremin, T. (2007). Revisiting reading for pleasure: Delight, desire and diversity. In K. Goouch & A. Lambirth (Eds.), *Understanding Phonics and the Teaching of Reading: A Critical Perspective* (pp. 166–190). Berkshire, UK: McGraw Hill.

[21]   Cremin, T. (2015, September 25). Requiring Reading for Pleasure. Cambridge Primary Review Trust. http://cprtrust.org.uk/cprt-blog/requiring-reading-for-pleasure/ (accessed 10/08/2020).

[22]   Cremin, T., Mottram, M., Collins, F. M., Powell, S., & Safford, K. (2014). Building Communities of Engaged Readers: Reading for Pleasure. London: Routledge.

[23]   Crotty, M. (1998). The Foundations of Social Research: Meaning and Perspective in The Research Process. London: Sage.

[24]   Cullinan, B. E. (2000). Independent reading and school achievement. *School Library Media Research, 3*, 1-24. http://www.ala.org/aasl/sites/ala.org.aasl/files/content/aaslpubsandjournals/slr/vol3/SLMR_IndependentReading_V3.pdf (accessed 10/09/2020).

[25]   Cunningham, A. E., & Stanovich, K. E. (1998). What reading does for the mind. *American Educator*, 22(1&2), 8-15. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/237109087_What_reading_does_for_the_mind (accessed 10/09/2020).

[26]   Data World Bank. (2016). Nigeria Data. Data World Bank. https://data.worldbank.org/country/nigeria (accessed 16/08/2020).

[27]   Data World Bank. (2020). Population, total - Nigeria. Data World Bank. https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.POP.TOTL?locations=NG (accessed 20/09/2020).

[28]   Francois, C. (2015). An urban school shapes young adolescents' motivation to read. *Voices from the Middle,* 23(1), 68-72. https://www.ncte.org/library/NCTEFiles/Resources/Journals/VM/0231-sep2015/VM0231Urban.pdf (accessed 10/09/2020).

[29]   Gordon, J. (2018, June 21). Teaching to ensure literature's lasting impression. The British Academy. https://www.thebritishacademy.ac.uk/blog/teaching-ensure-lasting-impression-literature (accessed 20/08/2020).

[30]   Haliru, R. A., Abdulkarim, M., Mohammed, A. D., & Dangani, B. U. (2015). An assessment of reading habit among secondary school students in Kaduna metropolis. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science (IOSR-JHSS),* 20(10), 12–17. DOI: 10.9790/0837-201021217.

[31]   Ihejirika, R. C. (2014). Poor attitude to reading for pleasure and its implications on the acquisition of language skills and academic achievements: the case of students of secondary schools in Nigeria. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science (IOSR-JHSS),* 19(1), 43-46. http://iosrjournals.org/iosr-jhss/papers/Vol19-issue1/Version-10/G0191104346.pdf (accessed 10/09/2020).

[32]   Ilogho, J. E., & Michael-Onuoha, H. C. (2015). Intervention strategies for combating aliteracy in Nigerian schools: Implications for public libraries and government. *International Journal of Academic Research in Education and Review,* 3(3), 58-64. doi: 10.14662/IJARER2015.015.

[33]   Kinney, J. (2007 – 2017). Diary of a Wimpy Kid. [Book Series] London: Puffin Books.

[34]   Klauda, S. L. (2009). The role of parents in adolescents' reading motivation and activity. *Educational Psychology Review,* 21(4), 325–363. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-009-9112-0.

[35]   Krolak, L. (2005). The role of libraries in the creation of literate environments. Paper commissioned for the EFA Global Monitoring Report 2006, Literacy for Life. https://www.ifla.org/files/assets/literacy-and-reading/publications/role-of-libraries-in-creation-of-literate-environments.pdf (accessed 20/09/2020).

[36]   Layne, S. (2009). Igniting a Passion for Reading: Successful Strategies for Building Lifetime Readers. Portland, Maine: Stenhouse Publishers.

[37]   Layne, S. (2015). In Defense of Read-Aloud: Sustaining Best Practice. Portland, Maine: Stenhouse Publishers.

[38]   Lockwood, M. (2008). Promoting Reading for Pleasure in the Primary Classroom. London: Sage.

[39]   Loh, C. E. (2015). Building a Reading Culture in a Singapore School: Identifying Spaces for Change Through a Socio-spatial Approach. *Changing English, 22*(2), 209-221. doi: 10.1080/1358684X.2015.1022509.

[40]   Loh, C., Ellis, M., Paculdar, A., & Wan, Z. (2017). Building a successful reading culture through the school library: A case study of a Singapore secondary school. *IFLA Journal,* 43(4), 335-347. doi: 10.1177/0340035217732069.

[41] Makinde, F. (2018, June 1). National Library to promote reading culture. Punch. https://punchng.com/national-library-to-promote-reading-culture/ (accessed 20/09/2020).

[42] Manresa, M. (2018). Adolescent Reading Habits: The effect of school activities on reading practices. In Arizpe, E. & Cliff Hodges, G. (Eds.). *Young People Reading: Empirical Research Across International Contexts* (pp.123-136). London and New York: Routledge.

[43] Mar, R. A., Oatley, K., & Peterson, J. B. (2009). Exploring the link between reading fiction and empathy: Ruling out individual differences and examining outcomes. *Communications -European Journal of Communication Research,* 34(4), 407-428. doi 10.1515/COMM.2009.025.

[44] Mullis, I.V.S., Martin, M.O., Kennedy, A.M., & Foy, P. (2007). PIRLS 2006 International Report: IEA's Progress in International Reading Literacy Study in Primary Schools in 40 Countries. http://timss.bc.edu/PDF/p06_international_report.pdf (accessed 20/08/2020).

[45] Okebukola, F.O. (2005). Towards an improved reading culture among Nigerian students. *Educational Issues, 2(*1), 54–64.

[46] Olasehinde, M. O., Akanmode, O. A., Alaiyemola, A. T., & Babatunde, O. T. (2015). Promoting the reading culture towards human capital and global development. *English Language Teaching*, 8(6), 194-200. doi:10.5539/elt.v8n6p194.

[47] Onukaogu, C. E. (2001). Teacher effectiveness as a factor in the reading empowerment of the nursery and elementary school African child. In *Proceedings of the 1st Pan-African Reading for All Conference* (pp. 181-192). International Reading Association/UNESCO. https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000151834 (accessed 10/09/2020).

[48] Oyewusi, F., & Ayanlola, A. O. (2014). Effect of mobile phone use on reading habits of private secondary school students in Oyo State, Nigeria. *School Libraries Worldwide,* 20(1), 116-127. doi: 10.14265.20.1.008.

[49] Parry, B., & Taylor, L. (2018). Readers in the round: children's holistic engagements with texts. *Literacy, 52*(2), 103–110. doi: 10.1111/lit.12143.

[50] Pennac, D. (2006). The Rights of the Reader. London: Walker Books.

[51] Rosenblatt, L. M. (1978/1994). The Reader, The Text, The Poem: The Transactional Theory of The Literary Work. Carbondale & Edwardsville: Southern Illinois University Press.

[52] Sotiloye, B. and Bodunde, H. (2018). Assessment of students' reading culture in a Nigerian university: Waxing or waning? *Legon Journal of the Humanities* 29.2 (2018) DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.4314/ljh.v29i2.11.

[53] Sullivan, A., & Brown, M. (2015). Reading for pleasure and progress in vocabulary and mathematics. *British Educational Research Journal,* 41(6), 971–991. doi:10.1002/berj.3180.

[54] Tunde-Awe, B. M. (2014). Relationship between Reading Attitudes and Reading Comprehension Performance of Secondary School Students in Kwara State, Nigeria. *Review of Arts and Humanities,* 3(2), 203-215. https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/a542/8255ac2f085b2832c6c15da597dc6a8867a6.pdf (accessed 10/09/2020).

[55] World Bank Report No: 115391-NG. (2017). Program Appraisal Document On A Proposed Credit In The Amount Of Sdr 445.7 Million To The Federal Republic Of Nigeria For A Better Education Service Delivery For All Operation. http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/839251498183393835/pdf/BESDA-PAD-May-30-2017-06012017.pdf (accessed 20/08/2020).

Isang U. Awah was born in Nigeria, Africa. She holds a Bachelor of Science degree in biochemistry from the University of Uyo, Nigeria (1991), a Master of Liberal Arts in Extension Studies degree (literature & creative writing; 2011) from Harvard University, United States of America, and a PhD in education (2019) from the University of Cambridge, United Kingdom.

She is a project manager in the Department of Social Policy and Intervention at the University of Oxford and specifically works on the development of the Parenting for Lifelong Health Digital (PLH Digital), a digital version of the in-person parenting programme. The project is part of the UKRI GCRF Accelerating Achievement for Africa's Adolescents Hub. Her research interests include social issues and literacy especially in developing countries and poor communities around the globe. She has over a decade of experience in researching with children and young people in Africa and has carried out studies on various topical issues such as the effects of verbal abuse on female domestic servants in Nigeria.

Dr. Awah has presented her research at several international conferences including the 54th UK Literacy Association (UKLA) International Conference, Cardiff (2018) and the 10th International Conference on Education and New Developments (END), Portugal, (2019).

Foreign Language Teachers' Self-efficacy Beliefs and Perspectives about Maintaining Their Students' Interest

Comfort Pratt
Texas Tech University, Lubbock, TX, United States

Amani Zaier
Texas Tech University, Lubbock, TX, United States

Yanlin Wang
Texas Tech University, Lubbock, TX, United States

Abstract—**Americans do not study foreign languages long enough to achieve communicative competence, and that poses economic and security problems for the nation as well as career and personal limitations for individuals. Despite the plethora of research studies on effective approaches and methods for teaching foreign languages, there is evidence in the literature that foreign language students often experience a loss of interest in the languages, and there is a critical need to investigate the causes of the lack of interest and propose solutions. To that end, this study took a look at the possible role played by teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in their ability or inability to maintain their students' interest in the target languages. By means of an online survey administered to foreign language teachers, this mixed methods study investigated their beliefs about their ability to impact their students positively and their general level of efficacy for teaching foreign languages. Findings revealed that the teachers overwhelmingly believed that they had a positive impact. However, their general level of efficacy was mildly high and there was no significant correlation between the teachers' sense of efficacy and their ability to maintain their students' interest in the languages. Implications for foreign language teacher preparation and professional development point to the need to develop a strong sense of efficacy as well as strategies for positively impacting students to maintain their interest in the language.**

Index Terms—**communicative competence, foreign language proficiency, foreign language teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher sense of efficacy**

I. INTRODUCTION

Arguing that the inability to communicate in any language but English constitutes a threat to the nation's economic and military security, two recent studies have painted a grim picture of foreign language education in the nation's K-12 schools. The reports from the American Academy of Arts & Sciences and American Councils for International Education found that public schools and state departments of education are struggling to find qualified world language instructors and unequipped to track local and national trends on language learning. (Mitchell, 2017, paras. 1 & 2)

Mitchell (2017) observed that the American Councils for International Education, after seeking state-by-state data, report that 10.6 million K-12 students in the United States are studying a world language or American Sign Language, which is only one out of every five students, or 20%. The article described the subsequent lack of knowledge about foreign language teaching and learning as "striking," and the conclusion given by Abbott in the article was that "We're such a long way in this country from having it be normal to grow up learning other languages. … Our future depends on our ability to engage with the rest of the world, and right now Americans have a very tough time doing that." (para 6). The consequent vicious cycle has resulted in a lack of certified foreign language instructors. Presently nationwide, 44 states and the District of Columbia have a critical need for certified foreign language instructors, and the supply is nowhere near meeting the growing demand.

Data released by the Modern Language Association (MLA) also show that foreign language study in colleges and universities continues to be on the decline, having experienced a significant reduction especially over the last 55 years. In spite of the fact that there was an upward surge from 1990 to 2006, there has been a decline since then, registering a 6.7% drop in 2013 and then a 9.2% drop from 2013 to 2016. The latter, according to the MLA report (Flaherty, 2018), is the second greatest drop in the history of MLA's enrollment census, the greatest being a 12.6% drop in 1972. In addition to the drop, and as further proof of the decline, the total number of foreign language enrollments in relation to the total number of registered students also declined from 8.1% in 2013 to 7.5% in 2016, which is less than half of what it was in 1916, and is very close to the lowest ratio ever recorded, which was 7.3% in 1980. The report added that modern language enrollments have lagged far behind overall college and university enrollments since 1960.

Of further concern is the fact that in general, students who begin studying foreign languages do not continue to study them long enough to achieve high proficiency levels and communicative competence. A problem that has existed over a span of many decades is the fact that most students do not study foreign languages beyond two years (Alonso, 2007; Andress et al., 2002; Garfinkel, 1987; Howard, 2007; Pratt, 2010; Ramage, 1990; Speiller, 1988). According to the literature, some of the factors that influence students' decisions to discontinue the study of languages are related to their classroom experiences as well as the impact second -language teachers have on them. Andress et al. (2002), Pratt et al. (2009), and Pratt (2010, 2016, 2017) found decreasing numbers among continuing high school students of German, Spanish, and French, as well as among students transitioning to college. The latest ratios of college introductory enrollments to advanced enrollments (Goldberg, Looney, & Lusin, 2015) also reported the following significant ratios for languages: Italian: 9:1 in 2006, 10:1 in 2009, and 11:1 in 2013; French and German: 4:1 in 2009 and 5:1 in 2013; Arabic and Latin: 8:1 in 2009 and 2013; Japanese and Spanish: 5:1 in 2009 and 2013; and Chinese: 4:1 in 2009 and 2013. While some ratios remained steady across the three surveys, the ones that changed represented a reduction in enrollment from introductory to advanced levels. These reductions, which are on an upward trend, lead to numerous consequences, including low proficiency levels, lack of communicative competence, a serious shortage of fluent speakers and certifiable teacher candidates, inability to participate in global communities, and threatened national economic and military security (Flaherty, 2018; Mitchell, 2017).

Among the causes that have been attributed to these significant distinctions between enrollments in beginning and continuing high school foreign language classes and between introductory and advanced courses in colleges and universities is waning student interest (Andress et al., 2002; Flaherty, 2018; Pratt et al. 2009; Pratt, 2010, 2016, 2017; Wyatt, 2018). There is ample evidence in the literature to confirm the crucial role played by the maintenance of students' interest in the target languages in ensuring their continued study of the languages. However, the studies that have focused on the issue have centered primarily on students' perspectives and instructional strategies and there is a dearth of knowledge regarding other teacher-related factors that can influence this conundrum. If foreign language programs continue to experience low enrollment in spite of all the investigations that have been conducted on instructional strategies with a goal to meeting students' needs, is it possible that the solution lies partly with other, teacher-related, issues?

One of the important influences on students' education about which there is a dearth of knowledge in foreign language studies is teacher self-efficacy. As evidenced by the literature, teachers' self-efficacy beliefs play a crucial role in student outcomes and motivations. According to the conclusions drawn in various studies, in spite of differences in educational settings and systems, an increase in a teacher's self-efficacy translates into an increase in positive outcomes, as that inspires more motivation, confidence, and enthusiasm in students (Bandura, 1986; Caprara et al., 2006; Lee, Cawthon, & Dawson, 2013; Ertmer, 2005; Klassen et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2013; Maddux & Gosselin, 2003; Moseley, 2010; Scholz et al., 2002; Skaalvik & Bong, 2003; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy 2001, 2007). Additionally, efficacious teachers are better able to adapt to new circumstances and accommodate students' needs and effect pedagogical changes (Lee et al., 2013). It is therefore unequivocally essential to study teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in relation to the maintenance of their students' interest in the languages in order to determine how that factors into the continuation, or not, of their students.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Teacher Self-efficacy Beliefs

The theoretical framework of this study is based on social cognitive theory, specifically the sixth construct, self-efficacy. According to the theory, self-efficacy refers to individuals' beliefs about their capabilities to successfully carry out a particular course of action (Bandura, 1977). Bandura (1986) added that "among the types of thoughts that affect action, none is more central or pervasive than people's judgements of their capabilities to deal effectively with different realities" (p. 21). Evidence from the literature confirms that self-efficacy is an influential factor in human behaviors in a variety of settings (Bandura, 1986, 1997; Graham & Weiner, 1996; Martocchio & Judge, 1997; Saks 1995; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Consistent with the general framework of self-efficacy, Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, and Hoy (2001) defined teacher self-efficacy as teachers' judgment of their abilities to reach preferred results in terms of students' engagement and learning, even among those with low enthusiasm to learn. In fact, it is believed to influence student achievement and motivation and also positively affect teachers' beliefs about teaching and instructional behaviors (Bandura, 1977; Klassen et al., 2011; Ross, 1992; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Wyatt (2008, 2016, 2018) also defined it as teachers' beliefs in their abilities to support learning in various task-, domain- and context-specific cognitive, metacognitive, affective, and social ways. Thus, it is equally related to teachers' behaviors and attitudes.

According to Woolfolk and Hoy (1990), teachers' sense of efficacy affects the amount of effort teachers invest in their teaching, the goals they set, and their level of aspiration, as well as students' behavior and learning outcomes. Guskey (1988) conducted an exploratory study with a sample of 120 elementary and secondary teachers to investigate the relationship between teachers' perceptions and their attitudes toward the use of new instructional practices. The teachers received a one-day training on instructional strategies. The findings revealed that measures of teacher efficacy, teaching effectiveness, and teaching self-concept were significantly related to teachers' attitudes regarding the

congruence, difficulty of use, and importance of the recommended practices. Furthermore, the study revealed that teachers who possess a high sense of efficacy are open to new ideas and are more willing to explore new methods in order to improve their skills and fulfill the needs of their students. Additionally, teacher efficacy has a direct impact on the learners' sense of efficacy as well as on student motivation and achievement (Akbari & Karimi Allvar, 2010; Anderson & Betz, 2001; Anderson, Greene, & Loewen, 1988; Ashton, 1985; Ashton & Webb, 1986; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Midgley, Feldlaufer, & Eccles, 1989; Woolfolk, Rossoff, & Hoy, 1990).

Self-efficacy beliefs help determine the outcomes that people expect from their own actions. Teacher self-efficacy belief, therefore, has a central agent-means component, which is a belief in the ability to take action, combined with an outcome expectation, which is a means-ends belief as to the effect the action will have (Wheatley, 2005). These two components may or may not be harmoniously aligned, and the beliefs develop as a result of experiences that have impacted the teacher's cognition in different ways (Fives & Alexander, 2004). As a matter of fact, teachers who are confident in their teaching skills anticipate successful experiences with their students and they expect to be highly evaluated by their students as well as by school representatives (Silverman, 2010). The opposite is true for teachers who have a low sense of self-efficacy in their ability to instruct, interact, and communicate with their students, students' parents, and colleagues (Gay, 2003, 2010). They often anticipate low teaching performance and low respect even before they officially start teaching. Teacher self-efficacy beliefs are considered to be open to change and context sensitive. They also interact with other kinds of self-beliefs and operate within broader motivational frameworks, such as the self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

While TSE in general has been widely researched for many decades, the study of language teachers' self-efficacy beliefs has lagged behind and has only recently gained focus in the last two decades. In fact, Wyatt (2018) reported that there was still no comprehensive synthesis of language teacher self-efficacy beliefs research. Furthermore, most of the research has been conducted in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL) contexts (Locke & Johnson, 2016; Locke et al., 2013; Phan, 2015; Thompson, 2016; Wyatt, 2018). Research into LTSE beliefs of teachers of other languages has been very limited. Out of 115 studies that were examined by Wyatt (2018), only seven investigated the LTSE beliefs of teachers of languages other than English, indicating an increase from the four that were recorded in Klassen et al. (2011). However, while Klassen et al. had only four studies on LTSE beliefs out of a total of 218, Wyatt (2018) had 96 out of a total of 115, with seven of them being about teachers of languages other than English, namely, Arabic, French, German, and Spanish. The remaining 89 studies were about teachers of EFL and ESL. The huge difference is a clear indication of the new focus on LTSE beliefs.

There is evidence in the growing literature that there is a positive relationship between foreign language teachers' self-efficacy and their language proficiency. According to Chacón (2005), the higher their sense of efficacy, the more likely they are to use communication or grammar-oriented pedagogical strategies. Mills and Allen (2008) also reported that native-speaking graduate assistants had higher scores on average than non-native speakers, thus further confirming the correlation between self-efficacy and content knowledge. Swanson (2010a) also discovered that teachers' sense of efficacy is related to their decision to remain in or leave the profession, and that their inability to help students at the early stages of language learning and lack of confidence to provide an alternate explanation, for example when students are confused, are significant predictors of teacher attrition.

There is also evidence that students' learning is impacted by teachers' affect and care about them, and that the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are important in shaping their students' learning outcomes, motivation, and own self-efficacy beliefs. Therefore, teachers' self-efficacy is a vital concept in second-language education. Six of Klassen et al.'s (2011) TSE beliefs studies explored the assumption that efficacious language teachers are more likely to find ways to have beneficial impact than those who are inefficacious, and they found "modest empirical support for the theorised connections" (p. 38). Swanson (2014) also emphasized the importance of building a strong sense of efficacy in teaching Spanish when his study revealed that there was a link between Spanish teacher efficacy and students' scores on the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese National Spanish Examinations, as well as the fact that teacher efficacy was also found to be related to whether teachers continued teaching or left the profession. However, studies on LTSE beliefs have never been used to determine the impact of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs on students' decisions whether or not to continue studying the languages. The present study therefore focused on this vacuum with a goal to ascertain that missing link and provide useful insights into whether or not second-language teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are related to their impact on their students to maintain their interest in the languages.

B. The Research Questions

The concept of teacher self-efficacy beliefs in teaching second languages deals with second-language teachers' beliefs about their ability to effectively accomplish their teaching tasks and reach desirable results as related to increasing students' motivation and maintaining their interest in the target languages. To that end, the purpose of this study was to determine the effects of foreign language teachers' self-efficacy beliefs on their students' decisions whether or not to continue learning the languages. The central questions were

1. Do foreign language teachers believe they have a positive impact on their students to maintain their interest in the languages they teach?

2. What is the relationship between the teachers' beliefs regarding their ability to have a positive impact on their students to maintain their interest in the languages they teach and their general sense of efficacy in teaching foreign languages?

Based on the aforementioned, the hypothesis was that the teachers with high proficiency levels in the foreign languages would demonstrate high self-efficacy beliefs and a positive impact on their students to maintain their interest in the languages.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Purposive sampling was used. Each of the three research team members compiled a list of e-mail addresses of middle and high school and lower-level college foreign language teachers whom they had access to from previous studies, collaborative work, professional activities, and their network, in different parts of the United States. ("Lower-level college" referred to the first two years.) An e-mail was sent to the addresses on the list to request participation in the survey. In order to participate, the teachers read a page of information about the study, as well as participants' responsibilities and rights, and clicked on the link to the questionnaire only if they agreed to participate. Therefore, participation was voluntary.

Out of approximately 250 invitations for participation, 131 recipients responded. Out of that group, 120 completed the survey, so the study was conducted with the 120 completed surveys. The sample was diverse in terms of gender, age, ethnic affiliation, and length of teaching experience, as well as the languages and grade levels taught. There were 87 females (72.5%) and 33 males (27.5%). They ranged in age from 22 to 62 years, with a mean age of 36.5. Fifty of them (41.67%) identified themselves as Caucasian/White, 45 (37.5%) as Hispanic/Latino, 20 (16.67%) as Asian/Other Pacific Islander, one (.83%) as Black/African American, and eight (6.67%) self-classified as other. About half of them, 45.8%, were high school teachers, 34.6% were college instructors, and 19.6% were middle school teachers.

The number of years in the foreign language teaching profession ranged from one semester to 32 years, with the highest range being 6 to 10 years. Spanish made up 54.92% of the languages taught, and the other percentages were 12.3% for Chinese, 7.38% for French, 6.56% for German, 4.92% for Latin, 3.28% for Italian and Russian, 2.46% for Arabic, 1.64% for Japanese and American Sign Language, and .82% for Portuguese and Turkish. Sixty-three (52.5%) were native speakers. With regard to training, seven (5.83%) indicated that their training programs were very ineffective, 11 (9.17%) of them considered their training programs ineffective, 24 (20%) reported that they were neither effective nor ineffective, 60 (50%) indicated that they were effective, and 18 (15%) believed they were very effective. Additionally, 85% of them had attended workshops, and the number of workshops ranged from one to "countless." In terms of fluency, 73.33% of them were fluent in the language they were teaching.

B. Instruments

Two instruments were used. The first instrument, the Teacher Academic and Demographic Questionnaire (TAD), was a background questionnaire created by the researchers to solicit personal information from the participants. It included previously researched predictors of teacher self-efficacy such as gender, age, and length of teaching experience, as well as teacher preparation and in-service training, instructional strategies and skills, and beliefs about their impact on students (Ross, Cousins, & Gadalla, 1996). The data were solicited via 20 multiple-choice and open-ended questions.

The second instrument, the Foreign Language Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (FLTSE), was also developed by the authors. It was adapted from the Sources of Multicultural Efficacy Scale (SMES) previously developed by one of the authors (Zaier, 2011) based on the Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (1998) teacher efficacy model that described four distinct sources for efficacy building on information proposed earlier by Bandura (1977). The SMES also adapted some of the elements from Bandura's Teacher Efficacy Scale (1997) and Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy's Ohio Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (2001) and was reviewed and validated by 10 experts and field tested by 28 preservice teachers. The investigators replaced the multicultural content with foreign language content. The scale corresponded to Question 21 of the online survey and included 31 sub-questions rated on a scale from 0 to 100 to indicate the teachers' levels of certainty. It was used to assess the teachers' beliefs in terms of the four categories of sources of efficacy, namely, performance accomplishment, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal.

C. Data Analysis

A mixed methods approach was used for the study in order to conduct a more thorough investigation, in consonance with Creswell (2014) that "[t]he researcher bases the inquiry on the assumption that collecting diverse types of data best provides a more complete understanding of a research problem than either quantitative or qualitative data alone" (p. 48).

The quantitative data were entered into SPSS software for statistical analysis. To begin, the data were cleaned up, and the researchers calculated the reliability coefficient for the 31-item SES scale. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for the scale was $\alpha = .923$ and therefore demonstrated a high standard of reliability (Henson, 2001). The participants' responses to Question 17 were used to answer the first research question regarding whether or not they believed they had a positive impact on their students to maintain their interest in the languages. Additionally, descriptive statistics including frequency distributions as well as multiple regression were performed on the data in the TAD to obtain more

information to explain further the responses to Question 17. To answer Research Question 2, the participants were divided into two groups corresponding to those who believed they had a positive impact on their students to maintain their interest in the languages (Group A) and those who did not believe they had a positive impact (Group B). The group means and standard deviations of the FLTSE of the two groups were calculated for the 31 items in Question 21. Then the individual means and standard deviations were calculated and a binary logistic regression was used to compare the means to the results for Research Question 1 to determine the relationship between the teachers' beliefs regarding their ability to have a positive impact on their students to maintain their interest in the languages and their sense of efficacy in teaching foreign languages. In order to obtain more information about the comparison, the participants' individual mean scores on the FLTSE were divided into quartiles to differentiate between groups who had high and low senses of efficacy, following the method used by Swanson (2014).

IV. FINDINGS

A. Do Foreign Language Teachers Believe They Have a Positive Impact on Their Students to Maintain Their Interest in the Languages They Teach?

The descriptive statistics revealed that the teachers overwhelmingly indicated that they believed they had a positive impact on their students to maintain their interest in the languages they teach. Out of the 120 participants, 110 (91.67%) responded in the affirmative, seven (5.83%) responded in the negative, and three (2.5%) did not provide any response.

A closer look at the profiles of the participants who responded affirmatively revealed the following: 71.82% were females. Spanish made up 54.92% of the languages that were taught, and the other percentages were 12.3% for Chinese, 7.38% for French, 6.56% for German, 4.92% for Latin, 3.28% for Italian and Russian, 2.46% for Arabic, 1.64% for Japanese and American Sign Language, and .82% for Portuguese and Turkish. A bit more than half, 54.55%, were native speakers. With regard to their teacher training, 20.91% indicated that they were neither effective nor ineffective, 5.45% indicated that they were very ineffective, 9.09% reported that they were ineffective, 47.27% considered them effective, and 15.45% indicated that they were very effective. Additionally, 80% had attended workshops, and the number of sessions ranged from one to "countless." Almost three-quarters, 70.9%, of them were fluent in the languages they were teaching, and the length of time they had taught foreign languages ranged from one semester to 32 years, with a mode of 6-10 years.

The data for the participants who responded in the negative revealed that 71.43% were females. Three-quarters, 75%, were teaching Spanish, and Japanese and French had 12.5% each. A sizeable minority, 42.86%, were native speakers. With regard to their teacher training programs, 14.29% believed they were very ineffective, 28.57% considered them ineffective, and 67.14% indicated that they were effective. Additionally, 85.71% of them had attended workshops, and the number of sessions ranged from one to "too many." Almost three-quarters, 71.43%, of them were fluent in the languages they were teaching, and one who was not fluent had been teaching for 29 years. Their length of teaching ranged from one semester to 29 years, with a mode of 5 years. Based on the demographic information, there appeared to be no obvious significant differences between Groups A and B that could explain why they chose yes or no.

A multiple linear regression conducted to determine the associations between the variables revealed that there were no relationships between the teachers' beliefs about their impact on their students and their gender (r = 0.0003), age (r = -0.002), native speaker status (r = 0.038), and years of experience (r = 0.0029) combined. Therefore, gender, age, native speaker status, and years of experience did not contribute information to the prediction of the teachers' impact on their students. Furthermore, r^2 was 0.009, indicating that the variability of the teachers' impact on their students could not be explained by any of the variables, and a P-value of more than 0.9 also confirmed that there was no significant relationship between the variables.

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient conducted to ascertain the relationships between the independent variables further revealed that there were no correlations with the exception of age and experience, where there was a strong positive correlation with a coefficient of r = 0.76 and an r^2 of .58. This means that the older a teacher was, the longer his or her years of experience, and that 58% of the variation in a teacher's years of experience could be explained by his or her age.

B. What Is the Relationship between the Teachers' Beliefs Regarding Their Ability to Have a Positive Impact on Their Students to Maintain Their Interest in the Languages They Teach and Their General Sense of Efficacy in Teaching Foreign Languages?

The results of the FLTSE, which was used to ascertain information about the teachers' general level of efficacy in teaching foreign languages, showed that the teachers in general felt confident teaching foreign languages. Table 1 shows the means and standard deviations for the 31 items on the scale as well as their rank order. The range for all the items (n = 31) was from 41.71 (SD 36.41) to 89.07 (SD 28.77), with an overall mean of 69.85 (SD 11.23). The highest ratings corresponded to "I feel happy when I teach well," "The idea of teaching foreign languages does not make me feel nervous," "I have had successful experiences teaching foreign languages," and "I am passionate about teaching foreign languages." The lowest rated items corresponded to "I have not made mistakes when teaching foreign languages," "I have been trained to deal with many of the learning difficulties students encounter when learning foreign languages,"

"My colleagues tell me they learn a lot when they observe me teaching foreign languages," and "Teaching foreign languages is not often frustrating," in that order.

In terms of the four categories of sources of teacher efficacy addressed on the FLTSE, the rank order was emotional arousal (M 76.84, SD 31.98); verbal persuasion (M 72.91, SD 33.28); performance accomplishment (M 71.90, SD 31.73); and vicarious experience (M 64.53, SD 36.44). An analysis of variance (ANOVA) test confirmed that the differences between the groups were not significant (P-value 6.85).

TABLE 1
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR SOURCES OF EFFICACY SCALE

Foreign Language Teachers' Sources of Efficacy Scale	M	SD	Rank Order
Performance Accomplishment			
1. I have had successful experiences teaching foreign languages.	85.36	21.35	3
2. I have not done poorly in teaching foreign languages.	79.48	26.92	10
3. I have not made mistakes when teaching foreign languages.	41.71	36.41	31
4. I have successfully helped students learn foreign languages.	83.19	24.52	5
5. My teacher education program prepared me effectively to teach foreign languages.	63.63	30.90	21
6. I have been trained to deal with many of the learning difficulties students encounter when learning foreign languages.	54.59	34.12	30
7. My foreign language teaching skills have been honed by working with students.	76.73	30.73	11
8. I have learned how to effectively interact with foreign language students.	80	25.43	9
Vicarious Experience			
9. I have had opportunities to observe other teachers teaching foreign languages.	61.88	37.69	24
10. I have observed effective strategies other teachers use to teach foreign languages.	63.04	36.20	22
11. I see myself applying the same strategies used by other foreign language teachers to effectively teach foreign languages.	66.46	34.75	18
12. I see myself avoiding mistakes other teachers made while teaching foreign languages.	68.03	34.56	17
13. I have learned how to teach foreign languages by watching other skillful teachers.	58.17	36.39	27
14. My classroom observations of teachers of foreign languages are valuable to me.	68.82	37.29	15
15. I am able to improve my instruction of foreign languages by applying successful strategies I have observed experienced teachers use.	65.14	36.98	19
Verbal Persuasion			
16. My teachers often told me that I was good at teaching foreign languages.	64.78	37.41	20
17. I have often been praised for my ability to teach foreign languages.	69.58	34.68	14
18. My family members have told me that I have a talent for teaching foreign languages.	62.33	39.36	23
19. My colleagues have told me that I am good at teaching foreign languages.	70.68	35.32	13
20. My colleagues have often praised my ability to effectively teach foreign languages.	68.25	35.82	16
21. My colleagues believe I am a successful foreign language teacher.	71.37	33.57	12
22. My college classmates told me I will be an effective foreign language teacher.	61.20	40.56	25
23. My colleagues tell me they learn a lot when they observe me teaching foreign languages.	57.79	36.70	29
24. I am passionate about teaching foreign languages.	83.95	29.76	4
Emotional Arousal			
25. Teaching foreign languages is not often frustrating.	59.48	32.53	28
26. I do not feel discouraged when I think about teaching foreign languages.	82.12	25.94	6
27. The idea of teaching foreign languages does not make me feel nervous.	86.08	24.17	2
28. I feel comfortable helping students learn foreign languages.	81.85	31.72	7
29. I feel happy when I teach well.	89.07	28.77	1
30. I am never worried about understanding the learning needs of foreign language learners.	59.6	37.37	26
31. I do not feel stressed when I think about teaching foreign languages.	81	25.89	8

The means for Group A ranged from 42.91 to 88.25. The highest rated items were "I feel happy when I teach well," "The idea of teaching foreign languages does not make me feel nervous," and "I have had successful experiences teaching foreign languages." The lowest rated items were "I have not made mistakes when teaching foreign languages," "I have been trained to deal with many of the learning difficulties students encounter when learning foreign languages," and "My colleagues tell me they learn a lot when they observe me teaching foreign languages." The overall mean for Group A was 70.74 and the standard deviation was 11.16.

The group means for Group B ranged from 32.14 to 100. The highest rated items were "I feel happy when I teach well," "I feel comfortable helping students learn foreign languages," and "I am passionate about teaching foreign languages." The lowest rated items were "I have not made mistakes when teaching foreign languages," "Teaching foreign languages is not frustrating," and "I have had opportunities to observe other teachers teaching foreign languages." The overall mean for Group B was 60.54 and the standard deviation was 15.96.

The results of a t-test proved that the difference between the means of the two groups was not statistically significant (P-value = 0.16), thus indicating that there was no significant difference between the two groups with regard to their FLTSE. Therefore, there was no significant correlation between whether or not the teachers believed they had an impact on their students to maintain their interest in the languages and their scores on the FLTSE.

In terms of the four categories of sources of teacher efficacy addressed on the FLTSE, the rank order for Group A was emotional arousal (M 77.72, SD 12.17); performance accomplishment (M 71.34, SD 15.69); verbal persuasion (M 68.79, SD 8.34); and vicarious experience (M 65.98, SD 3.44). The ranking for Group B was emotional arousal (M

62.04, SD 11.69); verbal persuasion (M 62.04, SD 11.69); performance accomplishment (M 61.96, SD 18.15); and vicarious experience (M 50.09, SD 5.56). An ANOVA revealed that based on the results of the FLTSE, there were no significant differences between the four sources of efficacy (P-value = 6.85).

The individual FLTSE means were calculated and compared to the teachers' responses to Question 17 to ascertain what type of relationship existed between the teachers' sense of efficacy in teaching foreign languages and their beliefs regarding whether or not they had a positive impact on their students to maintain their interest in the languages. In order to distinguish between groups of teachers with high and low senses of efficacy in teaching foreign languages, the teachers' individual mean scores were used to divide them into quartiles, a method used by Swanson (2014). The lowest 25% of the mean scores constituted the first quartile, the 26th to 50th percentile constituted the second, the third represented the 51st to 75th percentile, and the last quartile represented the 76th to 100th percentile. The mean scores ranged from 23.71 to 97.1, and the overall mean and standard deviation were 69.85 and 18.43, respectively.

A comparison of the individual mean scores of the FLTSE with the responses to Question 17 revealed that the teachers who indicated that they did not believe they had a positive impact on their students to maintain their interest in the languages had the following FLTSE means: 80.32, 25.81, 68.84, 57.10, 89.19, 31.61, and 70.94, indicating that there were two (28.57%) in the second quartile, three (42.86%) in the third quartile, and two (28.57%) in the fourth and highest quartile. With regard to the teachers who believed they had a positive impact on their students, there were four (3.64%) in the first quartile, 10 (9.09%) in the second quartile, 43 (39.09%) in the third quartile, and 53 (48.18%) in the fourth quartile. More than half of the FLTSE scores for Group A were in the fourth quartile, while the highest number for Group B fell in the third quartile. Therefore, based on the raw scores of the very unbalanced numbers, a comparison of the percentages for the groups indicated that overall, the teachers who believed they had a positive impact scored higher on the FLTSE than those who did not believe they had a positive impact. The overall mean for Group A was approximately 10 points higher than the Group B mean, Group A having a mean of 70.74 with a standard deviation of 11.16 and Group B having a mean of 60.54 with a standard deviation of 11.96, indicating that the Group B data had a higher standard deviation, or more dispersion, than the data for Group A.

A Pearson product-moment correlation revealed that there was a negligibly low positive correlation between the teachers' beliefs that they had a positive impact on their students to maintain their interest in the languages and their FLTSE scores (r = 0.13). Further confirmation of the insignificant relationship in ANOVA also confirmed a P-value of 0.16, which was higher than the required significance value of 0.05.

A multiple regression also revealed that there was no relationship between the teachers' ages, native speaker status, and years of experience and their FLTSE, with a coefficient of r = 0.014, meaning that the three variables explained only 1.4% of the variation in the FLTSE. It was statistically insignificant, because the P-value was 0.16. The P-values for age, years of experience, and native speaker status were also statistically insignificant, as they were well above 0.05.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study had two goals. First, it investigated high school and lower-level college foreign language teachers' beliefs about their abilities to have a positive impact on their students to maintain their interest in the languages. Second, it determined the relationship between the teachers' beliefs and their general sense of efficacy.

The results indicated that contrary to the investigators' hypothesis, the teachers overwhelmingly indicated that they believe they have a positive impact on their students to maintain their interest in the languages. Almost all, 91.67%, of them responded in the affirmative, meaning that an overwhelming majority of the teachers believed that they do not contribute to the discontinuation that prevents students from studying the languages long enough to become communicatively competent. Descriptive statistics, ANOVA, multiple regression, and Pearson product-moment analyses also showed that none of the variables—that is, gender, age, years of experience, and native speaker status— correlated with the teachers' beliefs regarding whether or not they had a positive impact on their students to keep them interested in the languages. Therefore, there was no clear evidence of a basis for the responses they gave, which appeared to be arbitrary.

The overwhelming affirmative response by the teachers about their positive impact contradicts the findings of previous research, which confirmed that an important contributory factor for the loss of interest experienced in the study of the languages was what the teachers did or did not do. Andress et al. (2002), Pratt et al. (2009), and Pratt (2010, 2016, 2017) all reported some inability on the part of teachers to maintain the students' interest. However, this outcome is also not surprising, considering that as Andress et al. (2002) reported and Pratt et al. (2009) confirmed, there are significant differences between students' perceptions and teachers' perceptions that indicate that teachers misunderstand students. Further research needs to be conducted with students to verify the actual impact.

A follow-up study matching teachers with specific students as in the case of Swanson (2014), who matched teachers' sense of efficacy in teaching Spanish with their students' scores on the National Spanish Exam to determine the relationship between the two, is recommended in order to ascertain the impact of the teachers' influence. For that reason, specific students and their teachers should participate to ascertain a more direct relationship.

In general, the teachers were confident in their abilities to teach foreign languages. However, the confidence level was only mildly high, as the FLTSE reported an overall mean of only 69.85. Emotional arousal ranked highest among the categories of sources of teacher efficacy, followed by verbal persuasion, performance accomplishment, and

vicarious experience, in that order. An ANOVA test confirmed that the differences were not significant, indicating that the teachers' level of efficacy was mildly high in all four categories of self-efficacy.

The fact that the teachers' level of efficacy was mildly high could explain the difficulties they encountered in their efforts to influence the decisions of their students. The teachers who reported that they believed they had a positive impact on their students to maintain their interest in the languages had a slightly higher overall mean than the group that did not believe they had a positive impact. However, a t-test also proved that the difference between the means of the two groups was not statistically significant, so there was no significant correlation between whether or not they believed they had a positive impact on the students and their actual FLTSE scores. The results of the FLTSE therefore appeared to clarify the questionable results obtained for Research Question 1 in the sense that although the teachers overwhelmingly believed that they had a positive impact, the confidence level was only moderate and they were least confident in their knowledge and skills, which could be the explanation for the continued loss of students from foreign language programs.

Based on these results, the investigators conclude that although most teachers believe that they are keeping their students interested in continuing to study languages, their moderate sense of self-efficacy is indicative of the fact that their influence is probably not sufficient to achieve the desired impact. This outcome explains the problem that led to this investigation, and the investigators recommend an overhaul of foreign language teacher education to include specific training that leads to the maintenance of students in the study of the languages. This is crucial given the fact that if things continue the same way, foreign language enrollments will continue to decrease and the subsequent effect on the low numbers of fluent speakers of foreign languages will lead to a more acute shortage of foreign language teachers and continue the vicious cycle of shortages. Further studies will help identify specific content that must be incorporated into the curriculum.

Additionally, although the differences between the mean scores for the different categories of sources of teacher self-efficacy were not significant, given that the lowest scores were in the areas of performance accomplishment and vicarious experience, there appears to be evidence of a need for enhanced content knowledge and pedagogical skills in general among the teachers. The overhaul of foreign language teacher education mentioned above would also need to incorporate more emphasis on content and pedagogy. A follow-up study that proposes a foreign language teacher education curriculum that incorporates the lacking competences is recommended in order to provide adequate training that will ensure the ability of the teachers to maintain the interest of their students.

Findings from this study therefore appear to support the hypothesis that foreign language teachers' sense of efficacy is related to students' loss of interest in continuing the study of the languages, and that the mildly high confidence in their abilities is reflected in the level of impact they have on the students. This conclusion also supports the evidence in the literature that an increase in a teacher's self-efficacy translates into an increase in positive outcomes and increased motivation (Bandura, 1986; Caprara et al., 2006; Ertmer, 2005; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Klassen et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2013; Maddux & Gosselin, 2003; Scholz et al., 2002; Skaalvik & Bong, 2003; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy 2001, 2011). The fact that the data in the study were self-reported is a limitation, because they could not be verified. Interviews with some students would have added more useful information for clarification. These can be incorporated into follow-up studies.

This study has important implications for foreign language teachers, as the findings point to specific deficiencies in their efficacy, and they can utilize the results to determine the content and strategies that are needed to improve their efficacy as well as their abilities to impact their students positively to maintain their interest. Additionally, due to the high validity of the FLTSE, foreign language teachers in different contexts can self-administer it to determine their levels of efficacy and the improvements they need. The findings also have important implications for school administrators, as they are the ones who approve and fund in-service professional development opportunities for teachers. In addition to the regular topics covered in the professional training sessions, emphasis needs to be put on specific training that will enhance their self-efficacy and provide them with tools that will help them keep their students interested in continuing to learn the languages. With regard to foreign language teacher education programs, the data can provide guidance for the development of pre-service curricula that include the needed training for high efficacy and the acquisition of expertise in the development of student interest and motivation. The results will also give stakeholders a better understanding of what the institutions need in their efforts to provide needed services and education and collaborate with them.

REFERENCES

[1] Achura, C., & Villardón, L. (2012). Teacher self-efficacy and student learning. *The European Journal of Social & Behavioural Sciences, 2*(2), 366–383. https://doi.org/:10.15405/FutureAcademy/ejsbs(2301-2218).2012.2.17 (accessed 15 May 2020).

[2] Akbari, R., & Karimi Allvar, N. (2010). L2 teacher characteristics as predictors of students' academic achievement. *TESL-EJ, 13*(4), 1–22.

[3] Alonso, C. (2007). Spanish: The foreign national language. *Profession 2007*, 218–228. https://doi.org/10.1632/prof.2007.2007.1.218 (accessed 20 May 2020).

[4] Anderson, R., Greene, M., & Loewen, P. (1988). Relationships among teachers' and students' thinking skills, sense of efficacy, and student achievement. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 34*(2), 148–165.

[5]   Anderson, S. L., & Betz, N. E. (2001). Sources of social self-efficacy expectations: Their measurement and relation to career development. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 58*(1), 98–117.

[6]   Andress, R., James, C., Jurase, B., Laland, J., Lovi, T., Lund, D., Stoyak, D, Tatlock, L., & Wipf, J. (2002). Maintaining the momentum from high school to college. Report and Recommendations. *Die Unterrichtspraxis I Teaching German, 35*(1), 1–14.

[7]   Ashton, P., & Webb, B. (1986). Making a difference: Teachers' sense of efficacy and student achievement. New York: Longman.

[8]   Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review, 84*(2), 191–215.

[9]   Bandura, A. (1986). Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

[10]   Bandura, A. (1997). Self-efficacy: The exercise of control. New York: Freeman.

[11]   Caprara, G. V., Barbaranelli, C., Steca, P., & Malone, P. S. (2006). Teacher self-efficacy beliefs as determinants of job satisfaction and students' academic achievement: A study at the school level. *Journal of School Psychology, 44*, 473–490.

[12]   Chacón, C. T. (2005). Teachers' perceived efficacy among English as a foreign language teachers in middle schools in Venezuela. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 21*(3), 257–272.

[13]   Creswell, John W. (2014). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

[14]   Ertmer, P. (2005). Teacher pedagogical beliefs: The final frontier in our quest for technology integration? *Educational Technology Research and Development, 53*(4), 25–39.

[15]   Eslami, Z. R., & Fatahi, A. (2008). Teachers' sense of self-efficacy, English proficiency, and instructional strategies: A study of nonnative EFL teachers in Iran. *TESL-EJ, 11*(4), 1–19.

[16]   Fives. H., & Alexander, P. A. (2004). Modelling teachers' efficacy, knowledge, and pedagogical beliefs. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychological Association, Honolulu.

[17]   Flaherty, C. (2018). L'oeuf ou la poule? *Inside Higher Ed.* https://www.insidehighered.com/news/2018/03/19/mla-data-enrollments-show-foreign language-study-decline (accessed 20 Feb. 2020).

[18]   Ford, I. R. (2012). Teacher self-efficacy and its influence on student motivation. ETD Archive. 99. https://engagedscholarship.csuohio.edu/etdarchive/99 (accessed 10 Feb 2020).

[19]   Garfinkle, A.. (1987). MIJ notes and news. *The Modern Language Journal, 71*, 180–187.

[20]   Gay, G. (2000). Culturally responsive teaching: Theory, research, and practice. New York: Teachers College Press.

[21]   Gay, G. (Ed.). (2003). Becoming multicultural educators: Personal journey toward professional agency. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

[22]   Gay, G. (2010). Acting on beliefs in teacher education for cultural diversity. *Journal of Teacher Education, 61*(1), 143–152.

[23]   Gibson, S., & Dembo, M. H. (1984). Teacher efficacy: A construct validation. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 76*(4), 569–582.

[24]   Goddard, R. D., Hoy, W. K., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2004). Collective efficacy: Theoretical developments, empirical evidence, and future directions. *Educational Researcher, 33*(3), 3–13.

[25]   Goldberg, D., Looney, D., & Lusin, N. (2015). Enrollments in languages other than English in United States institutions of higher education, Fall 2013. Retrieved from https://www.mla.org/content/download/31180/1452509/EMB_enrllmnts_nonEngl_2013 (accessed 20 Dec. 2019).

[26]   Good, T., & Brophy, J. (2003). Looking in the classroom. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

[27]   Graham, S., & Weiner, B. (1996). Theories and principles of motivation. In D. C. Berliner & R. C. Calfee (Eds.), *Handbook of educational psychology* (pp. 63–84). New York: Macmillan Library Reference USA; Prentice Hall International.

[28]   Guilloteaux, M., & Dörnyei, Z. (2008). Motivating language learners: A classroom-oriented investigation of the effects of motivational strategies on student motivation. *TESOL Quarterly, 42*(1), 55–77.

[29]   Guskey, T. R. (1988). Teacher efficacy, self-concept, and attitudes toward the implementation of instructional motivation. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 4*, 63–69.

[30]   Henson, R. (2001). Understanding internal consistency reliability estimates: A conceptual primer on coefficient alpha. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development, 34*, 177–189.

[31]   Klassen, R. M., Tze, V. M., Betts, S. M., & Gordon, K. (2011). Teacher efficacy research 1998–2009: Signs of progress or unfulfilled promise? *Educational Psychology Review, 23,* 21–43.

[32]   Klassen, R. M., Usher, F. I., & Bong, M. (2010). Teachers' collective efficacy, job satisfaction, and job stress in cross-cultural context. *Journal of Experimental Education, 78*, 464–486.

[33]   Lee, B., Cawthon, S., & Dawson, K. (2013). Elementary and secondary teacher self-efficacy for teaching and pedagogical conceptual change in a drama-based professional development program. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 30*, 84–98. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2012.10.010 (accessed 20 Nov. 2019).

[34]   Locke, T., & Johnson, M. (2016). Developing an individual and collective self-efficacy scale for the teaching of writing in high schools. *Assessing Writing, 28*, 1–14.

[35]   Locke, T., Whitehead, D., & Dix, S. (2013). The impact of 'writing project' professional development on teachers' self-efficacy as writers and teachers of writing. *English in Australia, 48*(2), 55–69.

[36]   Maddux, J. E., & Gosselin, J. T. (2003). Self-efficacy. In M. R. Leary & J. P. Tangney (Eds.), *Handbook of self and identity* (pp. 218–238). New York: Guilford.

[37]   [37] Martocchio, J. J., & Judge, T. A. (1997). Relationship between conscientiousness and learning in employee training: Mediating influences of self-deception and self-efficacy. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*(5), 764–773. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.82.5.764 (accessed 5 Nov. 2019).

[38]   Midgley, C., Feldlaufer, H., & Eccles, J. (1989). Change in teacher efficacy and student self- and task-related beliefs in mathematics during the transition to junior high school. *APA, 81*(2), 247–258.

[39]   Mills, N. A. (2011). Teaching assistants' self-efficacy in teaching literature: Sources, personal assessments, and consequences, *Modern Language Journal, 95*(1), 61–80.

[40] Mills, N., & Allen, H. (2008). Teacher efficacy in native and non-native teaching assistants of French. In J. Siskin (Ed.), *Thought to action: Exploring beliefs and outcomes in the foreign language program* (pp. 213–234). Boston: Heinle.

[41] Mills, N. A., Pajares, F., & Herron, C. (2007). Self-efficacy of college intermediate French students: Relation to achievement and motivation. *Language Learning 57*(3), 417–442.

[42] Mitchell, C. (2017). Just 20 percent of K-12 students are learning a foreign language. Education Week. Retrieved on July 10, 2019: https://www.edweek.org/ew/articles/2017/06/21/just-20-percent-of-k-12-students-are.html (accessed 5 Nov. 2019)

[43] Pajares, F. (2008). Motivational role of self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulated learning. In D. H. Schunk & B. J. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Motivation and self-regulated learning: Theory, research, and applications* (pp. 111–139). Mahwah, N.J: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

[44] Palmer, D. H. (2006). Sources of self-efficacy in a science methods course for primary teacher education students. *Research in Science Education, 36*(4), 337–353.

[45] Phan, N. (2015). Can I teach these students? A case study of Vietnamese teachers' self-efficacy in relation to teaching English as a foreign language [Unpublished doctoral dissertation. The University of Waikato, New Zealand.

[46] Pratt, C. (2010). Maintaining the momentum of students of Spanish from high school to college. *Hispania, 93*(4), 671–685.

[47] Pratt, C. (2016). Factors that motivate high school students to continue studying French in college. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science, 6*(11), 1–15.

[48] Pratt, C. (2017). Envisioning a future of re-examination of foreign language teacher education. *Hispania, Centenary Issue, 100*(4), 268–269.

[49] Pratt, C., Agnello, M., & Santos, S. (2009). Factors that motivate high-school students' decisions to study Spanish. *Hispania, 92*(4), 800–813.

[50] Ramage, K. (1990). Motivational factors and persistence in foreign language study. *Language Learning, 40*(2),189–219.

[51] Ross, J. A. (1992). Teacher efficacy and the effect of coaching on student achievement. *Canadian Journal of Education, 17,* 51–65.

[52] Ross, J. A., Cousins, J. B., & Gadalla, T. (1996). Within-teacher predictors of teacher efficacy. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 12*(4), 385–400.

[53] Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. I. (2000) Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development and well-being. *American Psychologist, 55*(1), 68–78.

[54] Saks, A. M. (1995). Longitudinal field investigation of the moderating and mediating effects of self-efficacy on the relationship between training and newcomer adjustment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 80*(2), 211–225. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.80.2.211 (accessed 16 Feb.2020).

[55] Scholz, U., Doña, B. G., Sud, S., & Schwarzer, R. (2002). Is general self-efficacy a universal construct? Psychometric findings from 25 countries. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment, 18*(3), 242–251. https://doi.org/10.1027/1015-5759.18.3.242 (accessed 14 Jan. 2020).

[56] Silverman, S. K. (2010). What is diversity? An inquiry into preservice teacher beliefs. *American Educational Research Journal, 47*(2), 292–329.

[57] Skaalvik, E. M., & Bong, M. (2003). Self-concept and self-efficacy revisited: A few notable differences and important similarities. In H. W. Marsh, R. G. Craven, & D. M. McInerney (Eds.), *International advances in self research* (pp. 67e89). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.

[58] Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2007). Dimensions of teacher self-efficacy and relations with strain factors, perceived collective teacher efficacy, and teacher burnout. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 99,* 611–625.

[59] Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2009). Does school context matter? Relations with teacher burnout and job satisfaction. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 25*(3), 518–524.

[60] Speiller, J. (1988). Factors that influence high-school students' decisions to continue or discontinue the study of French and Spanish after Levels II, III, and IV. *Foreign Language Annals, 21*(6), 535–545.

[61] Stajkovic, A. D., & Luthans, F. (1998). Self-efficacy and work-related performance: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 124*(2), 240–261. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.124.2.240 (accessed 6 Jan. 2020).

[62] Swanson, P. (2010a). Teacher efficacy and attrition: Helping students at the introductory levels of language appears critical. *Hispania, 93*(2), 305–321.

[63] Swanson, P. (2010b). Efficacy and language teacher attrition: A case of mentorship beyond the classroom. *NECTFL Review, 66,* 48–72.

[64] Swanson, P. (2012). Second/foreign language teacher efficacy: Multiple factors and their relation to professional attrition. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 68*(1), 78–101.

[65] Swanson, P. (2014). The power of belief: Spanish teachers' sense of efficacy and student performance on the National Spanish Examinations. *Hispania, 97*(1), 5–20.

[66] Swanson, P., & Huff, R. (2010). Georgia's rural foreign language teachers' sense of efficacy and how it relates to teacher attrition. *The Rural Educator, 31*(3), 16–29.

[67] Thompson, G. (2016). Japanese high school English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs about teaching English [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. School of Cultural and Professional Learning, Queensland University of Technology, Australia.

[68] Tschannen-Moran, M. M., & Woolfolk-Hoy, A. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 17*(7), 783–805.

[69] Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2007). The different antecedents of self-efficacy beliefs of novice and experienced teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education 23*(6), 944–956.

[70] Tschannen-Moran, M. M., Woolfolk Hoy, A., & Hoy, W. K. (1998). Teacher efficacy: Its meaning and measure. *Review of Educational Research, 68*(2), 202–248.

[71] Wheatley, K. F. (2005). The case for reconceptualizing teacher efficacy research. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 21,* 747–766.

[72] Woolfolk, A. E., & Hoy, W. K. (1990). Prospective teachers' sense of efficacy and beliefs about control. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 82,* 81–91.

[73] Woolfolk, A. E., Rosoff, B., & Hoy, W. K. (1990). Teachers' sense of efficacy and their beliefs about managing students. *Teaching & Teacher Education, 6,* 137–148.

[74] Wyatt, M. (2008). Growth in practical knowledge and teachers' self-efficacy during an in-service BA (TESOL) programme [Unpublished dissertation]. School of Education, University of Leeds, UK.

[75] Wyatt, M. (2016). Are they becoming more reflective and/or efficacious? A conceptual model mapping how teachers' self-efficacy beliefs might grow. *Educational Review, 68*(1), 114–137.

[76] Wyatt, M. (2018). Language teachers' self-efficacy beliefs: A review of the literature (2005-2016). *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 43*(4), 92–120.

[77] Zaier, A. (2011). Exploring the Factors That Predict Preservice Teachers' Self-Efficacy Beliefs to Teach Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Students. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Texas Tech University.

Comfort Pratt received her Bachelor of Arts with Honors degree in Spanish and French with a minor in linguistics at the University of Ghana, a Graduate Certificate in Translation with emphasis on Spanish at Complutense University in Madrid, Spain, a Master of Arts Degree in Modern Languages at Texas A&M University, and a Ph.D. in Romance Linguistics with a minor in French at Louisiana State University. She is currently an Associate Professor of Curriculum and Instruction at Texas Tech University. Her areas of specialization are foreign language education, second language acquisition, sociolinguistics, and applied linguistics. She is the author of *El español del noroeste de Luisiana: Pervivencia de un dialecto amenazado* (2004), and *In-Class Communicative Projects* (2008). Her recent articles include "Spanish Teaching Assistants' Training, Implementation, and Beliefs About the Appropriateness of Communicative Language Teaching" (2019), "Envisioning a Future of Re-examination of Foreign Language Teacher Education" (2017), and *"*Factors that Motivate High School Students to Continue Studying French in College" (2016). Dr. Pratt is a member of the Board of Directors of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese and was the association's Outstanding Teacher of the Year in 2013.

Amani Zaier obtained her Bachelor of Arts degree in Applied Linguistics in 2002 at the Institute of Languages and Literatures of Tunis, Tunisia, a Master of Arts in Linguistics in 2004 at La Manuba University, Tunisia, a Master of Arts in Applied Linguistics in 2006 at Texas Tech University, and a Ph.D. in Educational Psychology in 2011 at Texas Tech University. She is currently an Assistant Professor in the Department of Educational Psychology at Texas Tech University. Her research interests focus on culturally responsive teaching, teacher self-efficacy beliefs, and addressing the psycholinguistic needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students. Her publications include "Investigating the Primary Orientations and Principal Majors of Learners of Less Commonly Taught Languages" (2014), "Exploring the Relation Among Teachers, School Experiences and Adolescents' Efficacy for Engineering Studies" (2012), and "Mathematical language in early childhood settings: What really counts?" (2008)." She is currently working on a research grant related to parents of children with autism spectrum disorder.

Yanlin Wang obtained her Bachelor of Arts degree in English in 2000 at Sichuan International Studies University, China, a Master of Arts degree in Applied Linguistics in 2007 at Texas Tech University, and an Ed.D. in Instructional Technology in 2015 at Texas Tech University. She is currently an Assistant Professor of Practice of Chinese at Texas Tech University. Her research and publications address various issues of foreign language acquisition and pedagogy, such as computer-assisted foreign language teaching and learning, online foreign language anxiety, foreign language learners' motivation, computer-mediated communication, negotiation of meaning in online activities, learning effects of various online learning modes, Chinese character acquisition, and hybrid and online language course design. Her publications include "Academic Adaptation Among International Students from East Asian Countries: A Consensual Qualitative Research" (2018), "Chinese Language Learners' Anxiety Toward Chat Partners in Computer-Mediated Communication" (2017), and "Does Combining the Embodiment and Personalization Principles of Multimedia Learning Affect Learning the Culture of a Foreign Language?" (2015). In 2019, she won a Chinese Language Teachers Association Award for her work in the area of Chinese as a Second Language.

An Action Research Endeavor with International Student Teaching Assistants for Their Development as Teaching Professionals

Takaaki Hiratsuka

Department of Global Studies, Ryukoku University, Kyoto, Japan

Abstract—Research on the experiences of international student teaching assistants (TAs) in the context of Japan is scarce even though for the majority of TAs the position provides them with their first experience of being an educator at the university level. In this research, I used an action research methodology to better understand and improve the quality of classroom life with three international student TAs. Data were gathered, using interviews, picture drawing, and classroom field notes. Overall, there was an agreement among the participants that the action research endeavor enabled them to feel empowered as teacher professionals in that they reported increases in both their collaboration with me (the course instructor) and the frequency and quality of their engagements with their students. They also noted that the feedback they received from and offered to me became more insightful and wide-ranging. I will conclude this article with my recommendations for future research on TAs.

Index Terms—international student teaching assistants (TAs), professional development, action research, picture drawing

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the number of international teaching assistants (TAs) teaching undergraduate courses, including second language courses, has increased dramatically. This increase is born partly from efforts to promote internationalization on campus (Robson, Almeida, & Schartner, 2018). Playing the role of TAs constitutes an essential part of many international graduate students' day-to-day lives and is considered to be "an integral activity for their academic professionalization" (Zheng, 2017, p. 30). Despite this, there are few empirical studies about them; in particular, research on the experiences of international TAs in the context of Japan is scarce, and longitudinal reports on their TA experiences even scarcer. For the majority of TAs, however, the position is an introduction into being an educator at the university level. Crucially, Ueno and Maruyama (2010) claimed that one of the most salient characteristics of the TA system in Japan is that there is scant opportunity for TAs to develop their teaching abilities. Against this backdrop, it is important to conduct more research on this issue and critically analyze current practices, role assignments, and expectations which impact on the professional development of TAs as pre-service/novice teachers.

It was out of necessity that my TAs and I made the decision to launch this action research within undergraduate-level English language courses. During our initial meetings before the semester, the TAs could not help but openly express their frustration at their previous TA experiences and/or concerns about being my TA. Since I was new to the university and had never had the luxury to hire TAs at my previous institutions, I myself did not know much about how to use TAs or what to do about their apprehensions. After our initial distress passed, we felt an overwhelming desire to make our experiences in the courses better for our students and for ourselves. Coupled with this desire was my unsettling awareness that researchers and institutions have not heretofore closely inspected the experiences of TAs in this context. In mutual pursuit of an enriched experience, we agreed that we would carry out an action research project in which we, as both teachers and researchers, observe each other, take notes in class, and engage in considerable discussion (Borg, 2013; Burns, 2005). This study is therefore of value mainly for two reasons. First, it provides additional information about the experiences of TAs, which has been conspicuously under-explored especially in the field of English language education in Japan. Second, it exemplifies how TAs, as legitimate novice teachers, are deserving of professional development opportunities within their particular contexts.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

There has been an intensified move towards professionalizing the practice of TAs at the university level in the last few decades, particularly in the United States and the United Kingdom (e.g., Park, 2004; Winter, Turner, Gedye, Nash, & Grant, 2014). Concurrently, researchers have explored the topic empirically and started to unveil TAs' instructional perceptions and practices (Addy & Blanchard, 2010; Deacon, Hajek, & Schulz, 2017), concerns and challenges (Cho, Kim, Svinicki, & Decker, 2011; Muzaka, 2009), as well as roles and identities (Fairbrother, 2012; Winstone & Moore, 2016). Improvement of students' attitudes towards international student TAs was the focal point of Manohar and

Appiah's (2015) study. While Manohar and Appiah acknowledged that undergraduate students across the U.S. universities often evaluated international student TAs negatively, they demonstrated one way in which to increase the students' willingness to support international student TAs through a perspective taking intervention. In the field of English language education in particular, Lee's (2016) mixed methods study conducted in the United States examined the relationships between lecturer's oral corrective feedback and changes in 60 international student TAs' language anxiety levels. The results highlighted that the use of corrective feedback generated both positive and negative emotional states in the international student TAs. In a similar vein, Zheng (2017) investigated the experiences of two English department international student TAs at a public university in the United States by employing an ethnographic multiple case study approach. The study revealed that each international student TA had a distinctive linguistic identity and enacted each respective translingual identity to varying degrees, due to their different language learning histories.

In the context of Japan, there exist relatively few examples of empirical research about TAs, let alone international student TAs. One such study concerning TAs in general, however, is Kaibara's (2011) study in which he found that Japanese national universities utilize TAs in a limiting and monotonous way, by and large treating them as mere administrative and clerical staff. Shin, Hirai, and Horie (2016), on the other hand, proposed a developmental model of TAs who were involved with undergraduate courses at a university in Japan. The interview data from 10 Japanese TAs suggested that TAs' intentions and commitment as well as such stakeholders as their mentors and peers are key to the optimal developmental processes and growth of TAs. Shin, Hirai, and Horie's (2016) is thus one of the views that illuminated the issue of TA professional development in Japan. More recently, Fujishiro and Hozaki (2018) interrogated the experiences of three Japanese TAs in a course called Media Production Studies, via the use of the TAs' field notes. The main results of the study were that each TA paid attention to different cohorts of students when teaching (e.g., classroom as a whole vs particular students) and engaged in dissimilar types of reflective activities (e.g., forward-looking vs backward-looking), depending on their prior TA experiences and the duration of the experiences. Haswell's (2017) study is most pertinent to my current study. He investigated how a TA program at a Japanese university affected the campus lives of international students who were employed as TAs. Among his findings, what was particularly notable was that the participants regarded their TA role as being vague. It was also reported that even though the TAs expected to support the teacher both inside and outside the classroom, they were more likely to be confined to a non-teaching, clerical work. Following on from Haswell (2017), the current study also attempts to look into the lives of international TAs at a Japanese university. However, the current study significantly differs in that (a) the participating international student TAs in this study are graduate students as opposed to undergraduate students, (b) the research context of this study is one of the largest national universities as opposed to one of the most highly-internationalized private universities, and (c) this study has incorporated an action research component over time with its focus on teacher education as opposed to a descriptive study that documented TA perspectives at a certain fixed time. Thus, the research question formulated for this study was: What effects does an action research endeavor have on the experiences of international student TAs at a Japanese national university?

In order to be guided in answering the above question more effectively, one assumption I made at the outset of this study was that a course instructor and a TA at the university level are essentially engaged in one type of team teaching. Therefore, the literature and discussion surrounding team teaching in English language education at Japanese schools appeared to be quite relevant and useful as well. For more than three decades, foreign assistant language teachers (ALTs) have been paired up with local Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) for the advancement of foreign language education in Japan (CLAIR, 2020). Several empirical studies on the topic revealed that the team teachers were unclear and ambivalent about the roles of their own and their partner's and held unique, sometimes even diametric, perceptions about them (e.g., Hiratsuka, 2015; Mahoney, 2004). It was also found that ALTs felt underused and experienced frustration when they were treated as merely a human tape recorder (McConnell, 2000) as well as when they had no meaningful connection with their students (Hiratsuka, 2015). Power imbalance between the team teachers was the focal issue in Miyazato's (2009) study (see also Hiratsuka, 2017a). Under these circumstances, Tajino, Stewart, and Dalsky (2015) attached great significance to collaboration among team teachers and students and introduced the concept of team learning where all the stakeholders "share a core value that places priority on collaboration in ways that enhance 'quality of life' in the classroom" (Tajino & Smith, 2015, p. 24, emphasis in the original). Likewise, Hiratsuka (2017b) documented the learning trajectories of team teachers through pair discussions involving video-stimulated recall and demonstrated the value of dialogic and cooperative practices between them that led to fruitful professional development. These studies concerning team teaching between JTEs and ALTs hence became the catalyst for answering the research question and functioned as main reference sources during the phases of data interpretation and discussion of this research.

<div align="center">III. METHODOLOGY</div>

A. The Participants

The action research project was carried out during the fall semester of 2017. The contexts were three undergraduate-level English language courses (English A, B, and C) that I taught once a week for 90 minutes over the course of 15 weeks at one of the largest national universities in northern Japan. The content and goals of the three courses were

primarily the same: to cultivate the four skills of English (speaking, writing, reading, and listening) for academic purposes. Before the semester, the university helped me to find and hire TAs for each course. I interviewed several candidates from the list provided by the university that specified graduate students who expressed their wish to be hired as TAs. After the interviews, I recruited three TAs (Peter, Maria, and Chloe) on the basis of their personal and professional experiences in teaching, their social activities at the university, and their high levels of English proficiency. I assigned Peter as my TA for English A, Maria for English B, and Chloe for English C (see TABLE Ⅰ). All names of courses and participants are pseudonyms.

TABLE 1
PARTICIPANTS IN THE STUDY

Participant name	Peter	Maria	Chloe
Age	24	29	25
Gender	Male	Female	Female
Nationality	Vietnamese	Vietnamese	Chinese
Pursuing degree	Master's (Economics)	Master's (Economics)	Master's (Economics)
Total TA work hours for the course	20 hours (15 hours in the classroom; 5 hours marking)	20 hours (15 hours in the classroom; 5 hours marking)	20 hours (15 hours in the classroom; 5 hours marking)
Number of semesters as a TA previously and type of courses	0	1 (English language teaching; Statistics)	2 (Chinese language teaching)
Number of semesters at the university	3	3	4
Foreign language proficiency	Advanced (English) Beginner (Japanese)	Advanced (English) Beginner (Japanese)	Advanced (English) Advanced (Japanese)
Course in charge	English A	English B	English C
Major of students in the course	Engineering	Education & Literature	Science
Number of students in the course	39	37	28

B. Data Collection and Data Analysis

Data were collected through interviews, picture drawing, and classroom field notes. I describe below the data collection and data analysis methods employed in this study.

1. Interviews

Interviews as a qualitative data collection method can provide participants with an impetus for scrutinizing their perceptions and narrating their experiences. As such, I made a decision to conduct interviews with each TA before and after the semester. Since this study was as much theirs as mine, I purposefully chose to have an unstructured interview. Prior to beginning, I informed the TAs that the interview was more of a free-flowing conversation between us on a general topic (i.e., our overall teaching experience) rather than a data collection interview with a set of pre-determined agendas and questions on a particular issue. The interviews lasted about 90 minutes each in English in my office at the university. All interviews were recorded and analyzed through content analysis, an inductive strategy that determines codes and categories by identifying significant saliencies and commonalities with respect to participants' TA experiences (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007).

2. Picture drawing

Within the social sciences, visual representations, such as researcher-initiated picture drawing, have been used as a data collection method (Pauwels, 2010). Kelly (2018) adopted this data collection method and asked 12 pre-service teachers in a community college to draw pictures of teachers teaching English at both the beginning and end of their course. In a very similar manner to her study, immediately before the interviews were carried out at the beginning and end of the semester, I asked the participating TAs to draw pictures of what it means to be a TA in English language courses at the university. They did not have access to the first picture when they drew the second one. During the first interview, we discussed the first picture they drew and negotiated the roles we would play in the course, possible

pedagogies we could implement, and instructional content we would deal with. During the second interview, we looked at both the pictures drawn and exchanged thoughts about the convergences and divergences between them. All the drawing data were analyzed through visual content analysis, a systematic observational method that allows researchers to classify data into idiosyncratic categories (Bell, 2004; Kelly, 2018).

3. Classroom field notes

Unless we examine what teachers and students say and do in the classroom in which they actually work and learn, we cannot gain an authentic and thorough insight into their teaching and learning (Fanselow, 2018). The TAs and I therefore decided to take classroom field notes while we were either free from classroom duties during the lesson or immediately after the end of it. We wrote brief descriptions of the physical environment and the students as well as jotted down details of utterances made in the lesson or of any kind of event or incident we noticed.

IV. FINDINGS

There was an overall agreement among the TA participants that the action research endeavor assisted them to feel empowered as teacher professionals in that, in comparison to their previous experiences or expectations, (a) there was more fruitful collaboration with the course instructor (me), (b) there were more engagements with their students, and (c) the feedback they received from me and provided to me was more insightful and wide-ranging.

A. Collaboration with the Teacher

It was immediately apparent, by comparing the first and second drawings, especially those of Peter and Maria, that in the TAs' minds the level of collaboration and coordination between the TAs and the instructor in the course was high. Although Peter drew in the first picture (see Fig. 1) that the course instructor and TA stand far from each other at the front of the classroom and do not seem to communicate, in his second picture both teachers stand in close proximity and appear to engage in a dialogue. Maria's first picture (see Fig. 2) featured the course instructor sitting at the desk and the TA using a copy machine in the office. They seem to look at opposite directions and work on their respective work on their own. Her first picture also showed that the course instructor is teaching in front of the blackboard in the classroom alone while the TA is nowhere to be seen. In contrast, Maria drew in her second picture the course instructor and the TA sitting face-to-face and appearing to have a conversation in an office. She also drew in the second picture that the course instructor stands behind the podium and that the TA sits amongst the students while facing toward one of the students. There was thus a remarkable difference between the first and second pictures with respect to the level of collaboration between them.
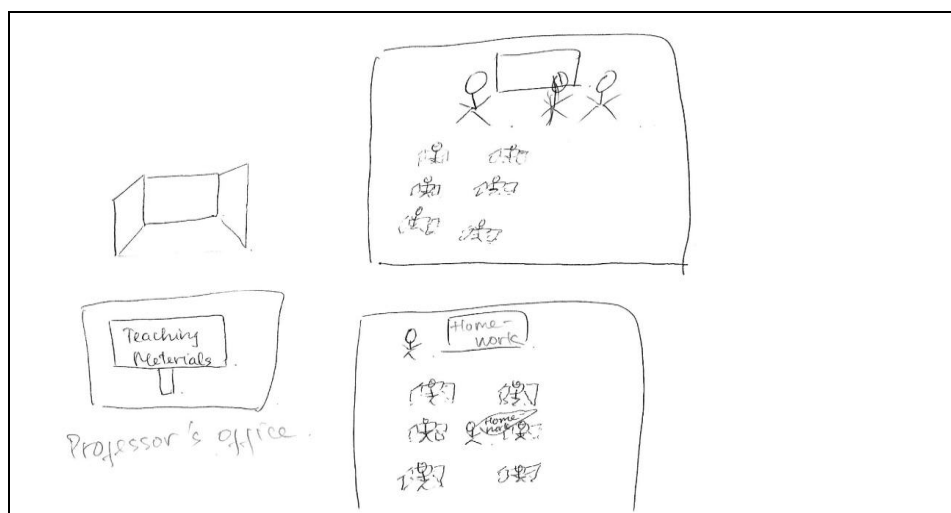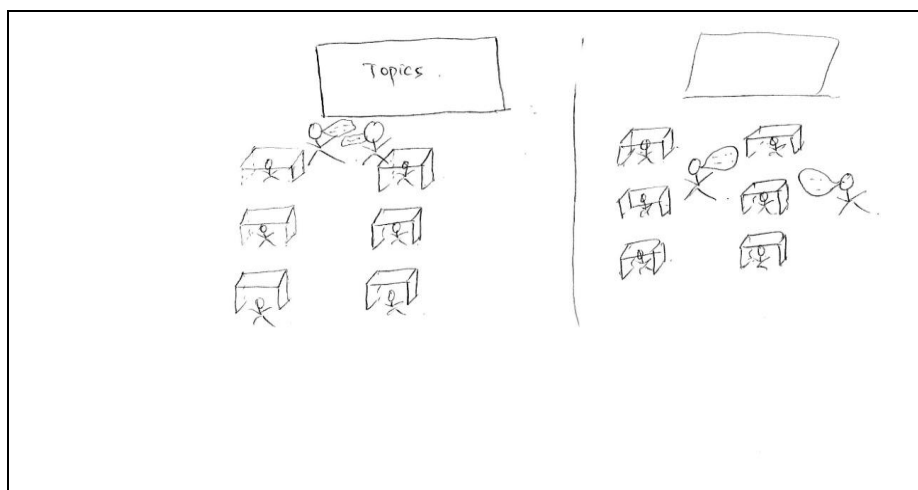
Fig. 1: Peter's drawings (above is the first drawing, and below is the second).
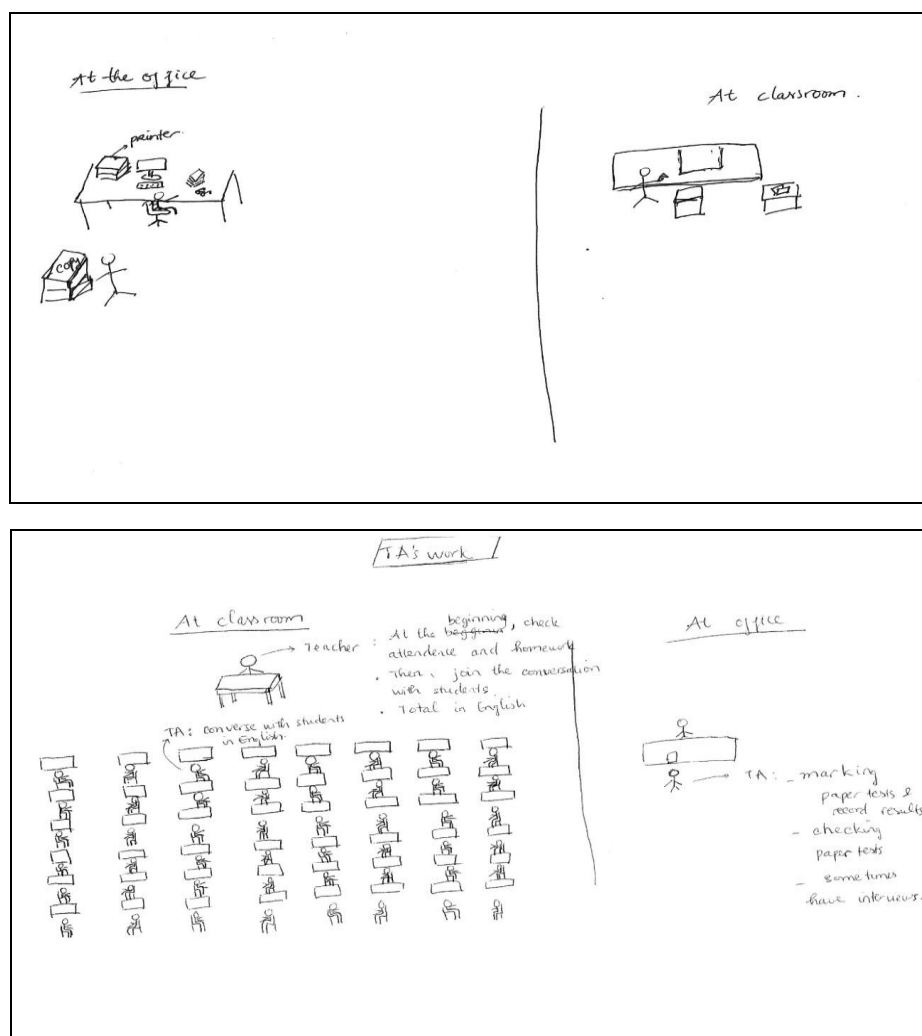

Fig. 2: Maria's drawings (above is the first drawing, and below is the second).

This theme of collaboration was also noticeable in their interview data. In his first interview, Peter was eager to find out what he was supposed to do as a TA and asked me questions such as: "Do you want me to prepare reading materials or copy something and set up the computer before the class?" He identified the role of TA as being the helper for the course instructor, and imagined the job entailed clerical and technical work mainly outside of the classroom, independent from the instructor. His comment reflects this: "For me, being a TA is first and foremost supporting the instructor…. TAs copy materials and check homework of the students. Basically, all of this gets done between lessons without much guidance. That's what I heard TAs do" (Interview 1, Peter). At that point, he did not seem to associate the TA job as being involved in teamwork with the course instructor. In his view, therefore, there is a marked division of

labor between the TA and course instructor, and their communication is kept to a minimum. In his second interview, however, he appeared to have changed his perceptions of TA work from being isolated individual duties towards more opportunities for collaborative tasks with the course instructor. He attributed this at least partly to our action research project: "This action research project and the interview opportunities have allowed me to talk to you a lot and freely discuss what we do and what we can do to make the course better". He continued, emphasizing the importance of collaboration: "I like our current collaborative style. Although I basically had no teaching experience, I felt like I could make use of my personal experience and knowledge more this way and contribute to the students as a team member". He then quickly added: "Doing paperwork alone would have been terribly boring!"

Maria also seemed to have radically modified her earlier perceptions of the TA role. In the second interview, she commented:

> Previously, my image was that I, TA, should prepare materials and do paperwork in the
> professor's office and I do not need to come to the classroom. Now it is totally different,
> and I had to get involved with classroom activities and exchange ideas with you outside
> the classroom. And I loved that. (Interview 2, Maria)

Maria admitted that she could enjoy the close involvement she had with me and class activities in the course more than she initially imagined. In Chloe's interviews, as well, the change in perception of a TA's role became evident. During her first interview, though somewhat unsure, she presented her ideas about the role of TA being secretarial: "TA sits on the chair, make copies, and check tests. I assume that TA has to prepare the blackboard and power point slides for the teacher? I don't know". During her second interview, on the contrary, she said that to her surprise she played a more active role in the classroom in a cooperative manner with me:

> We have done a lot of joint conversations as models in front of the students together. I did
> not feel qualified, but you let me be your conversational partner, and we spoke a lot. That
> was not anything I expected or experienced before. (Interview 2, Chloe)

As seen in the examples above, after the action research experience, the TAs came to believe that TAs and course instructors could be more collaborative and work together for shared goals. They also asserted that their job should not be just limited to clerical work but should be more pedagogically meaningful. Although the experience they had had as TAs or the anecdotes they had heard from others prior to the project had led them to deem that the TA presence in the classroom was uncommon and their involvement with the teacher constrained, the TA participants in this study reported that they had more positive experiences and that the action research activities such as collaborative reflection and discussions with me facilitated that.

B. Engagement with Students

In addition to the increase in collaboration with the course instructor, another intriguing contrast shown in the illustrations by Maria (see Fig. 2) is the involvement level the TA had with students. Again, although the TA was nowhere to be seen in her first picture, Maria drew a TA sitting amongst the students in the classroom. The description of her second picture reads: "TA: converse with students in English". It seems that Maria came to understand that one vital job of TA is to participate actively in conversations with students in the classroom, as opposed to being only in charge of clerical work and not attending the lessons. Similarly, what seems most striking in Fig. 3 drawn by Chloe is the change in the level of engagement the teachers have with students. That is, Chloe in the first picture sketched out a TA responsible for handling computer equipment, sitting at the front row alone, and working on test marking by herself. In all the cases, the TA works at one place, distancing himself/herself from the course instructor or any of the students. By comparison, the TA portrayed in her second picture is mobile, sometimes walking near the students and at other times positioning himself/herself alongside the students as a member of the group at a table.
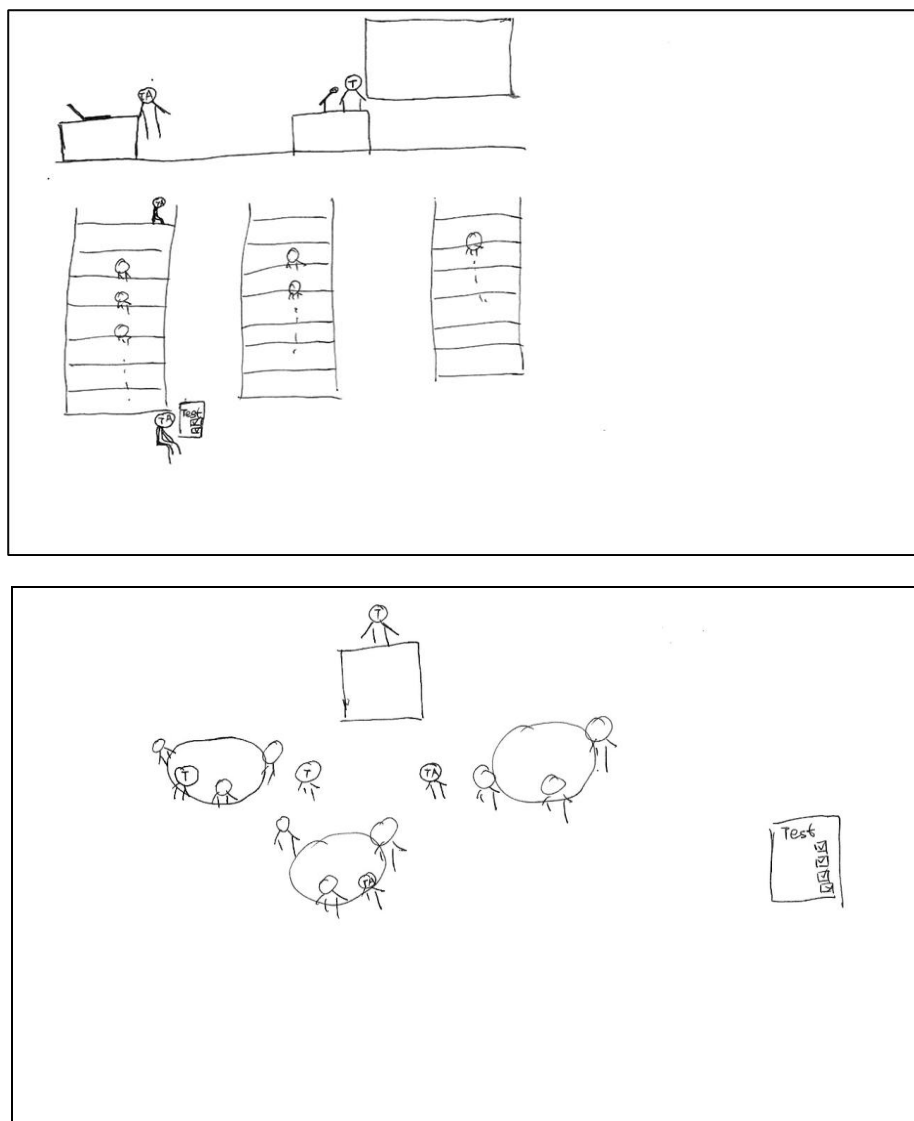
Fig. 3: Chloe's drawings (above is the first drawing, and below is the second).

Interview data also pointed to the advancements of the TAs' engagement with students. Looking at both pictures and responding to my prompt: "What are the similarities and differences between the pictures you drew before and now?" (see Fig. 1), Peter remarked: "I think there are some similarities in that the job of TA is to support the teacher and the class. But the second drawing suggests that TA is communicating and interacting with students" (Interview 2, Peter). Peter then spoke about the personalities of Japanese people, speculated on the students' experiences in the course, and conveyed his impression of the course with excitement: "Not many Japanese students share their personal opinions or experiences. But in those classes, they did…. I hope the students enjoyed speaking about personal topics to me and to other classmates. I certainly did!" (Interview 2, Peter).

Several examples also surfaced in Maria's interview which illustrated that she engaged more with the students as the course progressed. She reported what she did in the course and explained her preference:

> In your classroom, I conversed with students in English and I became more active by
> interacting with them. Personally, I really like being involved with the students and
> interacting with them because I love talking to many people and exchanging ideas. I also
> love the students to practice speaking English. (Interview 2, Maria)

She was well aware of the transformations her students underwent in terms of their attitudes toward the use of English and their communication abilities in it over the semester. She seemed to be excited to witness the development and provided possible reasons for why it took place: "Toward the end of the course they talked a lot more and gave me substantial information about themselves. One possible reason for this was they got used to me, and the other was their English-speaking skills improved" (Interview 2, Maria).

Chloe also perceived the shift in the level of engagement she had with students. She mentioned in her second interview that she, as a TA, had more connection with students in the course we taught together than previous courses she was a TA for: "Most of the work I did when I was a TA for Chinese language classes was paperwork. But, in this

course I spoke to students and moved around freely in the classroom" (Interview 2, Chloe). Afterwards, she further articulated her enthusiasm about the pedagogical style we employed whilst offering her reasons:

> I liked having direct contact with the students. By talking to them, I could detect which part they had difficulty with and how they were learning English. If I just sat in front of the class, I would not have known whether they were understanding the lesson or not. With individual contact, I could give suggestions by listening to them and looking at their faces. (Interview 2, Chloe)

The drawings and interview responses above exhibit that the TA participants were likely to have felt that the courses offered a platform for them to interact directly with their students in the classroom more than they had imagined or experienced previously. In particular, Maria and Chloe who had had TA experience at the university before were keenly cognizant that the level of engagement they could gain through close communication with the students in the courses was quite high, something they did not expect as a TA because they considered its principal job to be clerical work occurring outside the classroom.

C. Feedback from and for the Instructor

The TA participants were unanimous that the action research activities, including two official interviews and a number of spontaneous discussions throughout the semester, yielded opportunities for them to receive and provide insightful feedback on wide-ranging topics. For example, Peter remembered several instances during the course where he was encouraged by me to introduce his culture and language learning experience to the students:

> To be honest, I am not an extroverted person. I am talkative only when my close friends are around. But I could sort of change that shy personality because you let me freely talk about myself, Vietnam, and my English learning experience. At one point, you let me be in charge of the half of the students and after the class we shared our experiences and gave feedback to each other. I think it was good for those students. (Interview 2, Peter)

He also referred to a specific pedagogical strategy we could have used for the course: "It might be better to increase the frequency of group work a little more, rather than always using pair activities" (Interview 2, Peter). His responses might be a signal that he began to enhance his confidence and demonstrated his ability as a teaching professional. Drawing upon her previous TA experience, Maria expressed her opinion on the TA arrangement, indicated what is necessary for its success, and affirmed that there had been open communication between her and me during the semester:

> The TA program itself is not bad, but to make it better, the teacher and TA need to get along with each other and be on the same page. It is all about how compatible they are. As a TA, I did not have any idea or control before, but this time round I could make suggestions about the tests, class activities, and so on. (Interview 2, Maria)

Looking towards the future, Maria envisaged that the TA experience, especially those gained inside the classroom, would be useful for her professional career: "The tweaks and suggestions you gave me on the spot in the classroom helped me to know how to make the lesson lively and encourage students to have confidence" (Interview 2, Maria). Her statements indicated that, contrary to some anecdotes as well as some of the previous academic discussion, TA experiences in the Japanese university context can aptly serve as a beneficial pre-service teacher education opportunity for international students.

Although Chloe acknowledged that she could receive and provide feedback in the course with me, she was doubtful about the possibility that this mutual feedback provision would take place with other professors: "Professors have been using the same textbook and keeping the same teaching style for many years. I don't think they are willing to change their situations so much" (Interview 2, Chloe). Chloe hypothesized that it is difficult for veteran professors who have established their own teaching styles to modify their classes after many years. She held a view that those veteran professors who do not put themselves on the same footing as TAs might limit their meaningful professional development for both themselves and their TAs, with this power imbalance being particularly detrimental to the TAs. This is a serious concern and merits further attention, given that all the TA participants in this study told me that one of the main reasons to sign up for the TA job was to learn how to teach at the university level and develop as educators so as to enhance their future employment prospects.

The comments above, together with data from the classroom field notes (e.g., "Teacher told me that asking the same questions he asked to the whole class during my conversation with each student would promote student learning" (Classroom field note, Peter)), suggest that the TAs appreciated and found value in the chance to both provide and receive feedback on our teaching. The feedback moments they shared might have contributed to addressing the TAs' professional needs in a practical sense while offering them a fruitful avenue for constructing their emerging professional identities as legitimate educators.

V. DISCUSSION

Peter had no prior TA experience but had formed an image of the TA after listening to his friends' stories as someone who carries out clerical work away from the classroom. Maria had several negative experiences of being a TA before

primarily because her previous instructors did not regard her as a fully-fledged educator and treated her virtually as a personal secretary. Chloe felt underexploited as a TA previously despite her great desire to learn tips about teaching a second language. In an attempt to improve the TAs' experiences, an action research project was planned and executed over the course of a semester. Findings of this study suggested that, on the whole, the participants were positive about their experiences. In particular, compared to their previous experiences or expectations, they appeared to have (a) collaborated with the course instructor more, (b) had more personal engagement with students, and (c) exchanged feedback with the instructor more.

Previous research in the United States inferred that international student TAs in language classrooms have been marginalized due to their linguistic-related anxieties and their self-perceived demoralizing identities (Lee, 2016; Zheng, 2017). In the context of Japan, also, international student TAs have been de-professionalized due to their limited educational responsibilities given by their instructors (Haswell, 2017; Kaibara, 2011). This project has been carried out to critique this entrenched practice by employing an action research intervention in English language lessons at a Japanese university. The endeavor led to improved professional development outcomes both for the course instructor and more importantly for the TAs.

One primary finding of the project suggests that there was increased collaboration between the course instructor and the TAs inside the classroom, in addition to outside (see also Hiratsuka, 2017b; Shin, Hirai, & Horie, 2016; Tajino, Stewart, & Dalsky, 2015). I attribute this achievement to the facts that (a) we championed and modeled the value of a joint venture within the project without pre-determining our roles in accordance with the expectations we might have had previously and that (b) we strived to maintain an open communication and negotiated our responsibilities together, as new desires, problems, and needs arose during the project, rather than rigidly following fixed arrangements. Hitherto, the lack of engagement with students in class has been felt by TAs in Japanese English language courses (e.g., Haswell, 2017; Hiratsuka, 2015; Kaibara, 2011). In this action research project, however, the TAs were not only allowed, but also strongly encouraged to interact with students in the classroom. This appeared to have enabled the TAs and students to feel comfortable about opening up to each other and spend quality classroom time collectively. In particular, the TAs might have cultivated their new identities as educators in a positive fashion and gained a sense of fulfillment by directly helping their students to learn in a tangible manner (see also Fujishiro & Hozaki, 2018; Lee, 2016; Hiratsuka, 2015; Mahoney, 2004; McConnell, 2000; Zheng, 2017). Lastly, there have been findings of previous research (e.g., Hiratsuka, 2017a; Miyazato, 2009; Ueno & Maruyama, 2010) and testimonies from the participants of this study that the power imbalance between the teachers and assistants has negatively affected the professional lives of TAs. In other words, TAs were constantly taken lightly by their instructors and oftentimes sidelined from educational goals and processes. After taking part in the action research project, however, the TAs expressed their gratitude for the opportunities during the project in which they and I could freely share our ideas and bounce around our honest thoughts on our lessons, respected roles, and beyond. This might be a testament to the serious and dedicated interests that the TAs and I had in pursuing the matter of mutual development through the project. It was easily conceivable that the TAs and I respected each other and accepted the other as a dependable contributor to the individual lessons and to the course more broadly (see also Hiratsuka, 2017b; Shin, Hirai, & Horie, 2016; Tajino, Stewart, & Dalsky, 2015).

The three main findings in this study (i.e., increase in collaboration between teachers, engagement with students, and feedback exchange) are heartening and somewhat unsurprising, considering that action research has been successful in providing teachers with an ideal vehicle for constant improvement in their teaching skills via the reflection and evaluation cycle (Borg, 2013; Burns, 2005). However, one possible limitation of this study is that because the participating TAs in this study spent tremendous time on and put effort into the project and because I was their co-researcher, as well as their course instructor (in a superior position), it might have been the case that the TAs had not been entirely honest during the project and not told me the whole story of their experiences. That is, they might have focused just on positive points in order to justify their commitment to the project and/or avoided talking about their negative experiences for fear that I might be upset or disappointed. Nevertheless, it is still interesting to note based on this study that it is rare and unlikely for TAs to be regarded as fully-fledged educators and find contentment in regards to their work. If anything, this study shed light on one way for this to be addressed and improved upon.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study investigated the advantages of employing a collaborative action research endeavor in English language courses taught by three TAs and myself at a national university in Japan. It can be concluded that the endeavor could reach its goal at least partly in that, in contrast to their expectations or previous TA experiences, the participating TAs could promote a cohesive relationship with me, heightened a feeling of closeness with students, and encounter plenty of provision and receipt of feedback. Based on the findings, I suggest that the government and/or universities create empowering guidelines for pre-service and in-service TAs and treat them as legitimate educators, offer professional development seminars on TA for course instructors in order for them to maximize their TAs' potentials, and allocate time and funding for instructors and TAs to embrace feedback to each other, possibly by employing action research (see also Ueno & Maruyama, 2010).

My recommendations for future studies pertain to: (a) research participants and contexts; (b) course instructor; and (c) research design. First, the participants in this study, my TAs, were chosen from my university because of the type of

research (i.e., action research) as well as the adoption of a convenience sampling strategy. We need to continue in this effort by examining different participants and research sites so as to gain a fuller picture of TA experiences. Future TA participants should include domestic students or international students outside of Vietnam or China. It could also prove useful to conduct a similar study in varied research sites in Japan, especially at prefectural and private universities. Second, the TAs' course instructor (co-researcher) in this action research was me who is a Japanese language teacher of English. It is therefore imperative to accumulate more information and knowledge on the experiences of diverse course instructors. For example, the instructors can be native English-speaking teachers, other language teachers outside of English, or teachers from myriad disciplines such as economics, engineering, and medicine. Finally, future researchers can use various research methodologies. One study might be able to utilize an ethnographic approach by which researchers directly observe participants' behaviors and the phenomenon under study in the field so that it can more thoroughly document and elucidate the experiences of TAs on an intimate level. The ethnographic approach might in fact enable the TA participants to be more honest and vulnerable with the researcher about their perceptions and practices than an action research approach because the action research approach tends to involve the risk of conflict of interest, as in the case of this study. Another future inquiry might involve multiple case studies in numerous contexts (e.g., domestic and international; different education sectors) and compare and contrast the findings from them to eventually arrive, with enough accumulated research, at a holistic understanding of complicated TA experiences. My hope is that this paper and similar future studies within the field of English language education will help us view TAs as not just convenient clerical assistants but as developing teaching professionals who are keenly engaged in important learning with their course instructors, students, and peer TAs about what beneficial pedagogical practices are at the forefront of education for the ultimate improvement of language teaching and learning for all the people concerned.

REFERENCES

[1]   Addy, T. & M. Blanchard. (2010). The problem with reform from the bottom up: Instructional practices and teacher beliefs of graduate teaching assistants following a reform-minded university teacher certificate program. *International Journal of Science Education* 32.8, 1045–1071.

[2]   Bell, P. (2004). Content analysis of visual images. In T. Van Leeuwen & C. Jewitt (eds.), *The handbook of visual analysis*. London: Sage, 10-35.

[3]   Bogdan, R. C. & S. K. Biklen (2007). Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods (5th edn.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

[4]   Borg, S. (2013). Teacher research in language teaching: A critical analysis. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[5]   Burns, A. (2005). Action research: An evolving paradigm? *Language Teaching* 38, 57–74.

[6]   Cho, Y., M. Kim, M. Svinicki & M. Decker. (2011). Exploring teaching concerns and characteristics of graduate teaching assistants. *Teaching in Higher Education* 16.3, 267–279.

[7]   CLAIR. (2020). The Japan exchange and teaching program. http://jetprogramme.org/en/ (accessed 09/10/2020).

[8]   Deacon, C., A. Hajek & H. Schulz (2017). Graduate teaching assistants' perceptions of teaching competencies required for work in undergraduate science labs. *International Journal of Science Education* 39.1, 1–20.

[9]   Fairbrother, H. (2012). Creating space: Maximizing the potential of the graduate teaching assistant role. *Teaching in Higher Education* 17.3, 353–358.

[10] Fanselow, J. (2018). Small changes in teaching: Big results in learning. Tokyo: iTDi.

[11] Fujishiro, H. & N. Hozaki. (2018). A case study of the analysis of class activities observed by teaching assistants. *Educational Practice Reports* 24, 45–54.

[12] Haswell, C. G. (2017). Personal and professional development for international students as TAs in Japanese universities. *APU Journal of Language Research* 3, 60–71.

[13] Hiratsuka, T. (2015). Teachers' and students' perceptions of team-teaching practices in two Japanese senior high schools. *Accents Asia* 7.2, 46-66.

[14] Hiratsuka, T. (2017a). Capitalizing on the strengths and complementing the weaknesses of native and non-native English speaking teachers. *OTB Forum* 8.1, 37-46.

[15] Hiratsuka, T. (2017b). Pair discussions for reflecting on action: Stimulated recall. In B. Barnard & J. Ryan (eds.), *Reflective practice: Voices from the field*. New York: Routledge, 89-97.

[16] Kaibara, R. (2011). An inquiry into the office management of the TA system in Japan: The case of national universities. *Nagoya Journal of Higher Education* 11, 153–170.

[17] Kelly, L. B. (2018). Preservice teachers' developing conceptions of teaching English learners. *TESOL Quarterly* 52.1, 110–136.

[18] Lee, E. (2016). Reducing international graduate students' language anxiety through oral pronunciation corrections. *System* 56, 78–95.

[19] Mahoney, S. (2004). Role controversy among team teachers in the JET program. *JALT Journal* 26.2, 223–244.

[20] Manohar, U. & O. Appiah (2015). Perspective taking to improve attitudes towards international teaching assistants: The role of national identification and prior attitudes. *Communication Education* 65.2, 1–15.

[21] McConnell, D. L. (2000). Importing diversity: Inside Japan's JET program. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

[22] Miyazato, K. (2009). Power-sharing between NS and NNS teachers: Linguistically powerful AETs vs culturally powerful JTEs. *JALT Journal* 31.1, 35–62.

[23] Muzaka, V. (2009). The niche of Graduate Teaching Assistants (GTAs): Perceptions and reflections. *Teaching in Higher Education* 14.1, 1–12.

[24] Park, C. (2004). The graduate teaching assistant (GTA): Lessons from North American experience. *Teaching in Higher Education* 9.3, 349–361.

[25] Pauwels, L. (2010). Visual sociology reframed: An analytical synthesis and discussion of visual methods in social and cultural research. *Sociological Methods & Research* 38.4, 545–581.

[26] Robson, S., J. Almeida & A. Schartner (2018). Internationalization at home: Time for review and development? *European Journal of Higher Education* 8, 19–35.

[27] Shin, K., T. Hirai & M. Horie (2016). A qualitative analysis of growth process of student peer leaders and its facilitative factors: In-depth interviews with undergraduate teaching assistants at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University. *Ritsumeikan Higher Educational Studies* 16, 65–82.

[28] Tajino, A. & C, Smith (2015). Beyond team teaching: An introduction to team learning in language education. In A. Tajino, T. Stewart & D. Dalsky (eds.), *Team teaching and team learning in the language classroom: Collaboration for innovation in ELT.* London: Routledge, 11-27.

[29] Tajino, A., T. Stewart & D. Dalsky (eds.). (2015). Team teaching and team learning in the language classroom: Collaboration for innovation in ELT. London: Routledge.

[30] Ueno, T. & Y. Maruyama. (2010). Preparing future faculty program in Japan: Establishing a new system of training teaching assistants. *Hiroshima Journal of School Education* 16, 127–136.

[31] Winstone, N. & D. Moore. (2016). Sometimes fish, sometimes fowl? Liminality, identity work and identity malleability in graduate teaching assistants. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International* 54.5, 494–502.

[32] Winter, J., R. Turner, S. Gedye, P. Nash & V. Grant. (2014). Graduate teaching assistants: Responding to the challenges of internationalization. *International Journal for Academic Development* 20.1, 33–45.

[33] Zheng, X. (2017). Translingual identity as pedagogy: International teaching assistants of English in college composition classrooms. *The Modern Language Journal* 101.51, 29–44.

Takaaki Hiratsuka is an associate professor at Ryukoku University, Japan, where he teaches a range of applied linguistics courses to undergraduate and graduate school students. He received his PhD in language teaching and learning from the University of Auckland, New Zealand. His research and teaching interests lie in the areas of teacher education, teacher research, and qualitative research methods (in particular, narrative inquiry and practitioner research). He has recently contributed chapters to Barkhuizen (2019) *Qualitative research topics in language teacher education*, and Walsh & Mann (2019) *Routledge handbook of English language teacher education* (with John F. Fanselow).

Investigating Social Justice Topics in Reading Texts of English Textbooks Used in China and Germany

Xiao Zhang

Faculty of Foreign Languages and Literature, Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität München, Munich, Germany

Abstract—**English language teaching (ELT) plays a vital role in promoting social equality and societal transformation. Thus, social justice education has been given attention as one of ELT purposes. Textbooks, as the most significant teaching materials of English teachers, pose significant effects on English learners' awareness of social justice issues that touch upon their daily lives. However, there is little empirical research investigating integrated social justice topics in ELT textbooks. This study addressed the gap through identifying and comparing social justice topics of grade 10 English textbooks used in Chinese and German high school classrooms. Results of this study revealed that German English textbooks encompassed a much more diversity of social justice topics than Chinese English textbooks. Besides, this study offered a significant capacity for English textbooks to stimulate English learners' social responsibility and awareness of social justice. This study has implications for improving social justice education in the ELT classroom.**

Index Terms—**social justice education, textbooks, social justice topics, China, Germany**

I. INTRODUCTION

Humans are living in a world which is against a backdrop of sharp inequalities, persisting exclusion and environmental damages. According to the *World Inequality Report 2018 Executive Summary* (Alvaredo et al., 2018)*,* almost everywhere in the worldwide is confronting income inequality, economic inequality, wealth inequality. Except for negative influences exerted on human societies, environmental inequality is also becoming one of the social concerns. Environmental inequality received attention in the late 1980s and early 1990s. Environmental hazards disproportionately burden the poor, working classes and people of colour. They have less access to environmental amenities, such as parks, open space and wilderness areas than do whites and wealthier individuals. Disappointingly, their problems and environmental concerns are ignored by mainstream environmental organisations (Downey, 2005). Consequently, these inequalities resulting from human actions force a multitude of people to encounter more challenges and tend to be more vulnerable to disasters and tragedies.

English language classroom is an opportunity for students to understand social justice topics. As national and global citizens, English learners should not only equip themselves with foreign language knowledge, concepts and skills but also be responsible for re-structuring a socially just environment. Furthermore, they should enable themselves to employ critical thinking skills and their impartiality with an ethic of caring when they identify underneath notions behind social injustice. Thus, ELT needs to carry out these social concerns.

Textbooks are one of the primary content providers for English teaching, and they are significant in shaping cultural, social attitudes and in moulding social behaviour of language learners (Ahmad & Shah, 2014, p. 12). Thus, reading texts with social justice topics are influential for students since students are exposed to real social situations. Through reading those texts, students learn to recognise social inequalities and raise awareness of social inclusiveness, social justice protection and social actions.

Although social justice education in ELT receives attention in recent years, there is little empirical research examining what social justice topics are displayed to English learners. To address the gap, this study investigated the social justice topics of English textbooks used in China and Germany. To establish a framework, it starts with an overview of theories and previous studies, followed by a brief examination of the relevance of social justice education and textbooks. This study consists of a qualitative content analysis of texts relating to social justice topics in three books. Afterwards, it discussed the analysis results and provided evaluations on these textbooks.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. ELT Textbooks

ELT textbook, as a primary teaching aid, is indispensable for the language classroom. Most teachers consider it as a basis for teaching contents and benefit from its tasks. In general, teachers organise various activities from textbook topics. Connecting to such topics, teachers prepare writing assignments, build onto discussion tasks, assign extra reading materials. These activities help learners not only with linguistic performance but also with psychological,

ethical and interpersonal development - and to expect them to formulate the worldview and philosophy of life (Stubbs, 1982, p. 138). Therefore, topics deriving from textbooks are crucial for various forms of classroom activities and discussions. Besides, English learners are emotionally and cognitively affected by textbook contents. In the learning process, students have the reading experience of various contents relating to life, culture or society. In other words, the textbook may be the first interaction with social topics for learners in a foreign language.

Textbooks are considered as a unique resource, and they are used to shape the values, knowledge and attitudes of the next generation. Textbooks result from a complicated production process, including myriad educational stakeholders and individuals. Since this process certainly involves multiple compromises among different or even opposite perspectives, textbooks can reflect and co-constitute what is commonly accepted as sayable in a time/space among certain groups of people (Macgilchrist, 2018, p. 525).

Cunningsworth (1995) argues that using English textbooks is to provide a better model of language use than describing some imaginary non-existent construct, and at the same time to motivate learners. With the guidance of textbooks, students may learn better when they are not only concentrating on learning the target language but are also using the language to accomplish other things or to learn about different subjects. Olshtain and Celce-Murcia (2000) offer a description of texts and subordinated activities. They demonstrate that the basic unit of language teaching analysis is to use sentences signalling an approach which legitimises decontextualised language practice. They also notice that recent approaches to language learning and teaching tend to pick up discourse or text as the basic unit of analysis. They claim that:

> More recent language textbooks present texts, short or long, as a basis for both understanding and practising language use within broader meaningful contexts. This approach has dramatically altered the type of activities undertaken in language classrooms. Learners need to focus, therefore, on various discourse features within any specified language activity (Olshtain & Celce-Murcia, 2000, p. 708).

In the book *The Practice of English Language Teaching,* Harmer (2007) clarifies benefits and restrictions of textbooks. He argues that good textbooks are carefully prepared so that they are helpful with teacher's guidance, procedures for teaching suggestions, alternatives, extra activities and resources. If textbooks are inappropriately used, teachers and students might lose interest and be demotivated by contents.

All in all, the views presented so far have put significant importance on textbooks. The following section will address the relevance of topics in textbooks.

B. Topics in Textbooks

The textbook is necessary for facilitating language learning; it cannot merely do more because the language must be used in authentic situations for real purposes (Cunningsworth, 1995, p. 86). Thus, textbooks must contain subject matters and deal with topics of various kinds. In the past, scholars have initiated several pieces of research on textbook topics from a different point of views. These previous researches on textbooks topics support the importance of this paper. Indeed, those researches have conflicting thoughts, but they make contributions to study further.

Harmer (2007) contends the importance of textbook topics. He argues that textbooks can be highly reliable if visual and topic appeal presented in texts have a powerfully engaging effect. Thus, it safely claims that textbooks with a variety of topics lead learners to a productive and engaging reading process. Ur (1991) emphasises the possibility to base the language teaching around situations. That is, language teaching should build upon communicative events. These events can be called topics. Learners should be able to perceive and understand the underlying theme and the language which is used to express the issue.

Except for contributions textbooks have, Cunningsworth (1995) further articulates the connection between course materials and embedded topics. He admits that course materials which fail to include relevant and interesting topics are in danger of losing the attention of learners. Besides, he comes up with the idea that contents should create an authentic response which informs, challenges, stimulates, and encourages curiosity and develops judgement, and does other things that real language does. Only if the textbook is meaningful content based can students be able to create informed opinions, express their thoughts, form their conclusions, communicate those conclusions, discuss and justify specific issues.

Besides, there are also studies investigating topics from cultural perspectives. For instance, McKay (2003) claims the significance of topics. She articulates that textbooks should include topics of local culture because learners are given opportunities to communicate with others about their own culture in English. However, her data collected about teachers' beliefs on topics show the preference for international issues. The majority of teachers in the study believe that textbook topics should involve various cultures rather than local or English-speaking cultures. Thus, her study shows the contradiction of views on topics selection between researchers and teachers.

Gómez Rodríguez (2015) analyses surface and deep cultural topics in three English textbooks. As his analysis shows, these books are more surface culture oriented, including topics of pets, shopping, well-known mysteries, stressful situations and unusual hobbies among others, but components of deep culture are absent.

C. Textbook Topics: Intersection of Social Justice Education and Textbooks

Social Justice Education

Social justice education integrates various teaching approaches, including democratic education, critical pedagogy,

critical multicultural education and culturally responsive education, along with elements of social, cognitive and systems theory and its purpose is to affect holistic educational and societal transformation (Dover, 2013, p. 6), which terms as "teaching for social justice". Social justice education has a powerful influence on students' academic achievement as well as social participation. Within its educational framework, students are educated to appreciate and inclined to participate in social justice concerns (Cohen, cited in Letizia 2017). Furthermore, Sandel argues that every person should do the right thing, and it is a central disposition of citizenship (Sandel, cited in Litizia 2017). Lickona and Davidson state that a central tenet of a person is merely knowing the difference between right and wrong and acting on it, and this is what social justice education strives for. Besides, social justice education also involves the recognition of the plight of the poor and the weak of communities (Lickona & Davidson, cited in Litizia 2017).

To prove contributions to social justice education make regarding students' language teaching and improving students' ability to resolve social issues, *Learning and Teaching Resources for Learning English through Social Issues* offers a detailed framework. This document is published by the Hong Kong Education Bureau, China and is a guidebook for senior secondary English teachers about how to use social issues to improve students' language skills and social issues recognition. Based on the guidance, teachers can refer to activities/materials to help students work on various focuses. The following is one excerpt:

Lessons 5-8: Causes of a social problem (please refer to SoWs pp.96-97)
Activity 1
Work on the following in groups of 4.
1. Read the article provided by your teacher, e.g. the article on p.8 (or the one you have collected).
2. Discuss where in the article the causes of the social problem identified are given.
3. Report to the class what you have found out about the causes of the social problem identified (i.e. what the causes are, and how details and examples are given to explain/illustrate them).
4. Read the article again and highlight the expressions for identifying causes.
5. Suggest and make a list of other expressions that can be used to identify causes.
6. Share with the class the expressions that you have come up with.
Activity 2
In the same group,
1. Select one or two social problems to work on.
2. For each social problem:
• Consider the most significant causes.
• List the causes according to their order of significance (i.e. from the most significant to the least significant).
• Discuss how details and examples are given to explain/illustrate each of the causes. For clarity, you may use a mind map to organise your ideas.
• Write a paragraph that presents the causes. The paragraph should start with a topic sentence that introduces the causes of the social problem. If you have sufficient information, you may choose to write a few short paragraphs, each of which focuses on one cause and starts with a topic sentence.
3. Present orally the paragraph(s) that you have written.
4. Listen to the presentations of other groups and give comments.
Teachers' notes
For Activity 1, teachers might like to refer to the handout "Useful Expressions for Identifying Cause and Effect" on p.5 of the resources for expressions to be added to the list produced by students.
For Activity 2, teachers might like to make use of the examples in the handout "Examples of Mind Map" on p.6 of the resources to demonstrate how, with the use of a mind map, details and examples can be used to illustrate causes.
(Hong Kong Education Bureau, China, 2007, p3)

Therefore, social justice education goes without saying that it offers learners with the necessary skills to enhance their intellectual, moral and ethical development. Furthermore, students are encouraged to participate in social transformation. Social justice education implicitly instils national moral and civic values through exploring justice and injustice issues presented in learning contents. It also transports students to own a more expansive overview, e.g. with global and critical intercultural awareness.

Topics in Textbook and Social Justice Education
Social justice education in the ELT classroom is not easy to implement and achieve. It integrates aspects of teachers (e.g. social awareness; teaching approaches and organisations), coursebook (e.g. topics; exercises) and students (e.g. language levels; interests). As previously mentioned, teachers and students highly depend on textbooks based on textbook unit topics. Thus, when investigating the relationship between social justice education and textbooks, it can be analysed focusing on the intersection of reading subjects, that is, text topics. According to the interactive reading model developed by David E. Rumelhart (1976), reading refers not only the interaction between reader and the text but also the interaction between information the reader obtains by decoding and interpreting. Readers use both knowledge of word structure and background knowledge to interpret what they read. When students read texts about social (in) justice

issues, the decoding process will re-construct readers' cognitive system towards society.

Although studies cited above are necessary for demonstrating the importance of topics in English textbooks on stimulating students' interest and promoting learning outcomes, they merely put attention on different cultures, and little research investigates topics about social justice concerns. The present study aims to fill this gap based on detailed categorisation into social justice aspects. Hence, this study attempts to answer the following questions:

a) What social justice topics of reading texts in grade 10 English textbooks have in China and Germany?

b) What differences and similarities do Chinese and German textbooks have in terms of social justice topics?

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Research Background

This study examined grade 10 English textbooks in terms of social justice topics used in China and Germany based on three reasons. At first, both China and Germany set up educational policies to promote English acquisition as a foreign language. Therefore, China and Germany are EFL settings, which prove the availability of this study. Secondly, China and Germany stand for two different cultural representations and political ideologies. They are vital nations in Asia and Europe. Thus, it offers interest and impetus to analyse how their textbooks are different. Thirdly, this study chooses English textbooks for grade 10, which is the start of Chinese high school. In this period, students begin to shape their values toward life, society and the world. Besides, they begin to be involved in and gather knowledge about social issues. Hence, it is of much significance to analyse textbooks of this time.

B. Sampling

This study employed purposive sampling for textbooks selection. Purposive sampling means "the researcher is deciding as to what units he or she deems appropriate to include in the sample (Neuendorf, 2002, p. 88)". In this study, the author selected three English textbooks (two for China and one for Germany). For the sake of homogenisation, the author chooses textbooks which are designed for learners of grade 10.

The book series used in China consists of two books, which are published by Beijing Normal University Press. They are called *Senior High English 1 [Compulsory Module]* and *Senior High English 2 [Compulsory Module].* The former book is for the first half-year of grade 10, and the latter book is for the second half-year. The English textbook selected for Germany is *Green Line New 6*, which is published in 2008. Currently, it is used in the state of Bavaria, Germany.

C. Research Method

To categories textbook topics in an organised manner, this study refers to nine social justice areas which are explicitly listed by United Nations document *Social Justice in an Open World* (United Nations, 2006). They include:
• Distribution of Income
• Distribution of Assets (capital, physical such as land and buildings)
• Equal Opportunities for work and employment
• Quality education and access to knowledge
• Health services, social security and the provision of a safe environment
• Opportunities for civic and political participation
• Equal rights between women and men
• Ethnic and other minority groups
• Persons with disabilities

In conducting the analysis, the author employed the qualitative content analysis to gain an in-depth understanding of the situation. Hsieh and Shannon explain the qualitative content analysis as "a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of the text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1278)". This study uses a manifest analysis through which "the researcher describes what the informants say, stays very close to the text, uses the words themselves, and describes the visible and obvious in the text (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1278)".

D. Data Analysis Procedure

This study followed a multi-step process:

1). Identified all English reading texts for the analysis.

2). Identified social justice topics covered from English reading texts and classified them. Those organised topics are in forms of word, phrases or sentences.

3). Compared topic coverage across China's and Germany's textbooks.

In the research process, one topic was counted only once even if this topic occurred more than one time. If one text covered two and more than two social justice topics, each case was counted separately. Besides, all selected reading texts are in English. Thus, German texts in *Green Line New 6* were excluded from the analysis.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

This section begins with an overall distribution of topics in three textbooks. Then, it is followed by an inventory of social justice topics covered in three books. The overview of topics in texts not only enables the researcher to have an exact "topic checklist" for the analysis but also helps to have a summary of social topics coverage. Then, further comparisons among three textbooks are presented.

A. Identified Social Topics

Going through a careful investigation of reading texts, Fig. 1 shows the distribution of social justice topics in three coursebooks. There are 44 social justice topics collected using locating keywords and themes raised from texts.
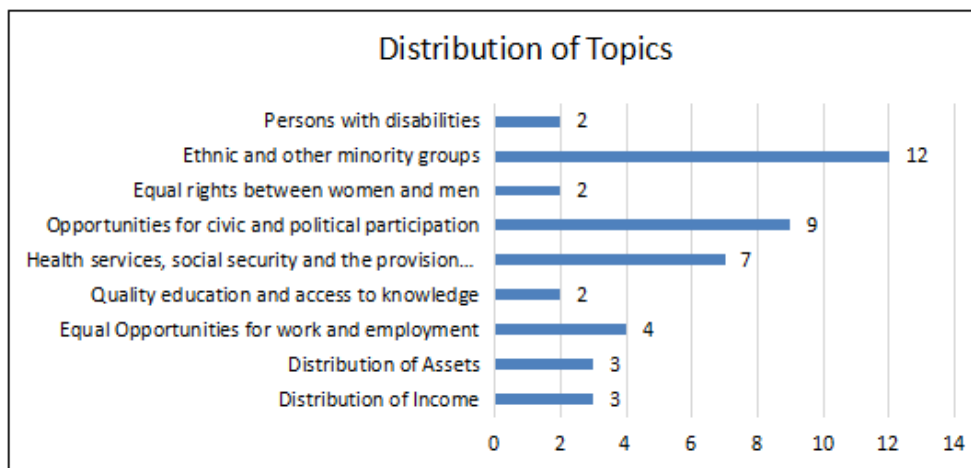
Figure 1. Distribution of Topics in Three English Coursebooks

As the chart illustrates, top three social justice topics which occur the most frequently are ethnic and other minority groups, opportunities for civic and political participation and health services, social security and the provision of a safe environment. Other topics seem to be evenly dispensed.

The following is a list of all identified social justice topics under nine main categories.
• Distribution of Income
1. Poverty in UK districts
2. Poverty in South Africa
3. Poverty in the USA
• Distribution of Assets
1. living, working and play together among races
2. less access to meat and more about disappears into crowds
3. the economic stagnation of minority community
• Equal Opportunities for work and employment
1. A lack of working opportunities for UK immigrants
2. Young Bangladeshi males with no employment
3. Unemployment in South Africa
4. Business and the government are not doing enough to hire young people and provide work experience
• Quality education and access to knowledge
1. Bottom of rankings of educational achievement in UK distribution
2. Education has improved in South Africa
• Health services, social security and the provision of a safe environment
1. Drug abuse
2. Crime
3. Violence
4. Bad living conditions
5. HIV/Aids
6. Wildlife trade
7. Crime in cyberspace and young hackers
• Opportunities for civic and political participation
1. Student's opinion towards liberty
2. Civil rights and democracy
3. Freedom and equal rights movement
4. Young people and students' rights
5. Respect each other
6. Human rights abuse

7. Political crimes

8. Freedom of expression and assembly

9. Protest against nuclear testing in Asia pacific

• Equal rights between women and men

1. Unfair in career

2. Domestic violence

• Ethnic and other minority groups

1. Muslims, Hindus and Sikhs from India

2. Whites

3. Asians

4. British Pakistani

5. Bangladeshis

6. Hate groups

7. Native Africans

8. Racial segregation

9. Black power

10. Maori

11. African slaves

12. Celt

• Persons with disabilities

1. Promoting medical research into back injuries

2. Disabled people

B. Results

This part focuses on comparing the coverage of different social justice topics among textbooks. It offers a detailed overview of text topics. Since China's English textbooks are composed of two books, identified topic units are merged into one column.

Distribution of Income

As shown in Table 1, *Green Line New 6* covers more topics relating to 'distribution of income' and mainly focuses on the context of the UK and South Africa, both of which are geographically close to Germany, while *Senior High English* series include USA related topics in reading texts.

TABLE 1.
COMPARISON OF THE TOPIC 'DISTRIBUTION OF INCOME

Topics	Occurs or Not (Y = Yes, N=No)	
	Green Line New 6 (Germany)	Senior High English (China)
Distribution of Income		
1. Poverty in UK districts	Y	N
2. Poverty in South Africa	Y	N
3. Poverty in the USA	N	Y

Distribution of Assets, Equal Opportunities for Work and Employment, Quality Education and Access to Knowledge and Equal Rights between Women and Men

Students who start their study at high school are at the threshold of shaping values and gathering knowledge toward society and the world. They are living with an independent initiative to encounter radical moral and political challenges from what they read. There are debates over whether textbook contents should touch upon negative aspects of the society: should students explore real situations and notions of darkness within learning or is it necessary for students to acquire skills in the classroom which is full of a fabric of perfectness and positivity?

Regarding the debate, English textbooks in China and Germany seem to vote for the opposite side. As Table 2 illustrates, social justice topics under 'distribution of assets', 'equal opportunities for work and employment', 'quality education and access to knowledge' and 'equal rights between women and men' are integrated in *Green Line New 6*. Nevertheless, none of them is found in *Senior High English*.

TABLE 2.
COMPARISON OF THE TOPIC 'DISTRIBUTION OF ASSETS' 'EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR WORK AND EMPLOYMENT' AND 'QUALITY EDUCATION AND
ACCESS TO KNOWLEDGE'

Topics	Occurs or Not (Y = Yes, N=No)	
	Green Line New 6 (Germany)	Senior High English (China)
Distribution of Assets		
1. Living, working and play together among races	Y	N
2. Less access to meat and more about disappear into crowds	Y	N
3. Economic stagnation of minority community	Y	N
Equal Opportunities for Work and Employment		
1. A lack of working opportunities for UK immigrants	Y	N
2. Young Bangladeshi males with no employment	Y	N
3. Unemployment in South Africa	Y	N
4. Business and the government are not doing enough to hire young people and provide work experience	Y	N
Quality Education and Access to Knowledge		
1. Bottom of rankings of educational achievement in UK distribution	Y	N
2. Education has improved in South Africa	Y	N
Equal Rights between Women and Men		
1. Unfair in career	Y	N
2. Domestic violence	Y	N

The above repertoire of topics firstly articulates what is excluded from *Senior High English* series. These topics are associated with real-life society while they are not introduced to Chinese students in English texts. In the long run, Chinese students might face these social problems under despair, confusion and rebellion. Oppositely, students in Germany seem to be more genuinely exposed to social products because they explore different social aspects from what they read.

Health Services, Social Security and the Provision of a Safe Environment

Nevertheless, when selecting topics surrounding 'health services, social security and ensuring a safe environment', these textbooks are successful in introducing a range of topic categories. As Table 3 shows, both of *Green Line New 6* and *Senior High English series* include topics about drug abuse, crime, violence, inadequate living conditions. What is notable is that *Green Line New 6* provides English learners with literary passages about HIV/Aids and wildlife trade. *Senior High English* series employs texts to emphasise the topic of crime in cyberspace.

These texts aim to disseminate social problems around the world and to expose students in real social truths. Indeed, these topics are stimuli for class discussions, which can be justified from post-reading activities. For example, lesson 1, unit 4 in *Senior High English 2* is 'tomorrow's world'. After reading the text, students need to voice their opinions about the question: "do you feel pessimistic or optimistic about the future of the Internet? Why"? Thus, the teacher can initiate class/group/pair discussions, and students have much freedom to express their ideas creatively.

TABLE 3.
COMPARISON OF THE TOPIC 'HEALTH SERVICES, SOCIAL SECURITY AND THE PROVISION OF A SAFE ENVIRONMENT'

Topics	Occurs or Not (Y = Yes, N=No)	
	Green Line New 6 (Germany)	Senior High English (China)
Health Services, Social Security and the Provision of a Safe Environment		
1. Drug abuse	Y	Y
2. Crime	Y	Y
3. Violence	Y	Y
4. Bad living conditions	Y	Y
5. HIV/Aids	Y	N
6. Wildlife trade	Y	N
7. Crime in cyberspace and young hackers	N	Y

Opportunities for Civic and Political Participation

Table 4 presents topics surrounding 'civic and political participation' in *Green Line New 6* and *Senior High English series* separately. *Green Line New 6* covers most of the topic categories. What is standing out is that many topics involve students' political rights and voices. For instance, one excerpt titled *How dare you* describes how the character expresses anger about disrespect for the rights of young people: "Those days are over, mate. Look at America. Look at France, Australia, Germany. I mean, why does this stupid country always lag decades behind anywhere with any respect for the rights of young people? It's stupid, stupid, stupid!" (*Green Line New 6*, 2008, p. 46).

However, *Senior High English* series does not cover as many topics as *Green Line New 6* does about political rights, but it includes the matter of 'protest against nuclear testing in the Asia Pacific'. Therefore, *Senior High English* Series put specific focuses on countries around the Pacific area.

TABLE 4.
COMPARISON OF THE TOPIC 'OPPORTUNITIES FOR CIVIC AND POLITICAL PARTICIPATION'

Topics	Occurs or Not (Y = Yes, N=No)	
	Green Line New 6 (Germany)	Senior High English (China)
Opportunities for Civic and Political Participation		
1. Student's opinion towards liberty	Y	N
2. Civil rights and democracy	Y	N
3. Freedom and equal rights movement	Y	N
4. Young people and students rights	Y	N
5. Respect each other	Y	N
6. Human rights abuse	Y	N
7. Political crimes	Y	N
8. Freedom of expression and assembly	Y	N
9. Protest against nuclear testing in Asia pacific	N	Y

Ethnic and Other Minority Groups

Table 5 shows that *Green Line New 6* includes a variety of minority groups from different areas, such as Asia, Africa and Europe. Thus, *Green Line New 6* achieves a balance among various minority groups. Therefore, students have opportunities to understand the diversity of the world. Nevertheless, *Senior High English* series only involve Maori, African slaves and Celt in texts. According to the analysis, the *Senior High English* series covers less diverse topics than *Green Line New 6* regarding minority groups.

TABLE 5.
COMPARISON OF THE TOPIC 'ETHNIC AND OTHER MINORITY GROUPS'

Topics	Occurs or Not (Y = Yes, N=No)	
	Green Line New 6 (Germany)	Senior High English (China)
Ethnic and Other Minority Groups		
1. Muslims, Hindus and Sikhs from India	Y	N
2. Whites	Y	N
3. Asians	Y	N
4. British Pakistani	Y	N
5. Bangladeshis	Y	N
6. Hate groups	Y	N
7. Native Africans	Y	N
8. Racial segregation	Y	N
9. Black power	Y	N
10. Maori	N	Y
11. African slaves	N	Y
12. Celt	N	Y

Persons with Disabilities

Table 6 indicates that the diversity of topic 'persons with disabilities' is relegated and there are two topics identified across textbooks. In *Green Line New 6*, neither of them is involved in texts. However, *Senior High English* series incorporate disability-related issues. Therefore, Chinese students are offered opportunities to face challenges from life, respect disabled persons and fight against discrimination.

TABLE 6.
COMPARISON OF THE TOPIC 'PERSONS WITH DISABILITIES'

Topics	Occurs or Not (Y = Yes, N=No)	
	Green Line New 6 (Germany)	Senior High English (China)
Persons with Disabilities		
1. Promoting medical research into back injuries	N	Y
2. Disabled people	N	Y

V. EVALUATIONS AND CONSIDERATIONS

Reading texts provide a framework for textbook constructions and an orientation for organising pre-reading and post-reading activities. Given analysis results, it seems that *Green Line New 6* series is more inclusive with social justice topics than *Senior High English* series. German students are encouraged to take ownership to embrace social justice around the world. However, *Senior High English* series lacks stimulating social justice topics. That is, Chinese students get less opportunities than German students to get access to social justice issues presented in textbooks. Therefore, the contents of Chinese English textbooks should be refurbishing utilising integrating social topics.

A critical perspective on the representation of these topics infers that students may face choices between good and bad, positive and negative, moral and evil from what they read. If students read specific texts and choose the wrong way,

such as using violence and taking drugs, then their identities are dramatically affected. High school students are in the fluctuating process of shaping their values, ideas and notions toward society, and they are affected by the external world. This is called "impressionable years" which refer to a flexible and vulnerable time to change attitudes among adolescents and young adults (Gwon & Jeong, 2018, p. 604). During adolescence and young adulthood, people tend to have potential attributes of impressionability, such as susceptibility, openness and malleability to attitude and behaviour change; susceptible to public concerns; being easily influenced and distracted by an external environment; sensitivity to stimuli and immaturity and being incapable of making a transparent and independent judgement (Gwon & Jeong, 2018, p. 605). Young adult learners are sensitive to distractions, a part of which stems from descriptions in what they read. They tend to satisfy themselves and attain excitement by taking a try at new things which are presented in literary texts. Thus, integrating suitable social justice topics might increase the possibilities of young learners to choose the "wrong way of life". In the other way around, students who are ignorant of social truths tend to be confused about the unknown and are controlled by their curiosity toward evil things.

Therefore, this study calls for a thorough assessment by students, but this assessment cannot be complete without teachers' participation and positive guidance. It, therefore, requires teachers to offer students with the right volume information of social topics, to encourage them to reflect on such social issues and to ensure rational choices made by students.

VI. Conclusion

This study investigated social justice topics of reading texts across three textbooks used in China and Germany. It bridges the gap between social justice education and textbooks and suggests a better understanding of what topics learners touch upon in China and Germany.

Despite its significance, it has limitations as well. For example, this study selects only three English textbooks and purely employs a qualitative research method. Thus, future research can recruit a larger number of samples and combine qualitative and quantitative approaches to provide a more comprehensive understanding of topics concerning social justice education.

References

[1]   Ashford. (2008). Learning English - Green Line New 6. Stuttgart: Ernst Klett Verlaf GmbH.
[2]   Ahmad, H., & Shah, S. R. (2014). EFL Textbooks: exploring the suitability of textbook contents from EFL teachers' perspective. *VFAST Transactions on Education and Social Sciences, 5*(1), 12-20.
[3]   Alvaredo, F., Chancel, L., Piketty, T., Saez, E., & Zucman, G. (2018). World Inequality Report 2018 Executive Summary. *Wir2018.Wid.World*, 20. <https://wir2018.wid.world/files/download/wir2018-summary-english.pdf> (accessed August 22, 2019).
[4]   Cunningsworth, A. (1995). Choosing your coursebook. Oxford, England: Heinemann.
[5]   Celce, M., & Olshtain, E. (2000). Discourse and Context in Language Teaching. A guide for language teachers. New York: Cambridge University.
[6]   Downey, L. (2005). Assessing environmental inequality: How the conclusions we draw vary according to the definitions we employ. *Sociological Spectrum*, 25(3), 349-369.
[7]   Dover, A. G. (2013). Teaching for social justice: From conceptual frameworks to classroom practices. *Multicultural perspectives*, 15(1), 3-11.
[8]   Gómez Rodríguez, L. F. (2015). The cultural content in EFL textbooks and what teachers need to do about it. *Profile Issues in Teachers Professional Development, 17*(2), 167-187.
[9]   Gwon, S. H., & Jeong, S. (2018). Concept analysis of impressionability among adolescents and young adults. *Nursing Open, 5*(4), 601-610.
[10] Hsieh, H. F., & Shannon, S. E. (2005). Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative health research, 15*(9), 1277-1288.
[11] Hong Kong Education Bureau, the People's Republic of China. (2007). Learning and Teaching Resources for Learning English through Social Issues. <https://www.edb.gov.hk/attachment/en/curriculum-development/kla/eng-edu/social%20issues_teaching%20resources_071211.pdf> (accessed August 22, 2019).
[12] Letizia, A. J. (2016). Democracy and Social Justice Education in the Information Age. Cham: Springer International Publishing.
[13] McKay, S. (2003). Teaching English as an international language: The Chilean context. *ELT Journal, 57*(2), 139-148.
[14] Macgilchrist F. (2018) Materiality and Mediality of Textbooks. In: Fuchs E., Bock A. (eds) *The Palgrave Handbook of Textbook Studies*. Palgrave Macmillan, New York. https://doi.org/10.1057/978-1-137-53142-1_12.
[15] Neuendorf, K. A. (2002). The content analysis guidebook. Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Publications.
[16] Rumelhart, D. E. (1976). Toward an interactive model of reading. San Diego, California: Center for Human Information Processing, University of California.
[17] Stubbs, M. (1982). What is English? Modern English language in the curriculum. *Linguistics and the Teachers*. Ed. Ronald Carter. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul. 137-156.
[18] United Nations. Division for Social Policy. (2006). Social justice in an open world: The role of the United Nations. United Nations Publications.
[19] Wang, Qiang. (2004). Senior High English 1 (Compulsory Module). Beijing: Beijing Normal University Group.
[20] Wang, Qiang. (2004). Senior High English 2 (Compulsory Module). Beijing: Beijing Normal University Group.

Xiao Zhang is a doctoral student in the TESOL program of Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität München, Germany. Her research interests include teacher education, English as a lingua franca and intercultural communicative competence. She has published several articles in the field of English language teaching. She is also active in some TESOL international conferences.

Multimodally Enhanced Opportunities for Language Learning: Gestures Used in Word Search Sequences in ESL Tutoring

Mi-Suk Seo

California State University, Sacramento, CA, USA

Abstract—Focusing on word search sequences initiated by ESL learners in conversation tutoring, this study examines how the participants use gestures in order to facilitate language learning as well as mutual understanding. Adopting the methodological framework of Conversation Analysis, it analyzes two particular sequential contexts: (a) when a tutee uses gestures *without* a candidate solution to her/his word search, directly soliciting the tutor's co-participation; and (b) when a tutee uses gestures *with* a candidate solution to her/his word search but there is mismatch between the candidate solution and the accompanying gesture. A fine-grained analysis of the participants' moment-by-moment verbal and nonverbal actions reveals that gestures create multimodally enhanced opportunities for language learning by allowing the tutor to offer lexical items that are new or unfamiliar to the tutee and/or to provide corrective feedback on the lexical errors. The findings from this study offer implications for the role of gesture in L2 learning and for some of the key concepts in second language acquisition such as output, corrective feedback, and communication strategies.

Index Terms—gesture, word search, conversation analysis, second language learning, ESL tutoring

I. INTRODUCTION

Although the importance of gesture has been noted in various fields of research for a long time (e.g., Efron, 1941/1972; Ekman, 1976, 1977; Kendon, 1972; Schegloff, 1984), it is a   relatively recent development that L2 researchers started to pay serious attention to the role of gesture in second language acquisition (Gullberg, 1998, 2006b, 2010; McCafferty & Stam, 2008; Stam, 2014). Over the past twenty years, a growing number of studies have provided evidence that gesture plays an important role in second language learning and teaching. For instance, studies conducted in laboratory and instructional settings have shown that gestures facilitate L2 comprehension, helping learners understand verbal input that may be beyond their current level (Allen, 2000; Beliah, 2013; Kellerman, 1992; Lazaraton, 2004; Smotrova & Lantolf, 2013; Sueyoshi & Hardison, 2005; Taleghani-Nikazm, 2008). According to the findings from these studies, gestures serve a variety of functions in the context of second language learning and teaching. To be more specific, gestures are used to make input more comprehensible to learners (Allen, 2000; Beliah, 2013; Lazaraton, 2004; Sueyoshi & Hardison, 2005; Taleghani-Nikazm, 2008), to facilitate encoding and recall of new words (Morett, 2014), to assist cognitive processes in private speech (Lee, 2008; McCafferty, 1998), to create zones of proximal development (McCafferty, 2002), and to mediate the teacher-student negotiation of the meaning of L2 lexical concepts (Smotrova & Lantolf, 2013). Gestures are also used to track references (Gullberg, 2006a), to establish cohesion across turns-at-talk (Beliah, 2013), to address L2 learners' linguistically problematic utterances (Guvendir, 2011; Seo & Koshik, 2010; Wang & Loewen, 2014), to complete turns-at-talk in progress (Mori & Hayashi, 2006; Olsher, 2004), and to elicit interlocutors' co-participation in word search sequences (Park, 2007; Willey, 2001).

Despite the insightful findings from these studies, there is still not much information available as to how L2 learners use gesture as a multimodal resource in real-time interaction in order to enhance opportunities for language learning as well as to resolve communication problems. Many of the previous studies have examined L2 teachers' gestures or have been conducted in laboratory settings. Moreover, studies that considered L2 learners' gestures have often discussed them as part of communication strategies without providing an analysis of actual instances. Only a handful of studies have provided an in-depth analysis of how L2 learners use gesture in real-time interaction (e.g., Burch, 2014; Mori & Hasegawa, 2009; Mori & Hayashi, 2006; Smotrova et al, 2013). In particular, some of the studies (e.g., Eskildsen & Wagner, 2015; Mori & Hasegawa, 2009; Park, 2007; Willey, 2001) have suggested that there is a strong link between vocabulary learning and gesture and that word searches are promising sequential contexts where L2 learners are often observed to deploy gesture as a critical resource to facilitate mutual understanding and language learning. Word searches refer to an interactional phenomenon in which a speaker in interaction encounters trouble producing a next item in his/her talk and performs a search typically along with search markers, such as cut-offs, sound stretches, "uh"s, pauses, and the like (Schegloff et al, 1977). The significance of word searches in language learning has been noted by a number of researchers (e.g., Brouwer, 2003; Lee, 2004; Koshik & Seo, 2012; Willey, 2001). Building on the findings from previous studies, this study aims to enhance our understanding of the sequential organization of word searches by adding a detailed description of the use of gesture.

Another area that has been underresearched in regard to the role of gesture in L2 interaction and learning is mismatch between L2 learners' gesture and speech. Given L2 learners' limited linguistic resources, it is easily conceivable that they might produce incorrect words while describing nonverbally what they are referring to, but to my knowledge, there have been no studies that investigated L2 learners' gestures that do not match their concurrently produced utterances. Mismatch between speech and gesture has been found to be significant as a predictor of progress in learning. For instance, researchers (e.g., Alibali et al, 1994; Church & Goldin-Meadow, 1986; Goldin-Meadow et al, 1992; Goldin-Meadow & Alibali, 2013) have observed that children may produce speech-gesture mismatches when they are at transitional states of knowledge and that adult listeners often interpret information that is conveyed only in gestures by these children. In a similar vein, a number of studies (e.g., Cassell et al, 1999; McNeill et al, 1994) have shown that listeners usually attend to the gestures that accompany speech and that speech-gesture mismatches often have consequences for listeners' comprehension, thereby refuting the claim that gesture is not integral to communication and is epiphenomenal to the production of speech. Considering these findings, instances of mismatches between L2 learners' speech and gesture deserve urgent scholarly attention not only to enrich our understanding of the role of gesture in communication in general but also to have further insights into the role of gesture in the interactional process of second language learning.

In an effort to address the research gap mentioned above, this study examines gestures produced in word search sequences during ESL conversation tutoring sessions. In particular, by adopting the methodological framework of Conversation Analysis (CA), the present study analyzes two particular sequential contexts: (a) when a tutee uses gesture *without* a candidate solution to her/his word search, directly soliciting the tutor's co-participation; and (b) when a tutee uses gesture *with* a candidate solution to her/his word search but there is mismatch between the candidate solution and the accompanying gesture. This study addresses the following two questions: (a) How does a tutee's gesture used in word search sequences facilitate language learning as well as mutual understanding?; and (b) How does mismatch between the tutee's gesture and speech create extra opportunities for the tutee to learn lexical items that might be slightly higher than their current level? The study also highlights how the participants reach gestural alignments – copying each other's gesture – in their collaborative efforts to resolve the contingent problem and discusses how these gestural alignments may promote retaining the target lexical items. The findings from this study offer implications for the role of gesture in L2 learning and for some of the key concepts in second language acquisition such as output, corrective feedback, and communication strategies.

II. DATA AND METHOD

The excerpts analyzed in this study are taken from a larger data set that consists of 23 hours of video-recorded one-on-one ESL tutoring sessions. A total of 8 English native-speaker tutors and 8 Korean ESL learners with various proficiency levels participated in the tutoring sessions. The tutors were trained to teach ESL; all of them either had completed an MA TESOL program or were currently enrolled in an MA TESOL program, and they had varying amounts of experience teaching ESL. The sessions from which the excerpts are taken consisted mainly of free conversation between the tutor and tutee, interspersed with moments of pedagogically oriented talk.

The data were collected, transcribed, and analyzed according to the common methodological tenets of Conversation Analysis (Markee, 2000, 2004; Sidnell, 2010). First, some portions of the data were viewed and transcribed without any pre-determined analytic categories. Once gesture was noted as a particularly important element in certain contexts, further investigations were conducted to identify some of the notable sequential contexts where the participants seemed to pay special attention to the gesture. Then, the target excerpts were re-transcribed in more detail and analyzed in a more fine-tuned manner considering the relationship between speech and gesture in the given context. After a recurrent pattern was identified in a few excerpts, an effort was made to find more instances of the pattern in the remaining portions of the data. Finally, the descriptions and analyses of the identified excerpts were compared with transcripts and findings from previous studies to see what similar or unique information the current analysis reveals in regard to the role of gesture in L2 interaction and learning.

III. DATA ANALYSIS

A. Gesture Used in Direct Solicitation of Assistance without Candidate Solution

When L2 learners encounter trouble producing utterances due to their limited linguistic resources, they are often observed to elicit assistance from their interlocutors by saying "I don't know how to say it," or by asking, "How do I say?" (Brouwer, 2003). However, not much has been known as to what makes this solicitation successful and what specific practices are involved. A close examination of the data in my study reveals that gesture plays an important role in leading L2 learners' solicitation to be successful.

Excerpt (1) below shows how the tutee (SK) is first exposed to the target item, which will become a trouble source in excerpt (2). Immediately before the talk in this excerpt, SK asked the tutor (TA) if she brings lunch to school, and TA said she usually brings a sandwich. In line 1, SK pursues more information on this by asking TA what kinds of sandwiches she makes.

(1) [tortilla-1 / TA & SK / 113005]

```
01   SK:      uh what kin' of sandwich do you make.
02   TA:      w:ell today, I ha:d ham, en: mu- muenster cheese,
03   SK:      u[h
04   TA:         [jus' like a type of cheese.
05        -> en I [had it in a tortilla,
06               [((TA puts her hands together with palms up, making a circular
07                  shape))
08   SK:      mm:
09   TA:      en then [I rolled it up,
10                    [((TA moves her fingers as if rolling up something))
11   SK:  -> uhhh↑ ah::::: toor- tortilla? [it's called tortilla?
12   TA:                                    [mm hm,
13   TA:      mm hm, [yeah.
14   SK:             [ah::: then it does not (0.2) it doesn' need to be cooked?
15           [to- tortilla? fully cooked?
16   TA:      [.hhhh
17   TA:      mm mm
```

In line 5, TA first mentions the word "tortilla" with an accompanying iconic gesture. When TA seems to have finished describing the process of making her sandwich in line 10, SK in line 11 responds to TA's talk and indicates that the word "tortilla" is new vocabulary for her with a "change of state token" ("ah::::") and with a following question ("it's called tortilla?"). In line 15, she uses the new word in her own sentence, but she still seems to be unfamiliar with the word as shown in her cut-off and rising intonation.

About 23 minutes after excerpt (1), SK has been talking about differences between Korea and America in terms of cooking and baking. Starting in line 1 in the excerpt below, SK says that she found ready-to-bake cookies in some American grocery stores.

```
(2) [tortilla-2 / TA & SK / 113005]
01   SK:      maybe .HHH t! but here: when I: (0.2) uh::: (0.2) g- went to the:
02            Meijer, or Walmart or like that .h they:: sell (dough/the) (0.2)
03            like the (0.5) almost fully cooked
04   TA:      mm hm,=
05   SK:      =cookies.=
06   TA:      =mm hm,=
07   SK:      =it looked >very convenient [but<
08   TA:                                  [mm hm=
09   SK:      =I (didn't) (.) yet: until now I:
10   TA:      mm hm [mm
11   SK:            [never use it, but [maybe next time.
12   TA:                               [(sure.)
13   SK:  -> .Hh but I think next wee:k, I should buy the:: (0.5) you said your
14       -> sandwich the [(0.5) what?
15       ->              [((SK draws a circle with fingers on the table with
16       ->                 gaze on her fingers and moves her gaze back to
17       ->                 TA when she says "what?"))
18   TA:  -> the tortilla.=
19   SK:      =yeah. tortilla? y[eah.
20   TA:                        [yea:h.
21   SK:      yeah.
22   TA:      they're [very good.
23   SK:              [yeah.
```

In lines 7, 9, and 11, SK tells TA that she wants to try ready-to-bake cookies "next time." She then talks about her plan contrastively presented in a more immediate time frame ("but I think next wee:k,"). However, as indicated by a sound stretch ("the::") and a half-second pause in line 13, she displays a problem producing the target item. In her efforts to deal with the trouble, SK provides some clue that is retrievable from their recent interaction ("you said your sandwich"), but may not be very informative in terms of the semantic content of the searched-for-item. In lines 15-17, SK provides a nonverbal description of the searched-for-item: She draws a circle with her fingers on the table. Then, she utters a direct interrogative word ("what?"), shifting her gaze from her hands to TA and thereby eliciting TA's assistance. In the following turn, TA quickly provides the searched-for-item with certainty, as can be noted by her downward intonation.

Given that language learning is not a cognitive stamping activity that can be achieved in a once-and-for-all manner, L2 speakers may repeatedly have trouble producing and understanding the same yet-to-be familiar linguistic item until they can competently mobilize it in appropriate contexts. As such, although SK was exposed to the new word through interaction less than half an hour ago, she is not yet able to produce it competently. Thus, she resorts to nonverbal resources to achieve mutual understanding as well as to elicit the yet-to-be-familiar item from TA. Note that originally the first mention of "tortilla" is made along with an accompanying gesture by TA (lines 6-7 in excerpt 1), and SK also searches for the word with an iconic gesture. It seems clear that SK's gesture contributes to making her word search a collaborative and successful activity, which can be beneficial in her acquisitional process of the target item.

The following excerpt also provides an example in which a tutee uses gestures during her word search in order to elicit the sought-for-item from her tutor. In this session, the tutor, TE, and the tutee, SG, found out that they both like taking pictures. Prior to this excerpt, SG started to talk about her experience as a photographer at her friend's wedding and said that it is hard to take pictures during ceremonies such as weddings.

(3) [minister / TE & SG / 102605]


```
01  SG:    en then think about organize the time en film en other stuff.
02         en then I'm:: (0.2) I should no::t u::::m bother (0.2)
03         the event itself.=I mean ceremony, so::: but I have to
04         take pictures in some way hh heh heh .hh
05         [during some::: (0.2) speech
06         [((SG moves eye gaze away from TE))
07           [from: (0.2) how can you say::
08         [((SG shifts eye gaze back to TE))
09         [the bride en [groom,
10         [((SG raises her left hand and sweeps it down
11            with palm toward TE and eye gaze on TE))
12                        [((SG produces the same gesture with her right hand as
13                           she did with her left hand))
14         en then [someone::: speech- make [speech
15                  [((SG moves her right hand higher and
16                     between the spaces she used for "bride" and
17                     "groom" with eye gaze on TE and holds it))
18  TE:                                    [minister?
19  SG:    minister,
20  TE:    usually it's the minister who speaks.
21  SG:    or::: sometimes in the chu:rch catholic church priest?
22  TE:    priest.
23         (0.2) / ((SG makes vertical head shakes several times))
24  SG:    so I shouldn:: (0.2) no:t bother
25  TE:    mmheh hhh
26  SG:    them (0.2) to: their do their wo:rk.
```

In lines 1 and 2, SG talks about things that she needs to take care of as a wedding photographer. She then tries to explain that, while taking pictures, she should not interrupt the ceremony, but she displays a problem completing her turn at talk (line 5). SG's gaze shift away from TE in line 6 seems to project her word search, shown in the sound stretch "some:::" and the two-tenth second pause (line 5). After producing the delayed item "speech" and moving her gaze back to TE, SG encounters another problem producing the next-due item. But this time she directly requests help from TE by asking "how can you say::" without engaging in further attempts to solve the problem herself. Her direct request without further efforts seems to indicate that her searched-for item is not something that she can retrieve through further efforts, but rather it is something that she has not acquired yet as a language learner. In line 9, she starts to provide clues for the sought-for-item. She lists the main participants in a wedding, projecting the sought-for item as one of the main categorical members in a wedding ceremony, as indicated in the connective ("en then") following "the bride and groom." She then adds another clue by describing the target member's conventional activity in a wedding ceremony, which results in overlap with TE's candidate solution "minister?".

Now, considering the sequential development of SG's word search, let us look more closely at how SG tries to elicit the searched-for item from TE. SG first asks an explicit question "how can you say::", which TE may not be able to answer without further information from SG, and thus she secures TE's attention for her upcoming talk and concurrent nonverbal conduct. She then provides verbal clues (line 14), but at the same time produces gestures in the space where mutual attention is directed. In particular, she nonverbally describes the configuration of the verbally listed participants in a wedding ceremony. First, she sweeps her raised left hand down in the air while uttering "the bride". Second, for the subsequent word "groom" she does the same gesture with her right hand, but in the right side of the space used for the bride. Finally, with the word "someone:::", which is presented as a substitute for the searched-for item, she raises her

right hand and holds it in a higher place between the spaces she used for the bride and groom. Thus, her subsequent gestures are produced in coordination with the prior gesture(s), creating interrelationships among themselves. Also, it needs to be pointed out that her gestures convey information that is not included in her verbal utterances. That is, although she refers to someone who makes a speech in a wedding, she is not talking about any random speaker; she is talking about a specific speaker who stands between the bride and groom. Although the detailed information conveyed in SG's gestures is not apparently incorporated in TE's response and TE focuses on the verbally delivered information ("usually it's the minister who speaks."), it is worthwhile to note how L2 speakers actively mobilize nonverbal resources to facilitate their L1 interlocutors' participation in their word searches.

From a slightly different perspective, the examples in this section seem to show some features that are different from previous studies on gestures in word searches. First, some researchers have claimed that the primary function of gesture is not to communicate to the recipient but to support the speakers' encoding of information (Freedman, 1972; Rime, 1982 cited in Cassell et al, 1999). However, it may be different in the case of L2 speakers who do not have adequate linguistic resources to encode and try to resort to their interlocutors' linguistic expertise for expanding their linguistic repertoire as well as for accurate communication. The tutees in the above examples were observed to produce gestures to elicit the target word from their tutors as well as to communicate the semantic information of the searched-for item. Gestures are not produced while the tutees are trying to retrieve the searched-for items through their cognitive processing. They are specifically used for communicative purposes and thus they are more interactionally-oriented rather than cognitively-oriented. Second, studies on word searches in L1 interaction (e.g., Hayashi, 2003) have shown that gestures in word searches are used as resources that enable interlocutors to participate in co-constructing the current speaker's action-in-progress. This holds true for the instances presented in this section. However, there also seem to be some sequential differences between the cases in L1 interaction and those in this section. Although it might not always be true, the tutees in the above examples seem to use some discursive practices to secure their tutors' attention before they produce gestures and make their tutors' co-participation conditionally relevant by launching a side sequence. For example, in excerpt (2), SK says "you said your sandwich the" before she nonverbally describes the item that is due after the article "the". By invoking some contextual information that involves the recipient (i.e., "you"), the tutee seems to try to secure her tutor's attention for her upcoming nonverbal description. Also, as mentioned above, the tutee in excerpt (3) achieves the same effect by directly asking "how can you say::" before she provides verbal and nonverbal clues.

B. Mismatch between Gesture and Concurrently Produced Candidate Solution

Streeck (2003) examined how speech-gesture mismatch engenders self-repair in L1 German interaction. He stated that the mismatch between bodily enactment and concurrent talk may occur due to the fact that the speaker sometimes does not see what his/her body is doing. According to Streeck, in these cases the speaker's mind and body are divided and the mismatch often results in the speaker's self-repair of the prior problematic utterance. While Streeck discussed how speakers repair their prior utterances when they realize there are mismatches between gesture and talk, Seyfeddinipur (2007) presented some instances in which speakers repair their prior gestures while repeating their prior utterances, orienting to their prior gestures as inaccurately representing the concurrent talk. Except for these two studies, to my knowledge, repair that occurs due to mismatches between gesture and talk has rarely been discussed in studies on L1 interaction, much less in those on L2 interaction.

Considering what Streeck (2003) and Seyfeddinipur (2007) found in their studies, the examples that I found in my data set seem to illustrate different situations. In particular, the following differences are noted. First, the mismatch between gesture and talk in my data occurs during word search activities. Second, the mismatch does not seem to occur because the speaker's mind and body are divided without the speaker's awareness, but because the speaker's linguistic resources available at the moment do not allow him/her to accurately verbalize the target items or activities, while their bodies know how to represent them. Finally, the speakers often seem to be aware of the potential incongruence between their gesture and utterance because they often solicit the interlocutors' confirmation on the accuracy or suitability of their utterances.

In the following example, the tutor, TL, and the tutee, SH, have been talking about the places SH wants to visit before she goes back to Korea. SH mentioned an Amish village as a candidate and introduced a similar village in Korea, describing their lifestyle compared to that of Amish people.

```
(4) [moustache / TL & SH / 101605]
01  TL:     is it because (or) (.) this (.) so the Amish people
02  SH:     mm::=
03  TL:     =are:: (0.2 ) doing this because of their religion,
04          [what about the (.) people there.
05  SH:     [mm
06  TL:     is it also because of a religion? or just:
07  SH:     hm
08  TL:     tradition.
09  SH:     religion.
10  TL:     it i:s  (°      ⁾
```

```
11  SH:      yeah. religion. yeah. uh use to:: (0.2)
12     ->   [uh st- mousta:che?
13     ->   [((SH taps her chin and furrows
14            her eyebrows, gazing at TL))
15  TL: ->   [beard?
16     ->   [((TL sweeps her chin with right hand))
17  SH: ->   bea(h)rd. yea[h.
18  TL:                   [mustache is here.=
19                        [((TL taps above her upper lip))
20  SH:      =yeah. [ah:: y[eah. mustache en beard.
21                   [((SH puts left hand above her upper lip and moves her
22                      fingers around her mouth in the shape of goatee))
23  TL:                   [mustache  °beard °
24                        [((TL taps above her upper lip and chin))
25  SH:      no cutting.
26  TL:      mm
```

In lines 1 through 10, TL asks SH whether the people in the Korean village keep their specific lifestyle because of their religion or tradition, and SH answers that it is because of their religion. In line 11, going back to her prior description of their lifestyle, SH starts a new sentence without a subject ("use to::"), but she encounters a problem continuing her talk as signaled by a number of non-lexical speech perturbations, such as a sound stretch ("to::"), a two-tenths-of-a second pause, a filler ("uh"), and a cut-off ("s-"). These are common characteristics of word searches as described by Schegloff et al. (1977) and Goodwin and Goodwin (1986). Finally, in line 12, she produces a candidate solution, "musta:che?" with accompanying gesture (i.e., tapping her chin and furrowing her eyebrows with eye gaze on TL), but asks for TL's confirmation with rising intonation. Responding to SH's confirmation request, TL, in line 15, disconfirms SH's candidate solution by proffering an alternative item that matches with SH's gesture, while copying SH's gesture. Subsequently, SH accepts it in line 17 by repeating the alternative and producing an acknowledgement token, "yeah."

As shown in Hosoda's (2006) and Willey's (2001) studies, this way of sequential development in word search constitutes distinctive features of L2 interaction, engendered by L2 speakers' orientation to their L1 interlocutors' linguistic expertise as relevant in resolving their trouble. However, the above example pinpoints one specific aspect that needs closer attention in understanding the critical role of gesture in L2 speakers' word search sequences. That is, without SH's gesture, TL would not have proffered the alternative item "beard," because no other verbal contextual clues have been provided by SH to imply that the people in the Korean village grow beards rather than moustaches. A full understanding of the sequential development (i.e., "why that now" regarding the tutor's correction) becomes available only when the participants' nonverbal behaviors are considered.

Now, let us take a closer look at the way TL responds to the mismatch between SH's utterance and gesture. Technically, TL could respond in a different way. That is, she could repair SH's gesture by tapping above her upper lip, while repeating SH's original utterance, "moustache." However, TL chooses to repair SH's utterance instead of her gesture, displaying her understanding that SH's limited linguistic competence might have caused the mismatch. This is somewhat similar to how adult listeners often interpret information that is conveyed only in gestures when they encounter mismatches between children's speech and gesture (Goldin-Meadow et al, 1992). On the other hand, it is also different from adult responses to similar instances with children in that TL leaves room for SH, the original speaker, to revise TL's understanding, in case SH finds it problematic. First, she copies SH's gesture as shown in line 15, making it possible for SH to see her own original gesture and showing on what grounds she provides the item "beard." Second, she uses rising intonation ("beard?"), signaling her uncertainty regarding which was problematic (i.e., SH's utterance or gesture) and thus eliciting SH's confirmation. Overall, SH's gesture in line 13 enabled TL to detect SH's inaccurate language use and to have an incidental opportunity to add a pedagogical explanation of potentially confusing vocabulary items (line 18), also using similar gestures.

The next excerpt provides a similar instance in demonstrating the role of gesture in engendering the interlocutor's repair that may be acquisitionally beneficial for the L2 learner's language development. In this excerpt, the tutee (SK) has been telling a story to the tutor (TA) about her experience related to pizza. Some decades ago, when pizza was first introduced in Korea, SK's elder sister tasted it in a restaurant and recommended it to her family, so SK's mother bought one frozen pizza, which was rare in those days.

```
(5) [put out / TA & SK / 110705]
01  SK:      she: bought some frozen pi[zza.
02  TA:                                [YEA::h [yeah.
03  SK:                                        [yeah. that- (.)
04           that times it was not: (.) usual too.
05  TA:      really. [it's kin' of new?
06  SK:              [yea:h yeah. yea:h yeah. so: I::: (0.5) e- en::
```

```
07              she:::: put it the: refrigerator,
08   TA:        mm hm,
09   SK:        en with my second sister, [no:t her.
10                                       [((SK raises left hand and points to left))
11   TA:        right.=
12   SK:        =yeah. with my second sister, she didn' know about pizzas
13              very well.
14   TA:        uh huh,
15   SK:        me too.
16   TA:        uh huh,
17   SK: ->  so we::::: (0.5) [uh:: we:: (.) put: out? (it: uh-)=
18       ->                   [((SK raises hands and moves them away
19       ->                      from her torso and then moves them back
20       ->                      toward her torso, gazing at TA))
21   TA: ->  =[took it ou[t?
22              [((TA moves her right hand toward her torso))
23   SK: ->              [ah yah. we took it out. .H heh heh heh
24              we did(h)n' [.h heh put i(h)n a microwa(h)ve.
25   TA:                    [heh heh heh heh HEH HEH HEH HEH HEH
26   SK:     [we thought [it was do- it was do::ne.
27   TA:     [h h h       [you (hh) ate i(h)t. heh heh heh
28   SK:     [it was do(hh)ne. .HHHH perfectly done:: foo- uh: =
29   TA:     [h h h
30   SK:     =done foods.=
31   TA:     =YEA:[h. like p- heh pre- heh heh heh
32   SK:         [finish so we: hehhh i(h)t was very:: uheh difficult
33              to: separate the piece en piece piece by piece so:: we:::
34              broke it with hammer,
```

In lines 1 through 7, SK tells TA that her mom bought a frozen pizza and put it in the refrigerator. In lines 9 through 15, she seems to build up some background information to contextualize the upcoming main part of the story. To summarize what SK says, both she and her second sister were not familiar with pizza. Thus, starting with an upshot marker, "so," in line 17, SK launches a new sentence, but immediately she displays trouble producing a next item due after the subject "we," as shown in a sound stretch ("we:::::"), a half-second pause, and a filler ("uh::"). She then restarts her sentence, but still cannot produce the searched-for item as it is delayed by another sound stretch and a micro pause. Finally, she produces a candidate solution ("put: out?") with accompanying gesture (i.e., moving her raised hands toward her torso as if taking something out of some storage place) and rising intonation, soliciting TA's confirmation on the accuracy of the produced item. In line 21, TA provides an alternative expression in a way that is similar to TL's response in excerpt (4) (i.e., with rising intonation). Subsequently, in line 23, SK accepts TA's alternative candidate and reproduces her prior sentence in an accurate form (i.e., from "we put out it" to "we took it out"), incorporating TA's correction.

The sequential development of the word search activity in this excerpt deserves a more thorough analysis. From TA's perspective, it might not be easy to understand what word(s) SK is searching for or what kind of activity SK is trying to describe, given that SK has not provided enough contextual clues, such as "we wanted to eat it," or "we opened the refrigerator." The way SK proceeds with her story does not project a pragmatically transparent trajectory, because she basically says, "both my second sister and I did not know about pizza, so we…." Then, how is TA able to provide successfully an accurate phrase that SK has been searching for, potentially correcting SK's candidate solution? It seems that the mismatch between SK's utterance and gesture (in lines 17-20) contributes to engendering TA's prompt correction. It is obvious that SK's gesture does not match her candidate solution "put out": The accurate gesture for "put out" would be moving her raised hands away from her body, instead of moving her hands toward her body as she does. Without the accompanying gesture, the phrase "put out" might not be easily detected as problematic and repaired by TA. TA, as a recipient, does attend to the accompanying gesture and incorporates the information conveyed in the gesture in her response to SK's utterance, producing a similar gesture. Also, it should be noted that TA orients to SK's *utterance* as repairable, not her *gesture*, in the same way as TL did in excerpt (4), possibly assuming that SK does not have adequate linguistic resources available at the moment to describe something that her body can enact more accurately. Finally, as a recipient of the story, TA leaves room for SK to confirm the proffered alternative item, since SK has the epistemic authority in the described activity.

In terms of language learning, it seems clear that the speech-gesture mismatch contributes to occasioning an opportunity for SK to get corrective feedback that can be acquisitionally beneficial. Also, as shown in SK's repetition of TA's correction (line 23), SK gets a chance to practice the target phrase that is lexically revised as well as syntactically

modified from her prior problematic form (i.e., the correct position of the pronoun "it" as an object of a phrasal verb: "put out it" -> "took it out").

The next example, extracted from the same pair's tutoring session three weeks after the session that generated excerpt (5), provides a similar, but more complex situation regarding how speech-gesture mismatch becomes consequential for the unfolding interaction. In this session, SK has been telling TA about her recent trip to a neighboring city. Prior to the talk in this excerpt, SK said that she really enjoyed the dinner at a Japanese buffet restaurant in the city and TA asked some questions about the restaurant.

```
(6) [crab / TA & SK / 112805]
01  TA:     what was your favorite.
02  SK:     u::::::m::::: shrimp, (0.2) the cooked shrimp, (0.2)
03           with some sau:ce, en::: (0.5) uh:::::::
04           [(0.5) uh:=
05           [(((SK raises her hands to her sides and moves her fingers in a way
06              that is similar to movement of crab's legs, and holds the gesture.))
07  TA:     =HEH HEH [HEH hehh
08  SK:               [I cut-/can't- suddenly I forgot the::: .hh
09  TA:     is it [seafood?
10  SK:          [word.
11  SK:     yeah. seafood.
12  TA:     lots of legs?
13  SK:     uh:::: (.) lobster.
14  TA:     lobster?
15  SK:     yeah.=
16  TA:     = [lobster?=
17           [(((TA raises her left hand in front of her torso and moves her
18              fingers and thumb in a way that is similar to the movement
19              of a lobster.))
20  SK:     =lobster. [=not lobster.
21               [(((SK moves her hands to the front of her body, making her
22                  index fingers stick out together, and then quickly moves
23                  her hands back to the prior position))
24  TA:     crab.
25  SK:     ah: [crab. yea:h.
26           [(((SK finally releases her gesture held from line 5 and puts her
27              ands together in front of her torso in a clapping motion))
28  TA:     there're like eight [legs.
29                       [(((TA puts her hands together in front of her torso
30                          and moves her fingers as if mimicking the
31                          movement of a crab with gaze on her hands))
32  SK:                  [yea:h yea:h yea:h yea::h.
33  TA:     okay.
34  SK:     uhhhhhh
35  TA:     that's my [oh I love crab.
36  SK:              [yeah en: lobster too.
37  TA:     wow.=
38  SK:     =yeah.
```
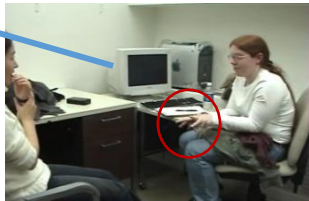
In lines 1 through 3, TA asks SK what her favorite food was and SK starts to list her favorite food items. However, as shown in the sound stretch ("en:::"), a half-second pause, and the filler ("uh:::::::") in line 3, SK displays trouble producing the next item due for her favorite food list. As she still cannot come up with the target item after an initial search, SK in lines 5 and 6 produces an iconic gesture to describe the searched-for item, accompanying another half-second pause and the filler ("uh:") in line 4. Subsequently, in overlap with TA's laughter and information seeking question ("is it seafood?"), SK explicitly admits that she forgot the word (lines 8 and 10). Building on SK's positive answer in line 11, TA in line 12 asks another question ("lots of legs?"), demonstrating her efforts to achieve mutual understanding as well as to resolve SK's word search as a co-participant. In the following turn, SK finally comes up with a solution ("lobster.") after another filler and a micro pause. It is interesting to note how SK's solution is phonetically related to TA's utterance in line 12. According to Jefferson's (1996) study on word selection, people often make errors by producing "sound-selected" utterances triggered by certain sounds that are included in the prior talk (whether it is their own or their co-participants' talk). As such, it is possible that SK's solution "lobster" is selected

among the categorical members of seafood under the influence of the alliteration (i.e., /l/) of TA's words "lots" and "legs."

Possibly noticing the mismatch between SK's gesture and verbal solution, TA repeats the solution with rising intonation, thereby asking for SK's confirmation. In the subsequent turn, SK confirms TA's candidate hearing or understanding. Although her repair initiation has been completed by the original speaker, SK, TA in line 16 repeats the trouble source once more with rising intonation, but this time with an accompanying iconic gesture: She raises her left hand and moves it in a way that is similar to the movement of a lobster. By producing an alternative gesture that is different from SK's gesture, TA implicitly asks, "Are you sure it's lobster? Lobster looks like this." It is noteworthy that TA's response to SK's speech-gesture mismatch is different from TL's response to SH's speech-gesture mismatch in excerpt (4). That is, TA corrects SK's *gesture* while repeating SK's verbal utterance, whereas TL corrected SH's *utterance* while copying SH's gesture. The reason might be that, as marked through intonational differences in the delivery of their word search results (i.e., "mousta::che? " vs. "lobster."), SH's solution (line 12 in excerpt 4) was produced as a candidate solution, inviting TL's correction, while SK's solution in line 13 is produced with certainty as a final solution, not as an item that still needs the tutor's confirmation. Alternatively, it might be that SK's gesture is not so communicatively transparent as to enable TA to offer an alternative lexical item rather easily.

In line 20, although SK first confirms TA's verbal repetition accompanied by gesture, she quickly disconfirms it, while copying TA's gesture to some extent (lines 21 through 23). TA's alternative gesture might have led her to realize the incorrectness of the solution "lobster," as her body also reacts in a way that reveals and repairs the mismatch. Following SK's disconfirmation, TA finally provides an alternative item ("crab") with certainty as noted in its falling intonation (line 24). Subsequently, SK accepts it as the searched-for-item by producing a change-of-state token "ah:" and repeating the proffered item, followed by an acknowledgement token "yeah." Note that SK finally releases her original gesture held from line 5 (lines 26 and 27). Now that SK's word search has been successfully resolved, TA and SK may resume the interrupted main sequence. However, TA in line 28 starts to provide more detailed information about the trouble source with an accompanying gesture, possibly in order to make sure that it is indeed the searched-for-item considering SK's previously repeated confirmation of the problematic solution. Faced with TA's attempt to expand the already completed search, SK in line 32 produces a response token "yea:h" and repeats it multiple times, starting even before TA completes her turn. As Stivers (2004) noted of examples in similar sequential environments, SK's multiple sayings of "yea:h" seem to display her orientation to TA's sequential expansion as unnecessary and thus show her determination to stop TA's persistent action, claiming that the proffered information is already well known to her and that the word "crab" is indeed the searched-for-item. Finally, TA seems to be convinced of the successful resolution of SK's word search, as shown in her sequence closing "okay" (line 33). In the following turns (lines 35 and 36), TA and SK resume the main sequence that was interrupted due to SK's word search. In sum, in contrast to excerpts (4) and (5) in which the tutees' utterances were negotiated, excerpt (6) has shown how gesture also can be negotiated, although it is ultimately the utterance that is corrected.

The last excerpt below also shows how a mismatch between the tutee's gesture and the concurrently produced lexical item creates an opportunity for the tutor to provide a more accurate lexical item that the tutee might not have fully acquired yet. In this excerpt, the tutor, TA, and the tutee, SK, have been talking about babysitting and how hard it is to take care of a baby, sharing their related experiences and stories. SK said that a few years ago when her sister had a baby, her mother took care of him for a while and tries to describe how demanding and difficult it was for her mom.

```
(7) [wrinkles / TA & SK / 112805]
01  SK:      after (.) she::: took: care of him, yeah.
02           show:: (0.5) [every: I saw: (.) every day:
03                       [((SK puts her index finger
04                           on her chin))
05           her: [lips um::: (1.5)
06               [((SK draws lines around the right corner
07                  of her mouth with her left index finger,
08                  while gazing at TA))
09  TA:      like s:[:
10  SK:             [tired.
11  TA:      oh:::[:::::::
12  SK:           [(very tired)
13           [((TA draws lines around the corners of her mouth
14             with her index fingers))
15  TA:      [like wrinkles [or someth(h)i[(h)ng heh =
16  SK:                     [yeah.        [yeah yeah.=
17  TA:      [hhh heh hhh .hhh
18  SK:      [wrinkle:.  yeah (that-/but-)
```

After SK says "I saw everyday her lips" in lines 2 through 5, she encounters trouble continuing her talk and engages in word search, as shown in the filler "um:::" and the one-and-a-half-second pause. Also, starting right before the word search, she uses gesture to describe the searched for item. More specifically, as the figure shows, she repeatedly draws lines around the right corner of her mouth with her left index finger, while gazing at TA. In line 10, SK finally comes up with a solution to her word search, saying "tired" with falling intonation, and repeats it by adding the modifier "very" (line 12). However, it needs to be noted that there is discrepancy between SK's gesture and her final solution to the word search. Facing this discrepancy, TA copies SK's gesture as shown in the second figure and provides an alternative item "wrinkles" in a modulated form (line 15). Subsequently, SK produces an acknowledgement token "yeah" three times and repeats the word provided by SK in line 18. It is obvious that if SK had not produced gesture along with her utterance (i.e., without the observable mismatch between SK's gesture and utterance), TA would not have been able to offer a linguistically more accurate item that SK was not able to produce spontaneously. From an analytic perspective, without access to the video data we may not properly understand why TA provides corrective feedback with the specific alternative word "wrinkles" after the original speaker, SK, successfully produces the solution with indicated certainty.

IV. SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

This study examines how gestures are deployed as critical resources in L2 learners' word search sequences and how they facilitate language learning as well as mutual understanding. The excerpts analyzed in this study show that the tutees sometimes produce gestures without a candidate solution, directly asking the tutor to provide a lexical item that matches their gestures, and other times they produce gestures with a mismatched verbal candidate solution, enabling their tutors to provide corrective feedback on their lexical errors. In both cases, the tutees' gestures contribute to mutual understanding by making visually available the intended semantic content of the lexical items that they do not know or that they cannot produce competently. It is noteworthy that the participants often copy each other's gestures and these gestural alignments make the moment-by-moment process of co-constructing intersubjectivity publicly observable. It can also be argued that the tutees' gestures facilitate language learning even though there is no longitudinal evidence available. It creates interactionally motivated opportunities for the tutees to listen to and produce in a meaningful way the lexical items that might be beyond their current level. In their overview of the relationship between gesture and language development, Goldin-Meadow and Alibali (2013) introduced empirical research and relevant theories that showed how children's gestures play a positive role in their vocabulary development. Their review suggested that the more gestures children produce to convey the meaning of unknown lexical items, the better chances there are for them to learn and retain those lexical items. Even though children's first language acquisition and adults' second language acquisition may involve different processes, the findings from studies on gesture and children's language development seem to provide theoretically well-grounded arguments, highlighting a positive role of gesture in second language learning, particularly in vocabulary learning.

This study offers implications for some of the key concepts that are commonly used in the field of second language acquisition. For instance, Swain (1985) claimed that L2 learners' output is crucial for their language development. One of the reasons for this claim is because L2 learners' output allows them to test their hypotheses and enables them to get corrective feedback from their interlocutors. However, the notion of "output" has been discussed based only on L2 learners' verbal output, as the majority of mainstream SLA studies depend on audio data. As the close analysis of the examples in this study has shown, it is clear that L2 learners' gestures are an integral part of their output and play a critical role in engendering L1 speakers' corrective feedback, which researchers argue is beneficial for language development. As such, the term "output" needs to be reconceptualized in a way that incorporates both verbal and nonverbal aspects of what L2 learners produce in interaction.

In a similar vein, this study has demonstrated how important it is to include the nonverbal aspects of interaction in understanding the sequential development of corrective feedback. The majority of studies on L2 teachers' corrective feedback have been dependent on audio data, often providing decontextualized segments. However, as shown in some of the examples in this study, without taking L2 learners' gestures into account, it might not be possible to fully understand why an interlocutor or teacher provides corrective feedback on a lexical item that seems to be semantically suitable in the given context.

Finally, the findings from this study lend support to Burch's (2014) convincing argument that the term "communication strategies" needs to be respecified from an interactional perspective and we need to pay closer attention to how L2 learners deploy locally available resources, verbal and nonverbal, in collaboration with the co-participants. In most of the traditional literature on communication strategies, L2 learners were viewed as deficient communicators (Firth & Wagner, 1997) and their use of gesture was considered as an outcome of their individualized remedial effort to deal with their linguistic deficiencies. However, the examples analyzed in this study clearly show how the tutees, as resourceful learning agents, are able to enhance their opportunities for language learning by using multimodal resources and by transforming the linguistic contingency into a social activity that requires co-participants' collaboration.

APPENDIX. TRANSCRIPTION NOTATION

[ ]	Overlapping utterances
=	Latching: when there is no interval between adjacent utterances
(0.0)	Timed silence within or between utterances in tenths of a second
-	A glottal stop, or abrupt cutting off of sound
( )	Uncertain hearing
(( ))	Transcriber's remark
:	Elongated sound
.	Falling intonation, e.g., sentence final
,	Continuing intonation, e.g., phrase final
?	Rising intonation
underline	Stressed sound
	Quieter than surrounding talk
↑↓	Marked change in pitch: upward or downward
hhh	Audible outbreath
.hh	Audible inbreath
(hh)	Laughter within a word
< >	Utterance is delivered at slower speed than surrounding talk
> <	Utterance is delivered at quicker speed than surrounding talk

REFERENCES

[1]   Alibali, M. W., & Goldin-Meadow, S. (1993). Gesture-speech mismatch and mechanisms of learning: What the hands reveal about a child's state of mind. *Cognitive Psychology, 25,* 468-523.

[2]   Allen, L.Q. (2000). Nonverbal accommodation in foreign language teacher talk. *Applied Language Learning, 11,* 155–176.

[3]   Belhiah, H. (2009). Tutoring as an embodied activity: How speech, gaze, and body orientations are coordinated to conduct ESL tutorial business. *Journal of Pragmatics, 41,* 829-841.

[4]   Belhiah, H. (2013). Using the hand to choreograph instruction: On the functional role of gesture in definition talk. *The Modern Language Journal, 97,* 417-434.

[5]   Brouwer, C. E. (2003). Word searches in NNS-NS interaction: Opportunities for language learning? *The Modern Language Journal, 87,* 534-545.

[6]   Burch, A. (2014). Pursuing information: A conversation analytic perspective on communication strategies. *Language Learning, 64,* 651-684.

[7]   Cassell, J., McNeill, D., & McCullough, K. (1999). Speech-gesture mismatches: Evidence for one underlying representation of linguistic and nonlinguistic information. *Pragmatics and Cognition*, *7,* 1-33.

[8]   Church, R. B., & Goldin-Meadow, S. (1986). The mismatch between gesture and speech as an index of transitional knowledge. *Cognition, 23,* 43-71.

[9]   Efron, D. (1972). Gesture, race, and culture. The Hague: Mouton. [Reissue of Efron 1941].

[10] Ekman, P. (1976). Movements with precise meanings. *Journal of Communication, 26,* 14–26.

[11] Ekman, P. (1977). Biological and cultural contributions to body and facial movement. In: Backing, J. (Ed.), *The anthropology of the body* (pp. 39-84). London: Academic Press.

[12] Eskildsen, S. W., & Wagner, J. (2015). Embodied L2 construction learning. *Language Learning, 65,* 268-297.

[13] Firth, A., & Wagner, J. (1997). On discourse, communication and (some) fundamental concepts in second language acquisition research. *Modern Language Journal*, *81,* 285–300.

[14] Freedman, N. (1972). The analysis of movement behavior during the clinical interview. In A. Siegman & B. Pope (Eds.), *Studies in dyadic communication*. New York: Pergamon.

[15] Goldin-Meadow, S., Wein, D., & Chang, C. (1992). Assessing knowledge through Gesture: Using children's hands to read their minds. *Cognition and Instruction, 9*(3), 201-219.

[16] Goldin-Meadow, S., & Alibali, M. W. (2013). Gesture's role in speaking, learning, and creating language. *Annual Review of Psychology, 64,* 257-283.

[17] Goodwin, C. (1986). Gesture as a resource for the organization of mutual orientation. *Semiotica, 62,* 29-49

[18] Goodwin, C., & Goodwin, M. (1986). Gesture and coparticipation in the activity of searching for a word. *Semiotica, 62,* 51-75.

[19] Gullberg, M. (1998). *Gesture as a communication strategy in second language discourse.* Lund, Sweden: Lund University Press.

[20] Gullberg, M. (2006a). Handling discourse: Gestures, reference tracking, and communication strategies in early L2. *Language Learning, 56,* 155-196

[21] Gullberg, M. (2006b). Some reasons for studying gesture and second language acquisition. *International Review of Applied Linguistics, 44,* 103-124.

[22] Gullberg, M. (2010). Methodological reflections on gesture analysis in second language acquisition and bilingualism research. *Second Language Research, 26,* 75-102.

[23] Guvendir, E. (2011). The role of non-verbal behavior of teachers in providing students corrective feedback and their consequences. *Sino-US English Teaching, 8,* 577-591.

[24] Hayashi, M. (2003). Language and the body as resources for collaborative action: A study of word searches in Japanese conversation. *Research on Language and Social Interaction, 36,* 109-141.

[25] Hosoda, Y. (2006). Repair and relevance of differential language expertise in second language conversations. *Applied

Linguistics, 27, 25-50.

[26] Kendon, A. (1972). Some relationships between body motion and speech. In A. W. Seigman & B. Pope (Eds.), *Studies in dyadic communication* (pp. 177-210). Elmsford, NY: Pergamon.

[27] Kendon, A. (2004). Gesture: Visible action as utterance. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[28] Koshik, I., & Seo, M. (2012). Word (and other) sequences initiated by language learners. *Text & Talk*, *32*(2), 167-189.

[29] Lazaraton, A. (2004). Gesture and speech in the vocabulary explanations of one ESL teacher: A microanalytic inquiry. *Language Learning*, *54*, 79-117.

[30] Lee, D. S. (2004). Conversation analytic approach to communication strategies: Appeals in language learners' word searches. Unpublished Master's thesis. University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign.

[31] Lee, J. (2008). Gesture and private speech in second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 30, 169–190.*

[32] Markee, N. (2000). Conversation analysis. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

[33] Markee, N. (2004). Conversation Analysis for second language acquisition. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 355-374). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

[34] McCafferty, S. G. (1998). Nonverbal expression and L2 private speech. *Applied Linguistics*, 19, 73–96.

[35] McCafferty, S. G. (2002). Gesture and creating zones of proximal development for second language learning. *The Modern Language Journal, 86*, 192-203.

[36] McCafferty, S. G., & Ahmed, M. (2000). The appropriation of gestures of the abstract by L2 learners. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 198-218). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

[37] McCafferty, S. G., & Stam, G. (Eds.). (2008). Gesture: Second language acquisition and classroom research. New York: Routledge

[38] McNeill, D. (1992). Hand and mind: What the hands reveal about thought. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

[39] McNeill, D., Cassell, J., & McCullough, K. (1994). Communicative effects of speech mismatched gestures. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, 27, 223-237.

[40] Morett, L. M. (2014). When hands speak louder than words: The role of gesture in the communication, encoding, recall of words in a novel second language. *The Modern Language Journal, 98*, 834-853.

[41] Mori, J., & Hasegawa, A. (2009). Doing being a foreign language learner in a classroom: Embodiment of cognitive states as social events. *International Review of Applied Linguistics, 47*, 65–94.

[42] Mori, J. & Hayashi, M. (2006). The achievement of intersubjectivity through embodied completions: A study of interactions between first and second language speakers. *Applied Linguistics, 27*, 195-219.

[43] Olsher, D. (2004). Talk and gesture: The embodied completion of sequential actions in spoken interaction. In R. Gardner & J. Wagner (Eds.), *Second language conversations* (pp. 221-245). London: Continuum.

[44] Park, I. (2007). Co-construction of word search activities in native and non-native speaker interaction. *Working Papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics, 7*, 1-23.

[45] Rimé, B. (1982). The elimination of visible behavior from social interactions: Effects of verbal, nonverbal and interpersonal variables. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 12*, 113-129.

[46] Schegloff, E. A. (1984). On some gestures' relation to talk. In J. M. Atkinson & J. Heritage (Eds.), *Structures of social action: Studies in Conversation Analysis* (pp. 266-296). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[47] Schegloff, E. A. (2007). Sequence organization in interaction: A primer in Conversation Analysis (v. 1). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[48] Schegloff, E. A., Jefferson, G., & Sacks, H. (1977). The preference for self-correction in the organization of repair in conversation. *Language, 53*, 361-382.

[49] Seo, M., & Koshik, I. (2010). A conversation analytic study of gestures that engender repair in ESL conversation tutoring. *Journal of Pragmatics, 42*, 2219-2239.

[50] Seyfeddinipur, M. (2007). Repair at hand: Fixing up gestures for recipients. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of American Association for Applied Linguistics, Costa Mesa, CA.

[51] Sidnell, J. (2010). Conversation analysis: An Introduction. Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell

[52] Smotrova, T., & Lantolf, J. P. (2013). The function of gesture in lexically focused L2 instructional conversations. *The Modern Language Journal, 97,* 397–416.

[53] Stivers, T. (2004). "No no no" and other types of multiple sayings in social interaction. *Human Communication Research, 30*, 260-293.

[54] Streeck, J. (1993). Gesture as communication I: Its coordination with gaze and speech. *Communication Monographs 60*, 275-299.

[55] Sueyoshi, A., & Hardison, D. M. (2005). The roles of gestures and facial cues in second language listening comprehension. *Language Learning, 55*, 661-699.

[56] Swain, M (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 235-253). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

[57] Taleghani-Nikazm, C. (2008). Gestures in foreign language classrooms: An empirical analysis of their organization and function. In M. Bowles et al. (Eds.), *Selected Proceedings of the 2007 Second Language Research Forum* (pp. 229-238). Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Proceedings Project

[58] Wang, W., & Loewen, S. (2015). Nonverbal behavior and corrective feedback in nine ESL university-level classrooms. *Language Teaching Research, 20*, 459-478.

[59] Willey, B. (2001). Examining a "communication strategy" from a conversation analytic perspective: Eliciting help from native speakers inside and outside of word search sequences. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Mi-Suk Seo is Associate Professor in the English Department at California State University, Sacramento, and she teaches courses in grammar, research methods, and second language learning and teaching. Her research interests include conversation analysis, second language acquisition, gesture, intercultural communication, and ESL pedagogy.

Causal Factors of Low Achievement in EFL Development: Findings from a Chinese University

Fei Ma

School of Basic Science, Zhejiang Wanli University, Ningbo 315101, China

Abstract—**A large number of university students have poor performance in English language learning in mainland China. It is important to learn the cause of this phenomenon in order to give the learners effective intervention. The current study clarifies two terminologies, i.e., underachievement and low achievement. The phenomenon of low achievement is investigated with the tools of interview, questionnaire survey and classroom observation. Among the many possible factors, four factors stand out as the critical causal factors: effort, interest, teachers and prior attainment. Six factors show a moderate association with their performance and exert limited influence. They are peers, attitude, learning strategy, confidence, curriculum and motivation. Some seemingly important factors, such as gender, family background and learning ability, actually have little association at all. The study also finds that a certain percentage of low achievers could be reversed if right scaffolding is given.**

Index Terms—**low achievement, causal factors, EFL, intervention**

I. INTRODUCTION

The higher education in mainland China is hierarchical, with a categorization of tier-1, tier-2 and tier-3 universities. Tier-1 universities are the elite institutions under the funding and governance of central or local government. The universities entitled *'double first-class'* fall under this category and are the leaders of this group. Tier-2 universities are ordinary institutions that are funded and governed by local government. Tier-3 universities are under the governance of local government, and usually do not, or partially receive government funding. They are not seen as competitive as their tier-1 and tier-2 counterparts. Therefore, the tier-3 universities usually have to recruit students with lower performance in terms of *gaokao* score. Comparatively, low achievement is a much more serious problem in tier-3 universities. Among the 1217 institutions offering undergraduate education in mainland China, approximately one third is tier-3 universities and about 24 percent of undergraduate entrants are enrolled here (MoE, 2014, 2015). However, the educational problems in tier-3 universities usually attract much less research interest, because the influential experts usually work at tier-1 universities and they know less and worry less about the teaching and learning in the territory of tier-3 ones. Many problems here concerning teaching and learning remain underexplored.

English language education is compulsory in China's curriculum system. It usually starts from Year Three in primary schools and ends at universities. In the level of higher education, the course is known as *College English*. As China plays increasingly important roles in the globalization of economy and internationalization of education, English as a lingua franca becomes especially important for university students, considering their future work and further education. The tier-3 universities share many commonalities in EFL education in terms of the entrants admitted, the educational resources, and their standing in the Chinese higher education system. The educational authorities take the pass rate of CET-4, a national English proficiency test, as an important index to assess education quality. As the quality assessment is more sensitive to tier-3 universities, they generally attach great importance to English education.

The university under research is a tier-3 university in eastern China. The course of *College English* is compulsory for all first-year students, totally with 14 credits. Around 4300 students take *College English* each semester. The students have to pass the course to get the credits; meanwhile, they are encouraged to pass CET-4. Pass of CET-4 is a precondition to obtain honours degree. Furthermore, CET-4 certificate could ensure better job opportunities. English learning, therefore, is very important for students.

The students are enrolled from 24 different provinces in China, covering a variety of regions from east to west, south to north, and rural to urban. Their English proficiency varies greatly. The majority of students have a reasonably good mastery of the four skills. However, every year in the class I teach, I always notice a group of students with very poor performance. Some of them have to repeat the course more than once, which costs tremendous extra time, and puts the students under great anxiety. I have communicated this with my colleagues a couple of times, and they report similar phenomenon. Without doubt, there exist a group of students who are struggling with their English learning. It is a big number when it is put under the context of the whole university. For example, according to the data from Centre for Foreign Languages Education, in the first semester of school year 2015-2016, 558 students failed the course of *College English*. This roughly indicates 12.4 percent of students have problem in EFL learning, which worries all the

stakeholders. In order to help this group of students effectively, it is important to understand the causal factors of their low achievement.

II. DEFINING LOW ACHIEVERS

The concepts of 'underachievers' and 'low achievers' are often conflated and used interchangeably. In some occasions, they depict the same group of students, but most cases not. An underachiever academically performs more poorly than their potential learning ability. Identification of underachievers usually requires two variables, the student's actual achievement and their potential ability. The underachiever shows a strong discrepancy between actual achievement and potential ability (Dowdall & Colangelo, 1982; McCall, 1994; Reis & McCoach, 2000; Rimm, 1997; Whitmore, 1980). That is, the underachievers are those who have the potential to achieve better academic results. Thus, there is a need to distinguish two further concepts: high achieving underachievers (HAUs) and low achieving underachievers (LAUs), as Figure 1 indicates. For example, the students who achieve respectable results but with potential to be the top ones are HAUs. The students whose achievement is at the lowest level but with the potential to perform better are LAUs.

Figure 1 depicts the relationship between underachievers and low achievers (LAs). LAs refer to those who achieve very poor academic outcomes. Low achievement is measured by student's actual achievement, that is, low achievers have a very wide achievement gap with their peers. The way to measure could be examinations or tests accompanied by their teacher's subjective assessment. This measurement does not consider student's potential ability. The measuring criterion of low achievement is often self-determined and does not have universal standard.

In the broad sense, the connotation of low achievers is dichotomous. The construct can refer to those who have a discrepancy between actual achievement and potential ability, i.e. LAUs. The construct also includes the type of low achievers who have no discrepancy between actual achievement and potential ability, that is, they have little potential to obtain better academic outcomes. This group of students can be termed as the students with learning difficulties (SLDs). LAs are sometimes defined in the narrow sense. For example, they refer to those who have a below average IQ and struggle in the classroom to keep up with general academic requirements (VanAuker-Ergle, 2003). In the narrow sense, LAs exclusively refer to SLDs, namely those with little discrepancy between actual achievement and potential ability.
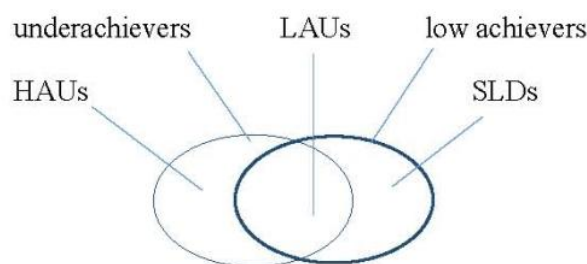
Figure 1 Interrelation between underachievers and low achievers

The current research defines LAs in the broad sense. The term refers to those who have low achievement in English learning, without considering their potential abilities. That is, it includes both LAUs and SLDs. I do not separate LAUs and SLDs because it is beyond the agenda of current research to test students' potential English learning ability, therefore it is almost impossible to distinguish the two groups. Secondly, there exists fierce competition to be admitted to universities in China. It is therefore assumed that there is only a very small number of SLDs among university students. Thirdly, in the Chinese language, the direct translation of this group of students is low achievers. Therefore, the current research prefers the terminology low achievers.

My identification of LAs is a comprehensive consideration of their *gaokao* score and their teacher's subjective assessment. The full mark of *gaokao* English exam is 150. If students score lower than 90, they are usually believed to perform poorly in English learning. Those with *gaokao* English scores lower than 90 are considered to be possible LAs, and their English teacher's assessment works as a supplementary criterion to evaluate their achievement. Furthermore, I understand that the learning status of students may change for better or worse in their learning process; therefore, their achievement is dynamic. The categorization of LAs is only meaningful at that certain period of time.

III. METHODS

The current research adopts a mixed design with the tools such as questionnaire survey, classroom observation, and semi-structured interview to collect data. The institution under research has 51 specialties, covering the disciplines of natural science, arts and humanities, and social science. Students from different disciplines are assumed to perform differently in English learning. The samples must represent the three different disciplines, that is, the samples should be able to display the general feature of the whole university. Therefore, I chose one class from each discipline, i.e., one class of journalism, one class of law and one class of environmental engineering. The three classes were selected

because they were neither the best nor the worst in English achievement in their respective discipline, and their students and teachers were happy to participate in the research. This cohort of students was admitted in year 2016.

A review of literature indicates that 12 factors may have close association with English low achievement. The factors include prior attainment, interest, effort, motivation, confidence, learning strategy, peers' influence, curriculum, teacher's impact, IQ, gender difference and family background. My **questionnaire** design is based on the 12 factors. The major part of the questionnaire is Likert scales that are used to learn about the respondent's perceptions about each factor. Another item asks students to pick out four most critical factors contributing to EFL low achievement from the 12-factor bank. The last item is an open question, where respondents can write down the causal factors they think important but not covered by the bank. The questionnaire survey was conducted among the three classes and the EFL teachers at the university. The returned valid questionnaires include 152 copies from students and 44 from teachers.

Seven LAs from the three classes were identified with the help of their English teachers, and they were voluntary to participate in the **interview**. They are Jack, John, James, Juliet, Hurley, Sayid and Charlie. The interview centres on their English learning experience, and what has caused their low achievement. In addition, I interviewed the three English teachers of the three classes, Ben, Kate and Sun. The interview concentrates on what the causal factors are and how the factors could be dealt with. The interview was conducted on a one-to-one and face-to-face basis, and each one lasted for around 30 minutes.

The classroom teaching and learning of each class was observed for two or three times. I adopted the approach of non-participant observation. Each time the **observation** lasted for one period of lesson (45 minutes). The students' self-learning activity was observed as well. In this university, each class is assigned a regular self-learning room. All students are required to attend the self-learning activity from 7:00 to 7:30 a.m. each day from Monday to Friday. Students are encouraged to learn English at that time. The self-learning activity of each class was observed twice.

These three sets of data are analysed independently first, and then merged by comparison, contrast and reconciliation. Hopefully the different source of data could illuminate each other and the findings could be triangulated.

IV. FINDINGS

The current research finds that the influence of factors varies according to contexts. In one context, some factors may stand out as the critical factors; in another, the factors may retreat as insignificant in relation to the learning outcomes. As is shown in Table 1 and Table 2, some seemingly important factors actually play insignificant roles in term of current research interest. They are **gender**, **family background** and **IQ**. Gender is found to be a superficial factor, i.e., the real difference between male and female learners lies in their different effort and interest. The family exerts huge influence upon children when they are in primary and junior high schools, but exercises very limited influence in higher education. Fierce competition exists in China's primary and secondary education. If the students have IQ problem, they are not likely to have the chance to go to university. Therefore, the university students rarely have the IQ problem.

In the emergence of EFL low achievement, some factors exert influence, but the influence is not powerful enough to change the trajectory of learning. The influence is a quantity accumulation. In other words, they are not critical in giving rise to EFL low achievement. A comprehensive analysis of the three sets of data identifies six factors with moderate association, i.e., **peers, attitude, learning strategy, confidence, curriculum** and **motivation**. This study finds that
   • Strong peers promote learning, and weak peers undermine it.
   • Quite a number of students hold that English is dispensable in their life.
   • Many learners do not have a clear understanding of learning strategy.
   • The repeated setbacks in secondary school have exhausted the confidence of LAs.
   • The current curriculum is too demanding for weak learners.
   • The learners have strong instrumental motivation, but weak integrative motivation.

Effort, **prior attainment**, and **interest** are found to be the critical factors directly linking to EFL low achievement (Table 1 and Table 2). A big controversy exists about whether the **teacher's role** is critical. The survey results suggest the teacher's impact is insignificant, but the interviews indicate otherwise.

TABLE 1
CAUSAL FACTORS INDICATED BY QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY

	Factors /frequency / percentage (student's questionnaire, N=152)	Factors /frequency / percentage (teacher's questionnaire, N=44)
1	Lack of interest /118 /77.6	Poor prior attainment/40 /90.9
2	Poor prior attainment /113 /74.3	Lack of interest /33/75.0
3	Lack of effort /90 /59.2	Lack of effort /29 /65.9
4	Lack of motivation /84 /55.3	Lack of motivation /26 /59.1
5	Lack of confidence /73 /48.0	Lack of confidence /21 /47.7
6	Poor learning strategy /58 /38.2	Poor learning strategy /18 /40.9
7	Peers' adverse influence /26 /17.1	Peers' adverse influence /4 /9.1
8	Inappropriate curriculum /19 /12.5	Inappropriate curriculum /2/4.5
9	Teacher's adverse impact /18 /11.8	Teacher's adverse impact /2 /4.5
10	*Low IQ /6 /3.90*	*Gender difference /1/2.3*
11	*Gender difference /3 /1.97*	*Low IQ /0 /0*
12	*Disadvantaged family background /0 /0*	*Disadvantaged family background /0 /0*

TABLE 2
FACTORS IDENTIFIED BY INTERVIEWEES

	Factors /frequency (LAs, N=7)	Factors /frequency (teachers, N=3)
1	Lack of effort /7	Poor prior attainment /3
2	Poor prior attainment /6	Lack of interest /3
3	Lack of interest /5	Lack of effort/3
4	Teacher's adverse impact/4	Teacher's adverse impact/2
5	Peer's adverse influence /4	Inappropriate attitude /2
6	Inappropriate attitude /3	Lack of confidence /2
7	Poor learning strategy /3	Poor learning strategy /1
8	Lack of confidence /1	Peer's adverse influence /1
9	Bad memory /1	
10	*Low IQ /0*	*Low IQ /0*
11	*Gender difference /0*	*Gender difference /0*
12	*Disadvantaged family background/0*	*Disadvantaged family background/0*

Teacher's impact

This controversy of attribution is resolved by a deeper analysis of the data collection process and the data set per se. Some bias might exist when respondents answered the questionnaires. The item asks respondents to identify the key causal factors for EFL low achievement. It is human nature to avoid being blamed and being labelled as incompetent. Teacher respondents are reluctant to claim themselves as the cause of student's low achievement. The student survey was conducted in the class break. Chinese students usually do not want to have confrontations with their teachers by indicating their teacher's incompetence. They tend not to attribute low achievement to the teachers in public space.

The interview reveals that English teacher is one of the key causal factors. The interview took place in the private space and confidentiality was assured, so the interviewees were relieved to reveal the truth. For example, Kate was critical of some colleagues straightforwardly. She claimed that '*most teachers have given up this group of students …*' The university evaluates the teaching quality by calculating the CET-4 passing rate of each class. Transforming LAs usually demands much more efforts and it is difficult. The utilitarian way is to focus on the students who have more potential to pass the test. Kate also accused some colleagues of being irresponsible and indifferent. She revealed the case of one teacher. '*She does not check attendance and leave assignments, and is arbitrary at the teaching content. She manages to let her students pass the course, so she is popular among some students.*' It is easy to speculate that this indulgence and ingratiation could reduce student's effort making.

In the same vein, four LAs asserted that teachers had strong association with their learning outcomes. They accused their teachers for various reasons. John never practiced listening in junior high school, but his teacher in senior high lectured everything in English. He could not understand the lesson, hence his interest was lost and he put his effort on other subjects. Jack complained that '*the English teaching in my secondary school was boring, so I did not want to follow*'. Juliet blamed that '*my high school teacher was poor at class management; the class was often in chaos*'. Juliet was very daring. She had two English teachers at the university, and she complained of one teacher by saying '*that teacher's lesson is very boring; many of us choose not to listen*'. Hurley was unsatisfactory with his secondary school teachers, who always asked them to have rote memorization of vocabulary, therefore his interest was lost. The LAs did not complain of the teachers whose class I went for observation. When they talked of the teachers, they spoke well of them. The student interviewees were selected with the help of the teachers. They are on good terms with the teachers, and they were unwilling to speak ill of their teachers. However, we should not assume that there are no problems among these teachers.

The importance of teachers' role is further verified by classroom observation. The three classes show very different teaching and learning status. The class of journalism was most engaged. The students were very attentive, showing little distractive behaviours. The students of law were generally cooperative and with the teacher, although a small number of students were doing irrelevant things. The learning status of the engineering class is worrisome. Nearly half of students

were not focused, displaying the behaviours such as playing with cell phones, napping, chatting, and absent-mindedness. The teacher is not the only factor contributing to the different learning status, however, the attitude of teachers plays important role. Being strict with students or not directly affects the class learning atmosphere. Students may play truant, come late, be less engaged, show more disruptive behaviours if the teacher is too loose with class management. Kate is strict with students and the wrongdoers will be asked to have a talk or punished, which pushes students to make more efforts. Her students have to refrain from distractive behaviours. The lesson preparation matters as well. The teacher who did not prepare the lesson carefully tended to spend more class time on less relevant things, and the lecture was usually boring.

In Kate's words, '*a responsible and caring teacher can make a big difference in turning LAs around*'. Ben shares this opinion by emphasizing that encouragement from a teacher can help students build up confidence, thereby enhancing performance. The case of John fully supports this claim. John was bottom three in his class when he came to the university. In his words, English was like '*the language of mars and the foe of my last life*' at that time. He could not understand the language and hated it very much. However, he was lucky to meet a good teacher Kate who gave him encouragement and support. His English proficiency was approaching the middle level and still had potential to improve after one semester's effort. Ben reported an anecdote of another student. The English proficiency of that student was not good then. Ben once said to the student that '*your voice sounds quite mellow and your English speaking must be very pleasant to hear*'. This simple encouragement greatly helped the student to build up confidence and make efforts. The student got reasonably good results in the final exam. He even took part in English speaking contest and shared his learning experience with his classmates. That is, teachers can exert great influence upon student's English learning, especially in the aspect of affection.

The English teachers at this university generally graduate from tier-1 universities, and usually hold a master degree or above. All of them have a teaching experience of at least 15 years. I worry less about their teaching ability. The problem lies in the teaching attitude of some teachers. If they make more efforts in teaching and give more support to the LAs, more LAs could be transformed.

Effort

The efforts students make have significant and positive association with academic achievement throughout lower and higher education (Alexander, Entwisle, & Dauber, 1993; Alexander, Entwisle, & Horsey, 1997; Carbonaro, 2005; Coates, 2009; Connell & et al., 1994; Diseth, Pallesen, Brunborg, & Larsen, 2010; Fredricks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004; Ho & Hau, 2008; Marks, 2000; Michaels & Miethe, 1989; Pike, Kuh, McCormick, Ethington, & Smart, 2011; Stewart, 2008). Some Chinese research shows that effort is one of the most important factors contributing to the English performance of Chinese university students (Cui, 2007; Ou, 2012). The current findings show great convergence with the previous research. Both students and teachers assume that lack of effort is one of the key factors resulting in EFL low achievement (Table 1 and Table 2).

In Ben's words,

'*They failed the final exam ... they invested little effort in learning and their time is wasted*'.

Kate has similar claim,

'*The most decisive reason for low achievement lies in not enough individual effort*'.

According to the three teachers, the LAs often skip class and fail to finish assignments. They do not have the inner willingness to learn. They may be present in class physically but not engaged mentally. They usually display the behaviours such as playing with cell phones, napping, chatting, or absent-mindedness. Some of them have been found copying assignments, even cheating in exams.

All the seven LAs admit that lack of effort is a major reason for their present learning outcome. The case of Hurley illustrates this point well, though extreme. It seems that he does not make any efforts in English learning and other subjects as well. Hurley is very frank.

'*Our generation, after high school, won't give much concern to study... In high school, I might have to study for 18 hours each day; but now I may allocate 18 hours for life and three hours for study... In my first semester, I could play computer for 24 hours a day, and I forgot study. As time passes, it becomes a habit, that is, there is no study in my life.*'

'*I want to live the university life I have dreamt of, comfortable and relaxing. Study only takes up a very small part of my life... Our generation has different understanding of university life with yours... I almost do not study now and my effort making is the least throughout my learning history.*'

Sayid was not as extreme as Hurley, but he also admitted he did not make enough efforts.

'*Last semester, I almost did not make any efforts because I was busy with some other work... This semester, I start to memorize vocabulary as CET-4 is approaching. I am a little worried. I am not very hard-working, but I am working for that goal.*'

'*My effort is far from enough. The students who really work hard have detailed plans. For example, they have a plan for the number of words to memorize every day and they are determined to finish the task. As far as I am concerned, I may memorize several words in the morning or some in the evening. I do not have a plan.*'

Their lack of effort is triangulated by the observation of self-learning activity. The observation demonstrates that their effort is far from enough, which is especially reflected in the law class and class of environmental engineering. A huge number of students were not studying during the half-hour self-learning time. They played with cell phones, listened to music, chatted and so on. They waited for the end of the session, and time was wasted.

Prior attainment

The current research defines prior attainment as the English proficiency the students possess before they start their higher education. *Gaokao* English score is a major indicator of their prior attainment. The surveys and interviews reveal that poor prior attainment is a major causal factor for present EFL low achievement (Table 1 and Table 2).

Sun gave detailed illustration about this. A few students in her class are from underdeveloped provinces such as Sichuan and Inner Mongolia. They did not receive any listening training in their high school, and were totally overwhelmed in the listening class. Another issue is that students are not taught phonetic symbols in their primary and secondary schools. They do not know how to pronounce new words. These problems have a link to educational policy.

In Kate's opinion, one thing the LAs have in common is that their English has been already lagged behind at their secondary school. They rarely experienced the sense of success. Ben echoed this by claiming that there were ten percent of students in his class whose English proficiency was around the level of junior high. It was almost impossible to have any communication with them in English, and they had no ability to finish their assignments. He once asked his students to be honest with their homework. They could just draw a straight line if they did not know the answer. It turned out that their assignment books were full of straight lines.

In fact, the LAs themselves also recognize their poor prior attainment, and believe it is the major difficulty for them to catch up. The interview of LAs reveals that some of them are poor in their overall English proficiency; others may have a big problem in some specific areas, such as listening, grammar or vocabulary. For example, Jack admitted that his overall English proficiency was among the worst in his class, and he could only understand half of the lecture even if he tried hard. His low achievement started from his junior high school, because he had no interest and was half-hearted in learning then. His *gaokao* English score is only 49 out of 150. Charlie has some in common with Jack. In his words, '*I almost could not understand anything about English; Nobody could be worse than me*'. He alleged that he had not been engaged in English learning since his junior high, because he was lazy and fun-loving. He almost did not memorize vocabulary. He recalled his *gaokao* score as around 65.

The LAs have different attribution of their poor attainment. The English proficiency of James was at the bottom of his class. His low achievement started from his high school, and he scored 87 in *gaokao*. He ascribed this to his bad memory. He tended to forget the vocabulary even if he memorized the words for two or three times. He felt exhausted. However, he could easily memorize the difficult Chinese poems. In his words, '*my brain is like a Chinese operating system; if an English software is squeezed in, it doesn't run well.*'

John told a different story. He never received listening training in junior high school; however his English teacher in senior high lectured everything in English. He could not understand, so he lost interest and put effort on learning other subjects. His *gaokao* score is 85. His English proficiency was bottom three in his class at the outset of his university education, but he was making rapid progress then.

Hurley admitted that his English was not good, which started from high school. There were too many words to memorize and he hated doing so. His *gaokao* score is 85. The experience of Sayid shared some similarity with Hurley. Sayid's low achievement began at high school and he hated memorization as well. Another reason is that he spent a lot of time reading novels in his high school, which distracted his English learning. His *gaokao* score is 70, and he claimed that his English proficiency was quite poor currently.

As can be seen, the LAs share the problem of poor prior attainment, which is a complex construct associative with many variables such as educational policy, teachers, interest, effort, attitude, and so on. However, no LAs attribute their low achievement to ability. The finding is in accordance with the previous research that prior attainment is the most important predictor for present academic achievement (Bloom, 1971, 1974, 1976; Dochy, 1992; Parkerson & et al., 1984). This has implication that educational authorities should recognize the existence of low prior attainment and its influence upon academic achievement. It is better not to arbitrarily assert that 'the students won't be admitted to university if they do not have the corresponding attainment', and blame the teachers that 'there are no unteachable students, only incapable teachers'.

Interest

It is universally acknowledged that greater interest brings about students' focused attention, persistent effort, increased cognitive and affective functioning, hence higher achievement (Ainley, Hidi, & Berndorff, 2002; Hofer, 2010; Renninger & Hidi, 2011; Woolfolk, 2010). Likewise, the current research finds that lack of interest is a key factor resulting in the low achievement (Table 1 and Table 2).

Five LAs pointed out that lack of interest is one of the major reasons leading to their low achievement, and they lost it for various reasons. In John's case, English listening was not tested in *zhongkao[1]*; therefore his listening was never practiced in junior high. A big gap arose between him and his peers in senior high. He felt he had no ear for English.

---

[1] *Zhongkao* is the entrance examination for senior high schools. In Zhejiang province, 50 percent students have the chance to go to senior high schools. Others have to attend vocational schools.

His interest was lost. In his words, *'It is like someone talking to you with the language of Mars; my interest was totally lost'*. John lost interest because of the unfavourable external stimuli.

Jack's lack of interest was more intrinsic. He had little interest in English and was half-hearted in learning at primary school. As a result, he felt his English proficiency had lagged behind substantially since year six. Currently, he wanted to pass CET-4; however the gap was too wide for him to close in short time. In fact, every learner has their own story. James was once very good at English, but he lost his interest in senior high. He attributed this to his bad memory. He tended to forget the English words. He exclaimed that '*I feel exhausted and disheartened; English becomes a headache to me*'.

Hurley was straightforward that he lost interest in English in grade two senior high. Before that, he liked English and its culture very much, e.g. English novels and music. In his words, '*English letters look prettier than Chinese characters.*' At that time, he once thought of studying abroad and he was confident he was able to reach that English proficiency. Afterwards, his thought changed and he found staying in China was not bad. Another reason for his loss of interest lies in, '*there are too many words to memorize; I hate it*', as he put it. As a result, his interest was lost. The cases of Hurley and James indicate that interest is dynamic. It may change over time. This has implications that stimulating interest and holding it are both important. Moreover, the dynamics of interest could bring about the change of other factors, effort for example.

The experience of Charlie shares some similarity with Hurley. In Charlie's words, '*I just don't like it; I don't like memorizing vocabulary.*' He did not memorize enough words in junior and senior high schools; therefore he could not understand the reading, which made him more unwilling to learn. Currently, because of the stimulation of CET-4, he thought of trying to learn English. However, he was very pessimistic in that he was poor at almost every aspect, such as vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure and writing. '*My prior attainment is too weak*', he confessed.

The LAs agree that lack of interest greatly affects their learning outcomes. It seems that their interest has already been lost in junior or senior high school, and it continues till now. The three teachers agree that lack of interest is one key causal factor for low achievement, whereas they have different interpretation of the reasons for their lack of interest. Kate put it simply, '*It is interest ... Many students consider learning English or not won't make a big difference for their life.*' In Ben's opinion, these students were frustrated repeatedly in their junior and senior high schools. Their interest was exhausted then. However, Ben believes interest can be triggered once again. He turned around a low achieving student by giving encouragement, which helped the student develop interest and confidence.

According to Sun,

> '*They don't like it, not because they are not capable. They just don't like learning.*'
> '*Their interest was not developed when they began to touch English. They were taught under passivity and compulsion. It would be hard for them to develop interest in English when they grew up*'.

The LAs generally have lost interest in English learning for quite a long time. Re-triggering their interest is difficult, but it must be argued that it is possible. For example, John had the experience of interest loss in high school and its regain in the university. He has made great progress since then. It must be noted that the trigged interest could be lost easily if measures were not taken to hold it.

Finally, a happy finding is that a certain percentage of LAs are reversible. The seven LAs are confident of their learning potential. They attributed their current learning outcome to other factors rather than ability. A typical example is John, who has transformed to a mid-achiever after one semester's effort. This convertibility is corroborated by the following data. According to my statistics, there are 1621 students whose English *gaokao* score is lower than 90 in this cohort. 215 of them turned the tide and passed CET-4 after one year's learning. This roughly means 13 percent transformed from LAs to HAs. By exploring the causal factors, it is hoped that a larger percentage of LAs could be reversed if more effective intervention is given.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

EFL low achievement is the result of multiple factors. These factors are interactive and dynamic. They influence and are influenced by other factors, therefore form a relationship of reciprocal causation. The dynamism of the factors indicates that the learning outcome is dynamic. The performance of learners may change over time, for better or for worse. Among the factors, four play the critical role in the emergence of EFL low achievement, i.e., ***poor prior attainment, lack of effort, lack of interest, and teacher's adverse impact***. They can be defined as the key causal factors. The causal factors intertwine to generate a collective force to exert influence upon EFL development. EFL low achievement emerges mainly under the influence of the four factors. In order to help the LAs, the four factors should be dealt with as a priority. These four factors can be further refined into two themes, i.e. affect-relevant and academics-relevant, as Figure 2 depicts. The affect-relevant theme is mainly represented by effort and interest, with some links to prior attainment and teachers. The academics-relevant theme is chiefly reflected by prior attainment and teachers, with some associations with effort and interest. This is a refined model on how EFL low achievement is developed and how intervention should be designed. This model reveals that the intervention design should primarily consider how to address the LAs' affective and academic problems in terms of these four factors. Among the two, handling the affective problem appears to be especially important for it encourages LAs to take initiatives to learn. The teachers and the university could have different focus in terms of intervention. The teachers could mainly focus on dealing with the

affective variables, that is, develop LAs' interest and motivate them to make efforts. The university could put priority on handling the academic variables by developing some supporting programs for LAs, and stimulating teachers to be actively engaged in teaching.
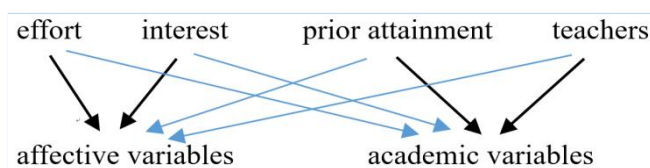

Figure 2 The refined model of EFL low achievement

The current research sees EFL development as a complex system composing of learners, teachers and learning environment, which are under the influence of multiple factors. EFL low achievement is the unfavourable emergence of the system, which is not easy to change without powerful perturbation. Owing to the interactivity and dynamism of the causal factors, it demands the concerted and persistent effort of the three parties to reverse the LAs.

REFERENCES

[1]   Ainley, M., Hidi, S., & Berndorff, D. (2002). Interest, Learning, and the Psychological Processes That Mediate Their Relationship. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 94*(3), 545-561.
[2]   Alexander, K. L., Entwisle, D. R., & Dauber, S. L. (1993). First- Grade Classroom Behavior: Its Short- and Long- Term Consequences for School Performance. *Child Development, 64*(3), 801-814. doi:10.2307/1131219.
[3]   Alexander, K. L., Entwisle, D. R., & Horsey, C. S. (1997). From First Grade Forward: Early Foundations of High School Dropout. *Sociology of Education, 70*(2), 87-107.
[4]   Bloom, B. (1971). Mastery learning: theory and practice. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
[5]   Bloom, B. (1974). Time and learning. *American Psychologist, 29*(9), 682-688. doi:10.1037/h0037632.
[6]   Bloom, B. (1976). Human characteristics and school learning. New York: McGraw-Hill.
[7]   Carbonaro, W. (2005). Tracking, Students' Effort, and Academic Achievement. *Sociology of Education, 78*(1), 27-49.
[8]   Coates, H. (2009). Engaging Students for Success - 2008 Australasian Survey of Student Engagement. Retrieved from Victoria, Australia: http://research.acer.edu.au/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1017&context=higher_education (accessed 10/5/2017).
[9]   Connell, J. P., & et al. (1994). Educational Risk and Resilience in African- American Youth: Context, Self, Action, and Outcomes in School. *Child Development, 65*(2), 493-506.
[10] Cui, Y. (2007). The Study of University Students' Self-attribution on Success and Failure in English Learning. (master), Zhengzhou University, Zhengzhou.
[11] Diseth, A., Pallesen, S., Brunborg, G., & Larsen, S. (2010). Academic achievement among first semester undergraduate psychology students: the role of course experience, effort, motives and learning strategies. *Higher Education, 59*(3), 335-352. doi:10.1007/s10734-009-9251-8
[12] Dochy, F. (1992). Assessment of Prior Knowledge as a Determinant for Future Learning: The Use of Knowledge State Tests and Knowledge Profiles. Utrecht/London: Lemma B.V./Jessica Kingsley.
[13] Dowdall, C. B., & Colangelo, N. (1982). Underachieving Gifted Students: Review and Implications. *Gifted Child Quarterly, 26*(4), 179-184.
[14] Fredricks, J. A., Blumenfeld, P. C., & Paris, A. H. (2004). School Engagement: Potential of the Concept, State of the Evidence. *Review of Educational Research, 74*(1), 59-109.
[15] Ho, I. T., & Hau, K.-T. (2008). Academic achievement in the Chinese context: The role of goals, strategies, and effort. *International Journal of Psychology, 43*(5), 892-897. doi:10.1080/00207590701836323.
[16] Hofer, M. (2010). Adolescents' Development of Individual Interests: A Product of Multiple Goal Regulation? *Educational Psychologist, 45*(3), 149-166. doi:10.1080/00461520.2010.493469.
[17] Marks, H. M. (2000). Student Engagement in Instructional Activity: Patterns in the Elementary, Middle, and High School Years. *American Educational Research Journal, 37*(1), 153-184.
[18] McCall, R. B. (1994). Academic Underachievers. *Current Directions in Psychological Science (Wiley-Blackwell), 3*(1), 15-19. doi:10.1111/1467-8721.ep10769838.
[19] Michaels, J. W., & Miethe, T. (1989). Academic Effort and College Grades. *Social Forces, 68*(1), 309-319.
[20] MoE. (2014). Educational Statistics for Year 2013. Beijing: Ministry of Education Retrieved from http://old.moe.gov.cn/publicfiles/business/htmlfiles/moe/s8493/index.html (accessed 28/3/2017).
[21] MoE. (2015). *2015 HEIs List)*. Beijing Retrieved from http://www.moe.edu.cn/publicfiles/business/htmlfiles/moe/moe_634/201505/187754.html (accessed 28/3/2017).
[22] Ou, Y. (2012). The Influence of Achievement Motivation and Attributional Beliefs on EFL Learning. (master), Xi'an International Studies University, Xi'an.
[23] Parkerson, J. A., & et al. (1984). Exploring Causal Models of Educational Achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 76*(4), 638-646.
[24] Pike, G. R., Kuh, G. D., McCormick, A. C., Ethington, C. A., & Smart, J. C. (2011). If and When Money Matters: The Relationships among Educational Expenditures, Student Engagement and Students' Learning Outcomes. *Research in Higher Education, 52*(1), 81-106. doi:10.1007/s11162-010-9183-2.
[25] Reis, S. M., & McCoach, D. B. (2000). The Underachievement of Gifted Students: What Do We Know and Where Do We Go? *Gifted Child Quarterly, 44*(3), 152-170.

[26] Renninger, K. A., & Hidi, S. (2011). Revisiting the Conceptualization, Measurement, and Generation of Interest. *Educational Psychologist, 46*(3), 168-184. doi:10.1080/00461520.2011.587723.
[27] Rimm, S. B. (1997). An underachievement epidemic. *Educational Leadership, 54*(7), 18-22.
[28] Stewart, E. (2008). School structural characteristics, student effort, peer associations, and parental involvement - The influence of school- and individual-level factors on academic achievement. In *Educ. Urban Soc.* (Vol. 40, pp. 179-204).
[29] VanAuker-Ergle, K. A. (2003). Barriers to low achievers' success in the elementary classroom as perceived by teachers: a qualitative study. (Ph.D), University of Florida,
[30] Whitmore, J. R. (1980). Giftedness, Conflict, and Underachievement. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
[31] Woolfolk, A. (2010). Educational psychology (11th ed.). Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Merrill.

Fei Ma was born in Xi'an China in 1977. He received his doctorate degree in education from University of Nottingham.

He is currently an associate professor in the School of Basic Science, Zhejiang Wanli University, Ningbo, China. His research interests include applied linguistics and EFL education.

Structural Variations of Adjective in English and Okpameri

Raifu O. Farinde
Department of English and Literary Studies, Federal University Oye-Ekiti, Ekiti State, Nigeria

Happy O. Omolaiye
Department of General Studies, The Federal Polytechnic, Ile-Oluji, Ondo State, Nigeria

Abstract—**Adjectives indicate grammatical property of language. They give more information about nouns. The usage of adjective in utterances varies in languages. These variations often pose problem to ESL learners. Predicating on Contrastive Analysis, the study generated Okpameri data from oral sources and participatory observation. English data were got from the English grammar texts. From the findings, the two languages are grammatically marked for pre/post modifying adjective, predicative adjective, degree of adjective and order of adjective. However, the grammatical structure and usage of these adjectives differ. While English adjectives often pre-modify the headword, Okpameri adjectives usually post-modify the headword. Also, while English distinguishes between the use of "beautiful" and handsome for feminine and masculine genders respectively, Okpameri language resorts to using uni-gender "shemilushe" which its equivalent translation in English is either "beautiful or handsome". As in the case of degree of adjective, suffixes are attached to the root-word to form comparative and superlative adjectives of the two languages. It has been observed that English adjectival pre-modification is consistent. However, Okpameri adjectives function as pre/post-modifiers. The study, therefore suggests that language teachers, particularly English language experts, should adopt systematic approach to the teaching of adjectives as this will broaden the knowledge of Okpameri ESL learners.**

Index Terms—**English, Okpameri, adjective, second language, grammar**

I. INTRODUCTION

Structural variation of language is usually occasioned by difference in culture. Thus, culture becomes one of the determining factors of language structure. Every language structure is the carrier of the culture that produces the language. For instance, the structure of English adjectives might seem not to be the same with the structure of Okpameri adjectives because of cultural differences. Since English is the target language, it therefore becomes pertinent to view the structure of the Okpameri adjectives on the structure of the English adjective as this will reveal the areas of similarities and differences. The differences of the two languages under study will definitely improve on the teaching of adjective in ESL context.

What actually informed this study is borne out of the fact that Okpameri language is yet to receive much scientific study, particularly, in the area of grammatical structure. Beaming searchlight on the identified problem area(s), the present study will reveal the likely problem the study of the English adjectives will pose to Okpameri ESL learners in the course of learning the English adjectives. The likely problem predicted will definitely go a long way in improving on the teaching methodology of the English adjectives.

As earlier mentioned, Okpameri language is yet to receive much scientific study. In other words, scholars have not really researched on the language. It must be stated here that language not scientifically studied might go into extinction. Hence, the study of the structure of Adjectives in English and Okpameri becomes significant.

Okpameri language is one of the Edoid languages (see Elugbe, 1989, Damola, 2004, Omolaiye, 2017, etc). According to Elugbe (1989), all the languages (such as Okpameri) that have generic resemblance must have descended from a common photo-language as it were and of which each had later emerged as a distinct language over a long period of time. The linguistic affinity among the Okpameri is one the greatest evidence of their oneness as a people. This explains why the word "Okpameri" means "we are one".

In the works of Hakeem (2003) and Ekharo et al (2007), Okpameri is classified as belonging to North-Western Edoid community who had retained its Edoid language and speaks a heavily accented variety of Yoruba as a second language. Okpameri is in Akoko-Edo Local Government Area of Edo State. The communities that make up Okpameri in the Local government are located in almost all the political constituencies in the said local government. Hence, the following communities are in Akoko-Edo North constituency: "Lampese", "Bekuma", "Ibillo", "Imoga", "Ekpesa", "Ekor", "the Ikirans" "the Ugboshis", "Aiyegunle", "Ogugu", and "Somonka", while communities like "Ojirami", "Dangbala", "Ojah", "Makeke", "Ekpe" are in Akoko-Edo South constituency. Okpameri is a language widely spoken in the local government, and it has population of about 62,000 (Omolaiye, 2013:5 citing population census of 2006 in Edo State).

The people are predominantly farmers. A sizable number of the female population are gari producers while some trade with the nearby villages and towns (in Kogi state), and Igarra (in Akoko-Edo, Edo State). Communities like "Ugboshi", "Ikiran", "Ibillo", "Ekpesa", "Lampese", "Bekuma", "Makeke" and "Ekpe" fairly speak Yoruba and Ibira languages as the communities share common boundary with Yoruba and Ibira town and villages.

As earlier stated, this paper is out to investigate structural variations of the English and Okpameri adjectives. However, emphasis will be on pre/post modifying adjectives, predicative adjectives, degree of adjective and order of adjective.

In a research work of this nature, it is paramount to briefly discuss some related terms of adjectives of the two languages under study as this will enhance the theoretical base of discussion. The discussion thus, begins with pre/post modifying adjectives.

Grammarians simply define adjectives as words used to modify or give more information about nouns or pronouns. (see Farinde & Ojo, 1998, Murthy, 2007, Jimoh 2009, Ojo 2011, Oyelekan 2002 etc.). By implication, any word used to describe, modify or qualify a noun is referred to as an adjective. However, words are not discriminately used as adjectives. They are used in line with the dictates of the grammar of a language. For instance, it is ungrammatical to render the English expression thus: "beautiful two ladies" instead of "two beautiful ladies". It is also wrong to say "grammar errors instead of "grammatical errors" in English. Adjectives are functionally classified as:

-**Attributive**: directly attached to a nominal item to function as a pre-modifier or post modifier e.g beautiful lady, the president elect etc.

-**Predicative**: Coming after the verb of a given sentence e.g He is fine, Don't be foolish etc.

-**Numerical**: Usually marked by cardinal numerals or ordinal numerials e.g. five houses, first speaker etc.

-**Interrogative**: used as a pre-modifier to ask questions e.g whose name is written?; which state that is free of coronal virus? etc.

-**Demonstrative:** used as a pre-modifier to point at something or somebody e.g. This book is standard; those students are very brilliant etc.

-**Possessive**: used as a pre-modifier to indicate possession e.g. my book; your house etc.

-**Nominal**: a noun used as a pre-modifier to perform the function of adjective e.g Nigeria police; town crier etc.

-**Proper noun**: a proper noun inflected to perform the function of an adjective e.g European countries; a Ghananian citizen etc.

-**Verbal**: Participles used as pre-modifiers to perform the function of an adjective e.g reading book; spoken English etc.

-**The Articles**: used as a pre-modifiers to perform the function of an adjective. Articles are used for specific and non-specific referent. Specific referent: the man. The non-specific: a girl, an empty space etc.

-**The determinants**: used as a pre-modifier or post modifier to perform the function of an adjective. Determinants are used to talk about the quantity of things or humans e.g few people attended the meeting, little milk is good for you etc.

-**Emphasizing words**: As the name suggests, they are words used as modifiers to perform the function of adjectives. They are usually used to emphasize nouns e.g I saw my very sister in the party. It is my own money I used to build the house etc.

-**Exclamatory word:** used as an adjective to express one's feeling e.g what! a beauty, what! an insult, etc.

The English adjectives are also used for comparison. In essence, comparison of adjectives has to do with expressing adjectives in terms of grading, that is, deriving their comparative and superlative forms. When two things or people are compared, the comparative form of adjective is used, while superlative form is used when more than two items or people are compared. This implies that adjectives and particularly, the traditional adjectives are inflected for comparative and superlative forms. Most monosyllabic adjectives usually derive their comparative and superlative forms with the addition of the morpheme "er" and "est" respectively. Consider the following:

big - bigger – biggest

tall – taller – tallest

fat – fatter – fattest

According to Oyelekan (2002), some di-syllabic adjectives do take either "er" and "est" or "more" and "most" for their comparative and superlative forms. Some of these examples are:

happy – happier – happiest

heavy – heavier – heaviest

lay – lazier – laziest

active – more active – most active

Some of the multi-syllabic adjectives also take "more" and 'most' as their comparative and superlative forms. They are:

beautiful – more beautiful – most beautiful, palatable – more palatable – most palatable

excellent – more excellent – most excellent etc.

It must be mentioned here that some adjectives do not have fixed rules to form their comparative and superlative forms. Murthy (2007) refers to them as "irregular comparative and superlative adjectives". Some of these irregular adjectives are:

good – better – best, bad – worse-worst, much – more – most, little – less – least.

As earlier mentioned, when more than one adjective pre-modifies a particular noun, there is an order they usually follow so as to have a grammatical and meaningful arrangement (see Ashaolu, et al 1995). In other words, pre-modifiers do not follow one another indiscriminately. Using the mnemonic as preferences for adjectival word-order, Ojo (2011) states as follows:

-Number (N) e.g one, six, third, fifth etc.
-Attributes (A) e.g. beautiful, ugly, elegant, poor, rich, experience, extravagant etc.
-Size/weight (s/w) e.g. tall, short, big, large, small, little, heavy, light etc.
-Age (A) e.g. new, young, old, modern, ancient, archaic, obsolete, outdated, old-fashioned etc.
-Shape (S) e.g. fat, thin, lanky, stout, slim, round, circular, rectangular, oblong etc.
-Colour (C) e.g. red, white, black, dark, yellow, dark-skinned, fair-skinned, light, fair blonds etc.
-Nationality/Origin (N/O) e.g. Nigerian, Italian, Japanese, Ghanaian, American etc.
-Nouns used as adjectives (N) e.g. leather, silk, sports, cotton, metal etc.

The above mnemonic is written in adjectival order of occurrence in a sentence. It must be stated here that not all the above adjectives might occur in a particular nominal group. Therefore, correct use of adjectives enhances linguistic competence.

The Okpameri Adjectives

Okpameri has adjectives in its grammar. That is, certain words are used to modify or describe nouns in Okpameri utterances. Similar to English, words are not discriminately used as adjectives in Okpameri language. Their usage also goes along with the dictates of the grammar of the language. It is an error to say n'eva (two) Ivbia (children) instead of Ivbia (children) n'eva (two).

Just as the English adjectives are classified functionally, Okpameri adjectives could also be classified as:

-**Attributive**: directly attached to a nominal item to function as a post modifier e.g. Ọzha n'o<u>shemushe</u> (wife <u>beautiful</u>), ọmọ-o <u>shemi</u> (child <u>good</u>) etc.

-**Predicative**: lopping together the be-verb with adjectival word to function as predicative adjective, e.g. Ojo-ọ <u>nezugueh</u> (Ojo-he <u>intelligent</u>); Ọ <u>she</u> (she <u>tall</u>) etc.

-**Numerical**: usually marked by cordinal numerals or ordinal numerials e.g Izili-ẹ <u>n'ẹsa</u> (goats-they <u>three</u>), Ugueh <u>Okhenikeh</u> (thing <u>first</u>) etc.

-**Interrogative:** used as post-modifier to ask questions, thus performs the function of adjective e.g. Iweh <u>egu</u>? (book <u>which</u>?, Ineneh <u>agu</u> khẹ vbuẹh? (name <u>what</u> your?) etc.

-**Demonstrative**: used as post-modifier to point at something or somebody e.g. Ọmọ <u>noh</u> (child <u>this</u>), Avbua <u>amoh</u> (dog <u>that</u>) etc.

-**Possessive:** used as a post-modifier to indicate possession. eg. Eguo <u>amẹh</u> (shirt <u>my</u>), ọzha <u>mẹh</u> (wife <u>my</u>) etc.

-**Nominal**: noun used as post-modifier to perform the function of adjective e.g Onyo <u>Okpameri</u> (indigene <u>Okpameri</u>), police-ẹ <u>inigeria</u> (police-they <u>Nigeria</u>) etc.

-**The Article:** used as post-modifier to perform the function of adjective e.g. Ibo-ẹ <u>weni</u> (people-they <u>the</u>), ọmọhọzi-ọ <u>weni</u> (boy-he <u>the</u>) etc. Note: Okpameri language does not mark for indefinite articles.

-**The determinants:** used as pre-modifier to perform the function of adjective e.g <u>ito</u> agbọ (<u>few</u> people).

-**Emphatic**: used as post modifier to perform the function of adjective e.g Ukpo mẹh <u>kpa</u> (house my <u>own</u>), ọmọ mẹh <u>kpa</u> (child my <u>own</u>).

-**Exclamatory word:** used as an adjective to express inner feelings of the speaker e.g. uka <u>kunọh</u>! (shame, <u>a what</u>!), Asẹkhẹ <u>kanoh</u>! (mence <u>a what</u>!) etc.

Just as the English adjectives are used for comparison, Okpameri adjectives are also used for grading. Hence, Okpameri adjectives have comparative and superlative forms. Some of the examples are:

- Kheke   - kheke<u>vene</u>   – kheke<u>vha</u>
  (small   smaller   smallest)
- Khọi   - khọi<u>vene</u>   - Khọi<u>vha</u>
  (big   - bigger   - biggest)
- fiea   - fiea<u>vene</u>   - fiea<u>vha</u>
  (loud   - louder   - loudest)

It is pertinent to state that all Okpameri degree of adjectives are regular in form unlike English that some degree of adjective are irregular in form.

Consider:

- shemi   -   shemi<u>vene</u>   - shemi<u>vha</u>
  (good   better   best)
- vbemi   -   vbemi<u>vene</u>   - vbemi<u>vha</u>
  (bad   -   worse   worst)
- bu   -   bu<u>vene</u>   - bu<u>vha</u>
  (many   more   most)
- kheke   -   kheke<u>vene</u>   - kheke<u>vha</u>

(little   less   least)

Okpameri language has adjectival word-order in an utterance. The headword is usually post modified unlike English where adjectives are usually pre-modified. The adjectival word-order in Okpameri is not as complex as that of English. Two modifiers are usually used to modify the headword. Consider:

-    Efiza-ẹ n'ẹva n'ichichi
     (Birds-they black two) ———————> two black birds
-    Ivbiezha-ẹ n'ẹva n'ishemushẹ
     (girls-they two   beautiful) ————————> two beautiful ladies
-    Ọhọzi-ọ riọ n'ọla
     (man-he old fat) ————————————— fat old man
-    Ọvala ọmọhọzi n'oshumushẹ
     (young boy   handsome). ————————> Young handsome boy

The hypothetical examples of Okpameri order of adjectives have revealed the uniqueness in the headword and its modifiers. The headword is sometimes followed immediately by its pronoun. The researchers simply refer to such pronouns as "headword tag", while the letter representing sound that comes before the modifiers as prefix is referred to as "word-particle".

Having briefly examined the structures and functions of adjectives of the two languages, it is expedient to also briefly examine some sociolinguistic concepts like "bilingualism" and "linguistic interference as they sometimes constitute learning problem to ESL learners.

Bilingualism: Akindele and Adegbite (2005), describe Bilingualism as the use of two languages either by an individual or a speech community. By implication, Bilingualism gives room for the co-existence of two languages in the repertoire of an individual or a speech community. It could be submitted therefore that Bilingualism is the ability an individual has to produce meaningful utterances in the other language in a bilingual speech community. However, such an individual could be deficient in either of the two languages. The resultant effect of this could be technically referred to as Linguistic Error. Linguistic Error occurs when a bilingual unconsciously transfers the structure of the language that he is more proficient in to the language he is less proficient in.

Linguistic Interference: Omolaiye (2017) identifies Linguistic Interference as those instances of deviation from the norms of either language that occurs in the speech of a language user as a result of familiarity with more than one language. This is why Weinreich (1953) describes Linguistic Interference as the rearrangement of patterns that result from the introduction of foreign elements into the more highly-structured domains of language. In view of this, it is essential to do a comparative study where two languages (as in the case of English and Okpameri) co-exist so as to examine their area(s) of similarities and differences as this will enable an analyst or contrastivist predict the likely problem area(s) for the natives in the course of using the target language.

II. METHODOLOGY

In generating Okpameri adjectives for analysis, two methods were adopted viz-a-viz oral interview and participatory observation. Secondary data were got from the works of Omolaiye (2013, 2015, 2016 and 2017). Twenty informants including males and females who are between the age bracket of 60 and 85 years and are also native speakers of Okpameri language were interviewed. The researchers' intuitive knowledge in Okpameri language enhanced participatory observation in linguistic exchanges that involve the use of Okpameri adjectives in a natural setting. As in the case of the English data, the researchers made use of relevant literature obtained from library, relevant English grammar texts and internet sources.

It is also important to look at the theoretical framework that will actually enhance our data analysis. Hence, the study is predicated on Contrastive Analysis as it is relevant to the comparative study of two languages. According to Di Pieto (1971) and James (1980), Modern Contrastive Linguists began with Lado's "Linguistics Across culture" in 1957. And by expansion, Lado's work was given impetus by earlier works of Weinreinch (1953) on the linguistic integration of immigrants in the united state of America (see Ojo, 1996, Omolaiye, 2013).

Contractive Analysis remains an influential construct in the field of second language acquisition. It is a linguistic tool used in knowing what are needed and what that are not needed in the context of Target Language (TL). CA is also an instrument used to identify whether two languages have something in common thereby identifying the similarities and differences of the two languages under study in order to expand and expound the frontier of language universality. James (1980:3) describes Contrastive Analysis as a linguistic enterprise aimed at producing inverted (i.e contrastive) two valued typologies in that, a pair of language is found on the assumption that language can be compared.

Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching (1990:14) makes distinction between Theoretical and Applied CA. While Theoretical CA is concerned with the production of extensive account of the differences between the languages contrasted, Applied CA is concerned with a reliable prediction of the learner's difficulties (James, 1980:181). Contrastive Analysis like Error Analysis and Translation Theory is a form of intelingua study in which two languages are involved. In view of this, CA therefore deals with issues that arise in the process of leaning a second language after the bases of the first language (L_1) has been acquired. The pre-occupation of Contrastive Linguistics in its comparison of language is to provide the methods for language teaching. By so doing, features of language structure revealed in CA

may suggest modification and will certainly be further modified in the light of future experiences, thereby improving on finer grading of learners' difficulties.

The major concern of CA therefore, is to do a descriptive study individually of the two languages under study and subsequently juxtapose them for areas of similarities and differences as this will enable the contrastivist predict difficulties and perhaps postulate a hierarchy of difficulties hoping that this would help in improving on teaching methodology. This will serve as a tool in solving learning problems emanating from some of the perceived difficulties of learning the English adjectives and expressing the Okpameri terms in English.

CA hypothesis therefore claims that the major barrier to second language acquisition is the interference of first language system with the second language system in that, a scientific structural analysis of the two languages in question would yield a taxonomy of linguistic contrast between them which in turn would enable linguists and language teachers predict the problem area(s) a learner would encounter. Lado (1957:267) asserts that where the language patterns are similar in the two languages under study, learners of the TL would find language relatively easy, because the inputs they are now exposed to are not new to them. On the other hand, where the language patterns of the TL and the MT differ, the learning of the TL would be relatively difficult. The difficulties predicted by CA cannot be properly taken care of without recourse to Error Analysis (EA) as Error Analysis deals with the actual errors committed by the ESL learners. In the light of this, it is not out of place to mention here that CA and EA are related in that no contrastivist has ever really predicted solely on the basis of the CA, but has to be relied on his or on teacher's knowledge of errors already committed. James (1980) corroborates this when he claims that CA is always prognostic while EA is diagnostic. Thus, CA and EA are linguistic approaches used to account for L_1 learning problem(s).

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

For the purpose of clarity of data presentation, adjectives are classified as pre/post modifying adjectives, predicative adjective, degree of adjective and order of adjective. English, being the target language, is contrasted with Okpameri using samples of the data of the two languages. Ibillo variant of Okpameri language is adopted for analyzing Okpameri data. The analysis begins with pre/post modifying adjective. The adjectives of the two languages under study are underlined in the nominal group or sentences being contrasted. It must be mentioned here that, at the level of order of adjective, only nominal group containing two modifiers are analyzed as the structure of Okpameri adjective does not often give room for more than two adjectives modifying one headword in a nominal group.

Pre/Post Modifying Adjectives

The following (proper, nominal, descriptive verbal, demonstrative attributive, possessive, interrogative, emphatic, the articles, determinant, numerical adjectives etc.) are classified as pre/post modifying adjectives because they follow almost immediately the headwords they modify. Some of the sample data gathered are presented below:

TABLE 1
THE PRE/POST MODIFYING ADJECTIVES

S/N	English	Okpameri
1.	Good child	Ọmọ n'oshemi
2.	First person	Onyo okenike
3.	Two children	Ivbia n'eva
4.	Young goat	Uvhazi izili
5.	Young person	Ọmọ Ovala
6.	That house	Ukpo moh
7.	Which book?	Iweh egu?
8.	Only me	Mhẹmẹ kpa
9.	Forbidden fruit	Utousha n'asah
10.	His name	Ineneh avboh
11.	Nigerian citizen	Onyo Inigeria
12.	Nigeria police	Itenugu Inigeria

Contrastive Statement

Some of the samples of the data presented have revealed the similarities and the differences of English and Okpameri with respect to how adjectives of the two languages under study modify the headword in a nominal group or noun phrase. It is obvious that the two languages (English and Okpameri) have modifying adjectives. However, there is difference in the area of grammatical environment in which the headword is modified. While English adjectives usually pre-modify the headwords, Okpameri adjectives often post modify the headword except uvhazi (young) that pre-modifies the headword izili (goat) in a nominal group.

It must be mentioned here that English adjectives also post modify headwords. However, few adjectives perform this function. Some of these examples are "election proper", "money available", "the president elect", "the house ablaze" etc.

While the adjective "young" is consistent as revealed in (4), and (5), its translation equivalent in Okpameri reveals non-consistence. Another difference between English and Okpameri adjective structure and usage is at the area of morphological realization. While the noun "Nigeria" is suffixed to perform the function of an adjective in a nominal group in English as revealed in (11), this derivational morpheme is absent in the Okpameri adjective. Similarly, the suffix 'en' attached to the verb 'forbid' in (9) to perform the function of an adjective is alien to Okpameri adjective as

Okpameri resorts to using nominal adjective to function as a modifier. While English differentiates between its proper adjective and nominal adjective, as revealed in (11) and (12), Okpameri resort to using nominal adjective as both proper and nominal adjectives.

From the table above, the Okpameri learners of English, may be confronted with how to use proper noun as adjective in a sentence. They may tend to say "America cars" instead of "American cars". They may also render expression like "forbidden fruit" as "forbid fruit" as Okpameri verbs are not inflected to perform the function of adjective.

Predicative Adjectives

Some adjectives are classified as predictive adjectives because of the function they perform in a sentence. Jimoh (2009) describes Predicative Adjectives as adjectives used to limit or complete the meaning of the verb in a sentence. These adjectives usually come immediately after a be-verb or linking verb. This verb is said to have linked the adjective with the modified subject. Some grammarians like Farinde, and Ojo (1998), Halliday (1961), Osisanwo (1996), Quick, et. Al (1973), Ojo (2011) etc. describe predicative adjectives as "subject-complement, or "complement intensive". The data of this adjective type are presented thus:

Predicative Adjective

TABLE 2

S/N	English	Okpameri
1.	Ojo is good.	Ojo-o shemi.
2.	She is beautiful.	O shemilushẹ.
3.	Joy is tall.	Joy-o shehe.
4.	He is handsome.	O shemilushe.
5.	It is correct.	E bozoh.
6.	It tastes good.	I nemah.
7.	He is happy.	Egua vbọ l'enemah.
8.	She is old.	O ri l'orio.
9.	Ayo is lazy.	Ayo-ọ ri l'avbua.
10.	God is mighty.	Oshọkọzi-Ọ khoi.
11.	Sunday is intelligent.	Sunday-ọ nezugueh.
12.	Ibillo is popular.	Ibillo-I whienawa.

Contrastive Statement

The sentences of the two languages presented have revealed the Predicative Adjectives as both languages have predicative adjectives. However, there is difference at the level of structure. While the English verbs are followed immediately by the adjectives, Okpameri subjects of the sentence are followed by predicative adjective as Okpameri linking verbs are often lopped with the predicative adjectives. This uniqueness (lopping of verb with adjective) is also peculiar to Yoruba language as we have in the expression like "O dara" (it is good). "O" is the subject pronoun while "dara" is a predicative adjective in which case, the verb "is" is lopped with the adjective.

Another area of difference is adjectival gender sensitivity. While the complement intensives of "he and "she" as revealed in (2), and (4), are "beautiful" and "handsome" respectively, there is no distinction of this in Okpameri predicative adjective as Okpameri resorts to using un-gender. The Okpameri word "ri" in (8) and (9) is an active verb which its equivalent in English in "doing" is thus followed by nouns (l'orio and l'avbua) in Okpameri grammatical context. Structurally, "l'orio" and "l'avbua" are nouns but function as predicative adjectives.

The perceived problem the Okpameri learners of English as a second language may likely face is the use of "beautiful" and "handsome". The Okpameri speaker of English may tend to use these predicative adjectives indiscriminately as Okpameri language does not distinguish between feminine and masculine predicative adjectival gender. In the same manner, the Okpameri ESL learners may find it difficult to use the appropriate linking verbs since such verbs (is, are, be, was etc.) are often lopped with the predicative adjectives in Okpameri language. They may lend to render expression like "The boys is or are good" instead of "the boys are good".

Degree of Adjectives

Degree of adjectives are also referred to as comparison of adjectives as adjectives are expressed in terms of grading in which comparative and superlative are formed by attaching inflectional morphemes to the root-word as suffix. Three degrees of adjective are identified to include positive, comparative and superlative. Adjective is positive when it is used to talk about quality or a person, place or thing. Comparative adjective is used to compare two persons, things or qualities, while the superlative form has to do with the comparison of more than two persons or things.

The data are hence presented:

TABLE 3

	Positive		Comparative		Superlative	
	English	**Okpameri**	**English**	**Okpameri**	**English**	**Okpameri**
1.	Big	Khọi	Bigg<u>er</u>	Khọi<u>vene</u>	Bigg<u>est</u>	Khoi<u>vha</u>
2.	Small	Kheke	Small<u>er</u>	Kheke<u>vene</u>	Small<u>est</u>	Kheke<u>vha</u>
3.	Fat	L	Fall<u>er</u>	La<u>vene</u>	Fatt<u>est</u>	La<u>vha</u>
4.	Loud	Fiea	Loud<u>er</u>	Fiea<u>vene</u>	Loud<u>est</u>	Fiea<u>vha</u>
5.	Wide	Vboti	Wid<u>er</u>	Vboti<u>vene</u>	Wid<u>est</u>	Vboti<u>vha</u>
6.	Good	Shemi	Bett<u>er</u>	Shemi<u>vene</u>	Best	Shemi<u>vha</u>
7.	Bad	Vbhemi	Worse	Vbhemi<u>vene</u>	Worst	Vbhemi<u>vha</u>
8.	Many	Bu	More	Bu<u>vene</u>	Most	Bu<u>vha</u>
9.	Little	Kheke	Less	Kheke<u>vene</u>	Least	Kheke<u>vha</u>
10.	Beautiful	Shemulushẹ	More beautiful	Shemulushẹ<u>vene</u>	Most beautiful	Shemulushẹ<u>vha</u>
11.	Heavy	Khọhi	Heavi<u>er</u>	Khoh<u>vene</u>	Heavi<u>est</u>	Khoh<u>vha</u>
12.	Happy	Tanah	Happi<u>er</u>	Tanah<u>vene</u>	Happi<u>est</u>	Tanah<u>vene</u>

Contrastive Statement

The table has revealed the similarities between the two languages under study. There is similarity at the level of suffix attached to the root-word to form comparative and superlative adjectives. The table has revealed "er" and "est" morphemes of the two languages compared. Both languages are inflected for comparative and superlative adjectives. As earlier mentioned, the morphemes are attached to the root-words as suffix. The difference between English and Okpameri is in the area of regular adjective. While the Okpameri language has regular adjectives (like shemi-shemi<u>vene</u>-shemi<u>vha</u>), some of the English words do not follow this trend. Examples of such words as presented in the table are "good"- "better"- "best", "bad" - "worse" – "worst".

Another difference between English and Okpameri adjective is the area of multi-syllabic adjective as some of the multi-syllabic adjectives in English take "more" and "most" as pre-modifiers of theirs adjectives to indicate comparative and superlative forms. This is evident in (10) where "more" and "most" pre-modify "beautiful" to form comparative and superlative adjectives. This is not so in Okpameri adjectives.

Okpameri learners of English may be confronted with the appropriate use of "good" and "bad" in comparative and superlative respectively. They may tend to say "good" – "gooder" – "goodest", or "bad" – "bader" – "badest".

Order of Adjective

When two or more adjectives are used to pre-modify the headword, they are arranged according to the dictates of the language that owns the modifiers. In other words, pre-modifier do not follow one another arbitrarily. The data gathered has revealed this claim. Some of the samples are therefore presented below:

TABLE 4

S/N	English	Okpameri
1.	<u>Beautiful</u> <u>young</u> lady	Ọvala omuvhizi n'oshemushẹ
2.	<u>Two</u> <u>big</u> goats	Izizi n'eva n'ekhoi
3.	<u>White</u> <u>dried</u> maize	Ugbado n'ufu n'uvhola
4.	<u>Sharp</u> <u>flat</u> cutlass	Egbeleh n'emua n'apekete
5.	<u>Clean</u> <u>big</u> place	Asha n'afuema n'akhoi
6.	<u>Three</u> <u>ugly</u> women	Ezha m'enesa n'ifiasa
7.	<u>Two</u> <u>black</u> birds	Efiza n'eva n'ichichi
8.	<u>My</u> <u>large</u> land	Ẹkẹ mẹh n'ẹkhoi
9.	<u>Tall</u> <u>Nigerian</u> soldier	Ishọja inigiria n'oshe
10.	<u>Clean</u> <u>bottle</u> water	Amẹh ukpalava n'evia
11.	<u>That</u> <u>big</u> house	Ukpo n'ukhoi umọh

Contrastive Statement

From the table above, the two languages have order of adjective. However, there is difference in the word order as evident in the table. While English adjectives usually pre-modify the headword, this is not so in Okpameri as Okpameri adjectives usually post modify the headword, except the adjective ovala (young) that pre-modifies the headword ọmuvhizi (lady). Even then, the adjective n'ọshemushẹ (beautiful) still post modifies the headword. By implication, English adjectival pre-modification is consistent while that of Okpameri is not.

The likely problem the Okpameri learners of English may be confronted with is how to identify the headword in a nominal group since the order of adjective of the two languages under study is different. Proper noun (like Nigerian) used as adjective may also pose challenge to Okpameri ESL learners since Okpameri language does not distinguish between proper noun used as adjective and noun used a nominal adjective.

IV. DISCUSSION

Investigating structural variation of adjectives in English and Okpameri has, indeed, revealed areas of similarities and differences of the two languages. The similarities have revealed grammar universality. As evident in English and Okpameri languages, every language has words used to give more information about a noun. The major function of adjectives, therefore, is to pre/post modify a noun. Adjectives also perform the function of subject-complement in a given sentence. Grammarians refer to such adjectives as subject-complement or complement intensive. However, the

grammatical structure of adjective of every language differs. This difference is usually a function of culture (see Ojo, 1996). This is because the lexis and of course, adjective of every language, is culture-bound. This also buttresses the assertion of Sapir-Worf Hypothesis (1921) that each language creates its own world and therefore its own meaning. Thus, culture plays significant roles in language structure. These are revealed in the two languages examined.

With respect to headword modification, English adjectives usually pre-modify the headword while Okpameri adjectives often post modify the headword of any given nominal group or noun phrase, except uvhazi (young) and ovala (young) where the adjectives pre-modify the headwords. While some nouns and verbs are suffixed to perform the function of adjective, this is not so in Okpameri as such morphological marking is alien to the grammar of Okpameri. Okpameri language rather resorts to using noun to perform the function of an adjective in a nominal group. In other words, Okpameri does not distinguish between proper noun and nominal noun used as adjective. The problem that Okpameri language users of English may likely face is how to use proper noun as adjective in a nominal group as they may tends to say "America cars" instead of "American cars". Okpameri ESL learners may also tend to render this expression thus: "forbid fruit" instead of "forbidden fruit".

The two languages (English and Okpameri) have predicative adjectives. The study has, however, revealed area of difference. While English predicative adjectives follow almost immediately the linking verbs, Okpameri often lopped the linking verb with the predicative adjective. The study has also revealed predicative adjectival gender sensitivity in English as against Okpameri language that does not distinguish between gender predicative adjectives. For instance, shemilushẹ is zero gender in that the adjective-"shemilushe" is used as uni-gender, while the English masculine and feminine subject complements are handsome and beautiful respectively. In view of this difference, "beautiful" and "handsome" may likely pose problem to Okpameri learners and users of English adjectives as they may tend using these gender adjectives interchangeably.

As in the case of degree of adjective, the two languages under study have degree of adjective. In other words, English and Okpameri have "positive", "comparative" and "superlative" adjectives and suffixes are attached to the root-words to form comparative and superlative adjectives. However, there is difference in the area of regular adjectives. While Okpameri language has regular adjectives as revealed in table 4, some of the English adjectives do not follow this trend.

Another difference between the two languages under study is in the area of multi-syllabic adjectives. Some of the English multi-syllabic words are usually pre-modified with words like "more" and "most" to have comparative and superlative adjectives. This is not so in the grammar of Okpameri. Hence, Okpameri learners of English may find it difficult to appropriately use the comparative and superlative adjectives of "good" and "bad" as they may resorts to rendering these expressions thus: "good" – "gooder" – "goodest" or "bad" – "bader" – "badest" instead of "good-better- best", "bad – worse – worst". The learners may also say "beautiful – beautifier, bueatifuest" instead of "beautiful – more beautiful – most beautiful".

The predictive problem is that, the Okpameri learners of English may sometimes find it difficult to locate the headword in a given nominal group because of the structural differences of adjectives in English and Okpameri. Okpameri ESL learners may also be confronted with the correct usage of a proper noun as a pre-modifier in a nominal group since Okpameri language does not distinguish between proper noun used as adjective and noun used as nominal adjective. An Okpameri speaker of English may say "Nigerian police" instead of "Nigeria Police".

In view of the CA hypothesis, the two languages under study have adjectives (pre/post modifiers, predicative adjectives, degree of adjective and order of adjectives). The two languages have revealed grammar universality. However, adjectives of the two languages differ in terms of structure and gender sensitivity. For instance, while English modifiers are usually used to pre-modify the headword, Okpameri modifiers are often used to post-modify the headword. Also, while English predicative adjectives – beautiful and handsome are gender sensitive, Okpameri predicative adjective "shemilushe" is used as zero gender or uni-gender in Okpameri nominal group. Thus, Okpameri ESL learners may be confronted with the appropriate use of English predicative adjective that is gender sensitive. Also, Okpameri learners of English as a second language may be confronted with the appropriate use of gender pre-modifiers like "his" and "her". This study therefore suggests that language teachers, particularly, the English language experts should concentrate more on the areas of differences in the teaching and learning of the English adjectives.

Investigating structural variation of adjectives in English and Okpameri has revealed some implications for the teaching and learning of English as a second language. Considering the fact that languages come in contact (as in the case of English and Okpameri), teaching and learning of ESL should be given due consideration. As a result, the following among others are highlighted thus:

As a matter of fact, Okpameri ESL learners should be exposed to the grammar of the two languages under study, in that the grammatical structure or feature of any language is usually characterized by the culture of the language. Therefore, learners should be exposed to the culture of the two languages because the lexical items of a particular language are regarded as carriers of the culture that produces the language. Emphasis should be on the literature component of English and Okpameri language teaching programmes because literature is the practical use of language. Language teachers should be encouraged to also teach the aspect of literature in our school system.

The teaching of adjectives should be handled using systematic approach. That is, language experts should be acquainted with full knowledge of adjectival structures of the two languages as this will enable teaching and learning to be more effective and productive. Also, standard, adequate and relevant instructional materials as well as conducive

environment for learning should be made available and accessible as these will enhance efficiency and effectiveness in the teaching of English adjectives. English language curriculum at every level of education should be made dynamic as this will enable language teachers develop new approaches in teaching adjectives.

Finally, the study has revealed variations in the way different language communities are caused by their language to engage with the world in distinctive manner. This is evident in this research. Adjectives are culture-bound and a good understanding of them demands familiarity with the cultures that produce them. Hence, adjectives of the two languages under study should be handled by language experts in the context of ESL as this would aid learners in studying the adjectives of the two languages.

V. CONCLUSION

Contrastivists usually embark on comparing two languages (particularly, the indigenous and the target languages) in order to provide the methods or approaches for language teaching. Features of the language structure revealed in CA may suggest modifications and this will certainly be further modified in the light of future experience as it may enhance a finer grading of learners' learning problem(s). Thus, this paper has revealed the variations in the structure and usage of the two languages under study. These variations have reflected the culturally important features of how adjectives are used to enhance grammaticality. Hence, the acknowledgements of universal grammatical features are internal to the culture in which it operates and its usage has reflected on those variations that are important to its culture.

Since adjectives are more culture-bound and a good understanding of them demands familiarity with the culture that produces them, it is therefore advised that Okpameri speakers and users of English should be exposed to the similarities and differences of English and Okpameri adjectives as this will enable them (Okpameri ESL learners) cope with the likely problems identified in the findings. As a matter of urgency, language teachers should come up with practical demonstration of these adjectives in the second language being learnt. In the light of this, dynamic and innovativeness on the part of the language experts are called for in order to make use of adequate teaching and learning materials. Consequently, the perceived difficulties of learning the English adjectives and expressing the Okpameri adjectives in English will be minimized.

REFERENCES

[1]   Adegbite, W. & Akindele, F. (2005). Sociology and Politic of English in Nigerian: An Introduction, Ile-Ife Obafemi Awolowo University Press.
[2]   Ashaolu, A. O. (1993). Use of English and Functional Communication. Ado: Ekiti Petae Educational Publishers.
[3]   Di Pietro, J. (1971). Language Structures in Contact. Massachussetts: Newbury House.
[4]   Ekharo, T., Aliu, G. & Akanji, J. (2007). The history of Somorika. Lagos: Dee Honour Company.
[5]   Elugbe, B. (1989). Comparative Edoid: Phonology and Lexicon. Delta Series. No 6. University of Port-Harcourt Press.
[6]   Farinde, R. & Ogunsiji, Y. (2010). Analytical Linguistics. Ago-Iwoye: Olabisi Onabajo University Press.
[7]   Farinde, R. & Ojo, J. (1998). The grammatical structures of English: An illustrative approach. Ondo. Patrick Ade Press.
[8]   Greenberg, J. (1978). Universals of Human Languages. Standard University Press, Stanford, Califonia.
[9]   Hakeem, B. C. (2003). A culture history of the uneme from the earliest time to 1962. Lagos: The book company Ltd.
[10] Halliday, M. A. K. (1961). Categories of the Theory of Grammar. Word. 17(3). Pp. 241-92. Reprinted in full in on Grammar. Vol. 1 of the collected works of M.A.K Halliday: London and New York: Continuum.
[11] James, C. (1980). Contrastive Analysis. London: Longman.
[12] Jimoh, R. (2010). A Description Survey of the English Grammar. Ibadan. Alafas Nigeria Company.
[13] Lado, R. (157). Language teaching: A Scientific Approach. New York: Mc GrawHill.
[14] Murphy, J. D. (2007). Contemporary English Grammar, Lagos: Book Master Publishers.
[15] Ogundipe, P. A., Eckersley, C. E. & Macaulay, M. (1983). Brighter Grammar Book 3. England: Pearson Education Limited.
[16] Ojo, J. O. (1996). A Contrastive Lexicology of Six Semantic Fields of English and Yoruba. Unpublished M. A. dissertation: University of Ibadan.
[17] Ojo, J. O. (2008). "A Contrastive Analysis of Tense, Aspect and Modality in English and Yoruba" Unpublished Ph. D Thesis: University of Ibadan.
[18] Ojo, J. O. (2011). "A Contemporary Functional Grammar of English". Ago-Iwoye Olabisi Onabaja University Press.
[19] Omolaiye, H. O. (2013). A Contrastive Lexicology of Six Semantic Fields of English and Okpameri. Unpublished M. A. Dissertation. University of Ibadan.
[20] Omolaiye, H. O. (2015). Problems in the Syntactic Usage of Tense and Aspect in the Written Composition of Okpameri Secondary School Learners of English, in J. O. Ojo (eds). *Journal of School Languages, Adeyemi College of Education*, Ondo. Vol. 7, Pp. 227-257.
[21] Omolaiye, H. O. (2017). A Lexico-Semantic study of English and Okpameri Musical and Kitchen Terms: In J. O. (eds) *Global perspective on English, Literature and Communication*, School of Languages, Adeyemi College of Education, Ondo. Vol. 8, Pp. 222-232.
[22] Omolaiye, H. O. (2017). A Comparative Study of Lexico-Semantics of Standard British English and Nigerian English: In J. O. Ojo et. Al (eds) *Journal of the School of Language,* Adeyemi College of Education, Ondo. Pp. 71-79.
[23] Osisanwo, W. (1996). "Systemic Grammar as model of Grammatical Description: An Evaluation" *in Ondo Journal of Arts and Social Sciences* (OJASS) 1.1 1996, 1-19.

[24] Oyelekan, C. O. (2002). Elements of Grammar I in Oluga et. Al. (ed) Essentials of use of English. *A Pragmatic and Comprehensive Approach.* Osogbo: Supreme Star Press.

[25] Quirk, R. and Greenbaum, S. (2002). A University Grammar of English: London. Rouledge Encyclopaedia of Language Teaching. 1990 edition.

[26] Sapir, E. (1921). Language: New York: Harcourt, Brace & World.

[27] Weinreich, U. (1953). Languages in Contact. The Hague: Mouton.

Raifu O. Farinde was born in Erin- Osun, Osun State, Nigeria on March 4, 1970. He attended Adeyemi College of Education, Ondo, Nigeria, between 1988 and 1992 for his Bachelor's Degree in English Education. He obtained his M.A in English Language from the University of Ibadan, Nigeria in 1998. He also bagged his PhD in Linguistics and English Language from the University of Wales, Bangor, United Kingdom now Bangor University, Bangor, United Kingdom in 2007.

He currently lectures at the Department of English and Literary studies, Federal University Oye-Ekiti, Nigeria. He has worked at Adeyemi College of Education, Ondo, Nigeria and he left there as a Chief Lecturer. At present, he is a Senior Lecturer at the Federal University Oye-Ekiti, Nigeria. Among his published works includes *Forensic Linguistics: An introduction to the Study of Language and the Law* Allemagne, Germany: LIMCOM GMBH, 2009. He also co-authored with Dr. Ojo J.O. *Introduction to Sociolinguistics* Ondo, Nigeria: Lektay Publishers, 2005. Furthermore, He co-authored with Dr. Yemi Ogunsiji *Analytical Linguistics* Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria: Olabisi Onabanjo University Press. 2010. His research interests include Pragmatics, Forensic Linguistics, Discourse Analysis, Sociolinguistics and Systemic Functional Grammar.

Dr. Farinde is a member of several learned societies some of which are British Association of Applied Linguistics (BAAL), Linguistic society of America (LSA), Nigeria English Studies Association (NESA) and English Language teachers Association of Nigeria (ELTAN). He is a recipient of Ford Foundation International Fellowship for PhD organized by the Institute of International Education (IIE) New York between 2003 and 2006. Among his awards, honours and distinctions are Certificate of Achievement, UK, 2005, Certificate of Completion, 2004, Certificate of Recognition, 2013.

Happy O. Omolaiye was born in Ibilo, Edo state Nigeria on April 4, 1974. He attended Adeyemi College of Education, Ondo, Nigeria, between 2004 and 2009 for his Bachelor's Degree in English Education. He obtained his M.A in English language from the University of Ibadan, Nigeria in 2003.

He currently lectures at the Department of General Studies, Federal Polytechnic, Ile –Oluji, Nigeria. He had worked in private secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria, as a teacher of English language. At present, he is a lecturer 1 (L1) at the Federal Polytechnic, Ile – oluji, Nigeria. Among his published works include: *An Investigation of problems in the Syntactic usage of Tense and Aspect among Okpameri secondary school Learners of English, Ondo, Nigeria*, School of Languages Adeyemi College of Education 2015, *Lexico-Semantic Study of English and Okpameri Musical and Kitchen Terms Ondo, Nigeria*, School of Languages, Adeyemi College of Education, 2016, *Using Linguistic Signals to Express Corrupt Practices on Nigerian Campuses, Ede, Nigeria*, Department of General Studies, 2019. His research interests include Contrastive Linguistics, Systemic Functional Grammar, Pragmatics and sociolinguistics.

Mr Omolaiye is a member of several learned societies some of which are National English Studies Association (NESA), National Association of Teachers of Language in Colleges of Education and Polytechnics in Nigeria (NATECEP) and Linguistics Association of Nigeria (LAN). He received New Age Leadership Skills for High Organizational Performance Certificate, 2018.

Chinese Character Teaching and Learning with Marginalized Radicals and Non-radical Components in a Character

Bianye Li

George Brown College, Toronto, Canada

Abstract—Naming or indexing of a radical in a dictionary will foreground dominant meanings of a radical and, at the same time, marginalize the other meanings of a radical as well as the meanings of non-radical components in a character. More efforts should be made to go beyond the dominant meaning(s) of a radical to have a better knowledge of the marginalized meanings of a radical and to identify the meanings of non-radical components in a character. With the assistance of Oracle/Bone Script, Bronze Script, and Seal script, and reinstatement of the significance of the marginalized meaning(s) of radicals or non-radical components, the Chinese character teaching and learning process will be considerably improved and it will become a fun-generating experience.

Index Terms—Chinese character teaching and learning, dominant radicals, dominant meaning of a radical, meanings of marginalized radicals, meanings of marginalized non-radical components

I. INTRODUCTION

The Chinese character teaching and learning more often than not begins with strokes and radicals. Radicals play a crucial role in helping an adult learner learn Chinese as a second language. Naming or indexing of a radical in a dictionary will influence the visual attention and semantic understanding of an adult learner and foreground the dominant meaning of a radical, and at the same time marginalize the other meanings of the same radical. This kind of naming and indexing will sometimes exclude the secondary meanings of a radical or downplay the meanings of non-radical components in a Chinese character. The current state of Chinese character teaching and learning is mainly based on the dominant meanings of a radical or radicals. More efforts should be made to go beyond the dominant meaning(s) of a radical in order to have a better knowledge of the marginalized meanings of a radical and to identify the meanings of non-radical components in a character as well. Otherwise, the Chinese character teaching or learning will reach a plateau, and the meanings of many components in a character can only be partially understood, and as a result, Chinese character teaching and learning sometimes will become only a memory work of radicals and fail to become a fun-generating process which will stimulate and sustain adult learners' interest in learning Chinese characters. With the assistance of 甲骨文 *Jiǎgǔwén* 'Oracle/Bone Script', 金文 *Jīn wén* 'Bronze Script,' and 篆文 *Zhuànwén* 'Seal script', and with reinstatement of the significance of the marginalized meaning(s) of a radical and a marginalized non-radical component in a character, the Chinese character teaching and learning process will be considerably improved and it will become a fun-generating experience.

II. DOMINANT RADICAL WITH DOMINANT MEANINGS AND MARGINALIZED RADICALS WITH MARGINALIZED MEANINGS

"Radical" here is an English term designated to mean both Chinese words 部首 *bù shǒu* and 偏旁 *piānpáng,* which are indexed in a Chinese dictionary and by which a reader can easily look up a word in a Chinese dictionary. Some radicals convey meanings, and some do not play a semantic role in a character. In most cases, one Chinese character in a Chinese dictionary has one and only one radical, under which many characters with the same radical are listed together for the convenience of being found in the dictionary.

In the history of the Chinese language, Chinese characters had undergone a drastic change, especially from 篆文 *zhuànwén* 'Seal Script' to 隶书 *lìshū* 'Official Script'. The change from Official Script to Seal Script is a change from picture-oriented or image-oriented scripts to completely stroke-oriented characters. A systematic formation of Chinese characters with only strokes is first realized in Official Script. Hieroglyphs, pictographs or images are no longer allowed to appear in the stroke-oriented Official Script. This change from Seal Script to Official Script or from image-oriented to stroke-oriented imposes two far-reaching effects on Chinese character teaching and learning:

1. Different pictures or images in Oracle/Bone Script, Bronze Script, and Seal Script will find their respective counterparts in different types of strokes or different components in Official Script. For example, different pictures or images such as ⟨glyphs⟩, which all indicate a person in Oracle/Bone Script, Bronze Script or Seal Script, have found their equivalents in strokes, radicals or components such as 人, 亻 , ㇓, 刂, 勹, 匕,

儿,⺈, 卩, 尸, 巴, etc. Some of the radicals representing a person are quite recognizable, and easy for a learner to remember such as 人, 亻, 个, due to their special listing as a radical in a dictionary and due to their nature of recognisability. Therefore, I refer to radicals of this kind as "dominant radicals" which is a dominant indicator for a person. However, some of the radicals such as 刂, 勹, 匕, 儿,⺈, 卩, 尸, 巴 become "marginalized radicals", when they are not or less or least expected to represent a person, or they are not a dominant indicator for a person. The marginalized radicals present a challenge for Chinese character teaching and learning because they have become less recognizable or unrecognizable and more obscure over time. Therefore, I refer to radicals of this kind as marginalized radicals with marginalized meanings.

2. The change from picture-oriented or image-oriented in Seal Scripts to stroke-oriented in Official Script is so drastic that many different pictures or images with different meanings are totally scarified in order to be transformed into the same radicals or the same components in characters and to serve the purpose of simplicity and reduce the number of different types of radicals. The pictures or images, originally different in shape and meaning, have to share the same radicals or components now. Therefore, many changes are often considered by the author of 象形字典 *xiàngxíng zìdiǎn* 'Dictionary of pictographs' (vividict.com, 2020) as mistakes. Take the radical 四点底灬 *Sì diǎn dǐ* 'four-dot bottom component' for example. It is often used to indicate 火 *huǒ* 'fire' as in the Chinese characters 热 *rè* 'hot', 照 *zhào* 'illuminate', 蒸 *zhēng* 'steaming', etc. Therefore, 四点底灬 as an indicator for 火 *huǒ* becomes the dominant meaning of this radical. However, this same bottom component is also used to indicate 鸟爪 *niǎozhǎo* 'birds claw', 鸟羽 *Niǎoyǔ* 'bird feathers', 鸟尾 *niǎowěi* 'bird tail', 鱼尾 *yúwěi* 'fish tail', 马蹄 *mǎtí* 'horseshoes'. (See

[ancient glyphs], vividict.com, 2020 or guoxuedashi.com, 2020.) The above application of four-dot bottom component is graphically similar but etymologically unrelated to the usage of the same 'four-dot bottom component' to indicate 火 *huǒ* 'fire.' Actually, it turns out not as a kind of mistake as indicated. This application is designed for the sake of simplicity in order to reduce the number of different kinds of strokes or to avoid creating another new type of radical. As a result, one radical might indicate many different meanings in different characters. However, some meanings of a radical become dominant or overemphasized in our teaching; at the same time, some other meanings of the same radical are marginalized or neglected, and even fail to be identified in our teaching. More often than not, fun will be lost in our teaching or learning if the marginalized meanings of a radical in a character fail to be identified. For example, 月 *yuè*, whether as a radical or as a non-radical component of a character, is often referred to as either "Moon" or "Meat" in our teaching or learning. "Moon" or "Meat" becomes a dominant meaning for the radical 月 *yuè* Actually, the radical 月

carries many other meanings other than just "Moon" or "Meat." For example, [glyph] in [glyph] (Oracle/Bone Script) indicates a mine where ore carries the color of dark green (guoxuedashi.com, 2020). [glyph] was later changed to 月 as in 丰 and later changed to 月 as in 青 *qīng*. Here "月" has nothing to do with "Moon" or "Meat." Another example of transformation takes place with 服 *fú* [glyph] in [glyph] (Oracle/Bone Script) stands for a person (criminal), and [glyph] in [glyph] stands for a hand (capture), and 月 in [glyph] stands for a wooden cangue or wood square shackles (vividict.com, 2020) or a boat (guoxuedashi.com, 2020). The transformation from 月 (a wooden cangue or wood square shackles) in [glyph] to 月 (舟 *zhōu* 'boat') in [glyph] (Bronze Script), then to 月 (舟 *zhōu* 'boat') in [glyph] and finally to 月 *yuè* in 服 *fú*, indicating that the person was captured and forced to wear a wooden cangue or wood square shackles (vividict.com, 2020). This change is considered also as an erroneous transformation both in vividict.com and chaziwang.com. However, even though this transformation is referred to as erroneous, it is carried out consistently on purpose to avoid creating a new radical or component for 月 (a wooden cangue or wood square shackles or a boat) and to reduce the number of different types of radicals. This transformation of 月 (舟 *zhōu*, boat) into 月 *yuè* does not happen only in 服 *fú*, and 月 (舟 *zhōu* 'boat') is transformed into 月 *yuè* also in 愈 *yù* 月 (舟 *zhōu* 'boat') in [glyph] (Bronze Script) was first changed to 月 (舟 *zhōu* 'boat') in [glyph] (Seal Script) and then to 月 *yuè* in 愈 *yù* which denotes the happiness while crossing a river by propelling a boat with a long pole (jiagumima.com, 2020 and vividict.com, 2020); another transformation of the same kind is found in [glyph] (Oracle/Bone Script) where [glyph] indicates boat-shaped shoes which the courtiers used to wear when they went to see their king or emperor (vividict.com, 2020). [glyph] was first changed to 月 as in [glyph] and finally to 月 as in 前 *qián* (vividict.com, 2020 and guoxuedashi.com, 2020). If the marginalized meanings of 月 as "Boat" can be identified, it not only can help us have a better understanding of the meanings of these characters, but also we can generate more fun from the marginalized meanings of a radical rather than only from the dominant meanings of a radical in our Chinese character teaching and learning. As another example, the radical 月 is found in the word 朕 *zhèn*. The radical 月 in 朕

has nothing to do with the dominant meaning of either "Moon" or "Meat." Nowadays, 朕 *zhèn* is simply a word used by an emperor to call himself. However, 朕 *zhèn* was first illustrated in Oracle/Bone Script as 𦩎 , including 𦨶 (a boat) (vividict.com, 2020 and guoxuedashi.com, 2020) , ＼ (a helm, vividivt.com, 2020) or ＼ (a rod to caulk the seams of a boat, chaziwang.com, 2020) and 𠬞 (two hands). And as usual, 𦨶 was later changed to 月 in 朕 (Seal Script) with ＼ (helm or rod) changed to 火, and 𦨶 was finally changed to 月 in 朕 *zhèn*, carrying the meaning of being a **helmsman** (vividict.com, 2020). If this meaning of being a helmsman were reliable, then it would remind us of Cultural Revolution when "Four Greatnesses - Great Teacher, Great Leader, Great Supreme Commander, Great **Helmsman**" became so popular nationwide in China. If we knew 朕 was originated from being a **helmsman**, we might have a different understanding why Great **Helmsman** was chosen instead of "Great Driver or Pilot" in Cultural Revolution. As a result, an association, whether intentional or unintentional, whether erroneously or fittingly, would be made between 舵手 *Duòshǒu* '**helmsman**' and 朕 or between 舵手 *Duòshǒu* '**helmsman**' and 皇帝 *huángdì* '**emperor**.' Here, this marginalized meaning of 月 as a "Boat" turns out to be much more fun than we expected.

Therefore, Chinese character teaching and learning sometimes should go beyond the dominant radicals and the dominant meaning of a radical so that it can reach for the marginalized radicals and the marginalized meanings of a radical. For example, 立 *lì* as a radical is defined as "Standing" by Arch Chinese (archchinese.com/chinese_radical_stroke_count.html, 2020) and *Read and Write Chinese* (Choy, 1990, p. 33). As a radical, it is called 立字旁 *lìzìpáng*, under which all the characters which are said to bear the standard radical name 立 *lì* are listed together in a dictionary. However, about half of these characters with 立 *lì* have nothing to do with "Standing." Only the characters with the radical 立 *lì* constituting the left part of these characters are related to "Standing." A large number of characters with 立 *lì* are related to 辛 *xīn* instead, especially with 立 *lì* constituting the top part of a character. However, the meaning of 辛 *xīn* in the characters listed under this radical 立 *lì* is marginalized by naming itself in a dictionary or by naming the radical 立 *lì* only as "standing." When we come to a Chinese character with the meaning of "辛" *xīn* instead of "standing," we might give it up in our character teaching or learning because it has nothing to do with "standing." Therefore, it is not a radical itself which marginalizes the other meanings of a radical, but it is the naming of a radical that excludes the other meanings of the radical "立" *lì*. If we are still satisfied with the dominant meaning of a radical and refuse to de-marginalize the other meanings of a radical, our Chinese character teaching will not release any further information about the marginalized meaning of a radical and will not lead to a significant improvement in our character teaching to satisfy the needs and curiosity of an adult learner of Chinese as a second language. Consequently, the interest and curiosity of an adult learner will be short-lived. Therefore, the other meanings of a radical should be de-marginalized and our Chinese character teaching should be empowered with some knowledge about Oracle/Bone Script, Bronze Script and Seal Script. With the assistance of Oracle/Bone Script, Bronze Script and Seal Script, it is more likely that the meaning of a component in a character can be more fully or completely captured. For example, 立 *lì* can be traced back to 𡗜 or 𡘀 in Oracle/Bone Script. 𡗜 or 𡘀 (Oracle/Bone Script) consists of ▽ (tattoo tool or knife), 𡗜 (half of 木 wood/tree, wooden handle) and ▬ a kind of 指事符号 *zhǐ shì fúhào* 'reference stroke' denoting the action of tattooing or implement of punishment by a torture dagger (chaziwang.com, 2020). Therefore, 辛 *xīn* or even 立 *lì* is related to the criminals who were often marked with face tattoos and exiled for their punishment or related to crime, legal punishment or torture. 𡗜 in 妾 (Oracle/Bone Script) and 𡗜 in 妾 (Seal Script) mean a punished female slave (jiagumima.com, 2020 and 说文解字 *Shuō wén jiě zì Shuo Wen Jie Zi*) from where the meaning of 妾 *Qiè* 'concubine' was later developed. 𡗜 in 𡗜 (Bronze Script) and 親 (Seal Script) denotes "visiting a family member in a prison." (vividict.com, 2020). Later, 親 is changed to the simplified Chinese character 亲 *qīn* with 见 *jiàn* omitted. 𡗜 in 童 (Oracle/Bone) means a knife which was used to make a young slave's eyes⬮ blind so that he will be trusted in charge of luggage. 𡗜 was later changed to 𡗜 in 童 (Bronze Script), to 𡗜 in 童 (Seal Script) and finally to 立 *lì* in 童 *tóng* (vividict.com and baike.baidu.com). Many characters with 立 *lì* as their component are even not included under the radical 立 *lì*. They carry the meaning of crime, legal punishment or torture as in 宰 *zǎi*, 辟 *pì* 辩 *biàn*, 辨 *biàn*, 商 *shāng*, 辞 *cí* 撞 *zhuàng*, etc.

More examples of marginalized meanings of a radical are found in "𠃌" or "𠂊". 𠃌 or 𠂊 is listed under a radical indicating 刀 *dāo* 'knife' in a dictionary (Radicals Guide, P. 42, *The Contemporary Chinese Dictionary*, 2002). There is a controversial issue in 色 (Seal Script, 色 *sè* 'color'). The author in chaziwang.com (2020) indicates that 𠂊 in 𤔔 (Oracle/Bone Script) or 𠃌 in 色 (Seal Script) is a knife which signifies a severance. Furthermore, as the Chinese saying

goes, "色字头上一把刀" *sè zì tóu shàng yì bǎ dāo* ('Indulging on your lust is equivalent to hanging a knife over your head'). A seemingly more convincing example in support of 𠚣 as a knife in 色 can be found in 絕 (Seal Script, 绝 *juè*). The meaning of 刀 in 絕 (Seal Script, 绝 *juè*) is semantically and graphically understandable. The meaning of knife "一" in 絕 (绝 *juè* 'cutting off') is only roughly sketched in Seal Script. "一" serves as an indicative sign to convey the idea that the thread is cut into two fragments; 刀 in 絕 (Bronze Script) tries to "paraphrase" the meaning of 一 in 絕 (Seal Script) by using a visual knife 刀 to replace the indicative sign 一 so that the meaning of a knife is well-illustrated and not susceptible of any ambiguity; later, 刀 was replaced by 刀 as in 絕 .

All the above factors - the naming of the radical 刀 as a knife in a dictionary, the Chinese saying about the character 色 *sè* ("色字头上一把刀" *sè zì tóu shàng yì bǎ dāo*) and the visual illustration of the character 绝 *juè* in 絕 - contribute to the conclusion that 刀 in 色 *sè* denotes a knife. However, it seems to me still too early to make such a judgement that 𠚣 in 色 (Seal Script, 色 *sè*) is a knife, only because 刀 is named as a radical to indicate a knife as a dominant meaning in a dictionary and the word 色 *sè* constitutes the right part of the word 绝 *juè* An interesting example of 则 *zé* and 侧 *cè* will tell you a different story. Both of the authors in vividict.com (2020) and in chaziwang.com (2020) agree that 刀 in 則 (Seal Script, 则 *zé*) indicates a knife which leaves carvings on a bronze tripod 貝, and they also agree that 川 and 刀 in 側 (Seal Script, 侧 *cè*) indicates that two people (川 and 刀) stand by each side of a bronze tripod 貝. Therefore, although 则 *zé* constitutes the middle and right part of 侧 *cè*, a knife in 則 does not guarantee that 刀 in 側 is also a knife. A further study will reveal that almost a half of the listed characters under this radical 刀 have nothing to do with a knife. It turns out that some of them indicate a person instead, especially when 刀 constitutes the top part of a character.

The author in vividict.com (2020) indicates that 刀 in 色 (Oracle/Bone Script) or 刀 in 色 (Bronze Script) or 𠚣 in 色 (Seal Script) is the person who positions himself over another person 巴 when engaged in a sexual activity. It seems to me that the character 色 *sè* itself was related first to or more to sexual desire, lust or lechery as in the phrase 好色 *hǎosè* and was only later developed to indicate "Color." Therefore, 刀 as a radical for a person has been marginalized, mainly due to the exclusive way of naming this radical as a knife. Naming of a radical will influence visual attention and semantic understanding in our Chinese character teaching and learning. The naming of a radical will foreground the dominant meaning of a radical and at the same time marginalize the other meanings of the same radical.

More examples of 刀 as a person can be found in the following: 𠚣 in 負 (Seal Script, 负 *fù*) indicating a person carrying shells 貝 (money) (jiagumima.com, 2020); 𠚣 in 危 (Seal Script, 危 *wēi*) indicating a person stands on 厂 (cliff) and exposes himself to a risk of falling off a cliff (guoxuedashi.com, 2020); 𠚣 in 換 (Seal Script, 换 *huàn*) where the person 𠚣 on the top of a cave 穴 exchanges or passes building materials with two hands 𦥑 below, and 刀 in 擔 (Seal Script, 擔/担 *dān*) where a guard 𠚣 on duty is standing on the top of a cave and tries to provide an early warning to others (vividict.com, 2020).

Some radicals are really well-named for the sake of convenience. There are three well-known "ears" listed as radicals in a dictionary: 阝 (左耳旁 *zuǒ ěr páng*), 阝 （右耳旁 *yòu ěr páng*）and 卩 (单耳旁 *dān ěr páng*) are respectively called "left ear" , "right ear", and "single ear." Pinyin for 卩 (单耳旁 *dān ěr páng*) is jié carrying the same sound as 节 *jié* 卩 as a radical is defined as "seal" by *Arch Chinese* (2020), and *Read and Write Chinese* (Choy, 1990, p. 31). 卩 is called "单耳刀 *Dān ěr dāo*" or "单耳旁 *dān ěr páng*" in wanmeila.com (2020). The above naming of these three ears is so visual and vivid that they are among the easiest radicals for kids to remember. However, they are very misleading to adult learners because these radicals have nothing to do with ears at all. 阝 (左耳旁 *zuǒ ěr páng*) indicates a hill, a mountain, a cliff or stone steps winding up a mountain; 阝 (右耳旁 *yòu ěr páng*) indicates a village, a town or a city. However, the third ear 卩 denotes a person, more often in a kneeling position. For example, 卩 in 即 (Oracle/Bone Script) is the person kneeling close to a food container 皀 to enjoy his meal. The kneeling posture 卩 was first changed

into 𝄞 in 𝄢 (Seal Script) and later to 卩 in 即 *jí* (guoxuedashi.com, 2020). More examples can be found in 𝄢 (Seal Script) with the person's position changed from the kneeling posture 𝄞 to 𝄢, later to 卩 in 节 *jié* or in 𝄢 (Oracle/Bone Script), in 𝄞 (Seal Script) and 命 *mìng*, with the person kneeling to receive an order; or in 𝄢 (Oracle/Bone Script) with the two people 𝄞 kneeling in front of a food container facing each other in a host-guest relationship, and the right person was later changed into 卩 in 𝄢 (Official Script) and 卩 in 卿 *qīng* (guoxuedashi.com, 2020). 𝄢 (Oracle/Bone Script, 印 *yìn*) consists of a kneeling person 𝄢 and hand 𝄢 (capture). The whole character 印 *yìn*, instead of only representing a kneeling person 𝄢, indicates that a kneeling criminal receives a brand on his forehead before being dispelled to a remote area. Therefore, 卩 in this character indicates only a person in a kneeling position instead of the whole meaning of the character 印 *yìn* as a seal. Naming of the radical 卩 as "single ear" or "knife" or "seal" is not only misleading, but also marginalize the real meaning or other meaning of 卩. When 卩 as a radical is defined as a "seal" both in archinese.com (2020) and in *Read and Write Chinese* (Choy, 1990, p. 31), this definition has marginalized the major meaning of the radical 卩 as an indicator for a person or a person in a kneeling position and used the meaning of the character 印 *yìn* instead to substitute the meaning of its radical 卩 as a person.

戸 *shī* as a character is always referred as "Corpse" when being translated from Chinese into English. 戸 *shī* as a radical is defined as "Corpse" in archchinese.com (2020). However, 戸 *shī* is also referred to as "a person (in ancient times) who sat behind the altar, acting as the deceased during the performance of sacrificial rites" (*汉英词典 hàn yīng cídiǎn, A Chinese-English dictionary* (1999). The naming of 戸 *shī* as "Corpse" has marginalized the meaning of 戸 *shī* as a living person in a sitting position. It turns out that only a few Chinese characters listed under the radical 戸 *shī* indicates "Corpse." If 戸 *shī* serves as a radical, it denotes, on most occasions, a living person instead of a dead person, especially relating to the buttock and private parts of a living person or relating to the sitting position of a living person. For example, 𝄞 in 𝄢 (Oracle/Bone Script) and 𝄢 in 𝄢 (Seal Script, 尾 *wěi* 'perineum or tail') both mean a person with the long hair of his perineum 𝄢; The change 𝄢 -> 𝄢 ->戸 can be found from 𝄢 in 𝄢 (Oracle/Bone Script) to 𝄢 in 𝄢 (Seal Script) and finally to 戸 in 屎 *shǐ* 'feces' (guoxuedashi.com, 2020); from 𝄢 in 𝄢 (Oracle/Bone Script) to 𝄢 in 𝄢 (Seal Script) and finally to 戸 in 尿 *niào* 'urine'; from 𝄢 in 𝄢 (Oracle/Bone Script) to 𝄢 in 𝄢 (Seal Script) and finally to 戸 in 臀 *tún* 'buttocks'(guoxuedashi.com, 2020). The meaning of 戸 as a living person in a sitting position has been marginalized due to the naming of this radical 戸 as "corpse" in a dictionary and should be reinstated in our character teaching and learning.

勹 as a radical is another example of marginalization by naming 勹 as "wrapping" in archchinese.com (2020) and *Read and Write Chinese* (Choy, 1990, p. 31). Unfortunately, 勹 as an indicator for a person in a bending position has not been sufficiently stated in our character teaching and learning. Its semantic connection between the meaning of a person in a bending position and its indicator 勹 has been marginalized. If a person is bending forward, he will adopt a very strange posture, starting from 𝄢, then to 𝄢 and finally to 勹. For example, 𝄢 in 𝄢 (Bronze Script) bending forward in making pottery is transformed into 𝄢 in 𝄢 (Seal Script) and adopts its final version 勹 as a person in 陶 *táo* (guoxuedashi.com, 2020); the same change happens with 甸 where the person 𝄢 in 𝄢 (Bronze Script) is ploughing in the field 田 with his body bending forward, and 𝄢 is changed first to 𝄢 in 𝄢 (Seal Script), and finally to 勹 as in 甸 *diàn* (jiagumima.com, 2020). More examples are found in 𝄢 (Seal Script, 匐 *fú*) (jiagumima.com, 2020), and in 𝄢 (Seal Script, 萄 *táo*) (qiyuan.chaziwang.com, 2020).

Chinese character teaching or learning sometimes should not only go beyond the dominant radicals in order to reach for the marginalized meanings of a radical, but it should also go beyond radicals themselves so that the non-radical components in a character will deserve enough attention for their marginalized meanings.

III. NON-RADICAL COMPONENTS IN A CHARACTER

As I mentioned above, in most cases, a Chinese character in a Chinese dictionary has one and only one radical, (It is interesting to find that 合 *hé* has two different radicals indexed in one dictionary: one is 人 *rén* and the other is 口 *kǒu*. Therefore, you can look for 合 *hé* under either the radical 人 *rén* or the radical 口 *kǒu* (*Contemporary Chinese Dictionary*, 2002). If "口" in 合 *hé* is considered as a radical in a dictionary, I will refer to the remaining component "△" in this character as "non-radical component" because "△" is not indexed as a radical under this listing. If 人 *rén* in 合 *hé* is considered as a radical in a dictionary, I will refer to "一 + 口" as "non-radical component" in this character because the combination of "一 + 口" is not indexed as a radical. The non-radical components can be further divided into two categories:

1. Some non-radical components such as 马 *mǎ* in 妈 *mā* have the potential of being a radical in another character such as in 骑 *qí*

2. Some non-radical components in a character are least likely to be or never have been used as radicals such as △ in

合 *hé*, 丸 *wán* in 执 *zhí*, 凡 *fán* in 恐 *kǒng*, ⼟ in 弃 *qì* "夕+彐" in 祭 (Seal Script, 祭 *jì*), 夫 in 舂 *chōng*, 丌 in 共 *gòng*, 𠂇 in 右 *yòu*, etc.

The focus of my study here is centered on the second category, (hereafter the term "non-radical components" are only referred to the second category). In the second category, the non-radical components can be further divided into four types.

IV. FIRST TYPE OF NON-RADICAL COMPONENTS

The first type of a non-radical component comes into being when this non-radical component, originally as a meaningful entity, has been deconstructed, and part of this non-radical component has been chosen as a radical in a dictionary. It is not a radical itself that plays a role of marginalization. But it is "choice making" itself that will deconstruct the components in that character and make the meaning of that non-radical component inaccessible to an adult learner.

△ in 合 *hé* is a non-radical component of the first type. △ has never been indexed as a radical in a dictionary. Although both "人" *rén* and "口" *kǒu* in 合 *hé* have been indexed as a radical in one dictionary, neither the radical 人 *rén* nor the radical 口 *kǒu*, nor a combination of 人 *rén* and 口 *kǒu* can thoroughly and completely explain the meaning of 合 *hé*. 人 *rén* is chosen as a radical by taking apart △ as two separate parts --- "人" and "一." As a result, the holistic meaning of △ is lost, and the whole meaning of the character 合 *hé* becomes insusceptible of being decoded due to the lack of the explanation of the component "一" in 合 *hé*. Here, the meaning and function of △ are marginalized when "人" in 合 *hé* is considered as a radical and when △ is taken apart as two separate parts ---- "人" and "一" in a dictionary. If any learning or teaching methods are built only on the radical 人 *rén* in this character as a proxy for semantic annotation, a complete explanation of the meaning of 合 *hé* becomes infeasible. Actually, △ as a combination of "人" and "一" should be considered as one single indivisible non-radical component which plays an important role in helping us comprehend the structure of this character and the whole meaning of 合 *hé*. △ in 合 *hé* indicates a mouth facing downward to kiss another mouth 𠙵 (口 *kǒu*) facing upward (vividic.com, 2020). Or, △ in 合 *hé* indicates "lid" facing downward to cover the hollow container which is open upward (guoxuedashi.com, 2020). Therefore, the understanding of the meaning of the radical "人" *rén* and "口" *kǒu* in 合 *hé* will not suffice without the knowledge of the meaning of the non-radical component "△." More examples of △ are found in (Seal Script, 命 *mìng*) with the mouth facing downward to issue an order to another person, and as in (Seal Script, 洽 *qià*) with tributary rivers converged just as two mouths kissing each other or a lid to cover an open container.

丌 in 共 *gòng* is another non-radical component of the first type in a character. 丌 has never been indexed as a radical in a dictionary. When "八" is indexed in a dictionary (*Contemporary Chinese Dictionary*, 2002) as a radical for 共 *gòng*, 丌 is taken apart as two separate parts --- "一" and "八" *bā*. "八" indicates "division" in Oracle/Bone Script and is defined as "eight" by Arch Chinese (archchinese.com/chinese_radical_stroke_count.html, 2020) and *Read and Write Chinese* (Choy, 1990). When "八" *bā* is chosen as a radical for 共 *gòng*, the holistic meaning of 丌 as "two hands" is lost, and a complete explanation of the character 共 *gòng* will be denied its access due to the lack of the explanation of the component "一" in 共 *gòng*. Here, the meaning and function of 丌 are marginalized when 丌 is deconstructed as two separate parts ---- "一" and "八." If any learning or teaching methods are built only on the radical "八" in this character as a proxy for semantic annotation, a satisfactory explanation of the meaning of 共 *gòng* will not be obtained. Actually, 丌 as a combination of "一" and "八" should be considered as one single indivisible non-radical component. 丌 has its early version in Seal Script and it usually constitutes the bottom part of Chinese characters. When it constitutes the bottom part of a character, will undergo a change to 丌 in some of these

characters. For example, [glyph] in [glyph] (Seal Script) was finally changed to [glyph] in 共 *gòng* with hands holding sacrifices to a god (guoxuedashi.com, 2020); [glyph] in [glyph] (Oracle/Bone Script) was first changed to [glyph] in [glyph] (Seal Script) and finally to [glyph] in 典 *diǎn* with two hands holding ancient/classic books for reference. More examples are found in 兵 *bīng*, 兴 *xīng*, 供 *gōng*, etc.

On most occasions, when [glyph] (two hands) in Seal Script constitutes the bottom part of a character, it might be transformed later into either [glyph] or [glyph]. Unlike the radical 廾, [glyph] is a non-radical component which has never been listed as a radical in a dictionary. Therefore, the meaning of [glyph] as "two hands" should be de-marginalized, and [glyph] as a non-radical component should be reinstated to its well-deserved place as significant as the radical 廾 in our teaching or learning.

V. SECOND TYPE OF NON-RADICAL COMPONENTS

The second type of a non-radical component comes into being when some elements of this non-radical component are denied their own independent existence in a character. These elements might have their own independent existence before, but when they are combined with another component to form a new non-radical component, this combination will deny their respective independent existence.

For example, the "two hands [glyph]" has its own independent existence in a character. When it is situated in the middle of a character, it will combine itself with the top component in a character and then transform this combination into something more or less like [glyph] or [glyph]. Whether [glyph] or [glyph], it has never been indexed as a radical in a dictionary. [glyph] and [glyph] themselves never have an independent existence as a character or as a radical in a character other than being a non-radical component in a character.

The "two hands [glyph]" has its own independent existence in [glyph] (Seal Script, 卷 *juǎn*), and it was later combined with the top part 米 *mǐ* 'rice' and then transformed into [glyph]. [glyph] indicates the two hands rolling up the (cooked) rice into a rice ball or wrapping up cooked rice. [glyph] has its own independent existence in [glyph] (Seal Script, 豢 *huàn*), and it is later combined with the top part 米 to indicate rolling up some food to feed a pig (guoxuedashi.com, 2020). The character 豢 *huàn* is listed under the radical 豕 *shǐ* in a dictionary instead of [glyph]. 豕 *shǐ* is defined as "hog." However, the understanding of the meaning of the radical 豕 *shǐ* in 豢 *huàn* will not suffice without the knowledge of the meaning of the non-radical component "[glyph]." Our teaching experience tells us that we more often than not are satisfied with the meaning of the radical 豕 *shǐ* without further pursuing the meaning of "[glyph]" because "[glyph]" is considered as deviant and too complicated to explain. Therefore, this type of non-radical components is marginalized and even ignored in our Chinese character teaching and learning.

When [glyph] in [glyph] (Seal Script, 拳 *quán*) is combined with the top part 米, it will be changed to "[glyph]" to indicate rolling up your fingers into a fist just like rolling cooked rice into a rice ball. More examples can be found in [glyph] (Seal Script, 眷 *juàn*) and in [glyph] (Seal Script, 券 *quàn*).

[glyph] itself never has an independent existence other than being a non-radical component in a character. It more often is engaged in a two-hand involved activity with an exception of the character 春 *chūn*. In Bronze Script, [glyph] in [glyph] was separated from [glyph] (adult). Later, when [glyph] was changed to [glyph] or to [glyph] in Seal Script, [glyph] stayed the same or become [glyph]. Finally, the two hands [glyph] were combined with [glyph] or [glyph] to form [glyph] in 泰 *tài*. [glyph] in [glyph] (Oracle/Bone Script) is a combination of two hands with [glyph] (pestle). [glyph] was later changed to [glyph] in [glyph] (Seal Script) just as [glyph] in [glyph] (Seal Script, 泰 *tài*). [glyph] was finally changed to [glyph] in both 秦 *qín* （with two hands holding a pestle to thresh grain [glyph]） and 泰 *tài* （with the two hands washing his body with water [glyph]）. More examples can be found in [glyph] (Seal Script, 奉 *fèng* with its two hands holding a plant [glyph] to worship the earth god for the future harvest, and in [glyph] (Sea; Script, 舂 *chōng*) with its two hands holding a pestle to pound the grain in a mortar.

The lack of their respective independent existence and the forced combination of two hands with an object make 关 and 夫 lose their qualification of being candidates for a radical in a dictionary. Therefore, both 关 and 夫 have been marginalized in our Chinese character teaching and learning, and their meanings become obscure over time.

Different from 癶, which is listed as a radical in archchinese.com (2020), 肉+又 in 祭 (Seal Script 祭 *jì*) has not been indexed as a radical in a dictionary. 肉 here means "meat", and 又 means "hand." Both of them have their respective independent existence in a character. But the combination of 肉+又 has denied either 肉 or 又 its respective independent existence in this character. They are considered as an inseparable entity just as 癶. The character 祭 is listed under the radical 示 *shì* which is referred to as "show" (Liu, 2009, p. 14). If we have a good knowledge of the meaning of 示 *shì*, your curiosity will probably drive you to seek for the meaning of the non-radical component 肉+又 in 祭. Otherwise, the curiosity and passion of an adult learner for the meanings of a Chinese character will not sustain for long.

The combination (肉+又) here means that the hand is holding meat. Therefore, 祭 (Seal Script, 祭 *jì*) indicates that the meat of an animal or human being is sacrificed as an offering to a god (guoxuedashi.com, 2020). More examples can be found in 察 (Seal Script, 察 *chá*) with its indication to identify any miracles displayed in worship (qiyuan.chaziwang.com, 2020); in 蔡 *cài*, indicating that a straw-made person is sacrificed instead of a human being in the worship of offering meat to a god (guoxuedashi.com, 2020); in 擦 cā, with its indication to identify dirty spots in cleaning instead of carefully to identify any miracles displayed in worship.
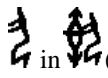
Different from the combination (肉+又) with its hand holding only meat, 彐 denotes a hand holding anything else when it combines itself with one or two items which 彐 grasps. If it grasps one or two items, it will be denied its own independent existence in a character. As a result, it will retain its joint existence in a character only by grasping either one or two items. When it holds one item, it will obtain its existence as a radical or as a non-radical component in a character. If the hand 彐 is holding a (writing) brush, it will become 聿 *yù* either as character or as a radical in a character. 聿 *yù* is indexed as a radical and defined by archchinese.com (2020) as an indicator for a "brush" and defined by *Read and Write Chinese* (Choy, 1990, p. 33) as an indicator for "learn." For example, 又 in 𦘒 (Oracle/Bone Script), 又 in 𦘒 (Bronze Script), 彐 in 筆 (Seal Script) and in 筆 *bǐ* all indicate a hand holding a writing brush 丨 (bamboo and animal air). However, when one hand is holding anything other than a "writing" brush, its indicator will not appear in the form of 聿. For example, 彐 in 秉 (Oracle/Bone Script), 彐 in 秉 (Bronze Script) and 彐 in 秉 (Seal Script) indicate a hand grasping one piece of rice seedling 禾; the grasping hand and the grasped object are combined and finally transformed into 秉 *bǐng* (*Shuo Wen Jie Zi* and guoxuedashi.com, 2020). 秉 *bǐng* cannot be found under the radical 聿 but under the radical 丿. This way of compiling radicals in a dictionary serves as an example of marginalization for a non-radical component. More examples are found in 妻 (Seal Script, 妻 *qī*) with a hand holding the hair of his bride 妻, and in 爭 (Seal Script, 争 *zhēng*) with a hand 爪 fighting for the item held by another hand 彐, as described in guoxuedashi.com (2020), and in 逮 (Seal Script, 逮 *dǎi*) with a hand holding the tail 隶 of an animal. All the three characters 尹 (Seal Script, 尹 *yǐn*), 君 (Seal Script, 君 *jūn*) and 事 (Seal Script, 事 *shì*) indicate that a hand is holding a sceptre (guoxuedashi.com, 2020). In all the above examples, when 彐 (a hand) is holding anything other than a (writing) brush, its characters will be listed under other radicals instead of 聿 *yù*. As a result, its indicator for a hand holding anything other than a (writing) brush will become a non-radical component in a character and its indication for such a hand will be compromised in our Chinese character teaching and learning.

Different from the above examples of 彐 (grasping only one item as in 聿), 彐 in 兼 (Bronze Script), 兼 (Seal Script) and 兼 *jiān* indicates one hand grasping two items --- two pieces of rice seedling 秝 at the same time (guoxuedashi.com, 2020 and *Shuo Wen Jie Zi*); more examples can be found in 賺 (Seal Script, 赚 *zhuàn*) and 廉 (Seal Script, 廉 *lián*). When one hand is holding two items 秝, its joint independent existence 兼 in a character will turn this combination 兼 into a non-radical component instead of a radical in a dictionary. This marginalized non-radical component will escape our attention and will not be subjected to detailed analysis in our Chinese character teaching and learning. If the indicator for a hand and its connection to holding one item or two items had been brought to our awareness, we might have a better understanding of the meanings of the above characters.

VI. THIRD TYPE OF NON-RADICAL COMPONENTS

The non-radical component of the third type has its independent existence both as a character and as a non-radical component instead of being a radical in a character. For example, 丸 *wán* as a modern Chinese character means "pills", "pellets" or small ball-shaped items in dictionaries. It has never been listed as a radical in a dictionary. When 丸 *wán* becomes a non-radical component in a character, it often carries the meaning of "two hands" reaching out to hold an object. However, 丸 *wán* as a character does not indicate this meaning. 丸 *wán* as "two hands" only exists as a non-radical component in a character. Therefore, its meaning as "two hands" has been marginalized or predominated by the meaning of 丸 *wán* as a character which denotes "pills", "pellets" or small ball-shaped items. For example: the indicator for two hands in the word 执 *zhí* finds its first version ⟨img⟩ in ⟨img⟩ (Oracle/Bone Script), the second version ⟨img⟩ in ⟨img⟩ (Bronze Script), the third version ⟨img⟩ in ⟨img⟩ (Seal Script), the four version 丸 in ⟨img⟩ and its last version 丸 in 執/执 *zhí* with the two hands bound by a pair of wooden handcuffs ⟨img⟩ (chaziwang.com, 2020 and guoxuedashi.com, 2020). More examples can be found in ⟨img⟩ (热 *rè*) with the two hands reaching out to hold a torch ⟨img⟩, and in ⟨img⟩ (藝/艺 *yì*) with two hands holding out to plant seedlings and flowers ⟨img⟩. However, sometimes this sequence is carried out only to ⟨img⟩ instead of further to 丸. For example, the indicator for two hands finds the first version ⟨img⟩ in ⟨img⟩ (Oracle/Bone Script), the second version ⟨img⟩ in ⟨img⟩ (Seal Script) and the last version 凡 in ⟨img⟩ (Official Script) and 恐 *kǒng*. 凡 *fán* can be a character which denotes "a mold for casting objects" (baike.baidu.com, 2020), a meaning totally different from 凡 as a component. 凡 has never been listed as a radical in a character. 丸 *wán* as a non-radical component has always experienced the following consistent and visual transformations --- ⟨img⟩->⟨img⟩->⟨img⟩->⟨img⟩->丸 (sometimes only to 凡) --- through Oracle Bone Script, Bronze Script, Seal Script, Official Script (隶书 *Lìshū*) to the modern version 丸 *wán*. This consistent and visual transformation should be brought to our awareness in our teaching and learning, and its significance in understanding the meaning of these two-hands involved activities should be of great interest and value to the adult learners of Chinese as a second language.

巴 *bā* also belongs to the non-radical component of the third type. It has its independent existence as a character. As a modern character, 巴 *bā* means "long for; await anxiously; cling to; stick to; the eastern part of Sichuan Province and Chongqing" (*Contemporary Chinese Dictionary*, 2002, p. 23-4). According to vividict.com, 2020, 巴 *bā* belongs to "Hand" section. According to jiaguwenzidian, 2020, 巴 *bā* denotes a person with long hands or arms. It is interesting to find that 巴 *bā* is not listed as a radical in a dictionary. However, when 巴 *bā* serves as a non-radical component, especially when 巴 *bā* constitutes the bottom part of a character, it only represents a person. Hence, one can see that when 巴 *bā* exists as a character, its meaning is somewhat different from its meaning when existing as a non-radical component. This difference in meaning will become a challenge to the Chinese character teaching and learning because too much attention will be given to the meaning of a character instead of the meaning of a non-radical component. Therefore, 巴 *bā* as an indicator for a person should be brought back to our attention with the assistance of Oracle/Bone Script, Bronze Script and Seal Script. The notion of 巴 *bā* as an indicator for a person is well-captured in the following examples. ⟨img⟩ (Oracle/Bone Script) consists of ⟨img⟩ 'town/city'+ ⟨img⟩ "a person". ⟨img⟩ in ⟨img⟩ was changed first to ⟨img⟩ in ⟨img⟩ (Seal Script) and then to 巴 in 邑 *yì* 'town/city.' ⟨img⟩ (Oracle/Bone Script) is another example of the third type. ⟨img⟩ (a person) in ⟨img⟩ was first changed to ⟨img⟩ as in ⟨img⟩ (Bronze Script) and then as in ⟨img⟩ (Seal Script) and finally to 巴 in 色 *sè* (However, sometimes when ⟨img⟩ as a person constitutes the bottom part of a character, it will undergo the change from ⟨img⟩ to ⟨img⟩, but not finally to 巴, but to ⟨img⟩ as in 危 *wēi*, 厄 *è*, 卷 *juǎn* or to ⟨img⟩ as in 令 *lìng*.)

VII. FOURTH TYPE OF NON-RADICAL COMPONENTS

Any non-radical components which fail to be classified in the above three categories belong to this type. The non-radical component of the fourth type does not have its independent existence as a character but has its independent existence as a non-radical component in a character. At the same time, it has not been deconstructed by its radical. An example of this type can be found in the word 弃 *qì* The word 弃 *qì* is listed under the radical "廾" in a dictionary. According to archchinese.com, 2020, the radical "廾" indicates "hands joined". ⟨img⟩ in 弃 *qì* is a non-radical component of the fourth type because it has never been indexed as a radical in a dictionary and because it does not have its

independent existence as a character. The mere understanding of the meaning of the radical "廾" will not suffice for the whole meaning of the character without the comprehension of the meaning of the non-radical component ☖. ☖ only looks similar to 云 *yún* (cloud). Here, ☖ is not referred to as "Cloud." It means a baby or new-born baby. 㐬 in 㐬 (Oracle/Bone Script) denotes a baby 㐬 abandoned in a basket ⊠. 㐬 was turned upside down as 㐬 in 㐬 (Bronze Script). 㐬 was later changed to ☖ in 棄 (Official Script) and finally to ☖ in 弃 qì(guoxuedashi.com, 2020). More examples about ☖ as a baby are found in 㐬 (Seal Script, 流 *liú*) with a fetus 㐬 removed from a womb together with amniotic fluid 㐬; in 㐬 (Seal Script, 充 *chōng*) with a mom 㐬, mouth to mouth to feed the baby 㐬; in 㐬 (Oracle/Bone Script) with a woman giving birth to a child 㐬 as well as in 㐬 (Seal Script) and 育 *yù* indicating a process of both birth 㐬 and development 㐬.

Therefore, the meaning of a character sometimes cannot be fully deduced without the assistance of non-radical components in a character. However, nowadays Chinese character teaching and learning sometimes rely too exclusively on radicals. If this learning experience persists, we will easily ignore the non-radical components in a character. Therefore, it is crucial to acknowledge the importance of reinstating non-radical components to its well-deserved position in our character teaching and learning.

㐅 also belongs to the non-radical component of the fourth type. It cannot exist as a character and has never been indexed as a radical. It is a non-radical component which maitains its independent existence in a character. It becomes a marginalized indicator for a hand because the Chinese radical 手/扌 has become such a well-known and dominant graphical indicator for a hand in a character that 㐅 becomes less identifiable and even non-identifiable as a hand. However, the Chinese character teaching and learning should be empowered to go beyond the dominant radical such as 手/扌. Otherwise, the other overshadowed and sidelined indicators for a hand fail to be identified, and the meanings of many hand-involved characters cannot be clarified and comprehended. For example, the word 有 *yǒu* is listed under the radical 月 *yuè*(denoting "meat") instead of 㐅, because 㐅 is less identifiable and even non-identifiable as an indicator for a hand. The meaning of 有 *yǒu* cannot be fully comprehended without the knowledge of the meaning of the hand 㐅. The distinctive feature of 㐅 is that whatever initial position (whether left, right or top) 㐅 took in Oracle/Bone or Bronze Script or Seal Script, it would sooner or later constitute the top-left part of a character. 㐅 in 㐅 (Seal Script, 有 *yǒu*) first took the top-right position. It later changed its shape from 㐅 to 㐅 and was relocated to the top-left part of the character 有 *yǒu*. More examples can be found in 㐅 (Seal Script, 友 *yǒu*) and 㐅 (Seal Script, 雄 *xióng*). It is interesting to note that the hand 㐅 in 㐅 (Seal Script, 右 *yòu*) was initially located on the top-right position in order to indicate the meaning of "right"; however, when 㐅 was later transformed into 㐅, it even sacrificed its semantic/positional properties for the sake of convenient and consistent positioning. Therefore, 㐅 was relocated to constitute the top-left part of the character 右 *yòu*, positioning itself in the same top-left location just as 㐅(Seal Script, 左 *zuǒ* 'left').

A component becomes "non-radical" mainly because it fails to be chosen as a candidate for a radical according to an 'artificial' standard of indexing and compiling. This failure does not mean that the non-radical component does not convey a meaningful connotation in a character. On the contrary, the non-radical component sometimes plays a crucial role in our full understanding of the Chinese characters. Therefore, more efforts in teaching and learning should be made to go beyond the meaning(s) of a radical in order to have a better knowledge of the marginalized meanings of non-radical components in a character.

VIII. GOING BEYOND THE DOMINANT MEANING(S) OF A RADICAL

A good knowledge of the dominant meaning(s) of a radical does not suffice now to meet the demand of advanced adult learners of Chinese as a second language. Chinese character teaching and learning should go beyond the dominant meaning(s) of a radical and reach for both the marginalized meanings of marginalized radicals and the marginalized meaning(s) of non-radical components. Chinese character teaching should not be only satisfied with partial understanding of the meaning of a character, especially only the meaning of a radical. Therefore, the non-radical components in a character become crucial in fully explaining the whole meaning of a character. It is time to foreground the original semantic connection between a marginalized radical and its marginalized meaning as well as between a marginalized non-radical component and its marginalized meaning. This reinstatement sometimes will depend upon the assistance of Oracle/Bone Script, Bronze Script, and Seal Script. More researches on marginalized radicals and non-

radical components, especially representing a person, hand(s), foot/feet and a mouth in Oracle/Bone Script, Bronze Script, and Seal Script should be conducted due to their high-frequent appearance in a character in order to explore the idea of de-marginalization, to strengthen and/or elaborate the current importance related to the marginalized radicals and non-radical component so that a historical and statistical sketch of these marginalized components will be obtained for our future Chinese character teaching and learning.

The following marginalized radicals and non-radical components are organized according to their placement with respect to the other components in a character such as constituting the top part or middle part or bottom part of a character and according to their postures such as a person in a kneeling, sitting, bending position as well as according to the number of their appearance in one character such as one hand or two hands, one foot or two feet, one person or more than one person. A list of marginalized radicals or non-radical components representing a person or hand(s) or foot/feet or mouth is presented below so that an adult learner has a clear idea of the indicators for a person or hand(s) or foot/feet or mouth as well as the number of their appearance in one character such as:

A person constituting the top part of a character: 入, -> -> -> 亻;

A person constituting the bottom part of a character: -> ->儿; -> ->巴;

When two people positioned together: ->匕; ->匕; ->比;

Person in a kneeing position: -> -> 卩;

Person in a sitting position: -> ->尸;

Person in bending position: -> > 勹

One hand constituting the top right part of a character: -> as in 祭;

One hand later constituting the top-left part of a character: ->ナ;

One hand occupying the bottom part of a character sometimes will become "十": ->十;

One hand with one dot: ナ + 丶 =寸;

One hand grasping one item: ->; ->;

One hand grasping two items 林 as in 兼;

Two hands facing each other will be reduced to one hand grasping one item: ->;

Two hands facing each other like a rib cage: -> >口;

Two hands constituting the middle part of a character: ->夹; ->夫;

Two hands reaching out or holding out: -> -> -> ->丸;

Two hands constituting the bottom part of a character: ->廾; -> as in 兴 ;

Three hands/four hands/five hands: three hands (+) as in 拳; four hands as in 兴; five hands (+) as in 举.

A mouth constituting the top part of a character: (inverted mouth); ->人;

A mouth at the bottom of a character undergoing a change from to , and then to 日;

A foot constituting the top part or the bottom part of a character: ; ->夂;

Two feet/three feet/four feet: two feet ->癶; three feet ->; ->卉; four feet (+)-> ;

The above images had undergone a change in shape from Oracle/Bone Script to Bronze Script, to Seal Script and finally to the standardised form in modern age:

The significance of the marginalized radicals and the marginalized non-radical components in our character teaching and learning should be reinstated so that Chinese character teaching will become a fun-generating process. This process depends on a full understanding of the meaning of each component in a character, and sometimes this understanding will depend upon the assistance of Oracle/Bone Script, Bronze Script, and Seal Script. A de-marginalizing teaching and learning strategy and a historical story telling approach will make Chinese character teaching and learning much more fun than we expected.

REFERENCES

[1] Arch Chinese, online. Retrieved on February 3, 2020 from https://www.archchinese.com/arch_chinese_radicals.html
[2] Bǎidù bǎikē (Baidu Encyclopedia). Retrieved on Feb 4, 2020 from https://baike.baidu.com/item/%E7%AB%A5/55797; https://baike.baidu.com/item/%E5%87%A1/4520049.
[3] Chá zì wǎng. (Character Searching Network). Retrieved on February 7, 2020 from

http://qiyuan.chaziwang.com/etymology-15675.html;http://qiyuan.chaziwang.com/etymology-5096.html;
http://qiyuan.chaziwang.com/etymology-19373.html;http://qiyuan.chaziwang.com/etymology-5001.html;
http://qiyuan.chaziwang.com/etymology-138.html;http://qiyuan.chaziwang.com/etymology-840.html;
http://qiyuan.chaziwang.com/etymology-13230.html; http://qiyuan.chaziwang.com/etymology-19393.html;

[4] *Guóxué   dàshī* (Master   of   Chinese   Studies).   Retrieved   on   February   10,   2020   from
http://m.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/850cw/; http://m.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/294dt/;
http://m.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/834jx/;http://m.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/1426nd/;
http://m.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/1071jq/;http://m.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/1096mx/;
http://m.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/466ex/;http://m.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/851ry/;
http://m.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/967ee/;http://m.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/1082no/;
http://m.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/1056se/;http://m.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/393op/;
http://m.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/340nl/;http://m.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/429kv/;
http://m.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/429kv/;http://m.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/480cd/;
http://www.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/99df/;http://m.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/76lz/;
http://www.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/1428ar/;http://www.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/1293am/;
http://m.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/1436em/;http://www.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/498qm/;
http://m.guoxuedashi.com/xiangxingzi/826ji/;

[5] Wei, Dongya et al. (1999). A Chinese-English Dictionary. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching And Research Press,

[6] Jiǎgǔ mìmǎ. (Oracle Code). Retrieved on February 13, 2020 from
http://www.jiagumima.com/html/jiaguwenzidian_4294.html;http://www.jiagumima.com/html/jiaguwenzidian_4151.html;
http://jiagumm.com/html/jiaguwenzidian_3479.html;http://www.jiagumima.com/html/jiaguwenzidian_5727.html;
http://www.renlu.net/html/jiaguwenzidian_4513.html;

[7] Choy, Rita Mei-Wah. (1990). Read and Write Chinese. San Francisco: China West Books

[8] Xiàndài hànyǔ cídiǎn. (Contemporary Chinese Dictionary). (2002). Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press,

[9] Xiàngxíng   zìdiǎn.   (Dictionary   of   Pictographs).   Retrieved   on   February   12,   2020   from
http://vividict.com/Public/index/page/details/details.html?rid=8971;
http://vividict.com/Public/index/page/details/details.html?rid=8971;
http://vividict.com/Public/index/page/details/details.html?rid=12322;
http://vividict.com/Public/index/page/details/details.html?rid=7834;
http://www.vividict.com/Public/index/page/details/details.html?rid=11038;
http://vividict.com/Public/index/page/details/details.html?rid=8444;
http://vividict.com/Public/index/page/details/details.html?rid=8838;
http://vividict.com/Public/index/page/details/details.html?rid=8959;
http://vividict.com/Public/index/page/details/details.html?rid=7830;
http://vividict.com/Public/index/page/details/details.html?rid=8740;
http://vividict.com/Public/index/page/details/details.html?rid=8202

[10] Xu, Shen (about 30–149). (100-121, original copy, 1963). Shuo Wen Jie Zi (Analytical Dictionary of Chinese Characters). Zhonghua Book Company.

[11] Liu, Yuehua & Yao, Tao-Chung et al. (2009). Integrated Chinese, Level 1, Part 1. Boston: Cheng & Tsui,

Bianye Li was born in China. He received his Ph.D in Comparative Literature at State University of New York at Binghamton (Binghamton University) in 1998.

He taught Chinese as well as Chinese and Western Literary and Cultural Studies in State of University of New York at Binghamton for two years. Now he is an instructor/professor of Mandarin at George Brown College. He is the translator of the book ***Ren é Wellek*** by Martin Bucco and his translation was published by China Social Sciences Publishing House, 1992, Beijing. His book ***Artificiality in Narrative*** was published by UMI Dissertation Publishing Services in 1998 online. His article 'A Major Difference between the Formation of English Words and the Formation of Chinese Words in <u>Modern Times'</u> was published by Journal of Language Teaching and Research in 2017.

He is specialized in comparative studies, Mandarin teaching and translation.

Dr. Bianye Li received Teaching Award of Excellence (2007, 2008) from Centennial College and Teaching Award of Excellence (2008) from George Brown College.

A Study of Translation Strategies of Animated Film Titles from the Perspective of Eco-translatology

Yue Wang

Shanghai International Studies University, Shanghai, China

Xiaowen Ji

University of Shanghai for Science and Technology, Shanghai, China

Abstract—In recent years, the animated film industry is booming and attracting more and more attention. This study, under the guidance of Eco-translatology, revolves around both E-C and C-E animated film title translation, analyzing its translational eco-environment and three-dimensional transformations. Use of main translation strategies of animated film titles, which are transliteration, literal translation, free translation and creative translation, is analyzed. It is found that free translation is the mainstream in both C-E and E-C translation of animated film titles while that creative translation is the least frequently used method.

Index Terms—Eco-translatology, animated films, film title translation

I. Introduction

With the advance of globalization and China's reform and opening-up policy, films, as a cross-cultural communication medium, are playing an increasingly important role. Nowadays, animated films, an essential branch of the film industry, are being paid more and more attention to. Not only have a large number of premium English animated films flood into the Chinese film market, but some high-quality Chinese animated films are also released and highly acclaimed by the audiences. As the "face" of a film, a film title is a summary and refinement of the film content. It is the key to catching the eyeballs of the audiences and making them remember the film. Therefore, the translation of film titles has a strong guiding effect and is of great research value.

There are lots of studies on film title translation, including the application of different theories to this field and the analysis of translation strategies. So far, however, few studies on animated film title translation have been conducted. Among those existing ones, few have analyzed it from a macroscopic angle or proposed a systematic theory to guide both E-C and C-E animated film title rendering. Therefore, this study is going to concentrate on animated film title translation from the perspective of Eco-translatology, a relatively new and systematic translation theory proposed by the Chinese scholar Hu Gengshen (2001), and tries to find out the frequently adopted translation strategies. The main purpose of this study is to provide some guidance and reference for the translation of Chinese and English animated film titles, so as to attract more scholars to pay attention to this field.

II. Eco-translatology

Before Eco-translatology, many scholars have made translation studies from the perspectives of "ecology", "environment", "selection" or "adaptation". According to Newmark (1982), the focuses of translation theory are not on the translation principles of source text or target text, but on selections and decisions in the source text. In 1900, Lefevere and Bassnett (1990) raised the issue of cultural turn, equating the translation context with the cultural environment. Michele Cronin (2003), in his book *Translation and Globalization*, first proposed "translation ecology" and suggested that translation between languages should maintain a "healthy balance".

In 2001, Eco-translatology was first put forward by Hu Gengshen (2001), a distinguished domestic professor who has made the most remarkable achievements in this research. It is an emerging eco-translation paradigm of translation studies from ecological perspectives (Hu Gengshen, 2013). With metaphorical analogies between the translational ecosystem and the natural ecosystem, conceptual borrowings and eco-holism as its methodology, Eco-translatology probes into translational eco-environments, textual ecologies, and "translation community" ecologies, as well as their interrelationships and interplays (Hu Gengshen, 2013).

Hu (2008) defines translation as "a selection activity of the translator's adaptation to fit the translational eco-environment". At the micro level, the translation process is described as alternate cycles of the translator's adaptation and selection (Hu Gengshen, 2013). The translational eco-environment refers to the world of the source text and the source and target languages, comprising the linguistic, communicative, cultural, and social aspects of translating, as well as the "translation community", namely the author, client, and readers (Hu Gengshen, 2013). These factors can

restrict the translators' best adaptation and optimized selection. "Translator-centeredness" is a core notion of the theory, which highlights the initiative and subjective role a translator plays in the translating course. His or her adaptive selection and selective adaptation give rise to the optimal translation. The translation strategies are generalized as "three-dimensional transformations" operating at the micro (linguistic, cultural and communicative) levels. In general, the more dimensions the translator adapts to, the more appropriate the selection will be.

III. TRANSLATIONAL ECO-ENVIRONMENT OF ANIMATED FILM TITLE TRANSLATION

A. Characteristics of Animated Film Titles

With a creative and imaginative tendency, animated films have colorful dynamic pictures, pure and interesting cinematic images, and fantasy stories, which make them distinct from other film genres. Having a full understanding of characteristics of the target text is helpful to the translator's adaptive selection and transformation. Similarities and differences between Chinese and English animated film titles will be discussed below.

1) Similarities

Chinese and English animated film titles are simple and concise. Since most animated films are named by main characters, the plot or theme, people can directly get important information about the film from the title. It is an effective way to arouse their interest to go to movies and explore the details. The film titles also feature the elements of fantasy and adventure. Many films use the words like "奇缘(qi yuan)", "冒险(mao xian)", "wonder" and "adventure" which embody the feature of animated films as well as appeal a lot to children and teenagers.

2) Differences

One difference is that Chinese animated film titles pay attention to images while English ones prefer directness (Wang Hongxi, 2019). Under the influence of Chinese culture, images and aesthetic conceptions are employed in this art form. Such film titles like "昨日青空(zuo ri qing kong)", "钟馗传奇之岁寒三友(zhong kui chuan qi zhi sui han san you)", and "幸福路上(xing fu lu shang)" can bring endless aftertastes to viewers. "Crystal Sky of Yesterday" of 《昨日青空(zuo ri qing kong)》 refers to lost youth, well indicating the theme. On the contrary, English animated film titles are inclined to present information directly to stimulate the audiences' curiosity. Moreover, Chinese and English animated film series have different forms of film titles. Many animated films are a series, such as 《熊出没(xiong chu mo)》, 《猪猪侠(zhu zhu xia)》, *Marvel Rising* and *How to Train Your Dragon*. Due to the success of the previous one, the film producer is likely to create another one of the series. The form of Chinese ones is "main title+ 之+ subtitle", like "猪猪侠之英雄猪少年(zhu zhu xia zhi ying xiong zhu shao nian)", while the form of English ones tends to be "main title+ colon+ subtitle", such as "Marvel Rising: Heart of Iron", and "How to Train Your Dragon: The Hidden World". But there are a few exceptions. A case in point is that the name of Wreck-It Ralph II is "Ralph Breaks the Internet".

B. Functions of Animated Film Titles

The prime principle of Functionalism is that the translation should be oriented to the potential function of the target text (Nord, 2006). There is no doubt that functions of film titles have influence on the translator's selection and adaptation, so they are deemed as the part of the translational eco-environment in this paper. According to He Ying (2001), the major functions of film titles can be categorized as follows: (1) informative function, (2) expressive function, (3) aesthetic function, (4) advertising (commercial) function. In the process of translation, the translator should consider whether the title contains the main message of the animated film, sets the film's atmosphere to attract audiences, has aesthetic features and meets the commercial requirements.

1) Informative Function

The informative function is to inform the potential audiences of some facts and relevant information about the film, such as main characters, settings or the plot. With the help of the title, the audiences can get a rough picture of the story or even the theme. Since animated films are mainly aimed at children and teenagers, the title should be simple and easy to understand. Examples are "巧虎大飞船历险记(qiao hu da fei chuan li xian ji)", "哪吒之魔童降世(ne zha zhi mo tong jiang shi)", "Sgt. Stubby: An American Hero" and "The Death and Return of Superman". People can immediately get the information at the first glance of the film title and then consider whether to buy the tickets.

2) Expressive Function

The expressive function of film titles is to set the keynote, tone or atmosphere of the whole film, such as the lyrical, thrilling or comedic one, so that spectators would feel attracted and be interested to see the films. To give the examples, the animated film titles with "奇缘(qi yuan)" successfully create the unique and magical atmosphere of the films, and those with "总动员(zong dong yuan)" make audiences conjure up the picture of a crazy adventure with all characters involved.

3) Aesthetic Function

Film is an art form, presenting beautiful pictures and bringing aesthetic enjoyment to viewers. A highly-acclaimed film title should also perform the aesthetic function, which requires the title to involve aesthetic elements such as musical words, the proper language style, vivid images and rhetorical devices. When it comes to animated films, the

title should entail beauty of imagination, appealing to children and teenagers. For instance, "昨日青空(zuo ri qing kong)" and "肆式青春(si shi qing chun)" are of the four-character structure and have delicate words. Before seeing the films, people will have got a vivid picture of stories taking place in youth and conjure up their own memories of yesterday. Such feeling can lead people to the cinema. The color and force of the words can always increase elegance and power to the film title.

4) Commercial Function

It is known to all that the cost of film making is extremely high, so the ultimate purpose of a film is to achieve its commercial purpose. The film title, like a trademark or advertisement of the film, has to meet the requirements of the market and target audiences, giving full play to commercial publicity in order to maximize the box office. The commercial or vocative function of animated film titles is to "call on" people to see the film, trigger off their interest and have the tickets sold.

C. Ideology of Societies

How people think of animated films is quite important to the development of the industry, so the ideology of societies is definitely one component of the translational eco-environment. Since this study focuses on the translation of Chinese and English animated film titles, here the societies refer to the Chinese and western societies.

The western world has a longer development history of animated films than the Chinese society. With the growth of science and technology, animation was poised for a great leap forward. Historically and technically, the first animated film was *Humorous Phases of Funny Faces* (1906), made by J. Stuart Blackton. Then a large number of great animators, animated film studios and companies sprung up, making priceless contribution to the industry. Examples like Disney, Pixar and DreamWorks all produced excellent works, coloring the childhood of countless people. Lots of iconic cartoon characters, such as Mickey Mouse, Snow White and Superman, as well as the positive values conveyed by the films are deeply imprinted in people's mind. More and more animated films are translated into different languages and introduced to various countries.

In China, however, the country's first animated film, *Princess Iron Fan*, was created in 1941 by Wan Guchan, and his brother, Wan Laiming. Afterwards this new genre of film was paid increasing attention. Due to the policy of reform and opening up, many premium foreign animated films are introduced, and also an increasing number of Chinese animators start their own creation, hoping to display their works to the whole world. In this period, the public start to have some ideological changes and gradually accept the values, culture, and ideas embodied by these imported films, and their cultural confidence in Chinese animation is enhanced.

In fact, people of both western and Chinese societies share the same concern for humanity and philosophy of life. Viewers enjoy experiencing love, affection, friendship, etc., and are glad to know about the information of other countries. To conclude, the source language society hopes to propagate culture and values as well as make the film popular. Audiences of the target language society want to enjoy the film and get some knowledge about the outside world. Therefore, when translating animated film titles, translators should take ideologies of both societies into account.

D. The Translation Community of Animated Film Title Translation

The "translation community" refers to a collection of "people" related to a particular translation activity (Hu Gengshen, 2013). The representative of the "translation community" is the translator. Others like the author, readers, critics, reviewers, publishers, marketers, sponsors are also involved.

Li Qun (2002) classifies film title translation as advertising translation with the only purpose to earn profits. In order to meet the commercial requirements, the film has to cater to the target audiences so as to maximize the box office (Li Qun, 2002). The target audiences of animated films are, but not limited to, children and teenagers. Since most people see animated films for pleasure and excitement, the translated titles should be attractive and interesting. Elements of fantasy or exaggerated words can be used.

Another essential part of the "translation community" is the film producer who takes charge of the film production. The decision of film title is in its hand. As the investor, the film producer is also the main beneficiary of the film's box office and copyright revenues. Therefore, the translated animated film titles should contain the ideas film makers try to express and satisfy commercial requirements.

IV. ANIMATED FILM TITLE TRANSLATION FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF ECO-TRANSLATOLOGY

"Transplanting" texts at multi-dimensional levels is a major eco-translation method. Three dimensions are mainly focused on, which are linguistic, cultural and communicative dimensions. The transformation from linguistic dimension requires the translator to accurately grasp the linguistic form in the translation process. The transformation from cultural dimension means that the translator should pay attention to the transmission and interpretation of the cultural connotations of the source language and target language. The transformation from communicative dimension mainly refers to the realization of the translator's communicative intention. In fact, in the translation process, the three dimensions and other factors are interwoven and all at play. Therefore, analysis from a single dimension doesn't mean that other factors don't have effect on the translation. Examples used in one dimension could also be applied into other discussions, so it's inevitable that some examples will appear more than once. This study selects a research sample, and

the translator's adaptive selection and transformation in terms of each dimension based on the sample will be analyzed.

A. Research Sample: Chinese and English Animated Film Titles Collected from Douban

The research sample used in this study consists of 43 Chinese animated film titles and 94 English ones and their corresponding translated titles, collected on Douban, a Chinese website providing information of books, films and music. These films are released from 2017 to 2019 and rated 5.0 and above by Douban users. The film rating mechanism of Douban is divided into two steps. Firstly, people rate by giving stars, one star indicating "incredibly bad", two stars "bad", three stars "okay", four stars "recommended", and five stars "highly recommended". Secondly, the backend converts the stars to points (0-10). It can be said that animated films with a score of 5.0 and above in the past three years are relatively new, and are accepted and recommended by most of the audiences. Their titles are of more conference and research value than those of films with lower scores. That's why these Chinese and English animated films are selected as the sample of the study.

B. Adaptive Selection and Transformation from Linguistic Dimension

1) Length of Film Titles
a) E-C Translation

Domestic films prefer four-character expressions as titles. According to Chinese people's language habits, four-character structure is classic and beautiful, so Chinese viewers are more used to this symmetric or rhyme language characteristic and can be easily attracted by such titles. Based on the sample, about 77% of the source titles consist of at least four Chinese characters. Therefore, translators tend to consider this linguistic feature when doing E-C translation.

b) C-E Translation

As mentioned above, one of the characteristics of English animated film titles is their pursuit of directness and conciseness. It is quite common to find the titles with only 1 to 3 words. In these cases, names of the characters and plots of the stories are often chosen as the basis of the titles. Hence, compared with E-C translation, C-E rendering focuses more on information delivery.

Examples are displayed in Table I.

TABLE I.
EXAMPLES OF ADAPTIVE SELECTION AND TRANSFORMATION FROM LINGUISTIC DIMENSION CONCERNING LENGTH OF FILM TITLES

Source text	Target text	Source text	Target text
Tangled: Before Ever After	魔发奇缘：幸福前奏(mo fa qi yuan: xing fu qian zou)	玩偶奇兵(wan ou qi bing)	T-Guardians
The Breadwinner	养家之人(yang jia zhi ren)	西幽玦歌(xi you xuan ge)	Thunderbolt Fantasy
Despicable Me 3	神偷奶爸(shen tou nai ba) 3/卑鄙的我(bei bi de wo) 3	神秘世界历险记(shen mi shi jie li xian ji) 4	Yugo & Lala IV
Suicide Squad: Hell to Pay	自杀小队：严厉惩罚(zi sha xiao dui: yan li cheng fa)	钟馗传奇之岁寒三友(zhong kui chuan qi zhi sui han san you)	Judge Zhongkui
Gnome Alone	花园精灵(hua yuan jing ling)	猪猪侠之英雄猪少年(zhu zhu xia zhi ying xiong zhu shao nian)	GG Bond: Guarding

2) Part of Speech
a) E-C Translation

Compared with nouns, sometimes verbs are preferred by the Chinese, for verbs can bring dynamics and vividness to film titles. Therefore, English noun phrases can be replaced by verb ones in the translation process, which is a good way to enchant the animated film titles. For example, "Spies in Disguise" is translated into "变身特工(bian shen te gong)" instead of "伪装的特工(wei zhuang de te gong)". The verb "变身(bian shen)" means transformation, injecting vigor and vitality into the title. Another example is "Luis & the Aliens" that is translated as "三傻闹地球(san sha nao di qiu)". Actually this target text learns from "三傻大闹宝莱坞(san sha da nao bao lai wu)", the Chinese name of *3 Idiots*, a popular Indian film. The added verb phrase "闹地球(nao di qiu)" points out the place where the story takes place and vitalizes the source text, leaving a lot to the imagination.

b) C-E Translation

However, nouns are quite common in English film titles. According to the sample, 88 out of 94 English animated film titles are noun phrases or words. When it comes to C-E translation, verb phrases of Chinese titles tend to be transformed to nouns. Examples are "哪吒之魔童降世(ne zha zhi mo tong jiang shi)" translated as "Nezha: Birth of the Demon Child", and "大闹西游(da nao xi you)"as "Monkey Magic" or "Adventure in Journey to the West".

C. Adaptive Selection and Transformation from Cultural Dimension

Due to the differences in nature and content of the source text culture ecology and target text culture ecology, translators should not only pay attention to language transformation, but also adapt to the whole cultural system. They are required to consider the transmission of two languages' cultural connotations as well during the translation process.

Basically speaking, when translating animated film titles, translators should have cultural consciousness and fully understand the content and background of the films, trying to overcome the barriers caused by cultural differences and maintain harmony and equilibrium of the both culture ecologies. Only in this way can the translation embrace the most natural and familiar expression, and be completely accepted and understood by the target audiences.

1) E-C Translation

The use of traditional Chinese cultural elements is particularly frequent during the process of rendering English animated film titles. For instance, the titles of the blockbusting films *Batman* and *Spiderman* are translated as "蝙蝠侠(bian fu xia)" and "蜘蛛侠(zhi zhu xia)" using the same Chinese character "侠(xia)". Batman and Spider are all super heroes saving the world, and "侠(xia)" in Chinese embodies the deep rooted chivalrous spirit of them. Such expression seems more familiar and attractive to Chinese viewers. This strategy is also adopted by *Lego DC Comics Super Heroes: The Flash* (《乐高 DC 超级英雄：闪电侠 le gao DC chao ji ying xiong: shan dian xia》), *Wonder Woman: Bloodlines* (《神奇女侠：血脉 shen qi nv xia: xue mai》) and other animations. Another good case in point is "超人王朝(chao ren wang chao)", the Chinese title of *Reign of the Supermen*, the sequel of American animated film *The Death of Superman*. The story is about several new characters presenting themselves as possible successors after the death of Superman. "王朝(wang chao)" means dynasty in Chinese with the indication of power and rule. Translating "reign" into "王朝(wang chao)" aims to disclose the plot that these new characters want to take Superman's place and keep control of the world in the Chinese way, making the film title more appealing to viewers.

2) C-E Translation

With the constant import of Chinese culture, the western society gradually welcome and are fascinated by it. Such phenomenon is usually taken into account in C-E translation. For instance, the Chinese animated film 《美食大冒险之英雄烩(mei shi da mao xian zhi ying xiong hui)》 tells a story that Bao Qiang, an innocent and passionate steamed stuffed bun who has poor martial arts, goes through untold hardships and finally grows into a great hero who saves the world of foods. Since the film includes the elements of Chinese food and Kong Fu which are quite popular among westerners, its English name comes to be "Kungfood". Such translation not only arouses foreign viewers' interest based on their love for Chinese Wushu and food culture, but also grasps an opportunity to show the world the splendid Chinese culture.

D. Adaptive Selection and Transformation from Communicative Dimension

Adaptive selection and transformation from communicative dimension focus on whether the communicative intentions of the author, source language, cultural form and connotation in the source language system are reflected in the target language system. Since animated film titles have the commercial function, translators should make selection and adaptation according to the tastes of target viewers, providing the information they want to know and making sure the translation is interesting and enchanting.

1) E-C Translation

Most English animated films choose the names of main characters or a place without any descriptions or just an adjective as their titles, while Chinese ones tend to use descriptive expressions like "历险记(li xian ji)", "奇缘(qi yuan)" and "大冒险(da mao xian)". In terms of the informative function of film titles, basic information about the characters, plot or theme needs to be added during the E-C translation process. For example, if "The Grinch" was translated as "格林奇(ge lin qi)", the audience would get confused of the identity of Grinch. The translation "绿毛怪格林奇(lv mao guai ge lin qi)" seems much better because it makes the proper modification, and arouses people's curiosity about the story of a green-haired monster. The title translation of popular Disney film *Frozen* is also successful. Although the word "frozen" perfectly describes the world of ice and snow, it is not suitable for the Chinese film title to choose an adjective again. "冰雪奇缘(bing xue qi yuan)" keeps the elements of winter and adds the color of fantasy, being attractive to children and teenagers.

2) C-E Translation

English animated film titles emphasize directness and information expression, which is a guidance for C-E translation. To give a good case, the title of 《神秘世界历险记(shen mi shi jie li xian ji) 4》 consists of two parts, secret world and adventure. Its translation, "Yugo & Lala IV", uses the names of main characters which are also the key clues of the film, concise and direct. Another example is the English name of 《阿唐奇遇(a tang qi yu)》, "Tea pets", which ignores "奇遇(qi yu)" and highlights the identity of "阿唐(a tang)".

V. POSSIBLE TRANSLATION STRATEGIES OF ANIMATED FILM TITLES AND FREQUENCY OF THEIR USE

According to He Ying (2001), translation methods of film titles are mainly transliteration, literal translation, free translation and creative translation. This part will analyze these four methods from the perspective of Eco-translatology based on the sample and try to find out the frequent translation strategies adopted by the recent animated film titles.

A. Transliteration

Transliteration means to convert words from one language to another language with a close approximation in

phonetic sound. It is generally used in films that adopted proper nouns, such as the names of people, places and things that reflect the unique culture of the nation, as film titles (Zhou Hairong, 2009). One culture may contain some particular meanings which are difficult to be conveyed into another culture and understood by target audiences. Some words cannot be translated into another language due to the cultural differences. Transliteration can solve these problems and spread the source culture to a certain extent, achieving the transformation from cultural dimension. For instance, "江南(jiang nan)" is rendered as "Kiangnan", and "大护法(da hu fa)" as "Da Hu Fa". In many situations, in effect, animated film titles with person names adopt the combination of transliteration and other translation methods. There are examples like "巧虎大飞船历险记(qiao hu da fei chuan li xian ji)" ("Qiaohu and the Fantastic Flying Ship"), "Klaus" ("克劳斯：圣诞节的秘密 ke lao si: sheng dan jie de mi mi"), and "Paddington 2" ("帕丁顿熊 pa ding dun xiong 2").

As shown in Table II, 23 out of 94 English animated film titles and 6 out of 43 Chinese ones use this translation strategy.

TABLE II
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF TRANSLITERATION

	Frequency	Percentage
E-C translation	23	24.5%
C-E translation	6	14.0%

B. Literal Translation

Due to the limitation of length and content of film titles, literal translation, equated with word-to-word translation, is a practical strategy applied in film title translation. It can not only be faithful to the source text, but also present the original linguistic style thoroughly. The animated film titles often use simple words for the public's better understanding. If simple words can be informative and attractive to viewers, literal translation is undoubtedly a good strategy for both C-E and E-C translation. The animated film 《幸福路上(xing fu lu shang)》 is a good case, for its title suggests the location where the story takes place, the "Happiness Road" in Taipei, as well as the plot that the protagonist keeps pursuing happiness. Its translation "On Happiness Road" can fully achieve the three-dimensional transformations. There are more examples for literal translation: "恐龙王(kong long wang)" ("Dino King"), "白鸟(bai niao)" ("White Bird"), "Lady and the Tramp" ("小姐与流浪汉 xiao jie yu liu lang han"), and "Ugly Dolls" ("丑娃娃 chou wa wa").

As shown in Table III, 22 out of 94 English animated films and 7 out of 43 Chinese ones are translated literally.

TABLE III
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF LITERAL TRANSLATION

	Frequency	Percentage
E-C translation	22	23.4%
C-E translation	7	16.3%

C. Free Translation

In most cases, because of the linguistic, cultural and aesthetic differences, it is impossible to simply translate Chinese film titles through transliteration or literal translation. Free translation, as a more flexible translation approach, can solve this dilemma. To achieve the three-dimensional transformations, translators should consider a series of factors and make adjustments to the source film titles, trying to reveal their deep cultural connotation and meanings.

According to Table IV, 63 out of 94 English animated film titles and 32 out of 43 Chinese ones choose free translation as the translation strategy.

TABLE IV
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF FREE TRANSLATION

	Frequency	Percentage
E-C translation	63	67.0%
C-E translation	32	74.4%

Amplification, omission and conversion are the three commonly-used techniques of free translation.

1) Amplification and Omission

In animated film title translation, sometimes it is necessary to add or delete some of the vocabulary or semantic meanings so as to ensure the perception of the audiences. Since Chinese animated film titles prefer the descriptions of characters or stories while English ones pursue directness and are usually named by characters, the translation techniques of amplification and omission can contribute to the three-dimensional transformations. Amplification means adding some necessary words in order to make the meaning clear and correct; omission means retaining the crucial words related to film stories and deleting the redundant information in source titles. The animated film 《雪人奇缘(xue ren qi yuan)》 (*Abominable*) , a co-production by Chinese and American studios, is a good case in point. "奇缘(qi

yuan)" is added in the Chinese name to form a four-character language structure. In the examples like "The Grinch" ("绿毛怪格林奇 lv mao guai ge lin qi") and "Paddington 2" ("帕丁顿熊 pa ding dun xiong 2"), the identity of the protagonist is added to achieve the transformation from communicative dimension.

2) Conversion

Apparently there exist differences of language habits between China and English-speaking countries. The Chinese are fond of using verbs while westerners are used to applying nouns and prepositions. In order to meet the foreign audiences' aesthetic requirement and achieve the transformation from linguistic dimension, the translator can use the translation technique of conversion.

D. Creative Translation

The concept of "translator-centeredness" is fully reflected here. When the strategies above cannot show the main content of the film or make the title appealing, translators should adopt creative translation, which is to recreate the target title on the basis of the film story instead of the source title, taking a great many factors into consideration and making adaptive selection and transformation accordingly. Such translation strategy can help audiences avoid the difficulties in understanding the target text due to cultural differences, and enhance the charm of the translated title (Zhou Hairong, 2009), so that the transformation from communicative dimension will be successfully achieved.

For example, the title of the black humor animated film 《大世界(da shi jie)》 is rendered as "Have a Nice Day" instead of "The Big World". The film tells an absurd story that the driver Zhang is chased by people with evil intentions due to his robbery of a huge amount of money. Since the story takes place within 24 hours and is tinged with irony, "Have a Nice Day" is selected as the title. By contrast, hardly can "The Big World" reflect the idea and spirit of the film. And "冰雪奇缘(bing xue qi yuan)", the Chinese name of Frozen is also a good instance adopting creative translation, which is analyzed before.

As shown in Table V, 8 out of 94 English animated film titles and 2 out of 43 Chinese ones adopt this strategy.

TABLE V
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF CREATIVE TRANSLATION

	Frequency	Percentage
E-C translation	8	8.5%
C-E translation	2	4.7%

E. Further Data Analysis of the Translation Strategies

In general, the sample of recommended animated film titles released from 2017 to 2019 mainly adopt the four translation strategies, which are transliteration, literal translation, free translation and creative translation. And these strategies can all contribute to the three-dimensional transformations to a certain extent.

Figure 1 shows the overall situation concerning the use of these four translation strategies in animated film title translation. On the whole, around 67.0% of the English film title cases and 74.4% of the Chinese ones use free translation. However, other translation strategies are far less frequently used than free translation, their percentage being all less than 30%. And creative translation is the least adopted method according to the figure. Therefore, it can be concluded that free translation is the mainstream to translating both Chinese and English animated film titles whereas creative translation is the least preferred by translators.
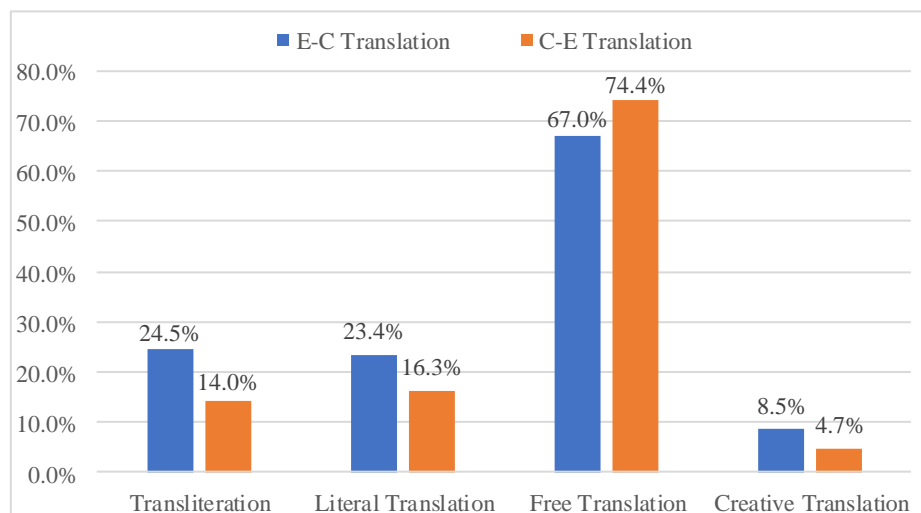
Figure 1. Application of the Four Translation Strategies in Animated Film Title Translation

Animated films are not like other genres. Their main target audiences are children and teenagers, so film titles tend to

be simple and straightforward. The source titles usually offer the basic information of the films which can be fully accepted by foreign audiences, so in some cases transliteration and literal translation are used to achieve the transformation. Due to various factors in the translational eco-environment of Chinese and English animated film title translation, free translation is always adopted to make some adjustments. However, in most situations, there is no need to use creative translation. That's why it is the least frequently used translation strategy.

VI. CONCLUSION

As an increasing number of English animated films are introduced and high-quality Chinese films are produced, the animated film industry is paid more and more attention to. The film title, as an eye-catching element of a film, has a guiding effect and plays an important part. In the area of animated film title translation, Eco-translatology is a perfect translation theory that can guide the translation activity. It helps the translators take different factors of the translational eco-environment into consideration and achieve multi-dimensional transformations. Based on the data analysis of the research sample, it is found that free translation is the mainstream to translating both Chinese and English animated film titles while creative translation is the least frequently used method. This study serves as a basis for future studies on animated film title translation, aiming to urge more scholars and researchers to pay attention to animated film title translation and provide support for the development of the industry, with the hope that more and more excellent English animated films can be introduced and that Chinese ones can be produced and seen by the rest of the world.

APPENDIX A. THE COLLECTION OF ENGLISH ANIMATED FILM TITLES

No.	Source text	Target text	Year of release	Score
1	Spies in Disguise	变身特工	2019	7.7
2	Frozen II	冰雪奇缘 2	2019	7.2
3	Lady and the Tramp	小姐与流浪汉	2019	6.8
4	The Addams Family	亚当斯一家	2019	6.6
5	Wonder Woman: Bloodlines	神奇女侠：血脉	2019	5.9
6	The Death and Return of Superman	超人之死与超人归来	2019	6.7
7	Shaun the Sheep Movie: Farmageddon	小羊肖恩 2：末日农场	2019	8.0
8	Teen Titans Go! vs Teen Titans	少年泰坦出击大战少年泰坦	2019	8.4
9	Abominable	雪人奇缘	2019	7.3
10	Steven Universe The Movie	宇宙小子大电影	2019	7.7
11	Marvel Rising: Battle of the Bands	漫威崛起：乐队之战	2019	5.6
12	Invader ZIM: Enter the Florpus	外星入侵者 ZIM：魔幻入口	2019	5.7
13	The Angry Birds Movie 2/ Angry Birds 2	愤怒的小鸟 2	2019	7.0
14	Playmobil: The Movie/ Playmobil: Robbers, Thieves & Rebels	摩比小子大电影	2019	5.8
15	LEGO DC Batman: Family Matters/ LEGO DC: Batman - Family Matters	乐高 DC 蝙蝠侠：家族事务	2019	7.1
16	Batman: Hush	蝙蝠侠：缄默	2019	6.3
17	Toy Story 4	玩具总动员 4	2019	8.6
18	The Secret Life of Pets 2	爱宠大机密 2	2019	7.0
19	Batman Vs. Teenage Mutant Ninja Turtles	蝙蝠侠大战忍者神龟	2019	7.3
20	Klaus	克劳斯：圣诞节的秘密	2019	8.6
21	Ugly Dolls	丑娃娃	2019	5.4
22	The Pilgrim's Progress	天路历程	2019	8.9
23	Missing Link	遗失的环节	2019	6.7
24	Marvel Rising: Heart of Iron	漫威崛起：钢铁之心	2019	5.7
25	Justice League vs. The Fatal Five	正义联盟大战致命五人组	2019	6.3
26	Wonder Park	神奇乐园历险记	2019	6.3
27	The Lego Movie 2: The Second Part	乐高大电影 2	2019	6.6
28	Marvel Rising: Chasing Ghosts	漫威崛起：幽灵蜘蛛	2019	5.9
29	Reign of the Supermen	超人王朝	2019	6.9
30	How to Train Your Dragon: The Hidden World	驯龙高手 3：隐秘的世界	2019	7.4
31	Spider-Man: Into the Spider-Verse	蜘蛛侠：平行宇宙	2018	8.6
32	Neo Yokio: Pink Christmas	凯斯：粉色圣诞节	2018	6.3
33	Ralph Breaks the Internet	无敌破坏王 2：大闹互联网	2018	8.1
34	The Grinch	绿毛怪格林奇	2018	6.3
35	Constantine City of Demons: The Movie	康斯坦丁：恶魔之城 电影版	2018	7.5
36	DC Super Hero Girls: Legends of Atlantis	DC 超级英雄美少女：亚特兰蒂斯传奇	2018	6.6
37	Marvel Rising: Secret Warriors	漫威崛起：秘密勇士	2018	5.4
38	Smallfoot	雪怪大冒险	2018	7.4

39	Freedom Fighters - The Ray	自由战士：射线 电影版	2018	5.7
40	Lego DC Comics Super Heroes: Aquaman - Rage of Atlantis	乐高 DC 超级英雄：亚特兰蒂斯之怒	2018	6.4
41	Teen Titans Go! To the Movies	少年泰坦出击电影版	2018	8.2
42	The Death of Superman	超人之死	2018	7.4
43	Adventure Time: Diamonds and Lemons	探险活宝之钻石与柠檬	2018	9.0
44	Hotel Transylvania 3: Summer Vacation	精灵旅社 3：疯狂假期	2018	6.7
45	Incredibles 2	超人总动员 2	2018	7.9
46	Batman Ninja	忍者蝙蝠侠	2018	7.0
47	Suicide Squad: Hell to Pay	自杀小队：严厉惩罚	2018	7.4
48	Isle of Dogs	犬之岛	2018	8.3
49	Lego DC Comics Super Heroes: The Flash	乐高 DC 超级英雄：闪电侠	2018	7.6
50	Batman: Gotham by Gaslight	蝙蝠侠：煤气灯下的哥谭	2018	6.8
51	Scooby-Doo & Batman: the Brave and the Bold	史酷比与蝙蝠侠：英勇无畏	2018	6.6
52	Thomas & Friends: Big World! Big Adventures! The Movie	托马斯大电影之世界探险记	2018	7.1
53	Captain Morten and the Spider Queen	莫滕船长与蜘蛛女王	2018	6.4
54	Sherlock Gnomes	淘气大侦探	2018	6.8
55	Early Man	无敌原始人	2018	6.3
56	Charming	白马王子	2018	6.0
57	Sgt. Stubby: An American Hero	斯塔比中士：一个美国英雄	2018	7.2
58	Gnome Alone	花园精灵	2018	5.1
59	Luis & the Aliens/ Luis and His Friends from Outer Space	三傻闹地球	2018	6.4
60	Ferdinand	公牛历险记	2017	7.3
61	Game of Thrones: Conquest and Rebellion	权力的游戏：征服与反抗	2017	7.8
62	The Star	圣诞星	2017	6.4
63	Paddington 2	帕丁顿熊 2	2017	8.1
64	Michael Jackson's Halloween	迈克尔 杰克逊的万圣节	2017	5.2
65	Coco	寻梦环游记	2017	9.1
66	Batman Vs. Two-Face	蝙蝠侠大战双面人	2017	5.7
67	My Little Pony: The Movie	小马宝莉大电影	2017	6.9
68	The Lego Ninjago Movie	乐高幻影忍者大电影	2017	6.4
69	Barbie Dolphin Magic	芭比之海豚魔法	2017	7.4
70	Starship Troopers: Traitor of Mars	星河战队：火星叛国者	2017	5.9
71	The Nut Job 2: Nutty by Nature	抢劫坚果店 2	2017	6.2
72	The Emoji Movie	表情奇幻冒险	2017	5.2
73	Lego Scooby-Doo! Blowout Beach Bash	乐高史酷比：沙滩狂欢派对	2017	5.3
74	Batman and Harley Quinn	蝙蝠侠与哈莉 奎恩	2017	6.7
75	Tom and Jerry: Willy Wonka and the Chocolate Factory	猫和老鼠：查理与巧克力工厂	2017	5.9
76	Cars 3	赛车总动员 3：极速挑战	2017	7.0
77	Despicable Me 3	神偷奶爸 3/ 卑鄙的我 3	2017	6.8
78	Magical Circus: Animal Crackers	神奇马戏团之动物饼干	2017	5.7
79	Captain Underpants: The First Epic Movie	内裤队长	2017	5.6
80	Vixen: The Movie	雌狐：大电影	2017	5.9
81	Teen Titans: The Judas Contract	少年泰坦：犹大契约	2017	6.7
82	Smurfs: The Lost Village	蓝精灵：寻找神秘村	2017	6.3
83	The Boss Baby	宝贝老板	2017	7.5
84	Tangled: Before Ever After	魔发奇缘：幸福前奏	2017	6.6
85	Richard the Stork/ A Stork's Journey	理查大冒险	2017	6.5
86	The Lego Batman Movie	乐高蝙蝠侠大电影	2017	8.0
87	Justice League Dark	黑暗正义联盟	2017	7.4
88	Barbie Video Game Hero	芭比之游戏英雄	2017	6.5
89	Surf's Up 2: WaveMania	冲浪季节 2/ 冲浪企鹅 2	2017	5.8
90	The Little Vampire 3D	精灵小王子	2017	6.4
91	Happy Family	精灵怪物：疯狂之旅	2017	5.3
92	Loving Vincent	至爱梵高 星空之谜	2017	8.5
93	The Breadwinner	养家之人	2017	8.4
94	Kapture-Fluke	卡普炔：福禄克	2017	6.1

APPENDIX B. THE COLLECTION OF CHINESE ANIMATED FILM TITLES

No.	Source Text	Target Text	Year of Release	Score
1	江南	Kiangnan	2019	7.7
2	雪人奇缘	Abominable	2019	7.2
3	继园台七号	No. 7 Cherry Lane	2019	6.8
4	罗小黑战记	The Legend of Hei	2019	6.6
5	全职高手之巅峰荣耀	The King's Avatar: For the Glory	2019	5.9
6	哪吒之魔童降世	Ne Zha / Nezha: Birth of the Demon Child	2019	6.7
7	巧虎大飞船历险记	Qiaohu and the Fantastic Flying Ship	2019	8.0
8	江海渔童之巨龟奇缘	A Fishboy's Story: Tortoise from the Sea	2019	8.4
9	动物方言	Breathless Animals	2019	7.3
10	熊出没 原始时代	Boonie Bears: Blast into the Past	2019	7.7
11	白蛇：缘起	White Snake	2019	5.6
12	西幽玦歌	Thunderbolt Fantasy	2019	5.7
13	恐龙王	Dino King	2019	7.0
14	昨日青空	Crystal Sky of Yesterday	2019	5.8
15	大闹西游	Monkey Magic / Adventure in Journey to the West	2019	7.1
16	未来机器城	Next Gen	2019	6.3
17	美食大冒险之英雄烩	Kungfood	2019	7.3
18	肆式青春	Flavors of Youth	2019	8.6
19	风语咒	The Wind Guardians	2019	7.0
20	神秘世界历险记 4	Yugo & Lala IV	2019	7.3
21	女他	SHe	2019	8.6
22	吃货宇宙	Foodiverse	2019	5.4
23	空气侠	Air Man / NOT HERO	2019	8.9
24	猫与桃花源	Cats and Peachtopia	2019	6.7
25	妈妈咪鸭	Duck Duck Goose	2019	5.7
26	熊出没 变形记	Boonie Bears: The Big Shrink	2019	6.3
27	金龟子	The Ladybug	2019	6.3
28	穿颅透写	Lacuna	2019	6.6
29	钟馗传奇之岁寒三友	Judge Zhongkui	2019	5.9
30	昆塔：反转星球	Axel: Adventures of the Spacekids / The Floating Planet	2019	6.9
31	拾梦老人	The Dream Collector	2019	7.4
32	十万个冷笑话 2	One Hundred Thousand Bad Jokes II	2018	8.6
33	玩偶奇兵	T-Guardians	2018	6.3
34	豆福传	Tofu	2018	8.1
35	大护法	Da Hu Fa	2018	6.3
36	阿唐奇遇	Tea Pets	2018	7.5
37	白鸟	White Bird	2018	6.6
38	大世界	Have a Nice Day	2018	5.4
39	萤火奇兵	Lighting Dindin	2018	7.4
40	熊出没 奇幻空间	Bonnie Bears: Entangled Worlds	2018	5.7
41	猪猪侠之英雄猪少年	GG Bond: Guarding	2018	6.4
42	生死一剑	Thunderbolt Fantasy: The Sword of Life and Death	2018	8.2
43	幸福路上	On Happiness Road	2018	7.4

REFERENCES

[1]   Bassnett, S. & Lefevere, A. (1990). Translation, history and culture. London: Pinter Publishers.
[2]   Cronin, M. (2003). Translation and globalization. London: Routledge.
[3]   He, Ying. (2001). On the translation of movie titles. *Foreign Language Education*, 01, 56-60.
[4]   Hu, Gengshen. (2001) (unpublished). An initial exploration into an approach to translation as adaptation and selection. Hong Kong: 3rd FIT Asian Translators' Forum.
[5]   Hu, Gengshen. (2008). Eco-translatology: A primer. *Chinese Translators Journal*, 6, 11-15.
[6]   Hu, Gengshen. (2013). Eco-translatology: Construction & interpretation. Beijing: The Commercial Press.

[7]   Li, Qun. (2002). The subversion of "faithfulness" in film title translation – its current situation and theoretical basis (pian ming fan yi dui "zhong shi" de dian fu – dian ying pian ming fan yi de xian zhuang ji li lun yi ju). *Journal of Beijing International Studies University*, 05, 41-45.

[8]   Newmark, P. (1982). Approaches to translation. Oxford: Pergamon.

[9]   Nord, C. (2006). Text analysis in translation: Theory, methodology, and didactic application of a model for translation-oriented text analysis (2nd edn.). Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

[10]   Wang, Hongxi. (2019). Comparison and translation of English and Chinese animated film titles (ying han dong hua dian ying pian ming dui bi yu fan yi). *PR Magazine*, 11, 261-263.

[11]   Zhou, Hairong. (2009). Study on principles and methods of Chinese film title translation (zhong wen dian ying pian ming ying yi yuan ze he fang fa yan jiu). *Journal of Educational Institute of Jilin Province*, 25.08, 116-117.

Yue Wang was born in Shanghai, China on 12 November 1997. She graduated from University of Shanghai for Science and Technology (USST) in Shanghai, China with a Bachelor of Arts in English in June 2020. She will continue to study for a Master of Arts degree in English language and literature at Shanghai International Studies University (SISU) in Shanghai, China.

She had two internships. The first one was in the summer of 2018 when she interned as a Junior Copywriter in a media company. She then worked as a CRM Marketing Consulting Intern in 2019, mainly making and translating proposals. Her final thesis of undergraduate was named an outstanding thesis of USST in 2020. Her current research interest is translation studies. She can be reached through linda3z@qq.com.

Xiaowen Ji was born in China in 1991. She obtained her Master's degree in English Language and Literature from Shanghai International Studies University (SISU) in 2014, and her PhD degree in the same major from the same university in 2017, with a year as a visiting PhD researcher in Leiden University, the Netherlands, supported by China Scholarship Council.

She is currently a lecturer in University of Shanghai for Science and Technology. Her research interests include multilingual development, interpreting studies, and teaching of English as a second language. She can be reached through jixiaowensisu@163.com.

The Use of Oral Motor Exercises among Speech Language Pathologists in Jordan

Sana M. Kamal

Department of Hearing and Speech Sciences, the University of Jordan, Amman, Jordan

Abstract—The paper aims to study the Speech Language Pathologists (SLPs) use of oral motor exercises (OMEs) with patients who present with speech disorders. It also assesses the nature and kind of exercises used by these (SLPs). Furthermore, it compares the outcome with other studies targeted oral motor exercises. A conventional sample of 75 (SLPs) in Jordan was handed a survey to fill and (50) participants (67%) completed and returned the surveys. The (SLPs) work in different treatment settings: (clinics, speech centers, universities, and private practice), and they have B.S, M.A., or Ph.D. degree, in Speech and Language Pathology. The (SLPs) experience ranged from two years to twenty years. Results showed that 74% of (SLPs) use (OMEs), which is a very high percentage. The choice of using oral motor exercises was not affected by the level of education or the years of experience. As for the nature of exercises, tongue exercises were used by the majority of (SLPs). Based on the results, it seems that most of the recent studies do not support the use of oral motor exercises. However, more effort is needed in research in order to give a solid proof of the importance/ no value of (OMEs). (SLPs) need studies that are proved clinically by tracking cases in details.

Index Terms—Speech - Language Pathologists, oral motor exercise, speech disorders, tongue exercises, survey

I. INTRODUCTION

The idea of using oral motor exercises (OMEs) began in 1970 when (SLPs) started working hand in hand with Occupational Therapists and Physio Therapists (Marshalla, 2011). Lof & Watson (2008) defined (OMEs) by techniques used to influence speaking, but these techniques do not mean to produce the sounds specifically. Several terms were used for (OMEs), such as, "mouth exercises", "non-speech oral motor training", and "oral motor treatment" (Brown, et al., 2010). (OMEs) are used with swallowing problems (Adverson. et al. 2010a).

These exercises vary; some of them are active, where the patient makes an effort to do the task, such as, tongue pushups, moving the tongue back and forth, sticking tongue and trying to touch chin, puckering lips, moving lower jaw from side to side, sucking, and using chewing gum. While the other kind is passive, where the patient does not make an effort, it includes moving the tongue with a tongue depressor, and massaging the jaw. The Third kind includes the use of sense stimulation, which uses vibration, heat, or a cold source. (Clark, 2003; Arvedson et al., 2010a).

Oral motor exercises are used by different (SLPs) in their speech sessions: A typical treatment session ranges from 30-45 minutes and sometimes it exceeds to one hour according to different reasons. Through which (SLPs) use these exercises to improve speech sound disorders in addition to other techniques, such as speech perception and discrimination (Kami.2008). Other (SLPs) use non oral motor exercises through the session as a kind of breaking a routine and having fun while playing games and using toys. (Kami, 2008). From my own experience, I use (OMEs) as part of the session and majorly at the beginning of the session in most of the cases, especially with children who have problems in speech sound errors, specifically /r/ sound. I found that children like Non speech oral motor exercise (NSOMEs) and ask me to do them frequently when they have some moderate to hard goals to be achieved because they have self- confidence about their ability to perform these types of (NSOMEs).

There are studies that support the use of (OMEs) (Kamhi, 2008, Lohman- Hawk, 2007, Hockenberry, et al, 2009). Hockenberry, et al. (2009), stated that patients who present with Parkinson's disease may benefit from (OMEs.) Their justification is that they facilitate oral movements, strengthen muscles and make patients be aware of the sound and the way of producing it (Kamhi, 2006)

On the other hand, other studies were against the use of (OMEs) (Lof, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009; Lof &Watson, 2010; Taps, 2007; Kubacki,(a.n.d.), 2003 ; Ruscello, 2008; Lass & Pannbacker, 2008, Lazarus, et al., 2011). One of the biggest concerns was that there is no evidence based practice for using (OMEs) (McCauley, et al., 2009). Lof (2009) emphasized that we should not depend on clinician`s experience, but we have to depend on data that have reliability and validity. One of the justifications used against the use of (OMEs) was that patients who present with speech sound disorders have even stronger tongue, and the need of tongue strength was questioned (Sudbery, et al., 2006; Lof, 2007).

Lof & waston (2010) mentioned that speech is a complex motor movement and they emphasized another reason why (OMEs) are not useful. They stated that breaking the complex movement into specific steps does not enhance speech. Moreover, they addressed that speech and (OMEs) are tasks that are conducted in the brain, but with different parts of the brain, therefore, these exercises will not enhance speech productions.

A study conducted by Lemmon and Harrison (2010) on (68) (SLPs) found that 81% used (OMEs), and 71% observed improvement in speech. Another study conducted by Lof, and Watson 2008) showed that 85% of (SLPs) used (OMEs) in producing sounds and they believed that they help in therapy. Another study conducted by Alaraifi and Husein (2013) on rehabilitation of functionally disordered /r/ sound found that (15 out of 20) 75% of the (SLPs) in the study used (OMEs) when addressing /r/ sound in therapy.

Using (NSOMEs) is not a goal by itself in treatment. It is considered as a procedure (Lof, G. 2009). In other words, we cannot say that our goal in one of the speech sessions is (to puff out the cheeks), but the goal is (to produce intelligible speech). This is a common mistake between some (SLPs). Another example that I always notice between my students is that some of them, when they write a session plan, for a child with an articulation /r/, they use the phrase (to strengthen the tongue muscle) which is considered to be a procedure, not a goal as mentioned above.

The importance of the research:

This research is important since there is no previous data in Jordan and the Middle East about this issue and so it will be a starting point in research regarding (OMEs) in Jordan. (SLPs) in Jordan are always uncertain to use or not to use (OMEs) with different speech disorders because the issue is not that clear.

II. METHODOLOGY

Participants:

The participants of the study were 50 (SLPs) who worked in Jordan for 2 to 20 years of experience. Their education ranges from Bachelor degree to Ph.D. degree. They work in different settings: (private clinics, schools, university clinics, and hospitals).

Procedure:

The (SLPs) were given a survey to fill through hard copies, emails, different sites for contact. The survey was developed by the researcher depending on the literature review and consultations with different (SLPs). After it was developed, I forwarded it to (5) practicing (SLPs) to determine its relevancy for the topic. The survey consisted of four sections: The first section is the level of education of the (SLP) (B.S., M.A., or Ph.D.), the second section is the number of experience years the (SLP) has (2-10 years, or 11-20 years), and the third section is whether the (SLP) uses oral motor exercises with patients who present with different speech disorders. The last section was about the nature of (OMEs) used (tongue exercises, or any other kinds of exercises). (OMEs) were divided into two groups because from the researcher`s clinical experience, (SLPs) usually use either exercises that assist putting the tongue in the right place of articulation, or use different kinds of exercises, such as blowing cheeks.

III. ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The results are based on the analysis of the data collected from 50 (SLPs). Frequency, chi- square, and level of significance were analyzed using the SPSS Statistics 16, USA.

A study sample of 50 surveys filled by (SLPs) was analyzed. The (SLPs) level of education was as follows (B.S. = 13, M.A. = 33, Ph.D. = 4). Years of experience was as follows: 2-10 years of experience = 42 participants, 11-20 years of experience = 8. As for the use of (OMEs), 37 (74%) out of 50 (SLPs) stated that they used (OMEs).

TABLE 1
STATISTICAL FACTORS RELATED TO THE USE OF ORAL MOTOR EXERCISES. N=50

Studied Factors	Frequency	Percentage
Education		
B.S.	13	26%
M.A.	33	66%
Ph.D.	4	8%
Years of experience		
2-10	42	84%
11-20	8	16%
Use of oral motor exercises		
Yes	37	74%
No	13	26%
Kind of exercises used (n=37)		
Tongue exercises	26	70.3%
Several kinds (e.g., blowing)	11	29.7%

With regard to statistical significance, characteristics of patients were examined in relation to (OMEs). There was no statistically significant relationship between the use of (OMEs), and education, and years of experience). *(See table 2).*

TABLE 2
STATISTICAL FACTORS RELATED TO THE USE OF ORAL MOTOR EXERCISES. N=50

Studied Factors	X^2	df	P
Education	0.08	2	0.9
Years of experience	0.65	1	0.4

* Significant at α=0.05 (2- tailed) using chi-squared test

(OMEs) were evaluated in each group of years of experience. In the first group (2-10 years), which consisted of 42 (SLPs), 76% used (OMEs). In the second group (11-20 years of experience), 62% of (SLPs) used OMEs. *(See table 3).*

TABLE 3
YEARS OF EXPERIENCE OF THE SLPS WHO USE ORAL EXERCISES

Years of experience	Used oral exercises	
2-10 (n=42)	32	76.1%
11-20 (n=8)	5	62.5%

IV. DISCUSSION

Based on the found results, the percentage of (SLPs) who use (OMEs) is high (74%), which is among the other studies findings (Lemmon and Harrison, 2010) since the percentage was 81 %, (Alaraifi and Husein, 2013 on the use of (OMEs) in the treatment of functionally disordered /r/ and the percentage was 75% and (Lof and Watson, 2008) and the percentage was (85%). The results of this study show that many (SLPs) in Jordan use oral exercises with different kinds of disorders, including patients with motor speech disorders, specifically at the beginning of their treatment. This issue appears to be a worldwide concern, and not only have (SLPs) in USA had such issue on discussion board. Therefore, there is a crucial need for having further deep researches that address the efficiency of (OMEs).

As for the level of education for (SLPs,) the highest number was in favor of M.A. SLPs (66%), followed by the B.A. (SLPs), and finally Ph.D. In other words, education does not affect the use of oral exercises. With regard to years of experience, it is found that the number of (SLPs) who have an experience of less than 10 years use (OMEs) is more if we compare it to those who have more experience. However, the results might be affected because most of the (SLPs) in the sample have experience less than 10 years. On the other hand, if we compare the percentage within each group alone (2-10 and 11-20 years of experience), we will find that 32 (76.1%) out of 42 of the lower experienced (SLPs) (2-10 years) use (OMEs). In the highly experienced group (11-20 years), 5 out of 8 (62.5%) use oral motor exercises. Each of the two groups has a high percentage in using (OMEs) and this stresses on the fact that experience did not affect choosing (OMEs) in therapy.

As for the nature of oral motor exercise, results showed that very high percentage of (SLPs) use exercises for the tongue in order to facilitate producing sounds. This way of therapy addresses the active articulator (tongue), and it is very similar to Phonetic Placement Therapy which will be explained briefly later on in this paper. This aspect should be assessed deeper in order to know the nature of these tongue movements/ exercises used.

There is no match between current researches and what (SLPs) do in therapy (Bahr, 2008). Lemmon and Harrison, (2010) stated that 71% of SLPs found progress and this high percentage cannot be ignored. However, what were the measurements that these (SLPs) used? Did these (SLPs) use therapy without (OMEs) so that they can compare results? Different issues should be raised regarding this matter. First, there is a lack of understanding of a specific definition of oral motor exercises and patient population should also be identified. Therefore, further research is needed in this regard (Bahr, 2008, 2011a, 2011b;Bahr & Banford, 2012). Marshalla mentioned that the use of tools, such as tongue depressors or cotton swabs in order to teach patients where to put their tongue while producing a specific sound is part of phonetic placement, which is part of traditional therapy used by Van Riper. Phonetic Placement Therapy use tools to facilitate treatment and the use of oral motor exercises are not a new subject. (Marshalla, 2007; 2008; 2012). However, Ruscello, (2010) who conducted a study on both of the oral motor exercises and ``Phonetic Based – Speech Sound Production Treatment ` (PT) found that patients who were treated using (PT) improved much more than those who were treated using the (OMEs). (30% vs. 3%). On the other hand, (OMEs) are not targeted to produce a specific sound, and they are general exercises that are designed to prepare patients for speech therapy or for feeding and they include passive exercises, active exercises, and stimulation of senses (Clark, 2003; Arvedson et al., 2010a).

Several studies stated that there is no evidence based therapy about (OMEs) (Powel, 2008b; Arvedson et al., 2010a). There is a study that conducted a comparison between different studies on the use of (OMEs) for feeding and swallowing and findings suggested that results of therapy varied (Arvedson, et al., 2010b). Some of the justifications against the use of oral motor exercises are that there is no enough research on the use of (OMEs.) (Ruscello, 2008).The use of opinions is not enough evidence and basis to build on (Schuette, 2011). Therefore,(OMEs) are questionable and (SLPs) should be careful if they use them. The (SLPs) should use the highest standard application of therapy with patients and scientifically approved treatment approaches (Powel, 2008a).

From my experience, I use (OMEs) with patients who have articulation disorders especially/ r / sound and the group of sibilant sounds, such as /s and z/ sounds in addition to children who have oral motor weakness, but I do not use these exercises with children with phonological disorders because the phoneme is available, but not in the exact position, whether initially, medially or finally. I also use these exercises with children with Down syndrome because I found that they have oral motor weakness. These exercises help them much to make their speech more intelligible and more precise. I also use these exercises if I have a patient in the clinic with dysarthria regardless to his age. I do always think that patients with cerebral palsy with different types should have these kinds of exercises in their speech sessions.

V. CONCLUSION

Based on the results, several issues should be addressed: What is the specific definition of (OMEs)? This is because there is no clear cut for the definition. What is the targeted specific goal that (OMEs) are used for, and is it helpful? What is the role of oral examinations (structure and function)? What are the speech disorders that need the (SLPs) use (OMEs) and (NOMEs)? Does apraxia of speech needs these exercises? Do patients with dysarthria need these exercises and what types of dysarthria specifically? Do patients with Down syndrome need these exercises? Do children with phonological disorders need these exercises and what is the purpose for these exercises?

VI. CLINICAL IMPLICATIONS

More research should be conducted to determine the efficiency/non efficiency of these exercises by having detailed results for each treatment session in various speech disorders for different ages. Moreover, the efficiency of therapy for various communication disorders in Jordan should be enhanced by providing (SLPs) with specialized workshops related to (OMEs). These workshops will help the (SLPs) to determine whether and when to use (OMEs) and with what types of communication disorders. Online workshops will be recommended for (SLPs) in Jordan and other countries to attend since (SLPs) live in variable areas and it will save their time because travelling at this point to attend a workshop is not that easy in different countries. These workshops should vary in their levels according to the (SLPs) experience and should be provided with video illustrations for different communication disorders, especially motor speech disorders. (SLPs) will improve their skills if they attend online workshops related to (OMEs).

VII. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND FUTURE WORK

This study is the first study conducted on the use of (OMEs) by (SLPs) in Jordan. It is guidance on where the (SLPs) are in using therapy approaches. However, this study still has some limitations. The number of (SLPs) is little (50) compared to other studies conducted. Further studies might use a bigger number of (SLPs) and with more deep investigation on the relation of the use of (OMEs) and the nature of speech problem targeted for therapy. In addition the age of the people who are having communication disorders should be specified.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

REFERENCES

[1] Alaraifi, J. & Husein, I. (2013). Rehabilitation of /r/ Sound in Arabic Language: Phonetic and Therapeutic Study, *Dirasat*, *40*(1), 33-53.
[2] Arvedson, J., Clark, H., Lazarus, C., Schooling, T., Frymark, T. (2010a). The effects of Oral-motor exercises on swallowing in children: an evidence-based systematic review. *Developmental Medicine and Child Neurology, 52*(11), 1000-13.
[3] Arvedson, J., Clark, H., Lazarus, C., Schooling, T., Frymark, T. (2010b). Evidence-Based systematic review: Effects of oral motor interventions on feeding and swallowing in preterm infants. *American Journal of Speech-Language Pathology, 19*(4), 321-340.
[4] Bahr, D. (2008). The Oral motor debate: Where do we go from here? ASHA Convention, Chicago, Illinois. Poster session 2054; Poster board 368. file:///C:/Users/User/Downloads/2054_Bahr_Diane%20(1).pdf (accessed 3/9/2020).
[5] Bahr, D. (2011a). The Oral motor debate Part I: Understanding the problem. Oral Motor Institute for the Science of Oral Motor Treatment, *3*(1). http://oralmotorinstitute.org/mons/v3n1_bahr.html (accessed 3/9/2020).
[6] Bahr, D. (2011b). The Oral motor debate Part II: Exploring terminology and practice patterns. Oral Motor Institute for the Science of Oral Motor Treatment, *3*(2). http://www.oralmotorinstitute.org/mons/v3n2_bahr.html (accessed 3/9/2020).
[7] Bahr, D., & Banford, R. J. (2012). The oral motor debate part III: Exploring research and training needs/ideas. *Oral Motor Institute for the Science of Oral Motor Treatment, 4*(1). http://www.oralmotorinstitute.org/mons/v4n1_bahr.html (accessed 4/9/2020).
[8] Brown, K. E., Cranfill, T. B., Mahanna- Boden, S. (2010). Non- speech oral motor Exercises: Evidence and discrepancies. Presentation at ASHA Convention. file:///C:/Users/User/Downloads/2337-Brown-Karen%20(3).pdf (accessed 4/9/2020).
[9] Hockenberry, K. G., Bailey, R.L., Angell, M. E, Sawyer, J. (2009). The effects of oral motor exercises on tongue strength, oral-motor agility, speech intelligibility, and dysarthria in individuals with Parkinson's disease. file:///C:/Users/User/Downloads/2473_Hockenberry_Kylie%20(1).pdf (accessed 4/9/2020).
[10] Kamhi, A. G. (2006). Treatment decisions for children with speech-sound Disorders, *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools. 37*, 271-279.
[11] Kamhi, A. G. (2008). A Meme's eye view of Nonspeech oral- motor exercises. *Seminars in Speech and Language. 29*, 331-338.
[12] Kubacki, L. (a.n.d.) (2003). Oral motor exercises for treatment of motor speech disorders: Efficacy and evidence based practice issues: A literature review based on a tutorial by Heather M. Clark. https://pdf4pro.com/view/oral-motor-exercises-for-the-treatment-of-motor-speech-39abcd.html (accessed 5/9/2020).

[13] Lark, H. (2003). Neuromuscular treatments for speech and swallowing: A tutorial, *American Journal of Speech Language Pathology, 12*(4), 400-415.

[14] Lass, N. J., Pannbacker, M. (2008). The Application of evidence- based practice to nonspeech oral motor treatments. *Language Speech and Hearing Services in Schools. 39*, 308-421.

[15] Lazarus, C., Clark, H., Arvedson, J., Schooling, T. (2011). Evidence-based systematic Review: Effects of oral sensory-motor treatment on swallowing in Adults. National Center for Evidence Based Practice in Communication Disorders. American Speech-Language-Hearing Association, Rockville, MD https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/6621/d2bcc884221b1e922609f59ffad8fe69084e.pdf (accessed 5/9/2020).

[16] Lemmon, R., Harrison, M., Woods- McKnight, R., Bonnette, A., Jackson, K. (2010). Speech -Language professionals` perceptions of the efficacy of oral motor exercises. Annual Meeting of the American Speech- Language Hearing Association. Philadelphia, P.A. file:///C:/Users/User/Downloads/2297-Lemmon-Regina.pdf (accessed 6/9/2020).

[17] Lof, G. (2006). Logic, theory, and evidence against the use of non- speech oral motor Exercises to change speech sound productions. ASHA convention Invited Presentation. https://www.speech-language-therapy.com/pdf/papers/lof2006.pdf (accessed 6/9/2020).

[18] Lof, G. (2007). Reasons why non- speech oral motor exercises should not be used for speech sound disorders. ASHA Convention presentation, Boston, M.A. file:///C:/Users/User/Downloads/1597_Lof_Gregory.pdf (accessed 6/9/2020).

[19] Lof, G. (2009). Nonspeech oral motor exercises: An update on the Controversy. American Speech-Language-Hearing Association Convention. New Orleans, L.A. file:///C:/Users/User/Downloads/1955_Lof_Gregory_L.pdf (accessed 6//9/2020).

[20] Lof, G. & Watson, M. (2008). A Nationwide survey of nonspeech oral motor exercise use: Implications for evidence-based Practice. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools. 39*, 392-407.

[21] Lof, G. & Watson, M. (2010). Five reasons why nonspeech oral motor exercises (NSOME) do not work. *Perspectives on School- Based Issues.11*, 109-117.

[22] Lohman-Hawk, P. (2007). Efficacy of using an oral- motor approach to remediate distorted /r/. ASHA Annual Convention, Boston, MA. file:///C:/Users/User/Downloads/1978_Lohman-Hawk_Patricia_2.pdf (accessed 6//9/2020).

[23] Marshalla, P. (2007). Oral motor techniques are not new. Oral Motor Institute for the Science of Oral Motor Treatments, 1(1). http://www.oralmotorinstitute.org/mons/v1n1_marshalla.html (accessed 6/9/2020).

[24] Marshalla, P. (2008). Oral motor treatment vs. non-speech oral motor exercises. Oral Motor Institute for the Science of Oral Motor Treatments, 2(2). http://www.oralmotorinstitute.org/mons/v2n2_marshalla.html (accessed 7/9/2020).

[25] Marshalla, P. (2011). The Roots of oral-motor therapy: A personal view. https://pammarshalla.com/the-roots-of-oral-motor-therapy-a-personal-view/(accessed 7/9/2020).

[26] Marshalla, P. (2012). Horns, whistles, bite blocks, and straws: A review of tools/objects Used in articulation therapy by Van Riper and other traditional therapists. Oral Motor Institute for the Science of Oral Motor Treatments, 4(2). https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22774704/ (accessed 7/9/2020).

[27] McClauley, R. J., Strand, E., Lof, G. L., Schooling, T., Frymark, T. (2009). Evidence-based systematic review: Effects of nonspeech oral motor exercises on speech, American *Journal of Speech-Language Pathology. 18*, 343–360.

[28] Powel, T. W. (2008a). The use of nonspeech oral motor treatments for developmental speech sound production disorders: Interventions and interactions. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools. 39*, 374-379.

[29] Powel, T. W. (2008b). An integrated evaluation of nonspeech oral motor treatments. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools. 39*, 422-427.

[30] Ruscello, D. M. (2008).Nonspeech Oral motor treatment Issues related to children with developmental speech sound disorders. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools. 39*, 380–391.

[31] Ruscello, D. M. (2010). An abiding issue in the treatment of children with speech sound Disorders: A comparison of oral motor and production training for children with speech Sound disorders. *Evidence-based Communication Assessment and Intervention. 4* (1), 37-41.

[32] Schuette, A. R. (2011). Efficacy of non-speech oral motor exercises for developmental speech sound disorders, (A Research paper submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Master of Science Degree), Rehabilitation Institute In the Graduate School Southern Illinois University Carbondale, IL. https://opensiuc.lib.siu.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1083&context=gs_rp (accessed 7/9/2020).

[33] Sudbery, A., Wilson, E., Broaddus, T., Potter, N. (2006). Tongue strength in preschool children: Measures, implications, and revelations. Poster presented at ASHA Annual Convention. file:///C:/Users/User/Downloads/1572_Sudbery_Abigail.pdf (accessed 7/9/2020).

[34] Taps, J. (2007). Innovations for addressing single sound articulation errors in school settings. ASHA Conference, Boston. file:///C:/Users/User/Downloads/0448_Taps_Jennifer.pdf (accessed 7/9/2020).

Sana Kamal: A teacher at the University of Jordan, Faculty of Rehabilitation sciences and a speech Language pathologist (SLP) who spent 15 years in teaching communication, language development, language disorders, Clinical Phonetics, Language Science, In addition to Practicum courses in Speech. She worked as a clinician for assessment and treatment for various communication disorders. Her major research interests includes language Aspects (Syntax, morphology, semantics phonetics and pragmatics), in addition to different communication Disorders (language disorders for Children, Articulation and Phonological disorders, fluency disorders: cluttering and stuttering, Apraxia of speech and hearing impairment …..)

Teaching English through Play: Then and Now

Stephen J. Senderoff
University of Florida PA-S1, Gainesville, USA

Abstract—**In this present age of intercultural communication and social media, learning a second language has become of paramount importance to many students. English is perhaps the most demanded foreign language, and many teachers have found that one of the best ways to teach English is through the use of "play." While play has been a component of teaching English as a foreign language for many years, teachers have had to adapt their use of play to keep up with the technological and cultural changes taking place in educational institutions throughout the world. This paper aims to examine how the use of "play" in teaching English as a foreign language has both developed and changed over the last 35-40 years, through a review of educational literature. Examples of the types of "play" studied include drama and digital play, and it is found that different types of play provide students with different arenas in which to learn English. A more thorough look at technological play and second language learning would complement the findings of this paper.**

Index Terms—**play, language, education, second language learning, second language acquisition**

I. INTRODUCTION

In order to successfully show how the use of "play" in second language teaching has developed and changed over the last 35-40 years, it is important to first establish a definition of what the word "play" means in a linguistic context. This is not an easy task to accomplish, as Chance (1979) points out in the first line of his book *Learning Through Play,* "Play is like love: everybody knows what it is but nobody can define it." Alderman (1974) defines play as activities done solely for fun, enjoyment, and personal-satisfaction (p. 23-26). Catharine Garvey (1977) describes play as being pleasurable, spontaneous, inherently unproductive (Intrinsically motivated), and actively engaged with by the player (p. 4). Deci and Ryan (1985) believe that play is heavily involved in the curiosity-based, intrinsically motivated behavior that promotes children's cognitive development and learning (p. 122). Spodek and Saracho (1988) define play as being distinct from work (p. 11).

An activity is considered play, if it is not work. In other words, it is not the activity itself, but the reasons for that activity that determines whether it is play or work. According to this definition, any activity done for its own sake would be classified as play, while any activity done for an external reason or reward, such as a salary or pay, would be considered work. Spodek and Saracho use the example of professional versus amateur athletes. When a group of children get together to play a light game of football in the park, it is play. However, when Joe Montana, a professional football player, steps onto the field on Sunday afternoon, it is most definitely work, due to the seriousness and external motivation of the game. The activity didn't change, but the reason for the activity did. Sutton-Smith (2003) uses a 1985 Oxford English Dictionary definition of "fun" to define play: "to make a fool of someone or something." He goes on to say that one way to define play is, "behavioral parody of emotional vulnerability," because play makes fun of primary emotions like anger, fear, and narcissism. "It makes fun of it all" (p.13). In the Forward of Gaye Gronlund's book *Developmentally Appropriate Play,* Dr. Ellen Frede (2010) speaks on how there is a difference between play that is effective and play that doesn't provide students with opportunities to make choices, solve problems, work cooperatively with others, or develop rich language (p. xii). She then explains how children often view play as anything that they "don't *have* to do" (p. xiii).

This then begs the question, how can play (something that is intrinsically motivated and not "fun" unless done for its own sake) be used to teach students a second language (giving the play an extrinsic motivation and making it still something that the students "have to do")? It would seem that forcing students to partake in language play would defeat the purpose of play, but only if the students were not interested in the extrinsic motivation for the activity, that is, learning a second language. However if the students are interested in learning a second language, the acquisition of said language then becomes an intrinsic motivation for the play that is occurring, meaning that the children are playing a game or participating in play which has the purpose of bettering their language skills, so they become interested in the play because it is giving them a better grasp on the second language. Cook (2000) backs up this statement, "…for both the first and the second language learner, language play is much more than merely a potential *means.* As a widespread, highly valued use of language, of social and cognitive importance, it is also an *end.* Knowing a language and being able to function in communities which use that language, entails being able to understand and produce play with it, making this ability a necessary part of advanced proficiency" (p. 150). Cook describes language play as involving the patterning of linguistic form, the creation of alternative realities, and the social use of both of these for intimacy and conflict (p. 5). He also describes language play as enjoyable, consisting of fun and amusement, but apparently unnecessary to the day-to-day business of survival (p. 36). This type of language play he defines as semantic, or playing with the meaning of

words and combining them together to create fiction. He also speaks on formal language play: playing with the sound, rhyme, repetition, or grammatical structures of language to produce parallelisms or patterns.

Now that the definition of "play" has been established as any activity that has intrinsic motivation, is enjoyable, is "not work," and is partaken in voluntarily; it is possible to examine the role of play in second language acquisition. While the studies of play and second language learning have been heavily researched and written about for at least the last 50 years, the study of how play actually influences language learning seems to have become important only recently. Play boosts language learning by providing increased input and by increasing child engagement (Weisberg et. al, 2013).

Four characteristics of play link play and language skills. The first characteristic of play is that it often enlists symbolic thinking. For example, in play, props serve as symbols for real objects, like banana to telephone. This relationship between a prop and the object it represents resembles the relationship of a word to its referent. The second characteristic of play is that the social interaction inherent in play feeds into language development. This is because the taking on of different roles and negotiating different points of social play appear to encourage children to practice more advanced linguistic forms than they would use in other interactions. The third characteristic of play that links play and language skills is that the amount of language input available in play contributes to language development. Finally, the fourth characteristic of play is that when children are in control of an interaction (play) they are engaged. They speak about and listen to what interests them. This convergence seems to apply especially in the case of adult interaction. Guided play, which incorporates elements of adult scaffolding in service of a learning goal, but which primarily follows a child's lead and builds on his/her interests, provides a particularly effective language-learning environment. Indeed, this definition of play emphasizes the need for the child to lead the activity.

A Study by Julia Sevy-Biloon (2017) found that students showed more interest, had increased motivation and advanced more quickly in English language learning when games were incorporated into the class on a regular basis. Even though many of these students did not have intrinsic motivation for learning English (they thought it wouldn't help them in their future or that it was too difficult), games intrinsically motivated the learners to internalize the previous language introduced in the class. The study also found that competition is important because it can challenge students, and when students are challenged more motivation is created, making students more responsive, engaged and enthusiastic about participating and learning. Students, wanting to succeed in games, began to internalize and practice parts of speech and vocabulary. Using games seems to be a more effective, enjoyable method than forcing the students to study for a test. This teaching style seems to work best when students need some intrinsic motivation.

II. DRAMA

The first type of "play" used in teaching English as a foreign language that will be discussed in this paper is drama. From a very young age, children love using their imaginations and pretending that things are not quite as they seem. They jump from couch to bed, imagining that the floor is lava and would burn them alive if they were to accidently touch it. They pretend to be cowboys, princesses, and superheroes drinking tea together. While it may not seem like it at first, they are participating in the very old human tradition of drama and acting. After reading *Drama Techniques in Language Learning* by Maley and Duff from 1978, and then numerous articles from the last 10 years, It appears that while the majority of techniques involved in teaching a second language through the use of dramatic activities have stayed the same, there has been a shift in the main focus (from language focused and trying to reinforce the textbook, to culturally and interpersonally focused) of many of these activities.

It is important to first define "drama" in a classroom context before diving into the history of its use in foreign language classrooms. Drama is defined by Maley and Duff (1978) as "activities which give the student an opportunity to use his/her own personality in creating the material on which part of the language class is to be based" (p. 1). This definition is similar to Weisberg's belief that play should be a child led activity, which should only be moderated and directed by the teacher. Maley and Duff view drama as a means to motivate the students, to train them in emotional and interpersonal intelligence, and to teach them language in a more natural way. In an email interview conducted with Professor Sidney R. Homan of the University of Florida (2017), Professor Homan stated his belief that people are performing the art of drama whenever they interact with others. Every time someone interacts with another human being, they are fashioning a role for themselves, a persona, whether it be "as a friend or as a waiter." Homan goes on to say that drama is about the experience of the play for the actors and the audience; it is the meaning of the art that should be emphasized through the medium of acting. This is similar to Maley and Duff's view on drama, that it "reverses the learning process, that is, by beginning with meaning and moving to language from there" (p. 7). Gill (2013) emphasizes the communicative aspects of drama, describing it as an art form that allows students to talk freely and experiment with their second language.

Drama is used in many ways and for many reasons in the classroom. One strategy described by Maley and Duff that drama uses is encouraging students to view language from a different perspective than they ever have before. Drama pushes students to get a behind-the-scenes view of the words and actions which they are most likely to use in the language, giving them a better understanding of the underlying patterns present behind all languages. Drama has the students focus on the *functions* of language, *"such as persuading, agreeing, and accepting."* This requires an awareness of the total situation in which language is being used, which is considerably richer than the mere physical setting. The authors then provide a description of the "total situation:" *Setting,* is important because physical surroundings are often

incidental to what is being said. *Role and Status* plays a part in language teaching because "if we ignore roles, we teach language in a vacuum." The listeners and the roles that are being played in the setting matter to what is said and how it is spoken. *Mood, Attitude and Feeling* influence grammatical form; as these are all situations that can be practiced through imagining and acting. *Shared knowledge* is what the speaker and the listener already know (p. 4-7).

One example of how teaching English as a foreign language through drama has changed over the last 40 years is in memorization. According to Maley and Duff, "Words, other people's words, which have been mechanically memorized, can be ashes in the speaker's mouth." (p. 1). They believe that having students memorize lines to perform them in front of an audience later takes away from the intrinsic value of the *now,* by giving the dramatic activities extrinsic motivation (p.1). Gill (2013), on the other hand, believes that memorizing lines for rehearsals and ultimately performances allows the student to internalize the structure and meaning of the lines, giving them the ability to reproduce them automatically when required. Gill argues for rote-learning, as long as the teacher is helping the students to make connections. Shafka (2012) believes that performing rehearsed and memorized drama is beneficial for students learning English, as long as the students start out by learning modern drama without archaic English diction. This view of using performance and memorization starkly contrasts Maley and Duff's view that dramatic activities are not part of the preparation for some great final performance (p.1).

A. Drama and Emotional Intelligence

"Acting is the art which is common to all of us (everybody can act – more or less!) ... also an art which can help to build human beings into something better and more understanding than they are by nature – to build then into sensitive creatures able to feel the sorrow and joys of others as their own."

-Sybil Thorndike in Foreword for Peter Slade's book *Child Drama* (1954).

One area in which the use of drama has stayed mostly the same over the last 40 years has been the area of training both students and teachers in "Emotional Intelligence." According to Baklashova et al. (2016), emotional intelligence (EI) is defined as the potential of a person to perceive and accurately express one's own and others' emotions; their ability to support thinking processes through the use of emotions; their qualities such as self-awareness and motivation; and their ability to understand, express, and control emotions. EI can then be used as a tool to teach students to become more self-aware, and to better understand their own motives and driving forces. This greater level of self-awareness will allow students to be more honest with themselves in regard to their "strengths and weaknesses," making them more efficient at improving their second language skills, because they will know exactly which areas to focus on.

Maley and Duff speak on the use of drama to develop a child's EI. "Language is not purely an intellectual matter. …The intellect rarely functions without an element of emotion" (1978, p. 2) Drama focuses on the inherent meaning in every lingual interaction the students experience; they are not worrying about language for the sake of language alone, but they are learning language by focusing on the meaning of the interactions and the underlying social cues that take place. Many authors from the last decade agree that teaching English through drama also strengthens a student's EI. Gill (2013) describes how drama allows students to focus more on what they are saying and the meaning behind it, than if it is grammatically or structurally "accurate." This moves the student closer to conversational fluency than just focusing on the structural and grammatical elements of language, because it strengthens their ability to pick up on the underlying meaning in the second language. Shafka (2012) states that "good literature [drama] deals with some aspects of the human condition and attempts to come to some understanding of life, either symbolically or metaphorically, and can contribute to the emotional development of a child."

While the view that drama can increase a student's EI has not changed much over the years, many recent authors believe that this social and cultural aspect of teaching English through drama is becoming even more important than the lingual aspect itself. Heikkinen (2016) believes that because the world is becoming more and more complex socially, technologically and politically, socially critical thinking is more important now than ever. While Maley and Duff emphasized the importance of a student's social and interpersonal growth, they did not seem to attribute as much importance to the EI aspect of learning a language as modern authors. In this modern age of social media, being able to connect with people from other cultures and "put yourselves in their shoes," has become even more crucial.

B. Drama and Interdisciplinary Learning

One of the main concepts discussed in the literature which can help a second language instructor provide the best possible education for his or her students is the idea of using an interdisciplinary approach to teaching. Before describing how drama utilizes this style of teaching, it is important to first provide a brief definition. According to Psoinos (2012), "Interdisciplinary language teaching focuses on content, and thus imparts knowledge through the use of the target language." Much of the criticism involving second language instruction is centered around the idea that most students finish the class having only practiced skills that will help them pass a test. This is often due to the fact that most teachers focus solely on teaching students the vocabulary and grammar of a new language for the sake of language alone, without focusing enough on the content involved in the process. A more holistic approach to language teaching and learning involving a broader range of disciplines, such as geography, history, and the sciences, would create more interest in the students and more efficient language acquisition. Schleppegrell (2018) explains in her article that language teachers need to collaborate with subject-area teachers because of the subject-specific ways that language is

used. This interaction and teamwork helps learners bridge the gap between their language-learning classes and the other classes they take each day, providing them with more diverse exposure to English and extra avenues through which to practice their second language.

According to Maley and Duff, drama utilizes many different disciplines in order to teach English to students. They describe Drama as the "naughty child" who climbs over the high, exclusive walls set by teachers of other subjects. Drama takes *life* as the starting point for learning, not language. "Drama may involve music, history, painting, mathematics, skiing, photography, cooking – anything. It does not respect subject barriers" (p. 10). Professor Homan (2017) also backs up this view of drama as being an interdisciplinary teaching style, "I've used drama… in a variety of courses by colleagues at the University of Florida, where I tried to complement a fellow teacher and his or her subject with dramatizing that subject." Homan believes that drama can enhance and inform the lives of those who partake in it, no matter if the participant is a doctor trying to improve their "bedside manner," or a businessperson wanting to grow in their ability to interact with clients. It would also seem that learning about other subjects and disciplines would be even more important in the modern day, due to the fact that people are no longer expected to pick a single career out of high school and college and stick with that career until the day they retire.

Another reason why teaching a foreign language through the use of many disciplines with drama is very successful is because many young students are accustomed to one teacher giving them lessons in a broad range of subjects. In most primary schools throughout the world, students receive all of their instruction in the differing subjects from the same teacher during a school day. However, students usually will have to receive their foreign language instruction from a native speaker of that language, especially in places where both languages are so rarely spoken by a single educator. Rather than making the foreign language teacher a forty-five-minute part of the day, schools could implement interdisciplinary learning and have the foreign language teacher teach the basics of other subjects in that language, thus giving students more context for vocabulary and grammar.

III. TECHNOLOGY

Nothing has changed education more in the last 35-40 years than the incredible advances made in the field of technology. If you needed to find information 40 years ago, you would be directed to a large stack of dusty encyclopedias in a bookshelf and told to "look it up." Today, almost everyone has a smartphone in their pocket with access to countless search engines. Supercomputers used to take up a whole room; now they fit in the palm of your hand. This surge of technology has greatly affected how human beings go about "playing." Children used to have to come up with games entirely on their own and with only things in the "real world" to use as "props." This meant that the imagination was key in play (remember the floor as lava example from earlier?). With the influx of technology, children are thrust into virtual reality and hyper-realistic graphics, taking imagination almost entirely out of the picture. A child can now turn on their TV and spend hours living the life of a digital professional athlete, all from the comfort of their air-conditioned room. While some virtual reality and role-playing games are starting to bring back the element of imagination in second language learning through play, technology still has a long way to go to match the imagination of a child.

A. Past Trends

In his book, *Computers and English Language Learning,* John Higgins (1995) speaks on computers when they were first beginning to be used heavily in education and English language teaching. In the introduction, Higgins states that language learning has little to do with machines (technology and computers in general), but a great deal to do with play. Higgins values CALL (computer-assisted language learning) because it allows for more language exploration and richer play than had ever been possible before (p. v). Computers contribute to learning being intrinsically motivated (playful) because students have more fun being on the computer and are likely to use it more than a book with exercises (p. 92). This is why even children with ADHD can sit in front of a screen for hours and hours on end without needing anything but the computer and its games to keep their attention. CALL changes the role of the teacher from "knower" to mediator and advisor whose job is to lead the child through activities on the computer (p. 7). This is similar to children learning English through the use of drama, in that in both instances the teachers are allowing the child to take control of his/her own learning.

While Higgins clearly thinks highly of using computers in language learning, it is important to note that a major theme of his book is that computers are inferior to humans. For example, Higgins frequently describes computers as "stupid," functioning best as "slaves" to humans, and as "unintelligent" (p. 5,18,36,37). He then states that "many things that humans do effortlessly are done at best laboriously by machines" (p. 32). This view of computers as being lowly machines with the sole purpose of serving humans is in stark contrast to the common view of today's researchers: that computers and technology have unlimited potential and extreme intelligence (Pesudo and Renau, 2016; Forsythe 2013; Figueroa Flores 2015). According to Higgins, computers seem to be more about copying what teachers and humans are already doing in education, rather than using virtual reality or technology to come up with something new (p. 33). Most of the games on computers described in his book seem to just be quicker and neater versions of games that could just as well be played with pencil and paper (p. 5).

B. Current Trends

Technology has taken the educational world by storm and is now being heavily used to teach English in a foreign language setting. Forsythe (2013) describes how technology allows instant and free contact between people in countries around the globe through social media and video conferencing (such as *Facebook* and *Skype*). This means that a teacher in Japan can set up a video conference with a teacher in England, allowing the two classes to interact with each other and share their different cultures and languages. For instance, the games described by Sevy-Biloon (2017) such as charades and monopoly could be played between Japanese and American students over a *Skype* or *Zoom* session. Forsythe (2013) goes on to list websites such as *Quizlet* and *Livemocha* which allow students to practice English through the use of flash cards and timed activities, creating a competition in which the goal is to beat their old times and the times of other students. Another interesting website Forsythe describes in his article is *Second Life,* in which students can create an avatar and interact with foreign speakers in a virtual world. This is very similar to learning English through drama, in that it provides a role and setting to the conversation.

One popular trend in language teaching today is that of Gamification, or the use of game mechanics in a typically non-game related context, such as second language learning (Figueroa Flores 2015). Figueroa Flores states that the main objective of using Gamification is to "increase participation and motivate users through the use of game elements such as points, leaderboards, and immediate feedback." These game elements empower and engage the "user" (student) by giving them processes to work through and tasks to complete. Gamification is especially useful in teaching the "digital natives" (students who grew up blogging, texting, and gaming), because receiving information through technology is what they are most accustomed to. A good example of gamification in language learning is the popular smartphone application *Duolingo. Duolingo* gives users practice with speaking, listening, grammar and vocabulary in many different foreign languages. The app gives immediate feedback and even offers daily reminders with notifications. One criticism of *Duolingo* is that many of the sentences a user practices with are random generations and hardly ever take place in a real-world context. However, it is a fun app that has already helped many people progress towards learning a second language. Gamification motivates users intrinsically by creating in students the desire to master the game and providing students with autonomy and a sense of belonging. In addition to this, there are also extrinsic rewards such as levels, points, and badges to be obtained. While pure play is intrinsically motivated, the extrinsic motivation does create an even better learning environment for students learning a second language through gamification.

Another interesting technological trend in using play to teach English as a foreign language is 3D virtual reality (Molka-Danielsen et al. 2016). Advocates for the use of virtual technology in education and language learning claim that 3D environments engage the user; "facilitating comprehension, interaction, and collaboration by the means of situating learning materials in an immersive context." If a teacher can combine virtual reality with pedagogical tools such as role playing and interdisciplinary learning, students will greatly benefit from these 3D environments. Molka-Danielsen provides an example of this sort of environment by analyzing a study in which Austrian and Norwegian students interacted in a virtual village mystery game using the English language. The researcher found that the students' oral proficiency in English greatly increased from playing the game. There were many reasons for the benefits received from the 3D game, such as the fact that students pursued shared academic goals to complete the task of finding out why the inhabitants of the virtual village had disappeared. Also, students were intrinsically motivated to solve the mystery, and because the only way to do this was by speaking in English to one another, they received a great amount of practice through these exchanges. Finally, students participated in play because they were personally interested in the game and the mystery, crime, and private investigation that took place in the virtual environment. Another point that Molka-Danielsen makes in regard to the benefit of virtual reality is that participating in activities such as these cuts down on the test anxiety most students suffer from when forced to answer questions in a typical quiz or test setting.

C. Drawbacks of Technology in Education

Many researchers have expressed their concern with how technology is affecting play and education. Klorer (2009) believes that communication through technology and the synthetic world in which technological play operates is the reason why children are not developing sound interpersonal skills. She also argues that staring at a screen takes away from the "relational aspect of eye-to-eye gazing." Perhaps reasons like this are why some teachers are still resistant to implementing technology into their teaching activities, despite the mainstream love of technology (Renau and Pesudo, 2016). Even Figueroa Flores (2015) admits that while gamification is clearly beneficial to the world of second language learning, it does promote introversion and shyness in its users. After Nguyen and Le's study (2020) looked at how students in Vietnam responded to language learning from a textbook, many of the students commented that they would learn better working with other members of the class, rather than by themselves in a book. This lack of interpersonal collaboration in language acquisition then occurs not only in technology but also from the classic textbook approach. Technology is clearly beneficial to education; however, it is important that educators keep in mind the human aspect of learning a language.

IV. CONCLUSION

The use of play in teaching English as a foreign language has changed and developed over the last 35 to 40 years. The dramatic arts teach students to focus on the meaning being conveyed, rather than just the grammatical and

structural elements of language. While not much has changed in the pedagogy of drama, teachers nowadays place a very heavy focus on developing interpersonal skills and learning about other cultures due to social media and one-world connectedness. The evolution of technology has also had a very large impact on second language instruction. When computers became a part of the English teacher's repertoire they were often viewed as simple machines that were only useful for replicating what an everyday teacher could do (Higgins 1995). In the present day however, functions such as gamification and virtual reality have completely changed how instructors go about teaching foreign languages. Research also indicates that while technology is likely to continue to be a large part of foreign language instruction, it can also be detrimental in some ways to the development of a student's social skills. Hopefully, the information in this paper is useful for any teacher looking to utilize "play" in their foreign language class.

The research in this paper raises further questions. With all the new technology and video game systems becoming integrated into teaching foreign languages, will there ever be a time when language classes are taught solely with virtual reality? What is the next step in technology and language teaching? With language evolving every year, will Shakespeare ever be completely obsolete in classrooms? While some research already addresses these questions, further research will still be needed as education changes each and every year.

REFERENCES

[1] Alderman, R. B. (1974). Psychological Behavior in Sport. Philadelphia, PA: W. B. Saunders, 23-26.
[2] Baklashova, T. A and Galishnikova, E. M and Khafizova, L. A. (2016). "Prerequisites for Emotional Intelligence Formation in Second Language Learning and Career Choice." *International Journal of Environmental and Science Education*, *11(5),* 923-930.
[3] Chance, Paul. (1979). Learning Through Play. New Brunswick, NJ: Johnson & Johnson Baby Products Company.
[4] Cook, G. (2000). Language play, Language learning. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[5] Deci, E.L and R. M. Ryan. (1985). Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behaviour. New York: Plenum, 122.
[6] Figueroa F and Francisco, J. (2015). "Using Gamification to Enhance Second Language Learning." *Digital Education Review*, (*27*), 32-54.
[7] Forsythe, E. (2013). Autonomous Language Learning with Technology. *JALT CALL Journal*, *9(3),* 329-337.
[8] Garvey, C. (1977). Play. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
[9] Gill, C. (2013). Oral Communication in ESL through Improvisations, Playwriting and Rehearsals. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, *4(1),* 34-41.
[10] Gronlund, G. Forward by Ellen Frede. (2010). Developmentally Appropriate Play: Guiding Young Children to a Higher Level. St. Paul, MN: Redleaf Press.
[11] Heikkinen, H. M. (2016). Drama and Citizenship--Devised Drama for Education. *Journal of Social Science Education*, *15(4),* 32-39.
[12] Higgins, J. (1995). Computers and English Language Learning. New York: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
[13] Homan, S. R. (2017). Email Interview with author, University of Florida. 7 April 2017.
[14] Klorer, G. P. (2009). The Effects of Technological Overload on Children: An Art Therapist's Perspective. *Art Therapy: Journal of the American Art Therapy Association*, *26(2),* 80-82.
[15] Le, D. T. K and Nguyen, C. T. (2020). Communicative Language Teaching: Do Tasks and Activities in School Textbooks Facilitate Learners' Development of Communicative Competence. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research 11(5),* 688-700.
[16] Maley, A and Duff, A. (1978). Drama Techniques in Language Learning. Cambridge University Press.
[17] Molka-Danielsen, J and Hadjistassou, S. and Messl-Egghart, G. (2016). Investigating the Affective Learning in a 3D Virtual Learning Environment: The Case Study of the Chatterdale Mystery. *Research publishing.net*, Paper presented at the EUROCALL 2016 Conference (23rd, Limassol, Cyprus, Aug 24-27, 2016).
[18] Pesudo, M and Renau, M. L. (2016). Analysis of the implementation of a WebQuest for learning English in a secondary school in Spain. *International Journal of Education and Development using Information and Communication Technology (IJEDICT), 12(2),* 26-49.
[19] Psoinos, D. I. (2012). Do Our Coursebooks Live up to the Challenges of Today? Adopting an Interdisciplinary Approach to TEFL. *Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal*, *12(2)*, 177-180.
[20] Schleppegrell, M. J. (2018). The knowledge base for language teaching: What is the English to be taught as content? *Language Teaching Research, 24(1),* 17-27.
[21] Sevy-Biloon, J. (2017). Different Reasons to Play Games in an English Language Class. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, *5(1)*, 84-93.
[22] Shakfa, M. D. A. (2012). Difficulties Students Face in Understanding Drama in English Literature at the Islamic University of Gaza (IUG). *English Language Teaching*, *5(9)*, 95-103.
[23] Spodek, B and Saracho, O. N. (1988). The Challenge of Educational Play. Play as a Medium for Learning and Development. Ed. by Doris Bergen. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann Educational Books, Inc, 11.
[24] Sutton-Smith, B. (2003). Play as a Parody of Emotional Vulnerability. Play and Educational Theory and Practice. Ed. by Donald E. Lytle. Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers.
[25] Weisberg, D, S and Zosh, J. M and Hirsh-Pasek, K. and Golinkoff, R. M. (2013). Talking It Up: Play, Language Development, and the Role of Adult Support. *American Journal of Play*, *6(1),* 39-54.

Stephen J. Senderoff was born in New Haven, Connecticut in 1996. He received his BA in English from the University of Florida in 2019, where he specialized in creative writing and poetry. Over the past year he has worked as a nurse tech at UF Health Shands Hospital in Gainesville, Florida, as well as a private caregiver. In July of 2020 he began attending the University of Florida School of Physician Assistant Studies.

The Meaning-shift Unit of Chinese Intensifiers: A Corpus-based Study[*]

Guobing Liu
Faculty of International Studies, Henan Normal University, Xinxiang, China

Xiaolian Zhang
Faculty of International Studies, Henan Normal University, Xinxiang, China

Abstract—**Meaning-Shift unit put forward by John Sinclair is the latest theory of meaning in corpus linguistics in the early 21st century. In this paper, it aims to analyze the meaning units of *wanquan*, in an attempt to shed light on whether Meaning-Shift unit is valid to account for the behavior of such a Chinese intensifier. The result illustrates that Meaning-Shift unit is influenced by the categories of co-selection, in which semantic prosody plays a decisive role, and that *wanquan* has four types of Meaning-Shift units, each of which has a canonical form and several possible variants.**

Index Terms—**meaning-shift unit, corpus linguistics, intensifier, co-selection, semantic prosody**

I. INTRODUCTION

Meaning-Shift unit (MSU), the most innovative development to corpus linguistics, was put forward by John Sinclair (Sinclair, 2007; 2010) who spent his whole life in search for meaning in authentic texts. Compared with his previous studies such as idiom principle and open-choice principle, phraseological tendency and terminological tendency, extended unit of meaning, etc. (Sinclair, 1991; 1996; 2004), one idiosyncratic nature that MSU share is meaning is changeable in the process of communication. Generally speaking, MSU can be summed up in the following three major parts. First, extended unit of meaning (EUM) shall be used as the research approach. In EUM the core and semantic prosody are obligatory categories, while collocation, colligation and semantic preference are optional ones. The core can also be called as node word. It is closely related with collocation, colligation, semantic preference and semantic prosody on lexical, grammatical, semantic and pragmatic levels respectively. Importantly, semantic prosody plays a pivotal role in the identification of attitudinal meanings, serving as an indicator of speakers' or writers' communicative purposes (Louw, 1993; Sinclair, 1996; 2004; Stubbs, 2009). Second, the units of meaning are determined by the co-selection mechanism. Meaning units are strongly associated with repetition and co-occurrence of phrases rather than with specific words (Sinclair, 2008:10). The ambient meaning will shift by some categories of co-selection (Sinclair, 2007:3), that is to say, each new combination of words will have an influence on the original meaning (Cheng et al., 2008). But due to the decisive impact of semantic prosody (Sinclair, 2010; Gao and Wei, 2017:19), it is significant to interpret it in local contexts (Partington, 2004; O'Halloran, 2007; Bednarek, 2008a). Third, local grammar is a new method to describe meaning units. Sinclair (2010:42) claimed that every word apart from individual words and fixed phrases should have its own local grammar. Different from previous methods to local grammar (Hunston and Sinclair, 2000; Barnbrook, 2002; Allen, 2005; Bednarek, 2008b; Su, 2015), the theory elaborated at this point does not starts from specific meanings but from specific words in texts. Specifically, it starts from structuralizing a lexical item, and then describes its meanings from both lexical and grammatical levels in local contexts (Gao and Wei, 2017:19).

The theory of MSU provides a clear way to study meaning, the most important theme in corpus linguistics. It first focuses on a specific lexis, then classifies the canonical forms and their variants through the co-selection mechanism, and eventually excavates the internal meanings along with the discoursal functions. A great number of works have mushroomed since 2007 when the MSU theory was proposed. For example, Cheng et al. (2008) provided an analytical procedure using ConcGram to identify meaning-shift units, which casts light on later studies (see Wray, 2012; Gao and Wei, 2017). However, a close look at the present situation of linguistics in China indicates that the MSU theory doesn't receive enough attention. Gao and Wei (2017) are the first researchers who introduced the theory to China. They not only discussed the core implication and the analytical procedure of Meaning-Shift unit, but also took the verb POSE as an example to demonstrate how it worked. Li (2018) emphasized the importance of context and analyzed the local grammars by analyzing the verb SEVER and the phrase 'what a(n) N'. Lu and Wu (2019) made a contrastive analysis between Chinese and English popular phrases on their regularity and mechanism of MSU from a diachronic perspective. Surprisingly, most studies have been conducted to uncover the characteristics of English language. In this paper, we attempt to shed light on whether Meaning-Shift unit is valid to account for the behavior of Chinese language, such as

'完全' (*wanquan*), an intensifier, which is analogous to *completely* or *totally* in some sense.

II. PREVIOUS STUDIES OF INTENSIFIERS

Language researchers do not have a precise definition of intensifiers. For example, Bolinger (1972:17) described intensifiers as a gradable system of some specific properties, which had a reinforcing or lowering effect. According to Labov (1984:43), intensifiers were the kernel of social and emotional expressions with a gradient feature. Quirk et al. (1985) and Crystal (2011) considered intensifiers as adverbs whose function was to aggravate or mitigate the components of sentences. Nevertheless, there comes to one unanimous proposition that intensifiers have some semantic functions like strengthening tones and highlighting information. Intensifiers in general identify two broad types of meanings by which functional assessment may be conveyed: one is amplifiers and the other downtoners (Quirk, 1985:589). The former, as the name implied, amplifies discoursal functions, such adverbs as *absolutely*, *totally*, *completely*, etc. in English and '十分' (*shifen*), '完全' (*wanquan*), '非常' (*feichang*), '最' (*zui*) and so on in Chinese; while the later truncated the discoursal meanings, such adverbs as *slightly*, *part of*, *enough*, etc. in English and '稍微' (*shaowei*), '有些' (*youxie*), '略' (*lüe*) and so on in Chinese. More specifically, amplifiers can be divided into two subsets, namely maximizers and boosters, while downtoners comprise four subsets, e.g., approximators, compromisers, diminishers and minimizers (Quirk, 1985:589). These intensifiers are on a continuum of degree, that is, their distinction is not easy to make (Kennedy and McNally, 2005).

The empirical studies on intensifiers at home and abroad conclude the following five aspects. (1) Intensifiers' syntactic structures and categories. For instance, Bolinger (1972) suggested that most intensifiers were lexical items, covering 'relatively grammaticized' and 'relatively ungrammaticized', while non-lexical intensifiers involved prosodic devices or repetitions. Quirk et al. (1985) considered intensifiers should not be restricted to those having an increase in intensification, but refer to an abstract intensity scale, which could be relatively low or high and could also be applied to a predicate or part of a predicate. (2) Synchronic and diachronic studies on intensifiers. For instance, Ito and Tagliamonte (2003) summarized the historical trajectory of language changes by investigating intensifiers from 12th century to 20th century. Tagliamonte and Roberts (2005) analyzed the usage of intensifiers in *Friends*, one of the American popular television series, and predicted that media language was a token for innovative words. Partington (1993) made a survey on changes of meanings and functions of intensifiers like *very*, *utterly*, etc. from both synchronic and diachronic perspectives. (3) Social factors affecting the use of intensifiers. Lakoff (1975) pinpointed that women compared with men were more inclined to use intensifiers even though they were treated as a vulnerable group. Tagliamonte (2008) did a survey on what intensifiers Torontonians normally used, which indicated that the intensifier system may be influenced by social factors like age and sex. Xiao and Tao (2007) explored the variations of 33 amplifiers from BNC corpus within extra-linguistic parameters, bringing sociolinguistic concerns to corpus-based studies. (4) The collocational or collo-structional analysis measuring the relationship between adjectives and intensifiers (or intensifier constructions). Altenberg (1991) analyzed the repeated collocates of intensifiers in London-Lund Corpus of Spoken English, showing that the adjectives modified by intensifiers were also gradable, which were largely dependent on the intensifiers' categories. Kennedy (2003) investigated the collocational relation between intensifiers and their companying words, and found some specific grammatical and semantic features. Shao et al. (2017) adopted a collostructional analysis to calculate the collostructional strength between adjectives and the 'amplifier + adjective' construction by utilizing cluster analysis and correspondence analysis, which proved that such way was mighty to distinguish the nuances of difference between intensifiers and their collocates. (5) Intensifiers' semantic prosody and preference. Louw (1993) found that the right collocates of intensifiers usually carried bad meanings, thus infecting the whole context becoming negative. Tao (2007) took *utterly* as an example to study its linguistic features and found that it could be used as a modifier or as a discourse marker, symbolizing a positive prosody in general. Su (2016) investigated how second language learners used intensifiers from both semantic and sociolinguistic perspectives, the result of which indicated that Chinese English learners had different understandings towards intensifiers compared to native speakers. In short, the studies exemplified above concentrate on English intensifiers and have made innumerable achievements. However, few researches have been carried on Chinese language, let alone to use the MSU theory as the starting points. Thus, we are going to select a Chinese intensifier as our research object, with the aim to enrich the theoretical connotation of Meaning-Shift unit and broaden its empirical research areas.

III. DATA AND METHOD

A. Research Questions

This study seeks to address the following two questions:
(1) What is the relationship between frequency and the MSUs concerning the intensifier *wanquan*?
(2) How many MSUs does *wanquan* have and what are the canonical forms and their variants respectively?

B. Corpus

The corpus we used is from the Chinese National Corpus (the CNC, also known as *Guojia Yuwei Yuliaoku*), comprising nearly 100 million Chinese characters. It covers three main territories over the past hundred years, namely

social sciences, natural sciences, and miscellany, which gives a vivid description of Chinese language in the modern society. This corpus is available online (http://corpus.zhonghuayuwen.org/). We first got 4,184 concordance lines of *wanquan* in total from the website and saved them in TXT format. Secondly, we extracted 500 concordance lines randomly by Conc_Sampler (Liang et al., 2010). After manual inspection, however, 455 desirable concordance lines were left. Lastly, PowerConc 1.0 was utilized to discover the linguistic features of the Chinese intensifier.

C. Research Method

Since meanings are achieved by phrases rather than lexical items, units of meaning will arise from recurrent word sequences or the co-selection of words (Sinclair, 2008). Cheng et al. (2008) following Sinclair's step proposed an analytical procedure to continue finding meaning units. The procedure concludes four steps: (1) make an analysis of the core in concordance lines through EUM, not only identifying its text configurations but also counting their frequency; (2) search for the canonical forms based on frequency and identify their meanings; (3) classify the variants according to configurations' semantic prosody; (4) draw a conclusion on the Meaning-Shift units of the core. This study will use such procedure to recognize the MSUs of *wanquan*, trying to demonstrate the feasibility of the MSU theory in Chinese language.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Co-selection

Co-selection means speakers select words that share same discoursal features in daily communication (Morley and Partington, 2009:139), the purpose of which is to produce units of meaning (Sinclair, 1987; 2004). Wei (2012:1) elaborated the notion in three aspects—co-selection of lexis and lexis, co-selection of lexis and grammar, and co-selection of pattern and meaning. Extended meaning unit, the basic element of Meaning-Shift unit, is the paradigm to conduct researches on co-selection, which consists of five categories, e.g., the core, collocation, colligation, semantic preference and semantic prosody. The core is the word we put our focus on, which is an indispensable part of meaning units. Collocation is the co-occurrence of words companying the core whilst colligation is concerned with word class around it. Semantic preference refers to items restricted by their lexical fields, that is, these items constitute the main topics of texts. Semantic prosody shares equal status with the core, both of which are essential to this theory, and it's also an indication of the core's overall meaning in specific contexts. Here we take *wanquan* as an example to demonstrate the characteristics of co-selection under the EUM theory. The list below merely enumerates the typical and high-frequency phrasal items.

(1) The Core: 完全 (*wanquan*)

(2) Collocation: 不同 (*butong*), 相同 (*xiangtong*), 可以 (*keyi*), 不能 (*buneng*), 没有 (*meiyou*), 正确 (*zhengque*), 相反 (*xiangfan*), 问题 (*wenti*)

(3) Colligation: 1) Animate subject: 他们 (*tamen*), 他 (*ta*), 她 (*ta*), 我 (*wo*), 自己 (*ziji*)
2) Inanimate subject: 这 (*zhe*), 它 (ta), 目的 (*mudi*), 原则 (*yuanze*)
3) Notional verb: 脱离 (*tuoli*), 沉浸 (*chenjin*), 改变 (*gaibian*)
4) Adjective: 一样 (*yiyang*), 正确 (*zhengque*), 相反 (*xiangfan*)
5) Negative word: 不 (*bu*), 不能 (*buneng*), 没有 (*meiyou*)
6) Link verb: 是 (*shi*)

(4) Semantic Preference: 问题类 (*wenti lei*), 比较类 (*bijiao lei*), 陈述类 (*chenshu lei*)

(5) Semantic Prosody: 客观描述事物、事件和实验现象 (*keguan miaoshu shiwu, shijian he shiyan xianxiang*), 朝向积极方向发展 (*chaoxiang jiji fangxiang fangzhan*), 出现不好结果 (*chuxian buhao jieguo*), 提供解决方案 (*tigong jiejue fang'an*)

It is suggested that the Chinese intensifier have complex patterns of behavior, whose primary function is to be an adjunct which modifies adjectives, denoting the thorough degree and the overall scope. Sometimes, it occurs in comparative sentences. The subjects in '完全' patterns are mostly inanimate, such as pronouns like '这' (*zhe: this*, which means it pronounced as *zhe* in Chinese, and literally means *this* in English), '它' (*ta: it*) and '目的' (*mudi: purpose*), '原则' (*yuanze: principle*), '心情' (*xinqing: feeling*), '问题' (*wenti: problem*), '方案' (*fang'an: plan*), '筹备' (*choubei: arrangement*), '反应' (*fanying: reaction*), '思想' (*sixiang: thought*), etc.; when the subjects are animate, they are pronouns like '他们' (*tamen: they*), '他' (*ta: he*), '她' (*ta: she*), '我' (*wo: I*), '自己' (*ziji: self*) and '作者' (*zuozhe: author*), '孩子' (*haizi: child/children*), '导游' (*daoyou: guide*), '政府' (*zhengfu: government*), '中国人' (*zhongguoren: Chinese*), etc. Obviously, such features of subjects are not in conformity with those of Chinese sentences where animate subjects outnumber inanimate ones. In addition, the concordance lines demonstrate that the core and negative words are in high occurrence. The negative words can either precede '完全' or follow it. In the first case, the negative words are '不', '不能', '并不', '并非', '没有', which are equivalent to *not* in English, while in the second case, the negative words are '不能' (*buneng: cannot*), '不了解' (*bu liaojie: not understand*), '不同' (*butong: not different*), '不适合' (*bu shihe: not suitable*), etc. Another characteristic of '完全' is that it is closely associated with the link verb '是' (*shi: be*)

in order to make judgements on something. If '完全' is in the left of '是', the '完全+是' pattern will be followed by noun groups, propositions or adjectives that transformed their word class from verbs. If '完全' is in the right of '是', the '是+完全' pattern will be followed by adjectives, such as '一样的' (*yiyangde: identical*), '正确的' (*zhengquede: correct*), '必要的' (*biyaode: necessary*), '独立的' (*dulide: independent*), etc. Although they have different collocates, the two patterns both function to strengthen the degree of judgements. From the above analysis, we conclude that *wanquan* has three semantic preferences, which are preference for problem, preference for comparison and preference for description. In accordance with these preferences, we summarize three types of semantic prosody in great detail—to describe objects, states or experimental phenomena, to develop towards positive directions, to get bad results, and to provide solutions.

B. Semantic Prosody

We chose the following sentences in the CNC, which are all in problem situation for the purpose of finding out how co-selection works, notably the working mechanism of semantic prosody.

(1) 然而，现实情况说明，这个观念问题并不是完全解决了，而是还需要在新形势下不断来解决。(*ran'er, xianshi qingkuang shuoming, zhege guannian wenti bing bushi wanquan jiejue le, ershi hai xuyao zai xin xingshi xia buduan lai jiejue.*)

Translation: However, the reality suggests that this conceptual problem is not thoroughly solved, which still needs to be worked out under new situations.

(2) 对于某些暂时还不能完全想通的问题，应当作耐心细致的说服教育，不要强迫表态，允许有一个继续学习，逐步认识的过程。(*duiyu mouxie zanshi hai buneng wanquan xiangtongde wenti, yingdang zuo naixin xizhide shuofu jiaoyu, buyao qiangpo biaotai, yunxu you yige jixu xuexi, zhubu renshide guocheng*.)

Translation: For problems which cannot be fully understood for the moment, we should be patient and meticulous in persuasion rather than forcing to make a statement, and allow the process of persistent studying and progressive improvement.

(3) 除了那些旧社会遗留的问题以外，大多数问题已完全不同于旧中国的情况，不再是剥削制度的产物。(*chule naxie jiushehui yiliude wenti yiwai, daduoshu wenti yi wanquan butongyu jiuzhongguode qingkuang, buzai shi boxue zhidude chanwu.*)

Translation: Except for the problems left over by the old society, most of them are now completely different since they're no longer the products of the exploitation system.

(4) 但如何说明工人阶级同资产阶级存在着剥削关系，他们之间是存在着根本利益完全相反的矛盾这一问题，却又不能自圆其说了，那势必要走到"修正"马克思主义关于阶级斗争的基本理论，而堕落到修正主义的泥坑。(*dan ruhe shuoming gongrenjieji tong zichanjieji cunzai zhe boxue guanxi, tamen zhijian shi cunzai zhe genbenliyi wanquan xiangfande moudun zheyi wenti, que you buneng ziyuanqishuo le, na shibi yao zoudao "xiuzheng" makesizhuyi guanyu jiejidouzhengde jiben lilun, er duoluo dao xiuzhengzhuyi de nikeng.*)

Translation: But since they cannot justify themselves on the matter that there is an exploitative relationship between the working class and the bourgeoisie, whose interests are totally opposite, there is no doubt that they will come to revise Marxist theory about class struggle, and eventually to the mire of revisionism.

The sentences demonstrated above have inanimate subjects like '问题' (*wenti: problems, matter*) apart from sentence (4) which is started by 'they'. In sentence (1), '完全' is part of the predicate, modifying the following verb '解决' (*jiejue: solve*), which expresses the meaning of [Degree: thorough]. It collocates with '解决', '问题', indicating a resolution to the conceptual problem that we shall renew our determination to work harder. In sentence (2), '完全' also has the meaning of [Degree: thorough] and of providing advice, which serves as a body of the noun group of '问题' and modifies the adjective '想通的' (*xiangtongde: be understood*) which is transformed from its verb form. As a part of the predicate, '完全' in sentence (3) modifies '不同于' (*butongyu: be different from*), which is treated as a verb in Chinese sentences, and in this sense the intensifier strengthens the degree of the difference from all angles, implying a positive meaning that the problems have a turnaround and will develop towards a good new situation. In sentence (4), prior to the adjective '相反的' (*xiangfande: opposite*), the intensifier means [Contrast: all], which denotes a negative prosody.

When comparing sentence (1) and sentence (2), we find that both cores have a closed relationship with '问题', but their colligations are different. The former's structure is in a complete sentence, which can be presented as 'N+不是+完全+V', while the latter is in an uncompleted one, i.e. a noun phrase, which is '不能+完全+Adj+N'. In fact, the adjectives '想通的' in sentence (2) is a variant of the verb '想通', so that the second structure can be transformed into 'N+不能+完全+V'. Since '不是' and '不能' are each other's synonym, both sharing negative meanings, we conclude the two sentences own a same structure. Moreover, their semantic preferences are for '问题', and they both have the prosody of putting forward solutions to existing problems. Considering all the factors we discussed, we put the two lexical structures into one meaning unit.

Now, let's look at another different situation. The cores in sentence (3) and sentence (4) neither have similar collocates nor lexical structures. The former modifies the verb '不同于', whose lexical structure is '完全+V+Adj+N',

while the latter modifies the adjective '相反的', having the behavior pattern of 'V+N+完全+Adj+N'. Although both patterns are used in the situation of comparison, there are still subtle differences. For example, the collocation of the former are certain words about the old China, and its semantic prosody is to develop towards a positive direction, whereas the latter associates closely with words about class struggle and its semantic prosody is to have an unfavorable outcome. Therefore, they belong to different units of meaning, which are called Meaning-Shift units.

To summarize, the unit of meaning is identified by the five categories of the co-selection theory. In other words, the core, collocation, colligation, semantic preference and semantic prosody make coordinated contributions to the realization of meaning units. However, only when the semantic prosody changes, will the meaning units shift accordingly. The other four categories do have an influence on discoursal meanings and functions, so sometimes their changes will incur the prosody changes, thus forming a shift of meaning unit, but sometimes they don't. Secondly, the prosody is the decisive factor to the unit of meaning. For example, in sentence (3) and sentence (4), their different prosodies make them belong to different meaning units, which further confirms that semantic prosody is in fact a unit of meaning (Gao and Wei, 2017).

C. Textual Configuration

The meaning units of phraseological items could be found in their repeated patterns across large text collections (Stubbs, 2009:117). Gao and Wei (2017:16) discussed that meaning units could be expressed by textual configurations, which refer to continuous word sequences, lexical grammars or behavior patterns we mentioned above. After a careful analysis, 11 textual configurations related to *wanquan* are summarized in 455 concordance lines. See Table I.

TABLE I.
TEXTURAL CONFIGURATIONS OF '完全' (*WANQUAN*)

No	Occurrences	Configuration	Meaning
1	119	(Adj)+(N)+(不|没有|几乎)+[(是|能|能够|可能)+完全] | [(是)+完全(地)+(是|能|能够|可以|不|不会|没有)]+[(被)+（NP）+V] | [(Prep)+(N | NP)+(V)+(Adj)+(N | NP)]	[Scope: all] subjective descriptions
2	87	(N | NP | [Prep+N])+(不|不易|差不多|没有(人))+(Prep+(Adj)+N)+[(是|能|可能)+完全] | [完全+(是|能|可以)]+(不)+V | [(Prep)+(N)+(被)+V+(是)+(Adj)+N] | NP | [Prep+Adj+N]	[Degree: thorough] subjective descriptions
3	67	(NP)+[(不|没有|可以)] | [(Prep+(N | NP))]+[(是)+(不|不会|不能|可能)+完全 | [完全+(是|不)]+(Prep+N)+Adj | N | NP | [V+(N)] | [Adj+N | NP+(V)]	[Contrast: all] subjective descriptions
4	51	(N | NP)+[(不|不是|没有|并非|可以)] | [((使)+Prep+N)]+(V)+[(是|可能)+完全+(没有)] | [完全+(是|没有)]+(Prep+N)+[(可以|能够|有机会|有可能)+V+(Adj)+(N | NP)] | [(Adj)+N | NP] | Adj	[Degree: thorough] positive development
5	46	(N | NP)+(Prep+(Adj)+(N | NP))+(不|不至|未)+(是|能|能够)+[(V+N+Prep+(Adj)+N)] | [(V)+完全(地)+(没有|不|可以)+(被| [把+N+Prep+N])+(V)+(Adj)+(N | NP)	[Degree: thorough] bad results
6	20	(N)+[(Prep+(N | NP))+[(能够|是|不|未|不能)+完全+(能)+(V)] | [完全+(能|能够|可以|没有)]+(Prep+N)+(不|不受|没有)+(V)+(Adj)+(N)	[Degree: thorough] solutions
7	18	N | NP+ [V+完全+(Prep+N)] | [完全+(Prep+N)] | [(Prep+N | NP)+完全+(是)]+(V)+(Adj)+(N)	[Contrast: all] positive development
8	18	N | NP+(把|使+Adj+N) | (不|不能|没有)+(Prep+N)+[完全+(是|不能)] | [(是)+完全]+[(Prep+N | NP)+V] | [(Adj)+(N)] | [V+(Adj)+N]	[Scope: all] bad results
9	14	(N)+(是|不能|把+Adj+N)+完全+(可以|能|不是)+Adj | NP | [(Prep)+V] | [V+(Adj)+N | NP] | [Prep+是+Adj]	[Scope: all] positive development
10	9	(N | NP)+[(没有|能否)+V] | [V+(不|没有)] | 要+完全	[Scope: all] Subjective descriptions
11	6	(N)+(Prep+NP) | V+(是)+完全+Adj | [Adj+N] | [V+(N)]	[Contrast: all] bad results

In this table, brackets refer to optional components, square brackets to fixed structures, and vertical lines to replaceable lexis, word class or syntactic structures. It is arranged in descending order concerning the configurations' occurrences. In configuration 1, the subject is inanimate in most cases, such as '注意力' (*zhuyili: attention*), '筹备' (*choubei: arrangement*), '描述' (*miaoshu: description*), '天' (*tian: heaven*), '弱点' (*ruodian: shortcoming*), '气味' (*qiwei: smell*), '范围' (*fanwei: scope*), etc. When it is followed by notional verbs, the behavior pattern to some extent will affirm the accidents caused by the actions. For example, the phrase '不完全取决于身体素质' (*bu wanquan qujue yu shenti sushi,* which means *not completely depend on physical fitness*) emphasizes the object '身体素质'. When it collocates with link verbs such as '是' or modal verbs such as '能', '能够', '可能', '可以', etc., the behavior pattern will be rather flexible since they can either be the core's right collocates or left collocates, and meanwhile these words

amplify the content of subjects or objects. For instance, the intensifier in '完全是社里自己的钱' (*wanuqan shi sheli zijide qian,* which means *it's all the community's own money*) explains the amount of money. '完全' in this configuration thus has a semantic preference for events, phenomena, weather and experiments, which shares the prosody of describing these things objectively. Compared with configuration 1, the collocation features in configuration 2 and configuration 3 change a lot. For example, the semantic field of configuration 2 is about concepts ('泛化', '坏死', '化身'), society ('《国民政府建国大纲》', '伦理规范', '发展阶段'), judgement ('正确', '确当', '错误'), mood ('心情'), etc. And its main feature is that it only describes the hard facts without any comments. Configuration 3 is used to make comparisons, where comparable adjectives have a high frequency when collocated with '完全', such as '相同' (*xiangtong: same*), '一样' (*yiyang: identical*), '不同'(*butong: different*), '相反' (*xiangfan: opposite*). Although adjectives are likely to reflect writers' true feelings, the co-text information in this configuration demonstrates the comparison is made on the surface features and that there are no personal attitudes. Configuration 10 is a little novelty since it applies to science disciplines with technical items and structures. For example, the position of '完全' is no longer in the start or the middle of sentences but in the end when the word modifies verbs, which shows that all the substances reacted in the experiment. Sinclair (1996:86) claimed that the internal variations of co-selection would disappear as semantic features became of abstraction and generalization. To sum up, the four configurations aforementioned share a same semantic prosody, that is, prosody of subjective descriptions to objects, states or experimental phenomena. And that's also why they become one Meaning-Shift unit.

Similarly, configuration 4, configuration 7 and configuration 9 are one Meaning-Shift unit, which indicates that people or things will grow towards a positive direction when '完全' collocates with positive word items, such as '新的' (*xinde: new*), '发生影响' (*fasheng yingxiang: having impact*, in Chinese this phrases normally refers to positive influence), '不厌其烦' (*buyanqifan: patient*), '快乐' (*kuaile: joyful*), '陶醉' (*taozui: enchanted*) and so on. Besides, '完全' will appear in negative structures or transitional complex sentences as well when it is assigned to give credit for the significance of what is happened. Configuration 5, Configuration 8 and Configuration 11 are the third Meaning-Shift unit, where the phraseological features are very unique in that their collocates hold negative connotations like '失望' (*shiwang: disappointed*), '悲剧' (*beiju: tragedy*), '荒谬' (*huangmiu: absurd*), '仇敌' (*choudi: foe*), '不能相容' (*buneng xiangrong: incompatible*). And their semantic prosody is that it will have bad results, which are achieved from three aspects, namely degree, scope and contrast. In configuration 6, the core '完全' has a very high cooccurrence with phrases like '需要' (*xuyao: should*), '当作' (*dangzuo: take...as*), '必要的' (*biyaode: necessary*), '须' (*xu: must*), etc., whose semantic prosody is to put forward solutions to existing problems. Because only this configuration has such prosody, it is considered as a new Meaning-Shift unit by its own.

D. Meaning-shift Unit

From the above section, we conclude that the Chinese intensifier *wanquan* has four types of semantic prosody, which are to describe objects, states or experimental phenomena, to develop towards positive directions, to get bad results, and to provide solutions. Since semantic prosody is the key factor to Meaning-Shift unit, we divide these configurations into four groups. Thus, configuration 1, configuration 2, configuration 3 and configuration 10 belong to one meaning unit, which is to describe objects, states or experimental phenomena. Among the four configurations, configuration 1 occupies the highest position in terms of frequency, 119 times, so it is identified as the canonical form while the other three are the variant forms. Likewise, configuration 4, configuration 7 and configuration 9 make up another Meaning-Shift unit, having the prosody of developing towards positive directions, among which configuration 4 occupies the canonical form. Configuration 5, configuration 8 and configuration 10 have the meaning of getting bad results, therefore they constitute a third Meaning-Shift unit, whose canonical form is configuration 5. Lastly, configuration 6 per se becomes the last Meaning-Shift unit because there is no other configuration sharing the semantic prosody of providing solutions. The more details are in Table II.

TABLE II.
MEANING SHIFT UNITS OF '完全' (*WANQUAN*)

Meaning Shift Unit		Configuration
MSU 1	Canonical form	(Adj)+(N)+(不|没有|几乎)+[(是|能|能够|可能)+完全] | [(是)+完全(地)+(是|能|能够|可以|不|不会|没有)]+[(被)+（NP）+V] | [(Prep)+(N | NP)+(V)+(Adj)+(N | NP)]
	Variant 1	(N | NP | [Prep+N])+(不|不易|差不多|没有(人))+(Prep+(Adj)+N)+[(是|能|可能)+完全] | [完全+(是|能|可以)]+(不)+V | [(Prep)+(N)+(被)+V+(是)+(Adj)+N] | NP | [Prep+Adj+N]
	Variant 2	(NP)+[(不|没有|可以)] | [(Prep+(N | NP))]+[(是)+(不|不会|不能|可能)+完全] | [完全+(是|不)]+(Prep+N)+Adj | N | NP | [V+(N)] | [Adj+N | NP+(V)]
	Variant 3	(N | NP)+[(没有|能否)+V] | [V+(不|没有)] |要+完全
MSU 2	Canonical form	(N | NP)+[(不|不是|没有|并非|可以)] | [((使)+Prep+N)]+(V)+[(是|可能)+完全+(没有)] | [完全+(是|没有)]+(Prep+N)+[(可以|能够|有机会|有可能)+V+(Adj)+(N | NP)] | [(Adj)+N | NP] | Adj
	Variant 1	N | NP+ [V+完全+(Prep+N)] | [完全+(Prep+N)] | [(Prep+N | NP)+完全+(是)]+(V)+(Adj)+(N)
	Variant 2	(N)+(是|不能|把+Adj+N)+完全+(可以|能|不是)+Adj | NP | [(Prep)+V] | [V+(Adj)+N | NP] | [Prep+是+Adj]
MSU 3	Canonical form	(N | NP)+(Prep+(Adj)+(N | NP))+(不|不至|未)+(是|能|能够)+[(V+N+Prep+(Adj)+N)] | (V)+完全(地)+(没有|不|可以)+(被| [把+N+Prep+N])+(V)+(Adj)+(N | NP)
	Variant 1	N | NP+(把|使+Adj+N) | (不|不能|没有)+(Prep+N)+[完全+(是|不能)] | [(是)+完全]+[(Prep+N | NP)+V] | [(Adj)+(N)] | [V+(Adj)+N]
	Variant 2	(N)+(Prep+NP)| V+(是)+完全+Adj | [Adj+N] | [V+(N)]
MSU 4	Canonical form	(N)+[(Prep+(N | NP))+[(能够|是|不|未|不能)+完全+(能)+(V)] | [完全+(能|能够|可以|没有)]+(Prep+N)+(不|不受|没有)+(V)+(Adj)+(N)

This table demonstrates that every Meaning-Shift unit encompasses one canonical form which is essential and several potential variants according to their semantic prosody. One point to note is that some MSUs only have one canonical form like MSU 4 in this case. Such forms including canonical forms and variant forms can be called paraphrasable family as well (Cheng et al., 2008; Gao and Wei, 2017). The configurations which conform to the same local grammar will share a unit of meaning (Sinclair, 2010; Gao and Wei, 2017). In other words, we could identify the meaning unit from the observed configurations by their local grammar. This echoes Hunston's claim that each local grammar describes one meaning or one function (Hunston, 2002). Different from general grammar, local grammar is a micro-description to language which deals with special linguistic phenomena in the process of using language in authentic contexts (Li, 2018:52), the advantage of which is to bring syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations closer. In this paper, the intensifier *wanquan* has four meaning units, thus corresponding to four local grammars. Since it's a complex and huge project, we will leave this question in another paper.

V. CONCLUSION

The syntagmatic relation and the paradigmatic relation become significantly salient in concordance lines from the perspective of corpus linguistics, because the former provides evidence of repeated structural patterns and the latter of linear combinations, which helps interpret meaning in a comprehensive way (Stubbs, 2009:131). It is suggested that people normally select certain phrases and grammars to express their meaning, but the appropriate way to analyze the unit of meaning remains a tough question for the contemporary philologists. Luckily, the MSU theory provides an effective way to answer it. This study explores the Meaning-Shift units of *wanquan*, a Chinese intensifier in the CNC. One of the significant findings is that the word has four meaning units determined by the types of semantic prosody, which in turn are to describe objects, states or experimental phenomena, to develop towards positive directions, to get bad results, and to provide solutions. What's also important is that most of the canonical forms have two or three variants except one having none, and that each Meaning-Shift unit has one local grammar, making lexis, grammar and meaning structuralized in a systematic way. In doing so, this corpus-based study not only provides a fresh perspective such as studying intensifiers to supplement the empirical studies on Meaning-Shift unit, but also encourages other countries to apply this theory into their indigenous languages.

REFERENCES

[1]   Allen, C. (2005). A Local Grammar of Cause and Effect: A Corpus-driven Study. Birmingham: University of Birmingham.
[2]   Altenberg, B. (1991). Amplifier collocations in spoken English. In Johansson, S. & Stenström, A. (Eds.). *English Computer Corpora*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
[3]   Barnbrook, G. (2002). Defining Language: A Local Grammar of Definition Sentences. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
[4]   Bednarek, M. (2008a). Emotion Talk across Corpora. London: Palgrave.
[5]   Bednarek, M. (2008b). Semantic preference and semantic prosody re-examined. *Corpus Linguistics and Linguistic Theory*, 4(2), 119-139.

[6]   Bolinger, D. (1972). Degree Words. The Hague: Mouton.
[7]   Cheng, W., Greaves, C., Sinclair, J. & Warren, M. (2008). Uncovering the extent of the phraseological tendency: Towards a systematic analysis of concgrams. *Applied Linguistics*, 30(2), 236-252.
[8]   Crystal, D. (2011). A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics. British: Blackwell Publishing.
[9]   Gao, Ge. & Wei, Naixing. (2017). Meaning-Shift unit: Implications and the analytical procedure. *Teaching Languages and Their Teaching*, 6, 12-21.
[10]   Hunston, S. (2002). Corpora in Applied Linguistics. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[11]   Hunston, S. & Sinclair, J. (2000). A local grammar of evaluation. In Hunston. S. & Thompson, G. (Eds.). *Evaluation in Text: Authorial Stance and the Construction of Discourse*. New York: Oxford University Press.
[12]   Ito, R. & Tagliamonte, S. (2003). Well weird, right dodgy, very strange, really cool: Layering and recycling in English intensifiers. *Language in Society*, 32(2), 257-279.
[13]   Kennedy, G. (2003). Amplifier collocations in the British National Corpus: Implications for English language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37(3), 467-487.
[14]   Kennedy, C. & McNally, L. (2005). Scale structure, degree modification, and the semantics of gradable predicates. *Language*, 81(2), 345-381.
[15]   Labov, W. (1984). Intensity. In Schiffrin, D (Ed.). *Meaning, Form, and Use in Context: Linguistic Applications*. Washington: Georgetown University Press.
[16]   Lakoff, R. (1975). Language and Women's Place. New York: Harper and Row.
[17]   Li, Wenzhong. (2018). On the theoretical framework of phrases. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, 50(1), 49-59.
[18]   Liang, Maocheng., Li, Wenzhong. & Xu, Jiajin. (2010). Using Corpora: A Practical Coursebook. Beijing: Foreign Language and Research Press.
[19]   Louw, B. (1993). Irony in the text or insincerity in the writer? The diagnostic potential of semantic prosodies. In Baker, M., Francis, G. & Tognini-Bonelli, E. (Eds.). *Text and Technology: In Honour of John Sinclair*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
[20]   Lu, Jun. & Wu, Qian. (2019). A study of meaning shift in phraseological units: Evidence from Chinese and English popular phrases. *Modern Foreign Languages*, 5, 1-13.
[21]   Morley, J. & Partington, A. (2009). A few frequently asked questions about semantic-or evaluative-prosody. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 14(2), 139-158.
[22]   O'Halloran, K. (2007). Critical discourse analysis and the corpus-informed interpretation of metaphor at the register level. *Applied Linguistics*, 28(1), 1-24.
[23]   Partington, A. (1993). Corpus evidence of language change—The case of the intensifier. In Baker. M., Francis, G. & Tognini-Bonelli, E. (Eds.). *Text and Technology*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
[24]   Partington, A. (2004). "Utterly content in each other's company": Semantic prosody and semantic preference. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 9(1), 131-156.
[25]   Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G. & Svartvik, J. (1985). A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language. London: Longman.
[26]   Shao, Bin., Wang, Wenbin. & Huang, Danqing. (2017). A collostructional analysis of English amplifiers and the visualization of their semantic distances. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, 49(3), 379-391.
[27]   Sinclair, J. (1987). Collocation: A progress report. In Steele. R. & Threadgold, T. (Eds.). *Language Topics: Essays in Honour of Michael Halliday*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
[28]   Sinclair, J. (1991). Corpus, Concordance, Collocation. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[29]   Sinclair, J. (1996). The search for units of meaning. *Textus*, 1, 75-106.
[30]   Sinclair, J. (2004). Trust the Text. London: Routledge.
[31]   Sinclair, J. (2007). Collocation reviewed - new (manuscript). Italy: Tuscan Word Centre.
[32]   Sinclair, J. (2008). The phrase, the whole phrase, and nothing but the phrase. In Granger. S. & Meunier, F. (Eds.). *Phraseology: An Interdisciplinary Perspective*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
[33]   Sinclair, J. (2010). Defining the definiendum. In Schryver, G. (Ed.). *A Way with Words: Recent Advances in Lexical Theory and Analysis*. Kampala: Menha Publishers.
[34]   Stubbs, M. (2009). The search for units of meaning: Sinclair on empirical semantics. *Applied Linguistics*, 30(1), 115-137.
[35]   Su, H. (2015). Judgement and Adjective Complementation Patterns in Biographical Discourse: A Corpus Study. Birmingham: University of Birmingham.
[36]   Su, Yujie. (2016). Corpus-based comparative study of intensifiers: quite, pretty, rather and fairly. *Journal of World Languages*, 3(3), 224-236.
[37]   Tagliamonte, S. (2008). So different and pretty cool! Recycling intensifiers in Toronto, Canada. *English Language and Linguistics*, 12(2), 361-394.
[38]   Tagliamonte, S. & Roberts, C. (2005). So weird; so cool; so innovative: The use of intensifiers in the television series Friends. *American Speech*, 80(3), 280-300.
[39]   Tao, H. (2007). A corpus-based investigation of absolutely and related phenomena in spoken American English. *Journal of English Linguistics*, 35(1), 5-29.
[40]   Wei, Naixing. (2012). Theory of co-selection and the corpus-driven phraseology. *Journal of PLA University of Foreign Languages*, 35(1), 1-6.
[41]   Wray, A. (2012). What do we (think we) know about formulaic language? An evaluation of the current state of play. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 32, 231-254.
[42]   Xiao, R. & Tao, H. (2007). A corpus-based sociolinguistic study of amplifiers in British English. *Sociolinguistic Studies*, 1(2), 241-273.

Guobing Liu was born in Henan, China. He received the doctoral degree in corpus linguistics and computational linguistics in 2013. In recent years, he published several books and more than thirty academic papers in the key journals both home and abroad. His academic interests include corpus linguistics and foreign language teaching.

Xiaolian Zhang was born in Henan, China. She will receive the master's degree in Foreign Languages and Literature in 2021. Now she studies at the Faculty of International Studies, Henan Normal University. She is interested in meaning and her master's thesis is also related to it. Her academic interests are mainly corpus linguistics.

Documentation of Endangered Dialect of the Igbo Language: Issues of Greetings in Enugwu Ezike Dialect

Juliana Ginika Mamah
Department of Linguistics, Igbo & Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria

Jacinta Ukamaka Eze
Department of Linguistics, Igbo & Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria

Bestman Esegbuyiota Odeh
Department of Linguistics, Igbo & Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria

Ifeanyi John Nwosu
Department of Linguistics, Igbo & Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria

Abstract—This paper studies the documentation of endangered dialect of the Igbo language: Issues of greetings in Enugwu Ezike dialect. The objectives of the study are to identify different types of greetings in Enugwu Ezike, examine the extent to which other dialects, standard Igbo or English language are preferred in greetings in Enugwu Ezike and also to proffer measures through which the greeting patterns can be revitalised. The data for the study were gathered through introspection and unstructured oral interview. Using descriptive method of data analysis, the study discovers different types of greetings in Enugwu Ezike dialect ranging from daily greetings, greetings to the sick, farewell greetings, seasonal/ periodic greetings, eulogy/praise greetings etc. The study also discovers that many speakers of Enugwu Ezike dialect especially the younger generation prefer the greeting patterns of other dialects and languages. In order to avert this ugly phenomenon, the study suggests measures towards reviving this aspect of the dialect which are through documentation, awareness-raising through programs on radio and television stations, involving the young people via social media and the loyalty of the speakers towards their dialect. The study therefore recommends that researchers from Enugwu Ezike extraction should endeavour to work on other aspects of Enugwu Ezike dialect that is under threat of endangerment or outright extinction.

Index Terms—endangered, language, Enugwu-Ezike, Igbo, greetings

I. INTRODUCTION

Documentation is very important in language study. It is one of the major means to preserve and safeguard languages or dialects. Documentary linguistics as a new sub-field of linguistics is primarily concerned with providing comprehensive records of linguistic practice for which a speech community is known. It is sometimes used interchangeably with language description. However, certain nuances are discernible between the concept and language description in that the later aims at records of language as a system of abstract elements, constructions and rules (Himmelmann, 1998). Documentation is an aspect of language engineering that provides the data base for theorising in linguistics and also forms the basis for developing and producing orthography of descriptive grammar, extended word list and dictionaries (Ndimele, 2010).

A language is said to be endangered when it is at the risk of no longer being used as occasioned by the demise of its speakers or when the speakers shift to speaking another language. It becomes a dead language when it has no more native speakers. This condition is also referred to as language loss. Different levels or categories of endangerment have been identified by many scholars. Aikawa in UNESCO (2001) ranks in a continuum from stability to extinction as follows: extinct which occur when there is no one who can speak or remember the language; critically endangered where the youngest speakers are in the great grand parents' generation and the language is not used for every day interaction; severely endangered when the language is spoken by only grandparents and other generations while the parents' generation may still understand the language but they typically do not speak it to their children among themselves; definitely endangered when it is no longer learned as the mother tongue by the children in the home. The youngest speakers are thus of the parental generation.

Perhaps, Wurm's (2003) categorisation of endangerment will be more appropriate. He identifies five levels of language endangerment: (a) potentially endangered if the children starts preferring the dominant language, (b) endangered if the youngest speakers are young adults, and only very few speakers. (c) Seriously endangered if the

youngest speakers are middle aged or past middle aged, (d) terminally endangered or moribund if there are only a few elderly speakers and (e) dead where there are no speakers left. Greeting aspect of Enugwu Ezike dialect may be said to be potentially endangered if the present circumstances of the dialect continue to degenerate in the face of the continuing English, standard Igbo and contiguous dialects dominance; or the flagrant abandonment or unwillingness of native speakers to observe the age long practice. The need for the examination of the language and dialect levels of endangerment is to properly locate the position of Enugwu Ezike dialect with respect to the greetings aspect. The rising interests in researches on language/dialect endangerment is to redirect the focus of linguists and policy makers to the area in view of the potential loss of valuable linguistic and cultural resources around the globe (Crystal, 2000, Bradley and Bradley, 2002; Mufwere, 2004). A whole lot of the studies on language endangerment in Nigeria have centered on the threats to minority languages by the dominant languages or by English language (Igboanusi and Peters, 2004). This present research, however takes a step further to investigate an aspect of Enugwu Ezike dialect (Greeting) that is under serious threat.

Generally, greetings are seen as socio-linguistic behaviour based on the culture of the people. In Igbo socio-cultural societies, the importance of greetings can hardly be overstated as it helps to establish and maintain personal relationships; and show care to anyone to whom it is expressed among others. Greetings in Enugwu Ezike have different dimensions or types. There are daily greetings, seasonal or periodic greetings, royalties/pedigree greetings, eulogy/praise greetings, greetings at place of work, etc. To guarantee a deeper understanding of Nigerian languages and dialects, culture, history and societies, the documentation of Nigeria dialects or languages underscores the relevance of the present study.

The researchers observe overtime that greetings, a vital aspect of the dialect are rarely used in the way they ought to be used by speakers of the dialect. Majority of the speakers of the dialect now opt for standard Igbo, contiguous dialects of Igbo language or English language as a means of greeting; or are unwilling to observe the age long practice of greeting in Enugwu Ezike speech community. This trend worries the researchers as it portends ominous danger to the survival of the dialect. This situation is the problem of this study. The objectives of this study are to identify different types of greetings in Enugwu Ezike., determine the extent to which other dialects, standard Igbo or English language are preferred in greetings in Enugwu Ezike dialect and proffer measures towards the revitalisation of greetings in Enugwu Ezike dialect. This study covers Enugwu Ezike speech community in Igbo Eze North Local Govt. area of Enugu State. The present study is very significant in a number of ways. Firstly, it is a clarion call to re-awaken the consciousness of speakers of Enugwu Ezike dialect on the seemingly jettisoned but important aspect of their dialect to enable them takes appropriate steps to uphold and preserve it so as to further enrich their cherished dialect. Secondly, since there is limited literature in this area of study, linguists and further researchers in this area will find the work a useful guide and lastly, it will also avail speakers of other native dialects of Igbo the opportunity of knowing the rich linguistic resources of Enugwu Ezike as exemplified in greetings.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Igboanusi (2006) carries out a study to assess the position of the Igbo language with respect to endangerment. He concluded a survey among respondents of the three major languages in Nigeria _ Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba to determine their preferred language for spoken and written domains. From the data collected, he finds out that Hausa has high preference ratings by mother tongue respondents as a spoken language (62.4 percent) and written language (51.5 percent). Igbo and Yoruba appear to have been replaced by English in both the oral and written domains. The preference rating of Igbo respondents to English was 56.5 percent for oral communication and 91.5% for communication. Yoruba respondents had 58.2 percent rating for English in oral and 88.6 percent for English in written communication. In the same vein, the same study indicates that Hausa has high preference for their mother tongue in entertainment; 70.3 percent for films and 62.9 percent for music; and average Yoruba has 44.8 percent for films and 50.7 percent for music. Surprisingly, Igbo mother tongue respondents had a low preference value for their language for entertainment; 39 percent for films and 36 percent for music. They would prefer pidgin or English language. The paper concludes that the higher preference level of the Igbo respondents for English language is an indication for their penchant for foreign ways of life which has severe effect on Igbo as a language. The study reveals a general decline in the interest in the language particularly among the younger generation. The study relates to the present one in the sense that it assesses the Igbo language endangerment but differs from the present study in the sense that it did not discuss Enugwu Ezike dialect of Igbo.

Kibe (n.d.) studies endangered language and dialects in Japan. The objectives of the study are to create a record of the endangered languages and dialects found throughout Japan, to analyse the characteristics of these languages and dialects, to consider approaches for preserving endangered languages and dialects and to support regional movements which work towards ensuring they continue as living languages. The research instrument is audio and video recordings. The study finds out that in Amamikikai dialect, first-person plural can be expressed by either 'wannah' or 'waichah'. Wannah denotes exclusionary 'we' which does not include the listener, while Waichah denotes inclusionary 'we' which does not include the listener but distinction does not exist for 'we' in standard Japanese (Watashitachi), making the Kikai dialect appear unique. The study also finds that lectures and seminars will be the means to support moments for preserving the continuation of endangered language and dialects. This study is similar with the current one as they both

express interest in the language/dialect endangerment. However, they differ as this work attempts to examine the documentation of endangered dialect of Igbo language, issues of Enugwu Ezike dialect.

Tija (2012), in his Language endangerment and documentation: Implications for Tiv orthography, centres on the analysis of these orthographical deficiencies and inconsistencies. The study also investigates the fate of Tiv language without a unified and acceptable orthography in the face of the threats of endangerment. The study finds out that even though Tiv orthography was documented since 1911, it is very deficient and inconsistent because the missionaries that work on Tiv orthography where non-Tiv and as a result, lack adequate knowledge and understanding about Tiv sounds and graphological system. He argued that Tiv orthography lacks contemporary relevance and usage since the language has changed over the period of time and as a result makes reading and writing Tiv language difficult for scholars. Similarly, the paper also argues that different orthographies compiled by some Tiv linguists and speakers have complexities and are all at variance and controversial thereby making the language to face threat of endangerment. The study adopts the TLSDA approved version of current Tiv orthography which helps in keeping Tiv language alive. The study however, recommends that Tiv language demand serious documentation of its grammar, its lexicon, oral traditions and publication of literature texts in Tiv vernacular. It also believes that to standardize and preserve Tiv language, conferences and workshops should be organised regularly to teach and familiarise the approved Tiv orthography to the native speakers. The study further recommends that Tiv language studies and development, and all others interested in the Tiv language should use the approved TLSDA, the new orthography for their publication. This study and the present study are related as both study endangerment and documentation. It differs from the present study in the sense that it dwells on Tiv orthography.

Olaoye (2014) studies sociolinguistic documentation of endangered ethnography of communication in the Yoruba language. The study analyses and interprets the sociolinguistic structure of endangered ethnography of communication or greetings in Yoruba language using three dialects of Yoruba language: Igbomina, ijebu and Ijesa to compare with the standard Yoruba language. The study finds out that the grammatical patterns of greetings are different, particularly the difference in the plural markers and the pronouns. The study categorises greetings into time of the day-morning, afternoon, evening and night. Different types of greetings were identified such as greetings for special festival, loss of property, greetings for kings and chiefs and greetings at work. The paper continues to argue that all these forms of greetings are disappearing in the ethnography of communication of the Yoruba more especially the educated ones. The study recommends that these greetings should be documented to save them from being endangered. The work is similar to the current work in studying the documentation of endangered greetings. However, the current work centres on a dialect of Igbo.

Ayenbi (2014) studies language regression in Nigeria using the Ishekiri minority language in Delta State of Nigeria as a case study. The study examines the linguistic situation of speech communities that do not speak and use their language. Attitudes towards their own language, the chances of survival and preservation were also analysed. The study also proffers solution to revitalize and maintain the language. The study finds out that Ishekiri language might be severely endangered if adequate measure is not taken. The study therefore highlights some measures to maintain and safeguard endangered language following the suggestions of Expert in UNESCO meeting such as provision of basic linguistic and pedagogical training, providing language teachers with training in basic linguistics, language teaching method techniques; curriculum development and teaching material development, sustainable development in literacy and local documentation skills; training local workers to develop orthographies and to read, write and analyse their own languages and produce pedagogical materials. The paper also suggests that local research centres, where speakers of endangered languages will be trained to study, document and archive their own language materials should be established. The study is similar to the present study in the sense that both study language endangerment but differs from the present study in the sense that the former is case study of Ishikiri language while the later is on aspect of Enugwu Ezike dialect of Igbo language.

Obadan (2015) in her study of language endangerment: Issues of Igbo proverbs highlights, a generational gap in the use and interpretation of proverbs by the younger generation using Ogwashi-uku community in Delta State. Data for study were gathered from communal meetings of two separate groups: youth and the elders. Using the linguistic vitality and endangerment (LVE) as its framework, the study examines the competence level in the use of proverbs between the older generation of the Igbo speakers and the younger generation. The study finds out that most youth speakers lack competence in the use and interpretation of proverbs. The study is related with the present study because both centre on language endangerment. The study differs from the present one because the present study is on greetings while the later is on proverbs.

Nwankwere, Mmadike and Eme (2017) examine the possibility of Igbo parents in creating an enabling environment for acquiring/learning Igbo language within the family and the immediate locality. Employing the language maintenance perspective, data for the study were gathered through observation and interactions with thirty consultants consisting of parents residing in the north, west and south-south Nigeria, Ghana, Benin Republic, England and America. The study shows that Diaspora parents can lead their children not only to understand but to speak Igbo and therefore recommend that the Igbo language awareness and maintenance efforts should be the concern of all the Igbo, especially parents. This according to the study will ensure that wherever they live, they should acquire/learn Igbo to save the language from being endangered or going into extinction. This study is similar to the current study as both study

language endangerment but differ as the present study deals with aspect of a dialect of Igbo language while the later is on Igbo language in general.

From the discussion, it is observed that works abound in language endangerment but dialectal endangerment has not received proper attention. Moreover, to the best knowledge of the researchers, no known work has been done on documentation of endangered aspect of Enugwu Ezike dialect: issues of greetings. This gap is the justification of this present study.

III. METHODOLOGY

A qualitative descriptive design was adopted for this study. The study was conducted in Enugwu Ezike, a town in Igbo Eze North Local Government Area of Enugu State. The town has an estimated population of 259,431 persons at the 2006 census. It is bounded in the north by Olamaboro Local Government Area of Kogi State; in the east by Ogbadigbo L.G.A of Benue State, in the south by Udenu L.G.A; in the south by Igbo Eze South L.G.A of Enugu State and in the west by Igalamela/Odolu L.G.A of Kogi State. This population was divided into clusters and the wards in the local government were used to represent these clusters. Then, the selective sampling to select two persons from each ward comprising male and female. The method for data collection was introspection and unstructured oral interview. The data collected were identified, transcribed, classified and analysed descriptively using the set objectives.

IV. DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

In this section, we present the data collected and analyse them adequately.

A. Types of Greetings

There are different types of greetings in Enugwu Ezike:
(1) Daily greetings such as:
(i) Ụnụ abọọ?- Good morning
(ii) Ụnụ ariọkwutego ishi eka nta? –Have you woken up?
(iii) Oha nta eme agaa? –How is today?
(2) Seasonal/periodic greeting example:
(i) Odobo Ishanyi shanyi – Greetings to Akatakpa Masquerade during ọnwa esa.
(ii) Ugwuoke Odobo –Greeting to Akatakpa Masquerade during ọnwa esa festival.
(iii) Gbom ajeka –Greeting during men initiates during Ọmabe festival.
(iv) Mama Ndegbe – Greeting during Ndegbe moonlight masquerade between men.
(3) Greeting at place of work such as:
(i) Aanya ọrụ – well done work
(ii) Aanya akanya –well done work (effort)
(iii) Ike aturu -You have done well
(iv) Aanya amashi amashi –Thank you very much
(4) Royalty greetings/Pedigree Greetings
(i) Ọlụọ ọha- Greetings to the priests of deities
(ii) Ogbuleja – Greetings to someone who has killed cow for festivities at a very tender age
(iii) Ojieshu –Greetings to a woman who buried her father or mother in-law with a cow
(iv) Ogbuzuru –To someone who has killed cow to all groups/stakeholders in the community
(v) Ude –Greetings to the eldest man in the community
(5)Eulogy/Praise Greetings
(i) Ọbụ eeke –Eulogy to show comradeship or companion
(ii) Ọgerewu –Admiration greeting of a young girl or boy
(iii)Ọkanagba nyanwu nyanwu- Greetings for a big task achieved
(iv) Eeke shire shire- Greeting of a man for achieving no mean feat
(v) Ọnụehe atta –Greetings to a married man who creditably performs his matrimonial responsibility
(vi) Orukpo atta –Greetings to a full fledge woman who performs her matrimonial duties well
(vii) Jikpa atta –Greetings of praise to a man for doing a challenging task
(viii) Okomanyi koko –Eulogy somewhat cyclical for an action
(ix) Onyeke gadagba- Greeting to a giant man or for extra ordinary performance
(x) Oonye atukwu –Also a form of greeting to a woman for doing what is expected of a woman of her status
(6) Farewell Greetings to visitors
(i) Ladoore –bye bye
(ii) Dare ọnọdụ- thanks for coming
(iii) Ahinya/maje ọnọkwuru –thanks for staying
(7) Greetings to the sick and bereaved
(i) Idiọyi ekre ekre _ are you okay at all?

(ii) ọnwụ ga-natụ _ it is a pity.
(iii) Gbagaa ọnwụ _ accept my condolence.
(8) Welcome Greetings
(i) Ala _ welcome
(9) Childbirth Greetings
(i) Dare ọmụgọ _ well done for giving birth.
(ii) Ọmụgọ atụrụ _ sorry for the pain of child birth.
(iii) Aanya ọmụgọ _ thank you for giving birth.
(iv) Orụ Nwa atụrụ _ well done for taking care of the child.

B. The Extent to Which Other Dialects, Standard Igbo or English language Are Preferred in Greetings in Enugwu Ezike

In daily greetings, many Enugwu Ezike native speakers prefer to use "good morning" option to 1 (i-iii) of the dialect version for morning greetings. In seasonal greetings, there are no English, standard Igbo or contiguous dialect equivalents of the greetings in example 2 (i-iv). However, the younger generations hardly use them when the need arises. The situation here is abandonment or unwillingness to use them, thereby potentially endangering the resilience of the greetings which is peculiar to native speakers of the dialect.

Also in the third type of greetings, the younger generations hardly use any of the examples in 3(i-iv) instead, they use English options or they resort to contiguous dialects "idi ike oru (Nsukka/Ideke version) or deje oru" (Nsukka version). In royalty/pedigree greetings, the younger generation prefer to substitute the dialect version to English version such as good morning, good afternoon, well done or any other one than Enugwu Ezike dialect.

In the greetings of eulogy, speakers of the dialect in recent times hardly refer to the dialect option 5(i-x) rather, what is common among them are "okorobia, nwokeike, agbogho, nukwu nwanyi, 'big boy/girl', nwanyi oma nnaa" etc. Dialect version of fare well greetings to visitors such as ''ladore, dare onodi and ahinya onokwuru'' are usually replace with either the English language option of 'bye', thanks for coming and thanks for staying respectively or Nsukka/Ibagwa version of ''ladome,idi ike onodu or deje onodu''. Similarly, in greetings to the sick or bereaved; idioyi hehe(Nsukka variant) replaces "idioyi ekre ekre" while "onwu ga-atu" and "gbaga onwu" are replaced with "ndo or sorry" (standard Igbo or English language)respectively.

Another instance is in welcome greetings, while 'ala' may be used commonly as a form of welcome greeting in Enugwu Ezike dialect and Nsukka dialect, I ga-adi ike ije is peculiar to Nsukka Ideke dialect. But an average young native speaker will now prefer "I ga-adi ike ije,nno or welcome respectively. In childbirth greetings, Enugwu Ezike version of "aanya omugo, oru nwa aturu and daare Ọmụgọ" are usually replaced with Nsukka or English variant "deje omugo or congratulations".

C. Measures towards the Revitalisation of Greetings in Enugwu Ezike Dialect

Language or dialect revitalisation is the movement to reverse the possible death of nearly extinct or endangered language or dialect. It is also referred to as language revival or reversing language shift which is an attempt to halt or reverse the decline of a language or dialect. If a community has a unique language or unique ways of greetings but perhaps only the elderly or isolated speak or use it, then no new generation of speakers are being produced, such unique pattern is on a path to extinction.

In order to avert this situation in the greeting pattern of Enugwu Ezike dialect, some measures towards the revitalisation of greetings in the speech community has to come into play.

(i) **Speakers' loyalty**: The speakers of Enugwu Ezike dialect must be loyal to the greeting pattern of their speech community. This is because loyalty within the community requires that the local speech form be maintained by community members. To abandon the local speech form is an act of linguistic disloyalty. The goal of the speakers should be on how to preserve their unique way which often involves the recognition and continuation of their unique ways of speaking. Speakers should value the speech pattern of their dialect because their dialect is their most communicative resource which an individual can most comfortably and effectively communicate with those who share common speech forms and norms. The speakers' knowledge of conservative dialect links the speakers to the past both at symbolic and practical level and also allows them to access and understand recorded stories and oral traditions. Loyalty and mutual use of particular greeting patterns allows the speakers to show that they share similarities and that they belong to the same group. It is also a display of one's separateness among outsides and for identity and political recognition.

(ii) **Get the young people interested:** The young people from Enugwu Ezike should be encouraged to use the greeting pattern of the speech community in their daily activities. This is because it is the identity marker for all Enugwu Ezike speakers. This is done by transmission from parents to children in the homes, through Enugwu Ezike music, radio programs, TV programs, websites and books etc.

(iii) **Awareness-raising activities:** There is need for awareness rising within and outside the speech community. This can be done with weekly programs on local radio and television stations by the speakers. In doing this, the younger and even older speakers will develop interest in using this unique pattern of their dialect. This will clearly stress local

identity of the greeting pattern of the dialect thereby making it to be seen as a commercial asset. This will endear the dialect to Enugwu Ezike speakers.

(iv) **Documentation:** One way to revitalization of greeting pattern of Enugwu Ezike dialect is through conscious language engineering activities such as keeping it in retrieval or archival system like video tape, audio tape, texts etc.

V. Summary of the Findings and Conclusion

A. Summary of the Findings

The research has successfully investigated documentation of endangered dialect of Igbo language: issues of Enugwu Ezike greetings using descriptive analysis of data. From the analysis of data, the research work was able to provide answers to the set objectives. The study while identifying the different types of greetings, observes that greetings in Enugwu Ezike dialect has so many types ranging from daily greetings, eulogy, pedigree, farewell greetings etc and that these types of greetings have different ways through which they are presented. The study also discovers that speakers of Enugwu Ezike dialect prefer to use other types of greetings from other dialects, standard Igbo and even English language thereby endangering the greeting patterns of their dialect. For instance, when they suppose to use 'ala' they prefer to say 'I ga adi ike ije' or 'welcome'; 'aanya oru' will be 'deeje oru' or well done. The study also proffers different measures towards the revitalization of this aspect of Enugwu Ezike dialect that is endangered. These measures are as follows: documentation of the greetings types and patterns, creating awareness via programs on radio and television stations, getting the younger generation interested in the patterns of greetings peculiar to Enugwu Ezike and finally speakers of Enugwu Ezike dialect must be loyal to their dialect thereby making sure that no part of the dialect is endangered.

B. Conclusion

The study has been able to answer certain questions pertaining to the greeting patterns of Enugwu Ezike dialect. The study did its best in bringing out different types of greetings in Enugwu Ezike that are threatened. It equally examined speakers' preference of other greeting patterns from other dialects and languages and different measures to revitalise it. More especially, it has added its own voice to the arguments concerning the documentation of endangered dialect of Igbo language. This study therefore, recommends that further studies be carried out on greetings of other dialects of Igbo language that is under threat.

References

[1] Aikawa, N. (2001). UNESCO's program on languages. Conference Handbook on endangered languages of the pacific Rim 13-24. Osaka: Endangered languages of the pacific Rim Project.
[2] Ayenbi, O. F. (2014). Language regression in Nigeria: The case study of Ishekiri. Department of language teaching and applied linguistics, University of Strasbourg.
[3] Bradley, D. & Bradley, M. (2002).Language endangerment and language maintenance. London: Routledge Curzon.
[4] Crystal, D. (2000). Language death. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[5] Himmelmann, N. P. (1998). Documentary and descriptive linguistics. *Linguistic journal*. 36:161-195
[6] Igboanusi, H. (2006). Is Igbo an endangered language? *Multilingual-journal of cross-cultural and inter language communication*. 25(4), 443-452.
[7] Igboanusi, H. & Peter, L. (2004). Oppressing the oppressed: The threat of Houses and English to Nigeria's minority languages. *International Journal of Sociology of Language* 170, 131 - 140.
[8] Kibe, N. (n. d.). Endangered languages and dialects in Japan. National institute for Japanese language and linguistics.
[9] Mufwere, S. (2004). Language birth and death. Annual review of anthropology 33, 201-222.
[10] Ndimele, O.M. (2010). Language documentation and growing grammars for dummies. In O.M. Ndimele (Ed.) *Language policy and management in Nigeria: A festschrift for Ben O. Elugbe.* Port Harcourt: M&J Grand Communications LTD.
[11] Nwankwere, A.U.N., Mmadike, B.I. & Eme,C.A. (2017). Safeguarding the Igbo language through teaching Igbo children in Diaspora. *Ogirisi: a new journal of African studies.* 13(i) 1-9.
[12] Obadan, M. (2015). Language endangerment: Issues of Igbo proverbs. *English linguistic research*. 4(3), 1 - 12.
[13] Olaoye, A.A. (2014). Sociolinguistic documentation of endangered ethnography of communication in Yoruba language. htt://kikigengo.ninjal.ac.jp/.
[14] Tija, T. (2012). Language endangerment and documentation: Implications for Tiv orthography. *Journal of Igbo language and linguistics*. 4&5.137-144.
[15] Wurm, S. A. (2003). Threatened languages in the Western Pacific area from Taiwan including Papua New Guinea. Bad Godesberg, Germany: Arnold-Akademie.

Juliana G. Mamah was born in Enugu Ezike, Enugu State on 10th August. She has Bachelor of Arts Degree and Master of Arts Degree in Linguistics at the University of Nigeria, Nsukka. Juliana specialises in Psycholinguistics. She has co-published "Slang usage amongst students in urban areas: An insight of Warri metropolis. Igbo scholars International Journal of Igbo Scholars Forum, Nigeria, 13(1), 37-56. Mrs. Mamah is a member of Linguistic Association of Nigeria.

Jacinta U. Eze was born in Ovoko, Enugu State on 30th July. She has Bachelor of Arts Degree and Master of Arts Degree in Linguistics at the University of Nigeria, Nsukka. Jacinta specialises in Sociolinguistics and Discourse Analysis. She has co-published "Slang usage amongst students in urban areas: An insight of Warri metropolis. Igbo scholars International Journal of Igbo Scholars Forum, Nigeria, 13(1), 37-56. Mrs. Eze is a member of Linguistic Association of Nigeria.

Bestman E. Odeh was born in Lagos, Nigeria on 7th June. He hailed from Abraka, Delta state, Nigeria. He had his Bachelors of arts degree and Master of arts degree from the University of Nigeria, Nsukka. He specialises in Morphology and syntax. He has published some articles including: Pluralisation strategies in the Urhobo language, _Ogbazuluobodo Journal_ 1(1) 283-293, lexical ambiguity in Urhobo, _journal of linguistics association of Nigeria_, & Linguistic anthropological approach to Urhobo anthroponyms, _Ikenga International journal of Institute of African studies,_ 21(1&2) 66-77 etc. Mr Bestman is a member of the Linguistic association of Nigeria (JOLAN).

Ifeanyi J. Nwosu was born in Enugu, Enugu State of Anambra on 15th of March. He has a Bachelor of Arts Degree and Master of Arts Degree in Linguistics at the Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka. Ifeanyi specializes in Morphology, Semantics and Sociolinguistics. He has published some articles including: Nominalisation in Igbo anthroponyms: The case of Agentive and Gerundive nominal derivatives, *IDEAL International Journal of Igbo scholars Forum, Nigeria,* 12(2) Dec. 2019, 75-95, and Sociocultural Significance of Igbo Personal Names with Negative Markers, *IDEAL International Journal of Igbo scholars Forum, Nigeria,* 12(2) Dec. 2019, 111- 132. Mr. Ifeanyi is a member of Linguistics Association of Nigeria and Igbo Scholars Forum of Nigeria.

Re-thinking Inclusion as a Discursive Practice: the Case of Hamas in the Israeli Discourse after 2006

Giovanni Pasquali

Global Development Institute, University of Manchester, UK

Abstract—The role of 'inclusiveness' in assessing the legitimacy of international negotiations assumes a central position in both theoretical and empirical studies of conflict-management and resolution. The focus of this scholarship, however, has been often restricted to the dynamics of physical participation and reciprocal communication without paying due attention to the discursive and linguistic level at which intersubjective understanding occurs. This article re-conceptualizes *inclusiveness* as a discursive practice and develops a multidimensional framework to assess its implications within the context of international conflict resolution. Building on previous work on linguistics and metaphor analysis, we develop four categories that are used to assess the level discursive inclusiveness of Hamas in the Israeli government's official statements after 2006 and preceding the 2010 peace talks: (i) war-like; (ii) criminal-like; (iii) evil-like; and (iv) adversary-like. Furthermore, we show how the circumstances in which statements were made (i.e. their field of action) further influence the metaphorical structure of the Israeli official discourse.

Index Terms—metaphor analysis, inclusiveness, legitimacy, Habermas, discourse, negotiation, Israeli-Palestinian conflict, Israel, Hamas

I. INTRODUCTION

International conflict resolution and dispute settlement often involve parties whose differences do not merely reside on their diverse policy standings, but encompass broader cultural issues (Gass and Seiter, 2008). Ascertaining the extent of these differences is pivotal in order to address the real causes of conflict and pave the ground for their resolution. This is all the more important considering recent failures of international negotiations that, despite bringing all disputing parties around the same table, have not managed to address the parties' reciprocal hatred and prevent the resumption of hostilities.

For instance, the peace talks that preceded the 2000 Arusha-Accords in the Burundi's civil conflict were dominated by a tense debate on whether inclusion of the disputing parties would have polarized the conflict and jeopardized the accords' outcome. In the end, the entrenched ethnic-nature of the dispute was converted into a political tool for the 'demonization of the other', degenerating in an uncontrollable process that spoiled the post-negotiation environment (McClintock and Nahimana, 2008). Similarly, despite an initial attempt to include disputing civil-society groups in 2002, the negotiations for the management of Sri Lanka civil confrontation under Norwegian mediation soon degenerated into an armed struggle with the government officially renouncing the ceasefire in 2008 (Wanis-St John and Kew, 2008, p.29). Again, as in the first case, direct participation and mutual communication failed to address the gap between political intentions and the parties' incompatible perception of each other.

Several efforts have been recently put forth within the domain of conflict-resolution and negotiation studies to tackle these complex issues. Central to the academic debate has been the identification of the conditions under which parties' inclusion is conducive to a legitimate and long-standing *agreement*. Particularly, drawing on Jürgen Habermas' theory of communicative action, some scholars have posited the existence of an uncoerced "ideal-speech situation" as the necessary precondition for the inclusion of all disputing parties and the legitimacy of final agreements (Head, 2008; Wehrenfennig, 2008). Nevertheless, not enough attention has been paid to "the telos of reaching understanding inherent in the structure of language" (Habermas, 1998, p.301). Namely, the discursive level at which intersubjective understanding is supposed to take place has been overlooked or assumed. In other words, the literature on negotiations studies and conflict resolution has often taken for granted the causal link between reciprocal communication and the formation of an inclusive ground for mutual understanding.

The main objective of this article is to challenge the ground of such assumption and analyse the how *inclusiveness* is constructed in then discourse underpinning the claims made by each disputing party. As the cases of Burundi and Sri Lanka illustrate, failing to acknowledge the discursive ground on which the relationship between unbiased communication and mutual understanding finally rests, leaves us with a deficient and ineffective comprehension of how legitimate *agreements* are achieved and substantiated.

The essay is structured in three main sections. The first one provides a critical appraisal of *inclusiveness* in its *physical* and *communicative* connotation. The second section examines the field of discursivity and the way it structures

intersubjective relations by means of metaphorical articulations. The last section provides an empirical case-study focusing on Israel's perception of Hamas in the post-2006 scenario.

II. PHYSICAL AND COMMUNICATIVE INCLUSIVENESS

Juergen Haberms' theory of discourse ethics derives the legitimacy of a normative statement from the uncoerced and intersubjective recognition of the validity claims raised by its utterances (Habermas, 1990, p.58). In this sense, writes Habermas (Habermas, 1998, p.160), a "law can claim legitimacy only if all those possibly affected could consent to it after participating in a rational discourse". Legitimacy therefore draws on a principle of universalization, demanding the inclusion of every affected actor: "A norm is valid when the foreseeable consequences and side-effects of its general observance […] could be jointly accepted by all concerned without coercion" (Flynn, 2003, p.434). Assuming a political connotation which entails the right to speak up without being internally or externally coerced, Habermas (1990, p.89) defines inclusion as the threefold right of every subject (1) "to take part in a discourse by introducing any proposal […]", (2) "question any assertion whatever […]", and, notably, (3) "[not being] coerced or prevented from exercising [one's own] rights of speaker". Drawing on Habermas (1990, p.92), this study defines this notion of inclusion as *physical-inclusiveness*.

Participation free from coercion (*physical-inclusiveness*) is not the only prerequisite for legitimacy. Actors should also be able to act communicatively, i.e. they shall engage in the redemption of their own statements with reasonable argumentations (Forchtner, 2010). Accordingly, drawing on the logic elicited by the "discourse-principle", Habermas defines *communicative action* the rational consensus amongst participants "brought about solely through the cogency of the arguments employed" (McCarthy, 1979, p.305). Rational argumentation relies on the speakers' perlocutionary will to reach understanding based on reasons that all participants together find acceptable (Habermas, 1999, p.119). Hence, it is possible to view consensus as implying a further level of locutionary inclusion – conceptualized here as *communicative*. In order for a legitimate outcome to take place, Habermas (1987, p.120) defines three claims of deliberative legitimacy: claim of truth, claim of rightness and claim of truthfulness. Failing to acknowledge these three claims implies the impossibility to reach understanding by means of communicative action.

Overall, drawing on Habermas' discourse ethics, it is therefore possible to delineate two mutually contusive layers of inclusion – *physical* and *communicative* – wherein the first is a necessary, though not sufficient, condition for the second. It is only as consequence of a shared "ethos of social integration" that the process of rational argumentation and the power of the better argument are put into a suitable context to emerge (Habermas et al., 1998, p.42).[1]

III. DISCURSIVE INCLUSIVENESS: ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

By postulating a transcendental ground for physical and communicative-inclusiveness, Habermas' discourse ethics universalizes the actors' agency through a process of rationalization that overlooks discourse as a potential source of inter-communitarian divergences.

A. Beyond-Habermas: Internal and External Interpretative-communities

An interpretative-community is defined as a social group whose validity claims are evaluated by means of specific values, assumptions, and "categories of understanding" embedded in the people's experience and cultural-heritage (Johnstone, 2004, p.189).

When a social actor is legitimated by her own internal community as a decision-maker, according to Habermas (2006, pp.132–135), she/he becomes a valid speaker for the external community. However, the latter's ability to validate their own (or someone else's) speech-acts depends strictly on their capacity to satisfy those requirements that legitimated them to occupy such position in the first place. In other words, democratically-appointed speakers are legitimised in their role by a "core" shared with the community they belong to – which constitutes the latter's identity and ground of ontological security (Habermas, 1988, pp.486–487).

In this peculiar environment, a problem emerges when the claims raised by the external interpretative-community are not consistent with those defining the identity of its internal counterparts. Thus, although speakers might be included and therefore granted with equal participation (physical-inclusion) and communicative rights (communicative-inclusion), a legitimate consensus cannot be reached to the extent that different interpretative-communities are ontologically defined in opposition to each other.

B. Discursive Inclusiveness: Identity and the Concept of Stereotyped-image

As Janice-Stein (2001, pp.190–191) points out, an interpretative-community engaged in inter-communitarian relations exists exclusively in virtue of its inter-subjectively constructed identity. Namely, its essence is a reflection of those "beliefs and scripts" through which the community itself is known by those outside of it. Yet, to the extent that a group's identity is defined in opposition to another group through stereotyped-images (i.e. a set of beliefs considered by the community as normatively characterizing "the other"), membership in this group will pass through a process of differentiation and antagonisation (Mitzen, 2006).

---

[1] This approach has been integrated into Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) by the work of Forchtner (2010).

In this respect, stereotypes tend to perpetuate themselves independently of any benevolent intentions of the counterpart, providing members with "ready-made responses" (Hopf, 2010). For this reason, once in place, stereotypes of antagonisation not only increase the level of certainty and self-confidence of the community's identity, but also stimulate a hostile response from the counterpart, generating a "cycle of reciprocal-behavior" that increases the level of path-dependency inherent in the stereotype (Stein, 2001, p.196).

While, group-leaders might be particularly enlightened to grasp and overcome stereotypes, it is hard to see how they could ever relinquish a constitutive trait of their identity without necessarily losing legitimacy within their interpretative-community. It is in this respect that, along with the concepts of *physical-* and *communicative-inclusiveness*, it is possible to identify a third level of inclusiveness rooted in the subjects' stereotyped-image of one another – i.e. we shall name this, *discursive-inclusiveness*.

C. Discursive-inclusiveness as a Metaphorical Feature

How can stereotyped-images be detected and classified in order to assess their level of discursive inclusiveness? Drawing on Laclau and Mouffe's (1985) discourse theory, this study posits *articulation* as the main ground for theoretical inquiry and *language* as the primary site of its manifestation.

According to Laclau, language does not represent a mere communicative device, but is instead a social phenomenon itself. It is through debate, disputes, and negotiations that structures of meanings are fixed and challenged. By engaging in communication people participate in a constant "strive" for the fixation of meaning (Jorgensen and Phillips, 2002, p.25). As in a sort of "fishing-net" that is constantly stretched and released, social actors create and re-create their social world by associating signs to different concepts in a process of *articulation*: "we will call articulation any practice establishing a relation among elements such that their identity is modified as a result of the articulatory-practice." (Laclau and Mouffe, 1985, p.105) In this respect "discourse is the structured totality resulting from the articulatory practice" – i.e. the fixation of elements into moments through a process of identity formation in which the meaning of each sign depends on its relation to the others[2].

From an empirical perspective, *articulation* draws on metaphorical language according to which different elements are recontextualised within different discourses. Indeed, to the extent that the essence of a metaphor is "understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another" (Lakoff and Johnson, 2003, p.6), *articulation* is by definition a metaphorical activity. By fixing meanings in relation to nodal points, *articulation* operates metaphorically as it does not generate elements ex novo, but it (re)articulates them through the enactment of specific liaisons (Lakoff and Johnson, 2003, p.153; Torfing, 1999). Notably, as reported by Laclau and Mouffe (1985, pp.110–111), "[…] metaphor[s] are not forms of thought that add a second sense to a primary […]; instead, they are part of the primary terrain itself in which the social is constituted." It is in this respect that "all discourse of fixation becomes metaphorical" and, it is in virtue of its metaphorical construction that fixation is never fully achieved and re-articulation is constantly brought into play. Hence, by re-articulating the structure of meaning embedded in several discursive-domains, metaphors intrinsically reshape people's thinking and acting (Black, 1993; Lakoff and Chilton, 1999, pp.54–55; Lakoff and Johnson, 2003, p.217).

Critically, the understanding of metaphor put forth in this article goes beyond the traditional realm of poetic and figurative language as semantic tools of embellishment (Lakoff, 1992, p.2); instead, metaphors become a fundamental element "of our ordinary, conventional way of conceptualizing the world" in terms of which we categorize our daily experience (Lakoff, 1992). Metaphors are cognitive frames, rather than direct comparisons: "a value system adopted to communicate linguistically a certain phenomenon." (Charteris-Black, 2005, p.18) This process is described also by Lakoff and Johnson (2003, pp.29) when referring to the metaphorical structure of discourses as constructed realities aimed at stabilizing the way of thinking of a certain community: "[o]ntological metaphors [...] are so natural and so pervasive in our thought that they are usually taken as self-evident, direct descriptions of social phenomena".

In this context, an analysis of the metaphors used by elites and governments' representatives in their statements sheds light on how discursive practices are constructed within an interpretative-community by means of constant "[re]articulation" (Jorgensen and Phillips, 2002, p.28). Accordingly, metaphor analysis embodies the third dimension of the Discourse-Historical-Approach put forth by Wodak and Reisigl (2009, p.93) – i.e. "Examining linguistic means and the specific, context-dependent linguistic realisations" – and, in this way, it helps unveiling the grounds on which the validity of a certain utterance is substantiated within an interpretative-community.

For the sake of clarity, metaphorical articulation by political leaders is not necessarily constitutive of a community's stereotyped images. Yet, a considerable amount of literature points to the critical role that government statements assume as instruments to forge public opinion (Cohen, 1995; Spencer, 2011, p.10). Governments' statements can inspire commitment and acquiescence among the public (Conger, 1991). Furthermore, their metaphorical construction can be instrumental in achieving a certain purposive aim (Charteris-Black, 2005; Mio et al., 2005, p.292). In fact, as we observed, effective persuasion needs to relay on a plethora of meaning shared by the public and their representatives (Jowett and O'Donnell, 1992, p.22). Even if we accept that the use of metaphorical articulations is independent of the manifestation of a group's identity, its analysis is still important to the extent that it is revealing of a specific rhetoric aimed at shaping, orienting and normalising discursive practices within a given community.

---

[2] A similar concept is expressed by Wodak-Reisigl (2009) in their definition of interdiscursivity and recontextualisation.

To the extent that political speeches can be used as a persuasive tool of opinion-making, rather than just opinion-stating, politicians may adopt specific metaphorical articulations with the aim of justifying certain policies in front of specific audiences. For instance, as reported by Kampf (2012), the political discourse of Palestinian recognition embedded in statements of sorrow, regret and apology has been subjected to strategic political calculations aimed at justifying conflicts or preventing undesirable international consequences by different Israeli leaders throughout the last decades. In a context where the process of identity formation is continuously renegotiated between victims and perpetrators, as well as government and opposition, it is important to avoid generalizing from results of a very limited sample to speak of broad characteristics of a diverse, multi-ethnic, multi-religious society such as Israel. Yet, despite not fully representative of their interpretative community, such official discursive events help to set the public agenda, increasing public awareness and understanding of some basic issues in the conflict (Kampf, 2012; Shamir et al., 1998).

IV. CASE STUDY: HAMAS IN THE POST-2006 ISRAELI POLITICAL DISCOURSE

The aim of this section is to provide a case-study for the third level of inclusiveness developed in this essay – i.e. *discursive inclusiveness*. The focus is placed on the discursive patterns underpinning the exclusion of Hamas from the 2010 peace talks starting from January 2006, the year of Hamas' electoral victory in the elections for the Palestinian-Legislative-Council.

A. Hamas and the 2010 Peace Talks

The Islamic-Resistance-Movement (Hamas) was created in 1987 by members of the Egypt's Muslim Brotherhood as a strategic action against the Israeli occupation of territories in the Gaza Strip, the West Bank and the Golan Heights. Its ultimate goal is the liberation of the historical Palestinian territory from the presence of Israel and the establishment of an independent Palestinian state under Islamic law. Furthermore, a second tenet of the Hamas' program is the "Islamization of society" – carried out through a profound concern for social justice, leadership accountability and democratic legitimation (Gunning, 2004, p.241; Mishal and Sela, 2006, pp.13–26).

Among the Western and Israeli public opinion, the optimism that the election of Mahmoud Abbas as president of the Palestinian Authority (PA) in 2005 generated in view of a future peace agreement in the Middle East was soon replaced by the emergence of a split inherent to the PA itself. The rivalry between Fatah and Hamas, the two main political powers in the Occupied-Palestinian-Territories, sharpened after Hamas' electoral success in January 2006 and the subsequent clash between the two factions, determining the emergence of two opposed Palestinian governments, one based in Gaza chaired by Hamas and the other in Ramallah (West-Bank) under the aegis of Fatah (Schanzer, 2008, pp.143–154). In this entangled situation, the Israeli government and the main international negotiators (i.e. the Quartet)[3] positioned themselves on the side of Fatah, imposing harsh sanctions against the Hamas' jurisdiction in the Gaza Strip (Turner, 2009).

This reaction brought about the economic and political isolation of Hamas culminated with the movement's exclusion from the 2010 direct peace talks, wherein the mediation of the Obama administration recognized solely Fatah as representative of the PA. The reason for the exclusion of Hamas from the talks was the latter's refusal to embrace the three fundamental tenets expressed in the Quartet's official statement on 30th January 2006 following the elections, i.e. the recognition of Israel, the renounce to violence and the acceptance of the Oslo Accords of 1993.

This article explores the discursive patterns underpinning the exclusion of Hamas from the peace process within the Israeli field of discourse. As the research conducted by Mullin (2010) demonstrates, the refusal of Israel and the International Community to engage Hamas in the talks is to be seen more as the result of the "epistemological and ontological challenges" the Islamic Movement poses to the "dominant normative framework of the Western liberal peace", than as a mere consequence of Hamas' failure to comply with the Quartet's conditions. Mullin points to the ontological structure of the Israeli discourse as the main systemic tool through which thoughts and opinions are shaped. Nevertheless, as it is the case for other studies on the subject (Delacoura, 2006; Gunning, 2004; Toomey and Singleton, 2014), what seems to be generally omitted is a clear-cut distinction between the exclusion of Hamas from the peace talks (in the sense of its non-participation in the negotiation process) and the way in which the latter is and has been portrayed in the Israeli official discourse.

B. Sampling

The units of analysis consist of key-speeches by Israeli Prime Ministers (PMs) and Ministers of Foreign Affairs (MFAs) between 2006 – year of the election for the Palestinian Legislative Council – and September 2010 – official starting date of the direct peace talks mediated by the Obama administration in Washington. Specifically, this study concentrates on 40 speeches selected from 69 speeches of PMs and 124 of MFAs. The selection was done on speeches where Hamas is mentioned in relation to a political context linked to the process of peace settlement; this includes asoects of territory boundaries, peace talks (e.g. negotiations), elections, diplomatic relations, administrative rule over the territory and internal or external governance.

---

[3] The Quartet, composed by the UN, the US, Russia and the EU, was constituted during a meeting between the US Secretary of State, the representatives of the UN, EU and Russia in Madrid in 2002.

This study adopts three main levels of sampling: time frame, official speeches and political relevance of the speeches.

With regard to the time frame, we concentrate on the post-2006 period. Indeed, as Habermas (1999, p.127) asserts, only an institutionalized procedure that guarantees the participation of all citizens to the deliberative process can guarantee the legitimacy of the final outcome. In light of the widespread international recognition for the fair conditions in which the 2006 electoral turnout took place (Quartet, 2006), it appears congruent to identify Hamas' success as a source of international legitimation.

Concerning the subjects whose speeches are analysed, namely the Israeli PM and MFA, the choice has been made because of the official position held by these actors. Whereas a more encompassing research should include sources from different political perspectives within Israel such as press articles and opposition keynotes, the analysis of official government's speeches allows us to draw some initial conclusion on patterns of discursive inclusiveness put forth by the Israeli administration. These are by no means exhausting and, as specified in section 3.3, no claim is made to imply that such statements mirror the Israeli people's view with respect to Hamas.

Finally, the third level of selection is the political relevance of the speeches. The units of analysis are chosen among issues concerning the peace process. This criterion is evaluated based on the title and context in which the speeches were given, granting privilege to those relating to an international environment linked to the Israeli position in the conflict.

C. Data Analysis

The case-study concentrates on the operationalisation of the third level of inclusiveness discussed in section 3 – i.e. *discursive-inclusiveness*. In a previous study, the author has defined the analytical categories to operationalise the first two stages of inclusiveness for the same case-study (Pasquali, 2012).

D. Operationalizing Discursive Inclusiveness

Section 3.1 linked the concept of discursive inclusiveness to that of identity and stereotyped images. Drawing on previous studies adopting metaphor analysis (Hülsse et al., 2008; Spencer, 2011), this section introduces four metaphorical images used to (re)articulate stereotypes about "the other" as part of a community's identity.

The categorisation of metaphors has been operated on the base of two main principles. Firstly, in order to determine whether a word is ascribable to a certain metaphorical structure, the current study makes use of dictionary definitions. As Hülsse (2006) points out, it is in dictionaries that the common knowledge concerning a particular phenomenon is normally stored. This operation allows the author to disclose the semantic relations between the two terms (see next sections for semantic-groups and examples).

Here, however, a problem emerges with regard to the persuasive use of speeches pinpointed in the previous paragraphs. Several authors have shown how politicians borrow discourses external to their interpretative-community to legitimise specific actions and policies (Graham et al., 2004; Jayyusi, 2012). This has also been the case in the Israel-Hamas relations wherein the Israeli government appropriated the discourse on "the war on terror" to legitimise and normalise the use of warfare (Toomey and Singleton 2014). According to Chilton and Ilyin (1993), an interplay between actors with different identities requires an analysis of the circumstances in which speech-acts occur. In order to account for the contextual aspect, the analysis of metaphor proposed here is accompanied by an assessment of the "field of action" surrounding the speech (Wodak and Reisigl, 2009, pp.90–91).

Moreover, metaphors cannot be interpreted without accounting for a subjective element. As Spencer (2011, p.9) points out, identifying expressions does always entail a measure of subjectivity and randomness. Similarly, as stressed by Cameron (2007, p.206), a metaphor can always fit into more than one specific category because of the indeterminacy inherent in the human process of "meaning making". In order to reduce the subjectivity inherent in the process of categorization, this study implemented a double-check procedure with the support of another two scholars (Johnson, 1997, p.287).

In light of this fundamental premise, it is now possible to define the four categories used in the analysis.

1. War-like metaphor

The use of war metaphors in reference to Hamas implies a process of mapping knowledge about war on the more abstract ontology of Hamas.

Attaching military metaphors to a particular idea renders the latter more understandable to the public inasmuch as it depicts a certain entity in terms of a rational military organization. Accordingly, the use of warlike metaphors entails the constitution of Hamas as an external enemy waging war against Israel – where war refers to a confrontation between alike-units induced by a state of competition, conflict or hostility.

Military reaction is the common denominator of war, as both parties are ready to respond military to every attack originating from the other side. However, it is exactly by fighting against each other on a like-base that both parties automatically legitimize their opponent. As Hülsse et al. (2008, p.585) acknowledge, a war situation describes a relation of parity between state-like entities wherein utterances such as "we can still maneuver" (Olmert 14/02/2006), "during a war these kind of mistakes can happen" (Livni 20/11/2006) and, again, "Hamas has now begun to be more like a small army and less a terrorist organization" (Livni 05/03/2008), construct a relation of enmity in which not only the use of one's own military force against the other becomes a logical consequence, but also negotiation and reconciliation constitute possible strategies not excluded a-priori. Table-1 in the appendix contains a list of metaphors falling under

this category.

2. Hamas as criminal

In contrast to the war-like metaphor, this second category entails the re-articulation of Hamas' in terms related to the semantic field of criminality. Accordingly, instead of referring to the Islamic movement as an "enemy" (Livni 10/02/2008) or a "small army" (04/03/2008) against whom waging war, the Israeli leadership identifies the latter as a "murder" (Olmert 23/10/2007), a "gang" or a group of "cronies" (Olmert 17/07/2006) committing illegal actions – such as "smuggling" (Livni 01/10/2007) and "kidnapping" (Netanyahu 14/06/2009) – that need to be "sanctioned" (Livni 04/07/2007).

The relation between the speaking subject and the object turns the latter into an "enemy within", i.e. a member of the former's community, whose criminal behaviour needs to be punished. Contrary to the war-like metaphor, by referring to Hamas as a criminal, the Israeli leadership establishes a hierarchical relation in which the Islamic movement does not represent a "like-unit", but rather an inferior and illegitimate actor (Spencer, 2011). In this sense, the shift of structural metaphors from war enemy to 'criminal' determines the delegitimation of Hamas as an "outlaw" that cannot be circumscribed but rests, instead, within Israel's society itself.

Accordingly, if, on the one hand, a war enemy is a like-unit whose "right to exist" is normally acknowledged by the opposite side, on the other, a criminal is always illegitimate: not only he refuses to recognize the same rules of the game, but he deliberately breaks these rules calling for state policing and juridical countermeasures aimed at achieving "deterrence" (Livni 02/02/2009; 11/01/2009). In this case, the latter's behaviour is usually considered as "non-rational" (Liberman 28/04/2009) and unacceptable according to the moral standards shared by a community. Table-1 in the appendix contains a list of metaphors falling under this category.

3. Universal evil-like metaphor

The use of a universal evil-like metaphor implies the re-articulation of the other's attributes in terms of those typical of an absolute threat whose mere existence is viewed as profoundly immoral and harmful for the social body.

In this respect, the construction of the other's identity as evil excludes from the beginning every discussion on the reasons guiding the latter's actions (Spencer, 2011). Indeed, to the extent that the other is classified as morally evil, its political aims are automatically delegitimized and the motives behind its behavior ascribed as an unbearable "threat" bearing exclusively to "brutal actions" (Olmert 15/02/2009). Accordingly, such metaphorical construction implies an extreme form of polarization of the relations between the two actors: on one side the 'good guys' and, on the other, the 'badies'.

By means of the evil metaphor every form of negotiation or compromise becomes not only impossible but also unthinkable; indeed, "no deal can be done with the devil". The only solution, in this sense, is to fight and "eradicate the obstacle" (Olmert 26/03/2008) along with its "extreme ideology" (Livni 01/10/2007). Table-1 in the appendix contains a list of metaphors falling under this category.

4. Political adversary-like metaphor

The structural metaphors described so far have been ordered in terms of their reconciliatory nature. If in a war-like context the room for reconciliation is tight but present, the same does not apply to the two other categories. Indeed, while, on the one hand, the exclusion of negotiation generated by criminal metaphors still allows for redemption by means of punishment and deterrence, on the other hand, the adoption of universal-evil utterances prevents every concrete possibility for reconciliation.

Chantal Mouffe (2005) acknowledges a separation between antagonism in war-like terms and an 'agonistic struggle' within a shared political arena. While, on the one hand, antagonism refers to a dispute of enemies aiming at each other's destruction; agonism, on the other, implies a relation among adversaries who "respect the right of [their] opponent to defend his or her point of view" (Worsham and Olson, 1999). In this sense, an adversary differs from an enemy to the extent that his/her demands are recognized as legitimate within an inclusive democratic discourse (Mouffe, 2005, p.50); that is, an adversary is "somebody whose ideas we combat but whose right to defend those ideas we do not put into question." (Ruitenberg, 2009)

The category of 'war-like enemy' does not disappear tout-court but remains present to indicate "those who do not accept the democratic 'rules of the game' and who thereby exclude themselves from the political community" (Worsham and Olson, 1999). The agonistic dimension coexists next to its antagonistic counterpart as a "struggle between opposing hegemonic projects" that, by means of democratic institutions and practices, reduces the probability of a violent outcome in the political debate (Mouffe, 2005, p.21).[4]

Examples of political-adversary metaphors are reported in table-1. It is important to notice here that, whenever Hamas is linked to a political adversary terminology, this is often done in a negative context aimed at denying rather than recognizing the role of Hamas as legitimate political player.

5. Field of action

According to Wodak and Resigl (2009), interdiscursivity implies that discourses are often linked to each other in various ways. As stressed in the previous sections, this is particularly relevant to the extent that metaphorical articulations can be used as means of persuasion that depend more on the specific context surrounding the speech rather

---

[4] Mouffe's (2000) debate on the concept of *agonism* and *adversary* is embedded in her critique of Habermas model of deliberative democracy.

than on shared values between the speaker and the public (Charteris-Black, 2005; Kampf, 2012). For instance, several studies have focused on the (re)contextualisazion and appropriation of the post 9/11 discourse of the "war on terror" within local arenas such as the post conflict political discourse in Serbia (Erjavec and Volcic 2007), the (re)construction of the Muslim-other within the Western society (Jayyusi 2012), and the relationship between the Sri Lanka Government and the Tamil Tigers (Toomey and Singleton, 2014).

In this context, Wodak and Resigl (2009, pp.90–91) use the term "field of action" to indicate a segment of social reality that constitutes the frame of a discourse: "a discourse about a specific topic can find its starting point within one field of action and proceed through another one." Yet, whereas the link between discourses external and internal to the Israeli interpretative-community, as well as differences within the community itself (e.g. different ethnic and religious groups, as well as political parties…), is acknowledged as a limitation in the study, it is still possible to contextualise the analysed speeches in relation to their audience and circumstances. This categorization should unveil some preliminary insights on whether the metaphorical structure of discourse is influenced by its context. For this purpose, each of the 40 speeches has been coded using three dummy variables depending on whether: (i) it was addressed to an international or local-audience; (ii) it was held during a period of national election or not; and (iii) it was given during an ongoing conflict or not[5] – refer to table-2 in the appendix.

E. Results

As presented in table-2 in the appendix, the metaphor "Hamas as war" is preeminent. This trend suggests that, whilst Hamas' exclusion from the peace process is certainly a consequence of its failure in complying with the Quartet's conditions, its inclusiveness in the Israeli official discourse displays an ontological challenge to Israel's identity. The extent to which the metaphorical structure of the discourse is a cause or a consequence Hamas' non-compliance with the Quartet's conditions however remains questionable.

Yet, the pre-eminence of the war-enemy metaphor should not be regarded as a way-out from a conflicting situation. The cornerstone of the antagonist relationship between war enemies is a mutual and shared desire for the other's final capitulation and destruction. In this sense, despite the status of parity enjoyed by the parts, a war-like approach freezes (although it does not erase) the chances for an unconstrained and inclusive dialogue. As Mouffe (2005) points out, this situation can be overcome only through a 'field of competitiveness' in which the right of 'the other' to defend its own view is guaranteed by the democratic structure in which the discourse between the parties is embedded. Now, as table-2 illustrates, this dynamic is inconsistent with the position taken by the Israeli leadership since 2006. In fact, to the extent that political-adversary metaphors are used, they are always placed within a negative context where the adversary role is directly denied rather than asserted.

Looking at the data in the appendix, a shift in the Israeli discourse on Hamas seems to have occurred at the end of 2008 in conjunction with Israel's execution of the Operation Cast-Lead in Gaza. During this period (December 2008-January 2009) the number of references to Hamas has drastically shifted from a majority of universal evil and criminal metaphors to a significant increment in the number of war-like related terms. This trend, observable in table-2, becomes particularly striking in the case of FM Livni, whose number of analysed speeches constitutes more 50% of the total units of analysis. The ratio between war enemy and universal evil metaphors raised from 1.2 (34/28) to 3 (77/26) between 2008 and 2009. One year before, during the internecine clashes between Fatah and Hamas, these ratios were substantially inverse and the number of universal evil references outperformed alone the number of war-like related terms.

These results are in accordance with what asserted in section 3. Indeed, after the 2006 elections, the first objective of Israel was to delegitimize Hamas by offering exclusive support to the latter's political opponent Fatah. As it emerges, this process of delegitimation also assumed a discursive connotation in which the identification of Hamas as universal evil might have fostered the exclusion of the latter to the advantage its political counterpart Fatah. Likewise, the sudden switch at the end of 2008 – i.e. from a criminal/universal evil structural metaphor to a war one – might to relate to the Israeli government need to justify Operation Cast-Lead as a legitimate act of warfare in front of the national and international public.

Finally, the analysis of the field of action in Table-2 displays a significant relationship between the field of action surrounding a speech-act and its metaphorical structure. Specifically, the use of paired t-tests on the 40 speeches evidences how war-like metaphors are more likely to be used during both election and conflict periods,[6] although the concurrence of the 2009 election with the Operation Cast-Lead might indicate an overlapping between the two groups' significant outcome. Similarly, criminal-like metaphors appear to be significantly more recurring during conflict periods.[7] This patterns may suggest that persuasive speeches are adopted by leaders to justify a certain course of actions (Charteris-Black, 2005), rather than being reflective of an interpretative-community. In this sense, the numerous references contained in the analysed speeches depicting the Cast-Lead operation as a local act of an international "war on terror" bring further support to this consideration (Livni 29/12/2008; 03/01/2009; 05/01/2009; 11/01/2009;

---

[5] "Electoral" refers to whether the speech was given in a time approaching national elections, whereas "conflict" refers to whether there was an upcoming, ongoing or recently concluded military operation in Gaza by the IDF.
[6] 0.01 significance-level.
[7] 0.05 significance-level.

15/01/2009; 21/01/2009) and highlight the need for further research on the circumstances underpinning the (re)contextualisation of external discourses within localised contexts (Erjavec and Volcic, 2007; Jayyusi, 2012; Toomey and Singleton, 2014).

V. CONCLUSION

Drawing on Habermas' theory of discourse ethics, the object of this essay has been to identify, classify, and operationalise different categories of inclusiveness within the context of international negotiation and conflict-resolution.

The article conceptualised three degrees of inclusiveness for the achievement of legitimate agreements. Whereas the first two levels – i.e. physical and communicative – constitute the core of the Habermasian theory and have so far been applied in several studies, less attention has been paid to the stereotyped-images constituting one community's identity and defining its intersubjective relation to other external communities. In this respect, section 3 has introduced the concept of discursive-inclusiveness as the perceived image that an interpretative-community has of "the other". As we argued, it is possible to provide some insights on the degree of discursive-inclusiveness of a community by critically evaluating the articulation of its official statements, with a focus on the metaphorical language adopted by governments and other official institutions. This article empirically evaluated this approach through an analysis of the Israeli governments' official speeches relating to Hamas in the post-2006 scenario. Results have been summarized in section 4.5.

Critically, official statements often imply an element of persuasiveness aimed at building rather than reflecting a community's identity. For this purpose, acknowledging the influence of external circumstances (referred here as the field of action) on official statements is pivotal. For instance, we showed how the use of a 'war-like' metaphor by Israeli official may have been instrumental in justifying the Operation Cast-Lead under the tenet of the "war on terror".

Several aspects are still open to further research. Namely, the extent to which different forms of inclusiveness (physical, communicative, and discursive) are essential to the achievement of long-standing agreements remains questionable. In this respect, future work should focus on the relation between international negotiations, identity formation and the metaphorical structure of discourse. Furthermore, scholars need to shed light on the link between broader international shifts and the (re)contextalisation of discourses such as the "war on terror" and the "axis of evil" not only on the political justification of repressive actions (Erjavec and Volcic, 2007; Toomey and Singleton, 2014), but also as a persuasive instrument of identity formation (Wodak and Reisigl, 2009). Finally, as we observed, official statements often reflect a number of different institutions and audiences that co-exist within a community (e.g. political parties, civil society organizations, religious groups…). It is therefore critical to shed further light on how these diverse internal institutions interact to shape the government's official discourse in relation to other external communities.

APPENDIX

TABLE-1
LIST OF METAPHORICAL THEMES BY CATEGORIES (EXAMPLES)

War	Criminal	Universal evil	Political adversary
"Abu Mazen sought to hold these elections with the participation of the Hamas, claiming that he did not have the legitimacy to fight the terror organizations and to disarm them. [...]" (Livni 26/02/2006) "On both fronts we are exercising self-defense in the most basic and essential sense" (Olmert 17/07/2006) "During a war these kind of mistakes can happen" (Livni 20/11/2006) "This in order to give those Palestinians who, I believe, want to live in peace as well, the opportunity to understand that Hamas cannot deliver..." (Livni 17/01/2007) "I do think there are other measures, beyond dramatic military steps that we can take" (Livni 01/10/2007) "Hamas is the enemy of Israel, Hamas is the enemy of the Palestinians and Hamas is the enemy of the free world that is seeking peace" (Livni 10/02/2008) "We can see the smuggling of weapons and the buildup of a small army by Hamas within the Gaza Strip. [...] With this process of buildup in Hamas, we are now facing a small army... [...] To work with the moderates to try and find a peace treaty while fighting Hamas. [...] Even though we are on the front lines" (Livni 04/03/2008)	"The region in which we live is threatened by these murderous terror groups. Israel will not be held hostage – not by terror gangs..." (Olmert 17/07/2006) "There is no comparison in any kind of legal system which is based on the values of society between a murderer and between somebody who is killed by mistake. [...]" (Livni 20/11/2006) "Gaza falling into Hamas' hands... [...] One that is not run by Hamas and is not a Hamas government in the guise of a coalition government..." (Livni 18/06/2007) "[Hamas is] suffocating the voices of hope and co-existence wherever it can. [...] I believe a price has to be paid for the daily attacks on Israel from Gaza." (Livni 01/10/2007) "Now clearly, this border is being used - abused by - Hamas in order to smuggle weapons into the Gaza Strip and this is something that we cannot afford." (Livni 05/03/2008) "Iran's fingerprints are evident in almost every terrorist organization across the Middle East, from Hamas and Islamic Jihad in the Gaza Strip. [...] Tens of thousands of innocent Israeli citizens live daily in constant fear and anxiety, under a barrage of missiles, serving as pawns in a cruel, malicious game of roulette played by the Hamas and its cronies in the Gaza Strip." (Olmert 04/06/2008) " And our ability to maintain this boycott [punishment] for a few years already."	"The world is also aware of the fact that it is undesirable to have a Palestinian Authority with two heads, the good guy and the bad guy" "Remove this threat from the Middle East. [...] Will we consent to living under the threat of this Axis of Evil?" "We all know that the Gaza Strip is dependent on Israel's goodwill in several things. [...] The ideology of Hamas is an extreme ideology. There is no hope for the Palestinians and for Israel with Hamas on board" (Livni 01/10/2007) "If Hamas decides to continue its wild terrorist attacks. [...] The cruel reality created by Hamas..." (Olmert 17/01/2008) "Hamas is an obstacle" (Olmert 26/03/2008) "The existence of an axis [of evil][1] stretching from Tehran through Damascus to the Hizbullah in Lebanon and the Hamas in the Gaza Strip" (Olmert 18/12/2008) "Hamas is an extremist Islamic organization. It lives off fear and hate [...]. The road to peace passes through the war on terror, extremism, hate and incitement. [...] The thin line between what is allowed and what is forbidden must not be crossed -	"In fact for the first time Hamas leader, Haniyeh, said that he is willing to give up his post as a prime minister in an understanding that he needs and the Hamas needs to win legitimacy from the international community" (Livni 20/11/2006) "[...] the opportunity to understand that Hamas cannot deliver - not in economic terms, nor in political terms" Livni (17/01/2007) "Whoever voted for Hamas, whoever lives in Gaza and warmly accepted these terrorists, will now find themselves in a situation where their leadership and government do not receive legitimacy, money or support from the international community and have no political horizon to offer them" (Livni 18/06/2007) "The Hamas is not considered to be a good partner..." (Livni 04/07/2007) "It gives Hamas the keys to the negotiations. And I hope that this was the last time that happens" (Livni 12/03/2008) "Because I'm not going into a room with Hamas; I don't want to give them legitimacy [...] To legitimize Hamas is not in Israel's interest..." (Livni 03/01/2009)
'The idea of war is not part of our vision but, yes, we need to protect our citizens and this is the reason that when Israel is under attack we need to react" (Livni 12/03/2008) "The entirety of this tremendous missiles store is aimed at the State of Israel's civilian home front. [...]" (Olmert 18/12/2008) "The road to peace passes through the war on terror, extremism, hate and incitement, which means a war against Hamas and those like Hamas" (Livni 29/12/2008) "While targeting the Hamas, we try to avoid civil casualties, but unfortunately, during this kind of war sometimes... [...] Not to expect Israel to find a way to reach a treaty with the Hamas. This is not going to happen" (Livni 08/01/2009) "So we started this operation and this was the military objective of the operation..." (Livni 11/01/2009) "Hamas was badly stricken, both in terms of its military capabilities and in the infrastructure of its regime. [...] It placed its military system in crowded residential neighborhoods... [...] If our enemies decide that the blows they have already suffered are not enough..." (Olmert 17/01/2009) "Third, complete, total, ceasefire and any hostile activity by the Hamas from Gaza. [...]." (Olmert 15/02/2009)	(Livni 18/12/2008) "Hamas, which is holding the population hostage. [...] The thin line between what is allowed and what is forbidden must not be crossed - between legitimate and illegitimate, between right and wrong" (Livni 29/12/2008) "Hamas took the Palestinians in the Gaza Strip hostage. [...] They are abusing the willingness of Israel to work and to provide an answer the humanitarian needs. [...]" (Livni 08/01/2009) "One is impairing the other side's ability; the other is impairing motivation. [...]" (Livni 11/01/2009) "There is a huge difference between a murderer and somebody who kills by mistake. And this is the moral distinction between Hamas, who keeps these civilians hostage, and our soldiers" (Livni 11/01/2009) "We are acting against Hamas, since this is a terrorist organization, which, in a way, is abusing the fact that it controls the civilian population in order to target Israel..." (Livni 03/03/2009) "Murderers of Israeli citizens. [...] Threatened by murderous terrorist organizations (in reference to Hamas)..." (Olmert 17/03/2009) "This cruel, murderous terror organization that has not allowed the Red Cross to visit Gilad Shalit even once during his years of captivity. [...] The second principle is to prevent the release of mass murderers. [...] These are arch-murderers who planned and carried out the most shocking and horrendous terror attacks, in which an extremely large number of innocent Israeli citizens were murdered" (Netanyahu 01/07/2010)	between legitimate and illegitimate, between right and wrong" (Livni 29/12/2008) "I would say that the Gaza Strip controlled by Hamas is a burden not only to Israel but to the Palestinians themselves. [...] It is a conflict between moderates and extremists" (Livni 10/01/2009) "It represents an ideology of hatred and what they call "resistance." So hope for Palestinians, and Israelis as well, lies in the peace process track with the legitimate Palestinian government while all of us need to work against extremism and the kind of terror being used by Hamas" (Livni 21/01/2009) These brutal terrorists in Gaza... [...] Arab leaders are threatened by the extremity of these organizations..." (Olmert 15/02/2009) Hamas represents the extremists in the region. They are trying to act according to their own ideology of resistance, of acting against anyone who lives in the region" (Livni 03/03/2009) "It was not independence, and not because they believe in Hamas's radical ideology... [...] Today you have the influence of some non-rational players... (Referring to Hamas)" (Lberman 28/04/2009)	"The Hamas leadership in Gaza and Damascus surely understand" (Livni 11/01/2009) "Hamas cannot be legitimized unless it accepts the international requirements" (Livni 15/01/2009) "The international community decided, after Hamas won the elections, that the only way to give legitimacy to them is if they accept the international requirements" (Livni 21/01/2009) "There is another thing which is important for us, and it is related to the crossings – not to the humanitarian aid, but to something that Hamas wants to happen from its own political perspective" (Livni 03/03/2009) "Hamas cannot be a partner to any discussions, any talks or any process" (Liberman 28/04/2009) "Both of these organizations, whose proclaimed primary purpose is the destruction of the State of Israel, cannot be legitimate partners in any negotiations" (Liberman 03/06/2009) "I think that Hamas is making a mistake but the ball is in their court" (Netanyahu 01/07/2010)

TABLE-2:
EXTENDED MATRIX OF METAPHOR AND FIELD OF ACTION ANALYSIS.
Int=1 If The Context Of The Speech Is International And 0 If Local; Election=1 If The Speech Was Held During Election-Time; Conflict=1 If The Speech Was Held In Conflict Time. The Numbers Reported In The Metaphor Columns Refer To The How Many Times A Metaphorical Theme Was Used.

Speaker	Date	CONTEXT			METAPHOR			
		Int.	Election	Conflict	WAR	CRIMINAL	EVIL	ADVERS.
Olmert	14/02/2006	1	1	0	5	0	0	1
Olmert	17/07/2006	0	0	1	1	4	2	0
Olmert	13/03/2007	1	0	0	0	3	0	2
Olmert	23/10/2007	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
Olmert	17/02/2008	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
Olmert	26/03/2008	1	0	1	2	1	1	1
Olmert	04/06/2008	1	0	0	0	4	0	0
Olmert	18/12/2008	0	1	1	2	0	2	0
Olmert	17/01/2009	0	1	1	3	4	2	1
Olmert	15/02/2009	1	1	1	3	4	3	0
Olmert	17/03/2009	0	1	1	0	2	0	0
Netanyahu	14/06/2009	0	0	0	1	1	1	0
Netanyahu	15/11/2009	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
Netanyahu	01/07/2010	1	0	1	0	8	3	1
Netanyahu	08/07/2010	1	0	0	0	2	0	0
Netanyahu	20/09/2010	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
Livni	26/02/2006	1	1	0	2	0	1	0
Livni	20/11/2006	1	0	1	2	2	7	2
Livni	17/01/2007	1	0	0	3	2	8	1
Livni	18/06/2007	1	0	0	0	2	5	2
Livni	04/07/2007	1	0	0	3	2	2	1
Livni	01/10/2007	1	0	0	4	3	8	0
Livni	22/01/2008	0	0	1	1	0	4	1
Livni	10/02/2008	0	0	1	4	0	3	0
Livni	04/03/2008	1	0	1	5	4	5	0
Livni	05/03/2008	1	0	1	3	3	2	0
Livni	12/03/2008	1	0	1	8	0	2	1
Livni	18/12/2008	0	1	1	2	4	3	0
Livni	29/12/2008	0	1	1	6	8	6	0
Livni	03/01/2009	0	1	1	5	1	0	4
Livni	05/01/2009	1	1	1	16	1	1	1
Livni	08/01/2009	1	1	1	9	3	0	1
Livni	10/01/2009	1	1	1	5	2	3	0
Livni	11/01/2009	1	1	1	10	8	0	3
Livni	15/01/2009	1	1	1	3	5	3	1
Livni	21/01/2009	1	1	1	9	9	3	1
Livni	02/02/2009	1	1	1	6	2	4	1
Livni	03/03/2009	1	1	0	2	3	2	2
Liberman	28/04/2009	0	0	0	3	2	3	1
Liberman	03/06/2009	1	0	0	0	0	1	2

REFERENCES

[1] Black, M. (1993). More about Metaphor. In Ortony, A. (ed.), *Metaphor and Thought*. New York: Cambridge University Press, 19–41.
[2] Cameron, L. J. (2007). Patterns of Metaphor Use in Reconciliation Talk. *Discourse & Society* 18.2, 197–222.
[3] Charteris-Black, J. (2005). Politicians and Rhetoric: The Persuasive Power of Metaphor. London: Palgrave Macmillan.
[4] Chilton, P. & M. Ilyin. (1993). Metaphor in Political Discourse: The Case of the `Common European House'. *Discourse & Society* 4.1, 7–31.
[5] Cohen, J. E. (1995). Presidential Rhetoric and the Public Agenda. *Am. J. Pol. Sci.* 39.1, 87–107.
[6] Conger, J. A. (1991). Inspiring Others: The Language of Leadership. *Academy of Management Executive* 5.1, 31–45.
[7] Delacoura, K. (2006). Islamist Terrorism and the Middle East Democratic Deficit: Political Exclusion, Repression and the Causes of Extremism. *Democratization* 13.3, 508–25.
[8] Erjavec, K. & Z. Volcic. (2007). 'War on Terrorism' as a Discursive Battleground: Serbian Recontextualization of G.W. Bush's Discourse. *Discourse and Society* 18.2, 123–37.
[9] Flynn, J. (2003). Habermas on Human Rights: Law, Morality, and Intercultural Dialogue. *Social Theory and Practice* 29.3, 431–457.
[10] Forchtner, B. (2010). Jürgen Habermas' Language-Philosophy and the Critical Study of Language. *Critical Approaches to Discourse Analysis across Disciplines* 4.1, 18–37.
[11] Gass, R. & J. Seiter. (2008). Credibility and Public Diplomacy. In Snow, N. & P. Taylor (eds.), *Routledge Handbook of Public Diplomacy*. New York: Routledge, 154–165.
[12] Gavriely-Nuri, D. (2008). The `Metaphorical Annihilation' of the Second Lebanon War (2006) from the Israeli Political Discourse. *Discourse & Society* 19.1, 5–20.
[13] Graham, P., T. Keenan, & A. Dowd. (2004). A Call to Arms at the End of History: A Discourse–Historical Analysis of George W. Bush's Declaration of War on Terror. *Discourse & Society* 15.2, 199–221.
[14] Gunning, J. (2004). Peace with Hamas? The Transforming Potential of Political Participation. *International Affairs* 80.2, 233-255.
[15] Habermas, J. (1987). The Theory of Communicative Action (Vol. 2). Lifeworld and System: A Critique of Functionalist Reason. Boston: Beacon Press.
[16] Habermas, J. (1988). Popular Sovereignty as Procedure. In Bohman, J. & W. Rehg (eds.), *Deliberative Democracy: Essays on Reason and Politics*. Cambridge, MA: M.I.T. Press, 35-66.
[17] Habermas, J. (1990). Discourse Ethics: Notes on a Program of Philosophical Justification. In Habermas, J. (ed.), *Moral Consciousness and Communicative Action*. Cambridge, MA: M.I.T. Press, 43-115.
[18] Habermas, J. (1998). Towards a Critique of the Theory of Meaning. In Cooke, M. (ed.), *On the Pragmatics of Communication*. Cambridge, MA: M.I.T. Press, 277-306.
[19] Habermas, J. (1999). Between Facts and Norms. Contributions to a Discourse Theory of Law and Democracy. Cambridge, UK: Polity Press.
[20] Habermas, J. (2006). The Divided West. Cambridge, UK: Polity Press.
[21] Habermas, J., C. Cronin, & P. De Greiff. (1998). The Inclusion of the Other: Studies in Political Theory. Cambridge, MA: M.I.T. Press.
[22] Head, N. (2008). Critical Theory and Its Practices: Habermas, Kosovo and International Relations. *Politics* 28.3, 150–159.
[23] Spencer, A. & R. Hülsse. (2008). The Metaphor of Terror: Terrorism Studies and the Constructivist Turn. *Security Dialogue* 39.6, 571–592.
[24] Hülsse, R. (2006). Imagine the EU: The Metaphorical Construction of a Supra-Nationalist Identity. *Journal of International Relations and Development* 9.4, 396–421.
[25] Jayyusi, L. (2012). Terror, War and Disjunctures in the Global Order. In Freedman, D. & D. K. Thussu (eds.), *Media and Terrorism: Global Perspectives*. London: Sage Publications, 23-46.
[26] Johnson, R. B. (1997). Examining the Validity Structure of Qualitative Research. *Education* 118.2, 282-292.
[27] Johnstone, I. (2004). The Power of Interpretive Communities. In Barnett, M. & R. Duvall (eds.), *Power in Global Governance*. New York: Cambridge University Press, 185-204.
[28] Jorgensen, M. & L. J. Phillips. (2002). Discourse Analysis as Theory and Method. London: Sage Publications.
[29] Jowett, G. & V. O'Donnell. (1992). Propaganda and Persuasion. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.
[30] Kampf, Z. (2012). From 'There Are No Palestinian people' to 'Sorry for Their Suffering': Israeli Discourse of Recognition of the Palestinians. *Journal of Language and Politics* 11.3, 427–447.
[31] Laclau, E. & C. Mouffe. (1985). Hegemony and Socialist Strategy. London, UK: Verso Books.
[32] Lakoff, G. (1992). The Contemporary Theory of Metaphor. In Ortony, A. (ed.), *Metaphor and Thought*. New York: Cambridge University Press, 202-251.
[33] Lakoff, G. & P. (1999). Foreign Policy by Metaphor. In Schäffner, C. & A. Wenden (eds.), *Language and Peace*. Amsterdam: Ashgate, 37-59.
[34] Lakoff, G. & M. Johnson. (2003). Metaphors We Live By. London: The University of Chicago Press.
[35] McCarthy, T. A. (1979). The Critical Theory of Jürgen Habermas. Cambridge, MA: M.I.T. Press.
[36] McClintock, E. & T. Nahimana. (2008). Managing the Tension between Inclusionary and Exclusionary Processes: Building Peace in Burundi. *International Negotiation* 13.1, 73–91.
[37] Mio, J. S., R. E. Riggio, S. Levin & R. Reese. (2005). Presidential Leadership and Charisma: The Effects of Metaphor. *Leadership Quarterly* 16.2, 287–294.
[38] Mishal, S. & A. Sela. (2006). The Palestinian Hamas. New York: Columbia University Press.
[39] Mitzen, J. (2006). Ontological Security in World Politics: State Identity and the Security Dilemma. *European Journal of International Relations* 12.3, 341–370.

[40] Mouffe, C. (2000). Deliberative Democracy or Agonistic Pluralism? *IHS Political Science Series Working Paper* 72.

[41] Mouffe, C. (2005). On the Political. New York: Routledge.

[42] Mullin, C. (2010). Islamist Challenges to the 'Liberal Peace' Discourse: The Case of Hamas and the Israel—Palestine 'Peace Process'. *Millennium - Journal of International Studies* 39.2, 525–546.

[43] Pasquali, G. (2012). The Role of Hamas in the Israeli Discourse: From Discourse Ethics to Cognitive Linguistics. Saarbrueken: LAP Lambert.

[44] Ruitenberg, C. W. (2009). Educating Political Adversaries: Chantal Mouffe and Radical Democratic Citizenship Education. *Studies in Philosophy and Education* 28.3, 269–281.

[45] Schanzer, J. (2008). Hamas vs. Fatah. The Struggle for Palestine. New York: Palgrave MacMillan.

[46] Shamir, B., E. Zakay, E. Breinin & M. Popper. (1998). Correlates of Charismatic Leader Behavior in Military Units: Subordinates' Attitudes, Unit Characteristics, and Superiors' Appraisals of Leader Performance. *Academy of Management Journal* 41.4, 387–409.

[47] Spencer, A. (2011). Bild Dir Deine Meinung: Die Soziale Konstruktion von Terrorismus in Den Medien. *Zeitschrift für Internationale Beziehungen* 18.1, 1–25.

[48] Stein, J. G. (2001). Image, Identity, and the Resolution of Violent Conflict. In Crocker, C.A., F. O. Hampson & P. Aall (eds.), *Turbulent Peace: The Challenges of Managing International Conflict*. Washington D.C.: United States Institute of Peace Press, 189-208.

[49] Toomey, M. & B. Singleton. (2014). The Post-9/11 'Terrorism' Discourse and Its Impact on Nonstate Actors: A Comparative Study of the LTTE and Hamas. *Asian Politics and Policy* 6.2,183–98.

[50] Torfing, J. (1999). New Theories of Discourse: Laclau, Mouffe and Ziszek. Oxford, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

[51] Turner, M. (2009). The Power of 'Shock and Awe': The Palestinian Authority and the Road to Reform. *International Peacekeeping* 16.4, 562–577.

[52] Wanis-St John, A. & D. Kew. (2008). Civil Society and Peace Negotiations: Confronting Exclusion Introduction: Inclusion and Exclusion in Peace Negotiations. *International Negotiation* 13.1, 11–36.

[53] Wehrenfennig, D. (2008). Conflict Management and Communicative Action: Second-Track Diplomacy from a Habermasian Perspective. *Communication Theory* 18.3, 356–375.

[54] Wodak, R. & M. Reisigl. (2009). The Discourse-Historical Approach (DHA). In Wodak, R. M. (ed.), *Methods of Critical Discourse Analysis*. London, UK: SAGE Publications, 87-119.

[55] Worsham, L. & G. A. Olson. (1999). Rethinking Political Community: Chantal Mouffe's Liberal Socialism. *JAC* 19.1, 166–201.

Giovanni Pasquali holds a PhD in International Development from the University of Oxford, 2018. He further earned an MSc in Global Governance and Diplomacy at the University of Oxford in 2012, and an MA in International Relations at the Jacobs University Bremen (Bremen, Germany) in 2011.

He presently works as a Research Associate at Global Development Institute, University of Manchester, in the UK. Over the last three years, he worked as a Short-term Consultant for the World Bank, UN Environment, and the University of Oxford Technology & Management Centre for Development. He is the author of a number of journal articles, including: 'Rethinking the Governance of Labour Standards in South–South Regional Value Chains', *Global Networks*, 2019; and 'The Role of Diplomatic Culture in International Disputes', *Peace Review*, 2014. Currently, his research focuses on the public and private governance of Global Value Chains, with particular interest on aspects related to innovation and upgrading in small and medium enterprises in Eastern and Southern Africa.

Movie Subtitle Translation from the Perspective of the Three-dimensional Transformations of Eco-translatology: A Case Study of the English Subtitle of *Lost in Russia*

Tianhui Zhang
Shanxi Normal University, Linfen, China

Abstract—Eco-Translatology, a new eco-translation paradigm, is put forward by Chinese Professor Gengshen Hu and has been gaining popularity in recent years. Guided by the eco-translatology theory, the study analyzes the adaptive strategies that translators used in the English subtitle of Lost in Russia from the following dimensions: language, culture and communication. And the analysis sheds some light on subtitle translation and helps subtitle translators better apply eco-translatology to produce a well-received English version.

Index Terms—eco-translatology, three-dimensional transformations, subtitle translation, Lost in Russia

I. INTRODUCTION

Lost in Russia, produced by the renowned Chinese director Zheng Xu, was scheduled to be released in theaters in the New Year in 2020. However, due to the COVID-19, it has been released free online. However, the change has been met with mixed reviews that some people think it as innovation and others lambast it for breaking the rules. Although there are many people who have different opinions on it, the time will tell whether it is innovation or destruction.

Lost in Russia mainly tells the story of Ivan Xu, who plans to get his passport to the United States, gets on a train to Russia with his mother Xiaohua Lu accidentally. In the journey, he and his mother's contradictions become more acute because of the passer-by Natasha and Ivan's father. Meanwhile, he has to compete with his wife Lu Zhang for business in the US. In order to reach Moscow in time, he and his mother have to overcome the difficulties and understand each other gradually.

Lost in Russia's language is characterized by generous use of four-character idioms (chengyu) and humor. And the translator has handled it with selective adaptation and adaptive selection, which fully embodies the theory of eco-translatology.

This paper is composed of four parts.

Part 1 provides an introduction to the paper, including the movie *Lost in Russia* and the structure of the paper.

Part 2 is the theoretical framework. In this section, it makes a brief introduction of Prof. Hu's Eco-Translatology, and makes a short statement of three-dimensional transformations as well as the subtitle translation.

Part 3 is the major part of the paper. It conducts a detailed case study of the subtitle translation of Lost in Russia. In this section, 16 examples are put under discussion.

Part 4 is the concluding part which summarizes the current situation of Chinese films and gives pointers for the subtitle translation.

II. THEORETICAL BASIS AND ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

This part expounds on the theory of eco-translatology, and gives a general introduction to the analytical framework of the three-dimensional transformations. In addition, the subtitle translation is also briefly introduced in the end.

A. Eco-translatology

Eco-translatology, a new paradigm of translation study, is put forward by Chinese Prof. Hu Gengshen who has been inspired by modern ecological wave of "return to nature" and borrowed Darwin's principle of natural selection in translation studies (Tongtong Ma, 2019, p.14). It is the first attempt to make an overall and scientific combination translation and ecology and has been gaining more and more attention from translation theorists.

According to Gengshen Hu (Gengshen Hu, 2013, p.485-499), eco-translatology views translation as a harmonious eco-system and probes into translational eco-environments, textual ecology and translation community as well as their interrelationships and interplay. And he defines translation as a production of target texts by "natural" selection by means of the translator's adaptation to the eco-environment. This explanation can be simplified to a formula: Translation=Adaptation + Selection (Gengshen Hu, 2013, p.86-87).

B. Analytical Framework of the Three-dimensional Transformations

Eco-translatology upholds that a best translation is one that has the highest degree of holistic adaptation and selection. It is argued that the translator should take into account as many factors in the translational eco-environment as possible. Given that the translational eco-environment includes the worlds of the source text and the source/target languages, the linguistic, communicative, cultural and social aspects of translating as well as the author, the client and the readers, it is unpractical and unfeasible to make selection and adaptation in all these aspects. As a result, transformations in the linguistic, cultural and communicative dimensions are the foci in translating and the principle of the three-dimensional transformations is accepted as the guiding one for translating (Chenying Yang, 2019, p.16).

Gengshen Hu (Gengshen Hu, 2004) pointed that the idea of "three-dimensional transformations" was actually a kind of translation method that made some adaptive selections in the linguistic, cultural and communicative dimension. And there is an inherent correlation among the three dimensions: translation is the transformation of languages; language is the carrier of culture and culture is the result of communication. And the following will introduce the three transformations.

1. Linguistic transformation

Linguistic transformation concerns the adaptation and selection at various levels, including but not limited to the language style of being formal or informal, simple or complex, the use of rhetoric devices and punctuation (Chenying Yang, 2019, p.20).

2. Cultural transformation

Since translation is a way of communication that transcends the barrier of language and culture, cultural differences are the root of potential misunderstanding. Hence the translator should keep cultural consciousness in mind and try to break through the barriers arising from the cultural differences.

3. Communicative transformation

In accordance with eco-translatology, the translator should attach attention to communicative transformation apart from transformation in the linguistic and cultural dimensions. Specifically, on the one hand, the translator should ensure that the overall communicative purpose of the source text is fully embodied in the target text and transferred to the target readers; on the other hand, the translator should assure that the form and connotation of the source language and culture should be transferred to the readers (Chenying Yang, 2019, p.21-22).

By making selective adaptation and adaptive selection in the linguistic, cultural and communicative dimensions, the translator should achieve the harmony and balance of the translational eco-environment, and ensure the survival and long lasting of the transformed ecology.

C. Subtitle Translation

Apart from pictures and sounds, subtitle translation is one of the tools the audience used to gain information from a foreign film. Therefore, it plays a vital role in the promotion of a film across foreign countries. According to Jorge Diaz and Aline(Chenying Yang, 2019, p.6), subtitling can be defined as a translation practice that consists of presenting a written text, generally on the lower part of the screen, that endeavors to recount the original dialogue of the speakers, as well as the discursive elements that appear in the image (letters, inserts, graffiti, inscriptions, placards), and the information contained on the soundtrack (songs, voice). Therefore, subtitling can be seen as a process of achieving a harmonious co-existence between the action on the screen, the translated text and the level of readability.

So is the subtitle translation of *Lost in Russia*. The translator should make a compromise between the desire to faithfully translate and the necessity to meet the technical and textual constraints on subtitle translation and manage to achieve harmony of the environment in a bid to produce a well-received translation.

III. ANALYSIS FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF THE THREE-DIMENSIONAL TRANSFORMATIONS

In this section, it selects 16 examples from the subtitle of *Lost in Russia* and sets out to make a case study of the subtitle translation from the linguistic, cultural and communicative dimensions respectively.

A. Linguistic Dimension

Adaptation and selection in the linguistic dimension is the most underlying job in translation. It requires that the translator makes adaptive selection and selective adaptation in the linguistic environment of the source text and source language and adopts an equivalent that goes in line with the reading habit of the target readers in such aspects as language forms or rhetoric devices (Chenying Yang, 2019, p.23).

Based on the characteristics of English and Chinese, it is different in sentence structure that Chinese is parataxis while English is hypotaxis. And Wenguo Pan pointed out that "English takes the verb as the center in theory, while in fact, it is dominated by the noun. As for Chinese, it takes the noun as the focus in theory, while in fact, the verb has a certain advantage in it" (Wenguo Pan, 1997, p.397). Therefore, it can be found that due to the different ways of logic between Chinese and English, there are dynamic and static transformations in the translation.

In short, the selection and adaptation in the linguistic dimension can be mainly conducted at the adaptation of parataxis and hypotaxis and the balance between dynamic and static.

1. The adaptation of parataxis and hypotaxis

Now that the sentence structures are diverse between Chinese and English, selection and adaptation in the part are common in the subtitle of Lost in Russia. For example:

(1) ST: 我妈一开门我突然抱住她我妈会以为我爸又活过来了

TT: If I do that, my mom would think my dad's risen from the dead.

This statement is uttered by Ivan Xu to Lu Zang when she advises him to hug and care for his mother but he is not willing to. The TT adds the word "if" to emphasize the subjunctive mood. And it clears up the logic of the ST.

(2) ST: 后来你妈说要坐火车你还不高兴了

TT: You were upset when your mom said to take the train.

The translator removes "后来" instead of the "when". In this way, it restores the linear structure of English makes the TT more authentic and it is a concise way of adaptation and selection.

(3) ST: 找律师拖住他们 我随后就到

TT: Hold them with a lawyer, until I get there.

The translator adds the word "until" to manifest the implicit logical relationship between the two clauses in ST, so as to achieve the adaptive transformation in the linguistic dimension.

2. The balance between dynamic and static

The description of the same objective can be static or dynamic. Therefore, the translators should "adapt according to circumstances" and choose the better one to translate. Here are some examples:

(4) ST: 他应该吃几块红烧肉 脸上的肉是横着长还是竖着长 什么时候要孩子 膀胱几点钟排水 你全部都设定好了

TT: How much pork to eat, pig face or horse face to grow, when to have a baby, and when to drain your bladder, are all set by you.

This statement is uttered by Ivan Xu to his mother Xiaohua Lu when he complains about her way of education. The TT adapts the words "pig" and "horse" to visualize the phrase "横着长还是竖着长". The translation shows a perfect transition between static and dynamic without losing its comic humor.

(5) ST: 这咋还飞出来了呢

TT: Now Peter Pan?

This statement is said by the trainman to Ivan Xu when Ivan is ejected from the compartment. The translator's choice of the word "Peter Pan" not only shows the balance between dynamic and static, but also shows the cinephile of the trainman. Because in the previous plot, when Ivan wants to get on the train and clings to the door regardless of the danger, the trainman describes Ivan as the Spider-Man. In addition to these，there are Inception and Titanic that the translator used to describe Ivan's behavior. The names of these movies are a good reflection of the three dimensions.

(6) ST: 就像我和维克多一样，曾经那么好，可是他把我抛弃了，他把我弃如敝履了

TT: Just like Victor and me. I was his Miss-Dreamy. Then he dumped me. Like I was a Miss-Nightmare.?

The statement is uttered by Natasha to Ivan when they talk about her boyfriend. The TT adapts the words "Miss-Dreamy" and "Miss-Nightmare" to translate the phrases "曾经那么好" and "弃如敝履". The two nouns show the affection and separation between Natasha and her boyfriend vividly. And the nouns show a perfect transition between static and dynamic.

B. Cultural Dimension

Apart from the language difference between China and western countries, the cultural difference is also an important aspect to discuss. There are many Cultural words in the movie. In order to introduce these words to foreigners, the translator needs not only translational skills, but also a thorough understanding of Chinese culture. Therefore, it is important that the translator's selective adaptation and adaptive selection between the ST and TT.

(7) ST: 这是一句歌词吗

TT: Is that Beyonce's lyric?

This statement is asked by Ivan Xu to Lu Zhang when Lu says "你还记不记得上一次给你妈妈的拥抱时在什么时候(When was the last time your mom got surrounded by your embrace?)". Lu's word is similar to Lee Zongsheng's lyrics from "The Hills(山丘)". Depending on the plot, Ivan's reply is not just a question, but also an emotion. Therefore, the translator uses the famous singer Beyonce who sings the song Halo which is about embrace in order to reflect Ivan's mood and makes it clear to foreign audiences.

(8) ST: 你觉得她那个样子长得像个抢劫犯吗

TT: She is Natasha, not the Black Widow!

In this statement, the word "she" refers to Natasha who is a beautiful Russian and studies ancient Chinese in China. This question is asked by Ivan Xu to his mother Xiaohua Lu when he wants to emphasize that the girl Natasha is like kind rather than his mother's suspicions. Coincidentally, Black Widow is also played by an actress called Natasha. The translation doesn't detract from the cultural connotation, and it achieves the effect of the comedy.

(9) ST: 一江春水向东流吧

TT: Hakuna Matata!

This statement is uttered by Natasha when she plans to forget everything and moves on. In order to convey Natasha's words and achieve the comic humor, the translator borrows the lines from *The Lion King*. Because of learning ancient Chinese, Natasha's lines contain many idioms and poems in the movie. Besides that, there are some words like "物是人非(Once Upon a Time in America)", "孝顺(be a good son)" and "头上三尺有神明(God will be watching you!)" *etc*.

(10) ST: 你是在背乘法口诀吗

TT: Are you writing a poem here?

In this statement, the translator replaces the text "背乘法口诀" with the phrase "writing a poem". She may consider that the foreigners couldn't understand the implication of the real "multiplication tables" in the statement. This word is asked by Ivan Xu to his mother Xiaohua Lu when she talks endlessly with some four-character idioms. Therefore, the "poem" shows the language arts and the cultural connotation in the context.

C. Communicative Dimension

The last dimension is the communicative dimension, which emphasizes the interpersonal intentions. In this dimension, the translator cares more about how to communicate with the target readers. Gengshen Hu believes that the translator should "focus on the communicative level of selection transformation, and pay attention to whether the communicative intention in the ST can be expressed in the translation" (Gengshen Hu, 2004:138). There are a lot of difficult four-character idioms and oral expressions in the film, and the proper translation will achieve win-win results. For example:

1. The transformation of the four-character idioms
(11)ST: 就像我们这样 露水姻缘

你是想说萍水相逢吧

其实应该是一丘之貉

TT: Just like us, like Jack and Rose.
You mean Shrek and Donkey?
Actually, it is Leon and Mathilda.

This statement is uttered by Natasha when she tries to approach Ivan. The translation of the three components comes from three famous films and references their characters. "露水姻缘" is translated as "Jack and Rose" here, it means that Natasha describes her relationship with Ivan like Jack and Rose in the Titanic-that is-falling in love at first sight. And "萍水相逢" is translated as "Shrek and Donkey" who are the characters from Shrek, this means that the relationship of Natasha and Ivan is as pure as Shrek and Donkey. As for "一丘之貉", it is translated as "Leon and Mathilda" from the Leon. Here Natasha expresses her sympathy and similar experience with Ivan, and at the same time, implies that they will never be together in the end. It is very interesting that the translator cites the characters from three classic films to translate the cultural words and achieve the humor.

(12) ST: 警钟长鸣啊 徐伊万

你不要在外面猫三狗四的 横七竖八的 做了一堆不着四六的事情

最后搞得乱七八糟 一塌糊涂的

TT: Ivan, stay alert!
Stop messing around, fooling around, and playing around.
You can scatter around but not goof around.

This statement is uttered by Xiaohua Lu to Ivan Xu when she is teaching him to be a good man. The translator is very flexible to translate this series of idioms, so that the TT is concise and rhyming like a poem.

(13) ST:他们正在床上兴风作浪，你知道吗？结果被我爸爸瓮中捉鳖

TT: My dad ambushed them when they were rolling in the deep on bed.

This statement is said by Natasha to tell Ivan Xu the reason why she broke up with her boyfriend. The translator uses the two verbs "ambush" and "roll" to show the situation about "兴风作浪" and "瓮中捉鳖". And it makes the viewers know what happened to them.

2. The transformation of the colloquial language
(14) ST: 亲生的啊

TT: Like mother, like son.

This statement is uttered by the trainman when he feels that Ivan and Xiaohua have the same temperament that both of them are very stubborn. And in later plots, Xiaohua also says "你跟你爸一个德行你(Like father, like son!)" to Ivan. The translator uses the word "like" to make the TT colloquial so that the audience can be well understood.

(15) "大铁锁"
a. ST: 大铁锁是怎么回事
TT: What's with the lock?
b. ST: 什么大铁锁啊
TT: What lock?
a. ST: 大铁锁

TT: The gigantic lock!

a. ST: 密码锁下面上了一把大铁锁

TT: There's a ferocious lock under the code lock.

The statements are uttered between Ivan and his mother. To get his passport, he goes home but finds that there is an iron lock on the door besides the code lock. And then he has to meet his mother to get the key. Later, the quarrel begins between them. From "the lock", "the gigantic lock" to "a ferocious lock", we can feel Ivan's frustration and anger in ST And TT. The translator effectively conveys Ivan's emotion and achieves the communicative dimension.

(16) ST: 不要再搞我了好吗

不要再折磨我了好吗

不要再侮辱我了好吗

踏踏实实坐到底好吗

可以不可以

好还是不好

TT: Stop messing with me, ok?

Stop torturing me, ok?

Stop insulting me, ok?

Stay still till the end, ok?

OK or not OK?

Yes or No?

This statement is uttered by Ivan when his mother gets off the train alone. He is very angry and asks several questions in succession. To reflect his tone, the translator also uses a series of translation to make the TT colloquial.

IV. CONCLUSION

With the deepening of globalization, China has had a greater discourse power in the economic and political field and the soft power of culture has become one of the key areas of competition. Therefore, the export of cultural production has become not only a driver for economic growth but also an important channel for the outside world to know about China (Chenying Yang, 2019, p.1). Besides the quality of the films themselves, the poor export of Chinese films also lies in the quality of translation. However, there are not so many excellent translators in the Chinese film industry, what's more, the market of translation is not standardized. Therefore, it is necessary to make a breakthrough in translation.

Eco-translatology embodies the integrity of ecological environment under the principles of language dimension, culture dimension and communication dimension. Based on the analysis of the English subtitles of Lost in Russia, the translator has chosen effectively in "adaptive selection" and "selective adaptation". According to the current situation and demand of Chinese films, the government should strengthen the training of translators and speed up the formation and standardization of the translation mechanism. As for translators, when they are translating film subtitles, they should create more funny jokes, highlight the characteristics and reduce the difficulties to adapt to the ecological environment of the film. What's more, it is also significant for translators to improve their cultural accomplishment and apply eco-translatology to their future work.

REFERENCES

[1] Chenying Yang. (2019). A Study on the Subtitle Translation of Youth from the Perspective of the Three-Dimensional Transformations Principle of Eco-Translatology. MA dissertation, China Foreign Affairs University.
[2] Gengshen Hu. (2004). An Approach to Translation as Adaptation and Selection. Wuhan: Hubei Education Press, 138.
[3] Gengshen Hu. (2013). Eco-translatology: Construction and Annotation. Beijing: Commercial Press, 485-499.
[4] Tongtong Ma. (2019). A Study on Lin Yutang's Translation of *Six Chapters of A Floating Life* from the Perspective of Eco-Translatology. MA dissertation, China Foreign Affairs University.
[5] Wenguo Pan. (1997). An Outline of Chinese-English Contrastive Study. Beijing: Beijing Language and Cultural University Press, 397.

Tianhui Zhang was born in Shanxi, China in 1996. She is currently a graduate student in the School of Foreign Language, Shanxi Normal University, Linfen, China. Her research interests include sociolinguistics and translation.

The Association between Beliefs about Language Learning and Language Proficiency among Jordanian EFL Learners at Ajloun University College

Muntaha Ali Mohammad Al Momani
Department of English, Ajloun University College, Al Balqa Applied University, Jordan

Roba Mahmoud Ali Al-oglah
Applied Science Department, Ajloun University College, Al Balqa Applied University, Jordan

Abstract—This study aimed to examine the association between beliefs about language learning and language proficiency among Jordanian EFL learners at Ajloun University College. The data were gathered by two modified versions of data collection tools; a questionnaire examining the beliefs about language learning (developed by Horwitz (2001)) and (2) a language proficiency test (developed by Shoeib (2004)). The data collection tools were applied to randomly recruit 100 (Fifty male and Fifty female) participants from the English language department at Ajloun University College. The Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to process the gathered data and responses. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used to examine the association between the participants' beliefs about language learning and their language proficiency. The results of the study indicated that there is a strong association between the students' (males and females) specific beliefs (in both males and females) on learning English Language and the level of their language proficiency. Therefore, the results also revealed that female participants were more proficient in using the language compared to their male counterparts. The study ended up with a conclusion stating that other factors, in addition to the students; beliefs about language learning, such as students' achievement, are affecting the level of language proficiency.

Index Terms—foreign language learning, beliefs, language proficiency, Ajloun College University

I. INTRODUCTION

Recently, English has become an integral part of the daily lives of the world's population in general (Nunan, 2001). English has now been used in almost every area for international communication. The number of individuals who speak English as their native language has crossed the limit of 300 million, while more than 400 million individuals have adopted English as a foreign language (Crystal, 1985). The importance of the English language is increasing worldwide and even little knowledge of English is considered necessary as it brings more opportunities for jobs and employment. One of the aspects of language learning processes, that is gaining huge consideration, are the beliefs related to them. The beliefs of learners about foreign language are an essential part of educational research for the reason that they are considered a key feature associated with learners' progress.

To explore the beliefs of English language learners is a significant matter to gain insight regarding their needs and for further development actions. When the learners enter their language classroom, their personality features such as beliefs, attitudes, behaviors, and language learning styles also become a part of the learning environment. These beliefs can be interpreted as psychologically developed concepts and approaches regarding this world, and include common assumptions that language-learning students embrace about themselves as learners with the factors that influence their process of learning. Several studies had confirmed the fact that the successful people in foreign language learning are directly influenced by what they think and perceive about the target language, its target speakers, the culture, and the learning setting (Hosseini & Pourmandnia, 2013).

The emotions, attitude, and feelings of the learners affect their language learning process. The language learners may be influenced by the language learning processes, in both positive and negative ways. Therefore, the precise understanding of the expected effects while learning a foreign language can help in making the language learning or teaching process more practical and result-oriented. Another important feature that may hinder the language learning capability of a student is anxiety. It is one of the most distressing variables that refrain the students from successful learning of a foreign language. Anxiety can make the language learners nervous and afraid of the results of their poor aural/oral performance (Park & Lee, 2003).

In a traditional classroom setting, the educational approach is usually teacher-centered that focuses on instructional activities and pattern drills. However, some students may not understand language learning in this way. For this reason,

teachers are likely to meet students' expectations with the help of their teaching practices, or students may lose their confidence in language learning (Mason *et al.* 2013). This lost confidence would develop negative beliefs that will limit their ultimate achievement. For students, the procedure of exploring beliefs can allow them to understand themselves more in the learning process (Peacock, 1999). This process of exploring beliefs is the best way to guide students, both inside and outside the classroom setting, more effectively about the language learning process and facilitate learning with greater self-knowledge and autonomy (Yuen, 2002).

Many studies have been conducted on language learning beliefs and their impact on student learning (Horwitz, 1987; Bernat, 2004; Riley, 2009). The findings of such studies indicate that the linguistic information of students differs according to the attention they give to a task and the strategies they use to perform a task (Yuen, 2002). It had been observed that people who have positive attitudes of openness and curiosity, readiness to suspend disbelief or judgment regarding others' meanings, behaviors and beliefs are more successful in their oral proficiency of a foreign language (Gregersen and Horwitz, 2002).

It is quite clear for the researcher that the learner's beliefs have an important role in their experience, success, or failure as language learners. An understanding of learners' beliefs related to language learning processes can provide educators with a better understanding of their expectations, dedication levels, and satisfaction from foreign language learning classes. Based on the learner's beliefs, the teachers can decide on constructive teaching practices and methodologies. Besides, they can have a more flexible and rational approach in organizing learning opportunities for their lessons (Suwanarak, 2012)**.**

A. Statement of the Study Problem

Beliefs hold a pivotal position in each discipline and play a vital role in dealing with human behavior and learning (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Beliefs about learning refer to those general myths, perceptions, and viewpoints that language-learning students bring along with them to their joined institute (Bernat *et al.*, 2005).

Language learning refers to the process through which the language capability develops in a human. It is indeed true that learning a second language is not very easy, and is rather a very intensive and time-consuming activity (Oxford, 2003). This is why many techniques are utilized to get better in foreign language skills and one such technique is to enhance contact with the target language speakers. Although this is one of the ideal methods to improve language proficiencies in another language, its society, and culture, yet unfortunately, most of the second language learners remain unsuccessful in achieving their competence due to few chances of study abroad opportunities and get " impoverished or insufficient input in the target language" (Cummins, 1998, p. 3).

Individual beliefs and foreign language learning are closely related. Considering the classroom context, students' perceptions, beliefs, metacognitive processes to acquire knowledge and attitudes they bring along with them to the learning institution is recognized as an important factor contributing to their successful learning processes (Bernat *et al* .,2005). Beliefs of the students regarding their language learning may have a direct impact on their learning performance in their classrooms. For example, if a student believes that he does not have a good aptitude for foreign language learning, he would not put more effort to learn that language. This is how individual beliefs act as unlucky self-fulfilling predictions. The teachers must pay close attention to the students' beliefs to assess whether these beliefs have a positive or a negative influence on their learning capabilities (Bernat *et al.*, 2005).

Learners of foreign language usually have certain beliefs, ideas, and opinions related to foreign language learning based upon their personal experiences and the exposure they get from learning environments including both formal and informal (Kayaoğlu, 2013).

Because the students have gained a lot of experiences throughout their educational career, chances are high that they can build their very own beliefs about the features and factors that affect the perceptual process that can make any learning process effective or ineffective (AAAS, 1990). This effective or ineffective learning can also be influenced by factors such as anxiety or motivation. Based on this assumption, the present study has been designed to focus on the given study problem and is an attempt to investigate the potential relationship between beliefs and their influence on the learning outcomes of foreign language learners. The study also aims to investigate EFL learner's beliefs and their connection with English language proficiency.

"Foreign Language learning depends largely upon the beliefs, attitudes, and behavior of the students who decide to get enrolled in this program. However, the process of learning a foreign language is also influenced by many factors such as anxiety or motivation that can limit or encourage the students' learning ability of a foreign language". (Nespor, 1987, P. 317)

B. Objectives of the Study

Foreign language learners have a variety of beliefs concerning language learning and when they go to a classroom, they carry these beliefs to their classes as well (Altan, 2006). These beliefs have a great influence on the learning behavior of the students and affect their language proficiency, efficiency, and effectiveness of its acquisition (Yuen, 2002). The beliefs of students about learning a foreign language have an evident relevance to the understanding of their expectations concerning commitment, satisfaction, and success in their language-learning classes (Horwitz, 2001). Considering the importance of the beliefs of students about the foreign language-learning process, the key objectives of conducting this study are as follows:

- To identify the major beliefs held by foreign language learners regarding their foreign language learning.
- To evaluate the impacts (positive and negative) of students' beliefs on their foreign language proficiency.
- To assess the effectiveness of language learning regarding the students' beliefs.

C. Significance of the Study

In most developed countries, especially in Jordan, there are increasing attempts to develop the educational process, resolve its educational issues, and improve the educational process outputs. Thus, English language learning is a key concern for the educational authorities as it is a global language that participates efficiently in developing the educational system.

The present study holds a lot of significance and value for the daily teaching practices by providing insight about EFL learner's beliefs about language learning and their relationship to language proficiency at the higher education level. This study is important for the curriculum developers of foreign language courses who must keep in mind the assumption, beliefs, and expectations of foreign language learners while designing their courses. The targets, of course, must be planned in such a way that it meets the satisfaction criteria of the language learners, and reduces their anxiety levels, and encourages their motivation for foreign language learning.

This study can be significant because it could provide guidance for the teachers in getting knowledge about students' beliefs and enable them to devise learning strategies that can support and improve students' proficiency. Since students' beliefs have an impact on their use of effective strategies of language learning, therefore the knowledge gained from this study could assist in employing effective learning strategies.

D. Limitations of the Study

This study was confined to the investigation of the relationship between beliefs of EFL learners about language learning with their language proficiency. Also, participants of the study include the only second and third level of EFL students of the Faculty of Arts, Department of English at Ajloun University College in the academic year 2019/2020 . Narrowing the participants' category to the second and third-year students could be due to the ease of access of the researcher to this category of students.

II. RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS AND PROCEDURES

The present study is primary research based upon the analysis and the evaluation of the study questionnaire (adoption of the Horwitz Model of the Beliefs about language learning, 2001) and the Overall English Language proficiency test by Shoeib (2004) to assess whether the study sample possesses a satisfactory level of proficiency in English.

A. Sample

The participants of the study comprised of 50 male and 50 female students (n=100) EFL students enrolled in the undergraduate English course as a part of their degree program. The age group of the participants varies between 20 to 24 years for both males and females.

B. Instrument

The researcher analyzed the validity of the research instrument using Cronbach Alpha calculating the correlation coefficient on each axis of the study. The questionnaire used in this study comprised 34 close-ended questions, which were analyzed through a five-point scale of "Strongly Agree", "Agree", "Neither agree nor disagree", "Disagree", and "Strongly disagree". The questionnaire for this research presented items on student's beliefs under three categories including; general beliefs about learning a foreign language in males and females, the specific beliefs about the proficiency of learning a foreign language in males and females, and the beliefs about applying strategies to improve English language learning in both male and female participants

In addition to the close-ended questionnaire, the researcher has also used the English language proficiency test to examine the overall mean scores on the grammar, vocabulary, and translation. The language proficiency test was conducted to analyze the average performance of the participants regarding the English language semantics. Language proficiency test administration aimed to investigate the correlation between students; beliefs and their strategy use.

C. Beliefs about Language Learning Questionnaire (BALLI) Horwitz (2001)

The questionnaire used in this study is an adoption of the Horwitz (2001) of Beliefs about Language Learning, commonly known as BALLI (Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory) that has been employed to investigate the beliefs of the English language learners. The Likert method being an authentic and reliable approach to present the summated rating was utilized as a scaling technique to evaluate the attitudes and responses of the participants.

The adoption of the Likert scale in terms of evaluating participants' responses towards a series of statements is targeted to analyze participants' attitudes as to what level do they agree or disagree with the items of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire has been determined on five points namely, "Strongly Agree", "Agree", "Neither agree nor disagree", "Disagree", "Strongly disagree". Once the scale is determined, the values are assigned to each of these points

for scoring purposes. The point "Strongly Agree" has been scored 5, "Agree" is ranked as 4, "Neither agree nor disagree" is given a weightage of 3, "Disagree" is allocated a score of 2, and "Strongly disagree" has been assigned score 1. To take out the average score on each item, the total scores are summed up or average. This is how, Likert scale is a multi item scale, following a summative model.

The researcher has ensured while selecting items of the questionnaire that they must be characteristic, which implies that they should either present a positive or negative opinion on each statement instead of selecting neutral items that do not work properly on a Likert scale as they fail to present a definite position regarding the attitude of the participant.

It is important to mention that while making this questionnaire, the researcher has made use of the previous qualitative and quantitative researches such as Kayaoğlu (2013) that helped to produce the questionnaire being used in the present study. The questions in this questionnaire have been framed to evaluate the following categories:

1. The general beliefs about learning a foreign language in male and female participants:

The items 1 to 5, 10, 11, 22, 24, 25, 26 & 34 (a total of 12 items) from the questionnaire have been formulated to analyze the general beliefs related to learning a foreign language for both male and female participants. These items reviewed the common beliefs of the participants as to how they view English language learning as an easy or a difficult practice for them.

2. The specific beliefs about the proficiency of learning a foreign language (in male and female participants):

The questionnaire items 5, 6, 15, 18, 23, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, and 33 (a total of 12 items) have been used to evaluate the personal beliefs of the English language learners towards their language proficiency and learning of a foreign language. An estimation of these items was assisting the researcher to explore the participants' personal perceptions/ beliefs regarding English language learning.

3. Beliefs about applying strategies to improve English language learning   (in both male and female participants):

The questionnaire items 7,8,9,12,13,14,16,17,19,20 and 21(a total of 11 items) have been used to review the appropriate language strategies that can be employed by the language learners to improve their English language learning. An evaluation of these items will show the different techniques /strategies that the language learners can use to improve their language proficiency (items had been adopted from Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL).

D. The Validity of the BALLI

TABLE (1)
THE GENERAL BELIEFS ABOUT LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN MALE AND FEMALE

Item	correlation
1	0.6558794**
2	0.7155969**
3	0.2693746**
4	0.7130345**
5	0.7873321**
10	0.6595496**
11	0.2625348**
22	0.1164606*
24	0.1428126*
25	0.6943967**
26	0.7554408**
34	0.4815681**

**. Significant at the 0.01 level.
*. Significant at the 0.05 level.

Table (1) shows the Pearson correlation factor values for the questionnaire items measuring the correlation of general beliefs about learning a foreign language

The measure of sincerity axis from the above item shows that there exists a high degree of correlation between all ferries except for the item number 22 and 24, and all items are significant at 0.01 level of significance. The difference in significance levels (0.01 or 0.05) is related to the confidence interval utilized in the statistical analysis.

THE SPECIFIC BELIEFS ABOUT THE PROFICIENCY OF LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN MALE AND FEMALE PARTICIPANT

Item	correlation
6	0.585131**
15	0.2947114**
18	0.2480769**
27	0.2870307**
28	0.6315761**
29	0.6683504**
30	0.5957857**
31	0.7444554**
32	0.377438**
33	0.3851487**

**significant at the 0.01 level.
*significant at the 0.05 level.

Table (2) shows the Pearson correlation factor values for the questionnaire items measuring the correlation of specific beliefs about the proficiency of learning a foreign language among the study participants. The above table deduces the presence of a higher degree of correlation between the subcategory phrases (items number: 6, 28, 29, 30, 31) but shows a weaker correlation in the rest of the phrases with all items being significant at 0.01 level of significance.

E. The Specific Beliefs about the Proficiency of Learning a Foreign Language in Male and Female

Results are shown in table (3) show the Pearson correlation coefficient values among the study tool items related to the participants' beliefs about applying strategies to improve English language learning. There is a moderate to high correlation for items 9, 12, 14 16, and 19, and a weaker positive correlation for the rest of the items.

TABLE (3)
BELIEFS ABOUT APPLYING STRATEGIES TO IMPROVE ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING (IN BOTH MALE AND FEMALE PARTICIPANTS

Item	Correlation
7	0.4245818**
8	0.2457601**
9	0.7155726**
12	0.6489681**
13	0.268755**
14	0.5758473**
16	0.5387665**
17	0.30858**
19	0.6869261**
20	0.4717496**
21	0.2310281**

**significant at the 0.01 level.
*significant at the 0.05 level.

F. Beliefs about Applying Strategies to Improve English Language Learning in Both Male and Female Participants

It has been observed from the above table that there exists a high degree of correlation between the hub phrases (item number: 9, 12, 14, 16&19) but is weaker in the rest of the ferries but having all items being significant at 0.01 level of significance.

TABLE (4)
CORRELATIONS OF QUESTIONNAIRE AXES

Category	Correlations
The general beliefs	0.8896279**
The specific beliefs	0.9041025**
Beliefs about applying strategies	0.9156425**

**significant at the 0.01 level.
*significant at the 0.05 level.

It is evident from the above table that there exists a high degree of correlation between the axis of the questionnaire and the overall phrases.

G. The Correlation Coefficient between Axes

TABLE (5)
THE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN AXES (MALE)

		General beliefs	Specific beliefs	applying strategies
general Beliefs	Pearson Correlation	1	.221	.313[*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.123	.027
	N	50	50	50
Specific. Beliefs	Pearson Correlation	.221	1	.504[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.123		.000
	N	50	50	50
Beliefs about applying. Strategies	Pearson Correlation	.313[*]	.504[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.027	.000	
	N	50	50	50

*.significant at the 0.05 level.

**significant at the 0.01 level.

It was observed from the above table that there exists a direct relationship between all the axes of the questionnaire. The strongest relationship was observed between the specific beliefs on learning the English language and the beliefs on improving the strategies of learning, which was 0.504 at 0.01 level of significance.

TABLE (6)
THE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN AXES (FEMALE)

		GENERAL.BELIEFS	SPECIFIC. BELIEFS	APPLYING.STRATEGIES
GENERAL. BELIEFS	Pearson Correlation	1	.347[*]	.265
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.014	.063
	N	50	50	50
SPECIFIC. BELIEFS	Pearson Correlation	.347[*]	1	.665[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.014		.000
	N	50	50	50
APPLYING.STRATEGIES	Pearson Correlation	.265	.665[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.063	.000	
	N	50	50	50

*.significant at the 0.05 level.

**significant at the 0.01 level.

It was observed from the above table that there exists a direct relationship between all the axes of the questionnaire. The strongest relation was observed between the specific beliefs on learning the English language and the beliefs on improving the strategies of learning, which was (0.665) at (0.01) level of significance

H. Pilot Study of the BALLI / Questionnaire

The beliefs about foreign language learning questionnaire have been administered to the same sample (the overall English proficiency test sample) of the 10 students (5 males and 5 females) from the third and fourth-year students of the Department of English at the Faculty of Arts and Humanities at Ajloun University College. To determine the suitability and variety of statements to the students and their reliability.

I. Reliability of the BALLI / Questionnaire

TABLE (7)
RELIABILITY OF THE BALLI

Category	No of Items	Reliability
General beliefs	13	.729
Specific beliefs	10	. 722
Applying strategies beliefs	11	.701
Total	34	.882

The table above reveals that the reliability coefficient computed for the 12 items of the general beliefs about learning a foreign language in males and females was (.729). The 10 items of the Specific beliefs about the proficiency of learning a foreign language in male and female participants were (.722). The 11 items of the Beliefs about applying strategies to improve English language learning (in both male and female participants were (.701). The total of the

whole questionnaire was (.882) which indicates that the questionnaire is of high reliability and is appropriate for administration.

J. Scoring of BALLI Questionnaire

Using a 1 to 5 Likert scale, the scores of the positive statements ranged from 5 to strong agreement to 1 for strong disagreement. All items of the Horwitz (2001) Model of Beliefs about Language Learning (BALLI) are positive statements.

K. The Overall English Proficiency Test

The proficiency test used in this research is a modified version of the proficiency test by Shoeib (2004) and it comprises four sections

- Cloze (30%)
- Vocabulary (20%)
- Grammar (20%)
- Translation (30%)

    1. **Cloze test construction:** The close tests are used to measure high order skills, cohesion, and coherence. The present study has used a 184 words passage and has applied rational deletions to it to measure cohesion and coherence traits and the syntactic traits of the study participants. The close test involved three types of deletions: syntactic, cohesive, and coherence. The syntactic deletions depended only on clause level context, cohesive depended on inter-clausal or intersentential cohesive context and coherence depended on parallel patterns of coherence. A total of 15 items were observed in this test.
    2. **Multiple choice vocabularies:** Four choices of different words were given to select the best one that could fill in the gap of the given statement.
    3. **Grammatical structure:** Students are given twenty statements that they are required to complete, correct, supply, and converse as per given instructions.
    4. **Translation:** The translation part has two passages. The first passage consists of 60 words that are to be translated from English into Arabic. The topic concerns unemployment. The main objective of adding this passage is to analyze the ability of the students to produce the grammatical and the lexical features of the source language as accurately as possible by locating their equivalents in the target language both in their meaning and the style.

The second passage requires to be translated from Arabic into English. This passage comprises of 41 words on the topic of education. The main purpose of this passage is to identify if the students can produce the grammatical and the lexical features of the target language as accurately as possible by locating their equivalents in the source language both in their meaning and the style

L. Objectives of the Overall Proficiency Test

The objectives of conducting the proficiency test are to see that the students can:

- Provide appropriate cohesion makers that are missing in the text
- Supply a syntactic trait deleted from the text
- Can complete suitable coherence markers which fit the spaces in the text
- Can recognize the appropriate word out of four distracters to suit the statement gap
- Can produce the accurate grammatical structure needed in the form of completion, supply, conversion, or correction
- Can give appropriate grammatical and lexical features of the source language by locating their equivalents in the target language with the same style and meaning
- Can provide appropriate grammatical and lexical features of the target language by locating their equivalents in the source language with the same style and meaning.

M. The Validity of the Overall English Proficiency Test

The test has been reviewed by the professors of Teaching English as a Foreign language that has read and judged it to suit the subjects and the purpose of this study.

TABLE (8)
VALIDITY OF THE OVERALL ENGLISH PROFICIENCY TEST

Alpha Cronbach	No. of Items
0.966	4

The result was 0.966 which considered a high and acceptable value for test validity.

TABLE (9)
CORRELATION OF EACH PART WITH TOTAL MARKS OF THE TEST

Close test	.839**
Vocabulary	.946**
Grammar	.967**
Total translation score	.941**

** Significant at the 0.01 level.

It was observed from the above table there is a positive correlation between each section marks and the total mark and they are all statistically significant at the 0.01 levels.

N. Pilot Administration of the Overall English Proficiency Test

The test has been administered to a randomly selected sample composed of the 10 students from the study sample (BALLI sample) from the seventh and eighth levels students of the Department of English at the faculty of Arts at Ajloun University College. The purpose of conducting this test was to determine the suitability of the test to the students by analyzing their reactions and responses, calculating reliability, and the time needed to finish the test. The previous procedure had been performed to guarantee the validity, reliability, and consistency of the study instrument.

O. Reliability of The Overall English Proficiency Test

Due to the heterogeneity of the four parts of the test, a test-retest method was used to analyze the reliability of the test. The two administrations were separated for two weeks, to fulfill the test purposes and finding the differences between the scores of the two research groups. A reliability coefficient computed for the cloze questions (15) was (.84), for the grammar questions (20) using Alpha Cronbach the coefficient was (.97). The reliability coefficient for vocabulary questions (20) Alpha Cronbach the coefficient was (.90) that indicates high reliability.

TABLE (10)
RELIABILITY OF THE OVERALL ENGLISH PROFICIENCY TEST

Alpha Cronbach	**Items**
.934	4

The above table shows that the result is 0.934 which considered a high and acceptable value for test reliability

TABLE (11)
TESTING THE RELIABILITY OF THE OVERALL ENGLISH PROFICIENCY TEST

Test	**Correlation**
Cloze Test	.839**
Vocabulary	.946**
Grammar	.967**
Translate into Arabic	.901**
Translate into English	.896**

**significant at the 0.01 level.
*significant at the 0.05 level.

Table (11) shows the Pearson correlation factor values among the Overall English Proficiency Test components. Results indicate that there a strong positive correlation values for all of the test parts, which indicates that there is significant reliance on the Overall English Proficiency Test to answer the study questions or test the study hypotheses.

P. Timing of the Test

The researcher added the time which was taken by the first student to that taken by the last student to finish the test and divided it by two. So, the mean time calculated for the test was two hours and twenty minutes.

III. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The present study is primary research based upon analysis and the evaluation of the study questionnaire (adoption of the Horwitz Model of the Beliefs about language learning) and the Overall English Language proficiency test developed by Shoeib (2004).

A. Testing of the Hypotheses

It was noted that there is a direct relationship between the total scores of the proficiency test and the total male beliefs on learning a language with the value 0.264

The previous result is in line with the other previous studies such as Malcolm's (2004) study that showed that the EFL learners' beliefs on how important being good at English was for them represented how satisfied they were with different aspects of their English proficiency. Both the male and female respondents in this study believed that language

learning is considered as dealing with an unfamiliar environment where the learner must make sense of through more exposure to the language and this more exposure would result in enhancing their language proficiency.

Another study by Al–Khairy (2013) conducted on the Saudi EFL/ESL learners indicated that the participants insisted on having 'more language courses' and some 'extra coaching facilities to help the weaker students to overcome their academic writing problems which indicated that a positive learner belief assists to enhance learners' proficiency.

A similar observation was seen in Suwanarak (2012) study where almost all of the EFL/ESL students with at least 91% of them believed that they needed regular practice to improve their language learning and communication skills. The study by Kayaoğlu (2013) also showed that there exists a possible correlation and a correlation between learner beliefs and their strategy use to improve their language proficiency. A study by Cheng (2001) also claimed that the influence of learners' belief in language learning is mediated by individuals' beliefs and goals, and thus supported the hypothesis of the present study. Cheng (2001) research also indicated a close relationship with second language anxiety and learners' self-perceived competence in learning the language.

B. *The First Hypothesis*

There are significant differences in 0.01 levels between male and female learners (BALLI) in favor of female learners.

TABLE (12)
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MALE AND FEMALE IN BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING

	gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean		Sig.
general.beliefs1	**male**	50	3.6450	.33790	.04779	Equal variances assumed	.026**
	female	50	4.5550	.20105	.02843	Equal variances not assumed	
SPECIFIC.beliefs1	**male**	50	3.6980	.42064	.05949	Equal variances assumed	.246**
	female	50	4.5700	.27866	.03941	Equal variances not assumed	
BELIEFS ABOUT APPLYING STRATEGIES	**male**	50	3.7636	.40239	.05691	Equal variances assumed	.058*
	female	50	4.4655	.28786	.04071	Equal variances not assumed	

*.significant at the 0.05 level.

**significant at the 0.01 level.

Results are shown in table (12) reveal that, mean scores of the answers by female students for beliefs were higher compared to answers given by male ones so that females' answers tend to strongly agree to the male answers they tend to agree, which proves the hypothesis that there are differences in beliefs in favor of females, which means that females are likely than males to believe that students who learn a second language are more proficient in the English language.

It has been observed from the above table that the t-test value, which was calculated for all BALLI, axes (general beliefs, specific beliefs, and applying strategies) in case of assuming the variation is equal in more than (0.005) which verified the second hypothesis.

This hypothesis has been partially supported by a few of the previous studies. The study by The study by Malcolm (2004) that was conducted on the Arab medical school students also highlighted that most of the respondents (including both males and females) seemed generally satisfied with their ability in English, regarding the study purposes that may be attributed to the fact that a high number of respondents had attended and graduated from the English-medium schools.

A study by Adas and Bakir (2013) is in agreement with the current study hypothesis and indicates that constant exposure to the resources and materials helps both the male and female students to store more information that may result in improving their language learning performance. This achievement of the students can be attributed to their high learning beliefs and their belief to accept blended learning activities.

The findings of another study by Huwari and Al-Khasawneh (2013) were also in partial accordance with the study hypothesis and showed that the study respondents (Pre-Year students at Taibah University, Yanbu branch) had declared some main themes behind their weakness of English writing which was the grammatical weakness, their knowledge, and understanding and lesser chances of practice, etc. Therefore, the teachers as well as the curriculum should be focused on these themes to improve the language proficiency of language learners. Overall this hypothesis was partially approved if viewed per the above-mentioned studies as most studies supported the fact that there exist major differences between male scholars and female scholars in their beliefs regarding foreign language-learning. However, none of them indicated that these differences in beliefs favor female learners.

This hypothesis of the present study accords with the other studies that were conducted in the past years on this topic. The analysis of the study by Malcolm (2004) showed that the EFL learners' belief on how important being good at English was for them portrayed how satisfied they were with different aspects of their English proficiency. Both the male and female respondents in this study believed that language learning is considered as dealing with an unfamiliar environment where the learner must make sense of through more exposure to the language and this more exposure would result in enhancing their language proficiency.

According to another study by Al–Khairy (2013), motivation is an important factor that is instrumental in successfully carrying out any activity and its significance is highlighted widely by a growing mass of motivational studies conducted in the field of second as well as foreign language learning contexts.

A similar observation was seen in Suwanarak (2012) study where almost all of the EFL/ESL students, with at least 91% of them believed that they needed regular practice to improve their language learning and communication skills.

The study by Kayaoğlu (2013) also showed that there exists a possible relationship and a correlation between learners' beliefs and their strategy use to improve their language proficiency. A study by Cheng (2001) also claimed that the influence of learners' belief in language learning is mediated by goals or beliefs of individuals, and thus supported the hypothesis of the present study. Cheng (2001) research also indicated a close relationship with second language anxiety and learners' self-perceived proficiency in learning a foreign language.

Generally, it is concluded from the previously presented results that there is a direct association between the students' specific beliefs (male and female) on learning English Language and the degree of their language proficiency. Therefore, this approves the first hypothesis of the current study.

C. The Second Hypothesis

There are significant differences of 0.01 levels between male and female EFL learners in their language proficiency in favor of female learners.

TABLE (13)
DIFFERENCES IN LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY BETWEEN EFL MALE AND FEMALE LEARNERS

gender		Cloze test	Vocab	Grammar	Trans. A to E	Trans. E to A	Total translation score	Total marks ?/100
male	Mean	10.82	15.60	10.10	4.54	7.56	12.06	64.78
	N	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
	Std. Deviation	3.816	3.464	6.052	2.908	2.417	5.048	23.292
female	Mean	11.30	15.50	10.64	5.24	7.64	12.88	67.36
	N	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
	Std. Deviation	3.370	3.352	5.506	2.677	2.117	4.702	20.763
Total	Mean	11.06	15.55	10.37	4.89	7.60	12.47	66.07
	N	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	Std. Deviation	3.590	3.392	5.762	2.803	2.261	4.871	21.990

**Significant at the 0.01 level.
*Significant at the 0.05 level.

It was observed from the above table (13) that the arithmetic average of the test amongst the male participants was (64.78%), and was (67.78%) amongst the female participants with a general average for both falling at (66.07%)

The efficient use of language through sections set as shown in the above table and through the average total scores for males and females is clear to us that the average score obtained by the males is (64.7) and females were average scores in all the test sections are (67.3) This means that females have efficiency using the language of a much higher degree than the male which validates the hypothesis.

The study by Javid & Umer (2014) which mentioned that the lesser support from the family as well as a society regarding providing female Arab EFL learners with adequate opportunities to practice and repeat the target language outside their classroom, creates a major barrier to their effective learning.

Moreover, the study by Abbasian, Khajavi& Mardani (2012)revealed that males use more effective learning strategies than female participants.

The research by Adas & Bakir (2013) also goes in line with the above hypothesis where it was highlighted that the belief in correcting their mistakes themselves and improving their learning unconsciously motivated both male and female participants to read more and write more and this exposure helped students to give more attention to the proper use of the language.

Kayaoğlu (2013) in his study also highlighted that epistemological beliefs are a major part of the underlying mechanism of language behavior and they exercise a persistent influence on language learners. Therefore, overall, in this study, the average scores of both genders remained quite close in all the tests, but there existed significant differences between the averages of the EFL/ESL learner beliefs in favor of the female experimental group.

IV. DISCUSSION

The analysis of the present study has highlighted the following:

A. An Evaluation of General and Specific Beliefs

The analysis of the results of the study was divided into three categories; general beliefs, specific beliefs, and beliefs about applying strategies to improve English. Language Proficiency Test results were used to investigate EFL learner's

beliefs and their connection with English language proficiency. The data was analyzed under each category where the results portrayed female respondents as having a strong agreement with each item of all categories more than male respondents. The strong agreement among female students to the statement that 'It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language' mentioned in the category of general beliefs was found significant among both male and female respondents with the relationship being significant at (0.05) level of significance showing more female participants supported this statement than males.

This finding was in line with the finding of the Daif's study (2012). He also reported that most of the respondents in his study had favored the common belief that children are indeed better language learners as compared to adults. The analysis of another statement from the specific beliefs about the attitude regarding foreign language learning showed a (0.29) level of significance indicating that most male and female participants had accepted this statement. These results are also in compliance with what has been reported by Ayman Sabry(2012) that 79% of the participants in his study believed that they possess a special aptitude for foreign language learning. Evidence for this agreement is that with the spread of globalization, the importance of communication in the foreign language has increased even for Saudi students. Therefore, they are becoming more interested in learning a foreign language particularly English.

Further analysis of the statements under specific beliefs highlighted that regarding the effects of intelligence on language learning, most participants in both males and females had believed that people who speak more than one language are intelligent as the level of significance was (0.38). This finding is per Daif's study(2012) who stated that 50% of the respondents from his study either strongly agreed or agreed to the claim that 'people who speak more than one language are very intelligent'. According to the same study, 54% of the respondents agreed that it is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one 7which was also in compliance with the findings of the present study where both male and female participants agreed or strongly agreed to the statement with (0.37) level of significance. Overall, the results from the present study revealed that the participants had positive evaluations of their language learning abilities, and they seemed keen to learn a foreign language.

Regarding specific beliefs, there were observed significant differences amongst both male and female participants about the statement regarding a person who is good at other subjects like Math and science may not necessarily be a good foreign language learner. The level of significance observed was (0.66) and female respondents strongly favored the statement as compared to males.

B. The Analysis of the Beliefs on the Use of Language-learning Strategies

An evaluation of the study findings represented that most of the language learners understood the importance of applying different strategies to improve their language learning. It was noted that both male and female participants had agreed that 'it is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent accent' with (0.42) level of significance. This depicts, that participants from both the genders had realized the importance of having a good accent in language learning which may motivate them to apply techniques for improving their language.

The responses to the item regarding 'if I heard someone speaking the language- I am trying to learn I would go up to him to practice speaking the language' shows the application of social strategies by the participants. Varied opinions were observed for agreement in this category both in male and female participants with the (0.64) level of significance. This indicates that a high proportion of EFL learners in Ajloun University College are hesitant to go and speak to the native speakers to learn the English language.

The results also state that the successful learners are more aware of the usefulness of the social strategy (strategies that are applied to improve language learning by enhancing social interaction) use and try to intentionally seek the opportunities for interacting with other language users as a measure to improve their proficiency of the target language as compared to their unsuccessful peers. These results are in accord with the study of Geramia & Baighlou (2011) which indicates the application of social strategy by successful and unsuccessful students with mean scores of successful students being higher than the mean scores of unsuccessful students.

The present study also analyzed the use of meta-cognitive strategies (strategies that involve the use of processes designed for students to improve their language learning) in both male and female participants. It was found out that the study participants apply more of meta-cognitive strategies to manage their learning than any other strategies as such for their language improvement.

The items regarding 'repeat and practice', 'Learning of grammar rules' and 'the importance to practice in a language laboratory' clearly highlight the use of metacognitive strategies in language improvement with the level of significance being reported as (0.30), (0.47) and (0.23) respectively. Participants from both genders show strong agreement to all the items concerning the use of these strategies. These findings are according to what has been mentioned by Geramia & Baighlou (2011) as they claim that their study proves that meta-cognitive strategies have been used maximally by high achieving language learners. The present study depicts that there have been significant differences in the use of meta-cognitive strategies amongst male and female learners. A reason was given by Geramia & Baighlou, (2011) for these differences is that the application of meta-cognitive strategies demands a higher proficiency of the target language. Geramia & Baighlou (2011) also reported that successful students apply metacognitive strategies and are considered high meta-cognitive strategy users, but the unsuccessful students are the medium meta-cognitive strategy users.

C. A review of the Language Proficiency Test Findings

The findings from the current study highlight that both the male and female participants showed an average performance in the test being conducted to evaluate the English language use of the participants on the close test, vocabulary, grammar, and translation. However, in overall scores, female participants showed better performance as compared to male participants except for the vocabulary scores. This can be attributed to the fact that owing to the lesser opportunities available to communicate in English with people outside their community, Saudi female students have limited vocabulary in comparison to their male peers. Male students have better vocabulary because they have more chances to interact with people speaking English outside the university than their female peers.

It was also noted that the female participants on an average performed higher than the male ones on the scale of the close test, grammar, and translation. This depicts that the Saudi female students are better and keen learners of the English language as compared to their male counterparts and they are better in most aspects of written language expressions than males. However, the overall performance of both the genders was observed to be just average where the total average score of male participants in the language proficiency test was (64.78) and the average score of the female participants was (67.36). The result implies that the overall performance of Saudi students in the language proficiency assessment is just an average. From my perspective, that through my experience in teaching English in high schools, Saudi students are overall not very keen learners of English as a foreign language and they find it a language difficult to learn. This has also been supported by the results of the language beliefs in the current study where both male and female participants reported learning English as 'Difficult' and 'medium-difficult.' But besides these results, it is noteworthy that most of the participants from both genders are aware of the importance of having a special ability that helps them learn a foreign language. These results are consistent with the Kayaoğlu (2013) study who mentioned that in his study both poor and good learners had strongly believed in the importance of having a special ability for language learning.

D. Analysis of Gender Effect on Learners' Beliefs and the Language Proficiency Test

A detailed evaluation of the current study showed that most participants were affirmative that females are better than men at learning foreign languages as the level of significance was (0.01) showing that both male and female participants had agreed to this statement. This is in relevance with the findings of Al-Kalani (2013) study who also mentioned in his study that most respondents held positive opinions regarding the importance of gender in language learning and believed that women are better than men at learning foreign languages.

Another aim of the study was to evaluate gender differences in the language proficiency of the male and female participants. The study analyzed whether there are any significant gender differences in learners' beliefs about English with relation to the BALLI items as well as on the language proficiency test scale. The hypothesis in the study also claimed that there exist significant differences in gender on Saudi university students' beliefs regarding English language learning. The results of the responses showed significant differences in most items of the study in both male and female participants where female participants reported having a higher degree of agreement on all items.

The results from the language proficiency test also reported that the performance of female participants in the cloze test, Grammar, and translation remained higher than male participants and females only scored lesser than the male ones on the vocabulary scale. This can be attributed to the fact that Saudi female students have less exposure to vocabulary usage than their male counterparts due to their rare interaction with native speakers outside the university so Saudi male students may have a better vocabulary than Saudi female students.

V. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of this qualitative-quantitative study support the assumption that Saudi male students have a difference in their opinions regarding language learning beliefs and attitudes as well as their language proficiency in comparison to the female students as the female students outshine male students with their better language skills and aptitude for language learning.

Furthermore, the beliefs of females regarding English language learning and applying strategies to improve the language are far stronger when compared to their male counterparts.

REFERENCES

[1]   Abbasian, R., Khajavi, Y., & Mardani, A. (2012). Language learning strategies of Iranian EFL learners: Are gender and educational level important. *Academic Research International*, 3(2), 350-356.
[2]   Adas, D., & Bakir, A. (2013). Writing difficulties and new solutions: Blended learning as an approach to improve writing abilities. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science,* 3(9), 254-266.
[3]   Al-Khairy, M. A. (2013). Saudi English-Major Undergraduates' Academic Writing Problems: A Taif University Perspective. *English Language Teaching*, 6(6), 1.-12.
[4]   Altan, M. X. (2006). Beliefs about language learning of foreign language-major university students. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *31*(2), 545-52.
[5]   American Association for the Advancement of Science. (1990). Project 2061: Science for All Americans. Washington, DC: American Association for the Advancement of Science.
[6]   Bernat, E. (2004). Investigating Vietnamese ESL learners' beliefs about language learning. *English Australia Journal*, *21*(2), 40.-46.

[7]   Bernat, E., & Gvozdenko, I. (2005). Beliefs about language learning: Current Knowledge, Pedagogical Implications, and New Research Directions. *Tesl-ej*, *9*(1), n1.

[8]   Cheng, Y. S. (2001). Learners' Beliefs and Second Language Anxiety. *Concentric: Studies in Linguistics*, 27(2), 75-90.

[9]   Crystal, D. (1985). How many millions? The statistics of English today. *English Today*, *1*(01), 7-9.

[10]   Cummins, J. (1998). E-lective language learning: Design of a computer-assisted text-based ESL/EFL learning system. *TESOL Journal,* 7(3), 18-21.

[11]   Daif-Allah, A. S. (2012). Beliefs about foreign language learning and their relationship to gender. *English Language Teaching*, 5(10), 20.-33.

[12]   Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1977). Belief, attitude, intention, and behavior: An introduction to theory and research. Reading, Mass: Addison-Wesley Pub. Co.

[13]   Gerami, M. H., & Baighlou, S. M. G. (2011). Language learning strategies used by successful and unsuccessful Iranian EFL students. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences,* 29, 1567-1576.

[14]   Gregersen, T., & Horwitz, E. K. (2002). Language learning and perfectionism: Anxious and non-anxious language learners' reactions to their own oral performance. *The Modern Language Journal*, *86*(4), 562-570.

[15]   Gu, P. Y. (2003). Vocabulary learning in a second language: Person, task, context and strategies. *TESL-EJ*, *7*(2), 1-25.

[16]   Horwitz, E. (2001). Language anxiety and achievement. *Annual review of applied linguistics*, 21, 112-126.

[17]   Horwitz, E. K. (1987). Surveying student beliefs about language learning. *Learner strategies in language learning*, 3(5), *110129*.

[18]   Horwitz, E. K. (1988). The beliefs about language learning of beginning university foreign language students. *The Modern Language Journal*, *72*(3), 283-294.

[19]   Horwitz, E. K. (1999). Cultural and situational influences on foreign language learners' beliefs about language learning: A review of BALLI studies. *System*, *27*(4), 557-576.

[20]   Hosseini, S. B., & Pourmandnia, D. (2013). Language Learners' Attitudes and Beliefs: Brief Review of The Related Literature and Frameworks. *International Journal on New Trends in Education and Their Implications,* 4(4), 63-74.

[21]   Huwari, I., & Al-Khasawneh, F. (2013). The reasons behind the weaknesses of writing in English among Pre-year students' at Taibah University. *English for Specific Purposes World,* 38(14), 1-9.

[22]   Javid, C., & Umer, M. (2014). Saudi EFL learners' writing problems: a move towards solution. *Proceeding of the Global Summit on Education GSE*, 4-5.

[23]   Kayaoğlu, M. N. (2013). Poor And Good Learners' language Beliefs And Their Influence On Their Language Learning Strategy Use. *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language)*, 7(1), 36-54.

[24]   Malcolm, D. (2004). Investigating successful English learners in Arab medical schools. In *Proceedings of the Independent Learning Conference* 2003 (pp. 1-8).

[25]   Mason, G. S., Shuman, T. R., & Cook, K. E. (2013). Comparing the effectiveness of an inverted classroom to a traditional classroom in an upper-division engineering course. *IEEE Transactions on Education*, *56*(4), 430-435.

[26]   Nation, R., & McLaughlin, B. (1986). Novices and experts: An information processing approach to the "good language learner" problem. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, *7*(01), 41-55.

[27]   Nespor, J. (1987). The role of beliefs in the practice of teaching. *Journal of curriculum studies*, *19*(4), 317-328.

[28]   Nunan, D. (2001). English as a global language. *TESOL quarterly*, 35(4), 605-606.

[29]   Oxford, R. L. (2003). Language learning styles and strategies: Concepts and relationships. *Iral,* 41(4), 271-278.

[30]   Park, H., & Lee, A. R. (2005). L2 learners' anxiety, self-confidence and oral performance. In 10th Conference of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics, Edinburgh University, conference proceedings (pp. 197-208).

[31]   Peacock, M. (1999). Beliefs about language learning and their relationship to proficiency. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *9*(2), 247-263.

[32]   Shoeib, A. (2004).The Effect of Vocabulary Strategy Training on Enhancing Overall English Proficiency. Al-Azhar University Library.

[33]   Suwanarak, K. (2012). English language learning beliefs, learning strategies and achievement of Masters Students in Thailand. *TESOL in Context S*, *3*, 1-15.

[34]   Yuen, C. O. (2002). Secondary students' English language learning beliefs and oral proficiency: a Hong Kong case study. *HKU Theses Online (HKUTO)*.

[35]   Zoghi, M., Kazemi, S. A., & Kalani, A. (2013). The effect of gender on language learning. *Journal of Novel Applied Sciences*, *2*(4), 1124-1128.The Effect of Gender on Language Learning.

Muntaha Ali Mohammad Al Momani was born in Irbid city in Jordan on 16th of December 1979 she received her B.A in English for specific purposes from Jordan University for Science and Technology in 2001, and M.D in English teaching methods in Al-Hashimia University in 2005.

She is an instructor in Al-Balqa Applied University, Ajloun University College, department of English.

She taught obligatory courses as English (099), English (101), and English (102). Moreover, she taught skills like writing, reading, and speaking.

Her researches she starts focusing on the effect and using of Social media in the teaching methodologies.

Roba Mahmoud Ali AlOglah was born in Irbid city in Jordan on 14th of November 1982. she was Awarded here B.Sc. Degree In Information Technology by Al-Balqa' Applied University in the First Semester 2003/2004, and M.Sc. in Computer Information System by the Arab Academy for Banking And Financial Sciences in 2005.

She is currently an instructor at Al-Balqa' applied university, Ajloun University College, department of Applied Science.

She taught many obligatory / selective courses for the undergraduates in the department as Computer Skills (1), Computer Skills (2), Visual Basic + Advance Visual Basic, C++, System Analysis, Database Management, Computer graphics, Computer security, Algorithms, Data structures, Computer networks, HTML, Software engineering., moreover she taught on-line many courses due to the COVID-19 pandemic .

Her research interest focusing on the following fields: Computer algorithms, Computer networks, Information retrieval, and recently due to the effect of the Pandemic; she starts researching on the effect and using of Social media in the teaching methodologies.

Informing Academic Writing Pedagogy through the Study of Phrase-frames

Kseniya Walcott

Colorado State University/English, Fort Collins, United States

Abstract—Second Language Development (SLD) research has investigated aspects of complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF) to understand how English language learners (ELLs) develop linguistic faculties related to language production, especially in academic writing (Biber & Gray, 2010; Biber, Gray & Ponpoon, 2011; Kyle & Crossley, 2018; Lu & Ai, 2015). Contributing to the current body of SLD research, this study addresses complexity in expert academic argumentative essays by investigating language at the phrasal level through phrase-frames (PFs). Phrase-frames are fixed or semi-fixed syntactic structures with a variable slot that might be considered another measure of syntactic complexity. This study aimed to identify if native and non-native expert writers in the Michigan Corpus of Upper-Level Student Papers (MICUSP) displayed significant differences in their use of these frames concerning their predictability, variability, and function. Results of the study indicated expert academic writers in this corpus use highly variable, highly unpredictable structures which confirm the complexity, elaboration, and explicitness unique to the academic register. Understanding of these register features through the identified PFs was used to develop sample pedagogical materials to promote more complex writing in academic genres.

Index Terms—second language development, phrase-frames, syntactic complexity, MICUSP, EAP

I. INTRODUCTION

A significant amount of psycholinguistic research asserts that language is composed of fixed and semi-fixed structures which, if learned by students, can help lighten their cognitive load during language production (Garner, 2016). Recent studies have focused on identifying fixed and semi-fixed structures in learners' language production within the dimensions of complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF) to better understand how these elements interact with each other and their use in measuring learner progress (Vercellotti, 2017; Yang & Sun 2015). Of particular interest has been the examination of complexity in a learner's language through their syntax in the form of phraseological units. Thus, phrase-frames (PFs) come into the picture as another potentially fruitful unit of study for phraseological development in learner language that, perhaps, could be considered among the many indicators of complexity in language.

While many studies utilize the term Second Language Acquisition (SLA), the current study employs the term Second Language Development (SLD) in its place as it more closely aligns with the stance of language as a complex developmental *process* rather than product to be acquired by the learner (Bot, Lowie, Thorne, and Verspoor, 2013). In SLD research, careful examination of successful employment of syntactic complexity through the unit of phrase-frames in various genres may prove to be a potentially worthwhile exploration in determining how expert interlocutors engage with these structures. From this knowledge, pedagogical materials could be developed for English language learners (ELLs) especially in more difficult genres of communication (such as the argumentative essay) for a variety of contexts.

The current study incorporated research of PFs in highly rated argumentative essays composed by both native and non-native writers in the Michigan Corpus of Upper-Level Student Papers (MICUSP) as it provides a strong compilation of highly rated expert texts. Written academic argumentative essays were the genre of choice, because, compared to other written genres, they seem to be one of the most difficult to learn due to the many elements a learner must consider in the composition process, such as their language-specific nature and the variety of argument structures that could be considered successful or unsuccessful (Kaewpet, 2018).This study's primary focus was to determine if there were significant differences in syntactic complexity among expert writers' use of PFs in academic writing, examining variability, predictability, and functional features. Once these features were examined, sample pedagogical materials were developed with the intent of making these structures more salient to students in an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) setting, furthering the development of their academic writing.

Following this section, there is a discussion of how previous research concerning syntactic complexity has informed SLD writing pedagogy with a stress on the phraseological dimension. After, phrase-frames as a potential phraseological unit of complexity and previous research regarding these units in the EAP and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) contexts are addressed. Finally, recent corpus research about PFs and L2 writing conducted with MICUSP conclude the literature review, leading into the details of the current study.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Syntactic Complexity as a Crucial Dimension for Studying SLD Writing

Traditionally, when observing second language development in learners' writing, the three dimensions demanding diligent study have been complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF). As asserted by Larsen-Freeman (2009) and many others, these key factors in the SLD process are inseparable from each other working as a symbiotic system so that when a learner works on an aspect of complexity, accuracy and fluency are also dually affected. This has been demonstrated by Yang and Sun (2015) who examined the CAF in five undergraduate multilingual learners' writing throughout an academic year. From this study, they found CAF elements were mutually dependent on each other in the process of SLD and that L1, L2, and L3 writings consisted of emergent and constant changes, supporting the idea that language development is a complex, dynamic system impacting the learners' development in the target language over time. By examining these factors, a more holistic understanding of SLD can be attained, but measuring them remains a critical issue in the field, particularly concerning complexity in language development. As is the case with Yang and Sun (2015) and other research concerning the construct of complexity, it manifests and has been measured in many forms in learners' writing (syntactic, grammatical, lexical, morphological, etc.) including through the use of specific indices. Of the diverse forms of complexity, syntactic complexity seems to be most extensively explored in the field of SLD and can be defined as "...the range of syntactic structures produced [by learners] and the degree of sophistication of such structures" (Lu, 2011, p. 36). It has long stood as a measure of L2 learner development due to its prominence as a key feature in L2 writing pedagogy and research.

Syntactic complexity was considered, especially in earlier research, to be observable primarily based on clausal measures of complexity such as unit-length, subordination, and coordination; however, with the work of Biber and his colleagues, it was then suggested that phrase-level measures may more effectively identify trends in the development of academic writing and L2 writing in general (Biber et al., 2011). The idea that phrasal measures are the stronger indicator of writer development continues to be supported by recent research. For instance, in Kyle and Crossley's study (2018) they employed fine-grained indices of clausal and phrasal complexity to predict holistic scores of writing quality for a corpus of 480 independent essays from the TOEFL. The results of their study showed that the strongest indicators of writing quality came from phrasal rather than traditional or clausal fine-grained indices. It was also acknowledged, however, that a fine-grained clausal complexity index could be used as a supplemental tool alongside that of a phrasal one (Kyle & Crossley, 2018).

Learner proficiency, L1 background, gender, and the environments for L2 exposure are all factors (among many others) that have been carefully examined in conjunction with syntactic complexity indices to understand how the interaction of these elements could provide a glimpse into learners' performance and development in L2 writing situations (Kyle & Crossley, 2018; Lu & Ai, 2015; Martinez, 2017; Martinez, 2018; Yoon, 2017). In Martinez's (2018) study, she examined differences in syntactic complexity between lower-intermediate and intermediate secondary education writers with an additional focus on gender, finding that syntactic complexity increased in all aspects from the lower intermediate to the intermediate levels and that female participants generally surpassed their male counterparts concerning general quality in their compositions. Yoon's (2017) study, which analyzed a corpus of 1198 argumentative essays written by college-level Chinese EFL learners concurs with Kyle and Crossley's (2018): phrase-level syntactic complexity provides a more effective measure for learner proficiency in writing, since advanced writers more often express complex ideas through increased phrasal density, whereas there was little difference in clause-level complexity across proficiency levels. Lu and Ai's study (2015), which analyzed 1600 argumentative essays from students of different L1 backgrounds, again echoes the most current studies. Most advanced level writers employed phrase-level complexification in their works and the results also suggested that if they came from a certain L1 background, they may be more likely to produce more complex writing in English (though further research would be needed to confirm which L1 backgrounds might prove to be more advantageous) (Lu & Ai, 2015). Finally, Martinez's work (2017) explored syntactic complexity in the writing of secondary education students from bilingual and non-bilingual contexts finding that scores on all syntactic complexity measures were higher among the bilingual group who had more exposure to the target language. Therefore, based on the most recent studies concerning syntactic complexity, the phrasal aspect of syntactic complexity should also be considered in research on learner proficiency and environmental factors both internal and external which may impact a learner's writing.

B. Phrase-frames: Another Potential Measure of Syntactic Complexity

Due to its prominence in studies targeting syntactic complexity, phraseological complexity continues to be a worthwhile dimension to explore in the examination of ELL writing. It makes sense that phrasal complexity measures continue to be a focal point of much SLD research since many psycholinguistic studies confirm that in language development, understanding key fixed or semi-fixed sequences can lighten the cognitive load for learners so they can focus on other tasks (Garner, 2016). Phrase-frames (PFs) are fixed or semi-fixed multi-word sequences that "...allow for an element, often a word, to be 'plugged in' a standardized functional piece of language" (Garner, 2016, p. 32; Cunningham, 2017, p. 72). Some examples of this would include units such as: *it is* [clear, interesting, possible] *that*; on *the* [other, one] *hand*; and *as a* [result, part, matter] *of* where, as demonstrated by these examples from the corpus, a variety of different words (i.e., variants) could occupy the blank space within the frame. [1] This measure, along with other

---

[1] All examples of phrase-frames, unless stated otherwise, come directly from the corpus investigated in this study.

phraseological units (i.e., n-grams), have been used to establish the phraseological profiles of target texts regarding distributional, variational, and functional trends (Römer, 2010).

But successfully applying these structures can be a difficult endeavor, especially in academic writing. As Gray and Biber (2010) establish in their study, academic writing has a reputation for being elaborated, complex, and explicit so that academic language in writing is complex and elaborated regarding embedded noun phrases and explicit in highlighting characteristics of referents. Complexity and elaboration remain a prevalent feature in academic writing through past and current studies in phraseology, but particularly those focused on phrase-frames. Writers may need to address all these aspects when composing in the academic register. For instance, they may need to use different functional frames for explicitness through a high usage pattern of *specification of attributes* which work to identify referents; *metadiscourse markers* which would overtly express logical relations between ideas in the text; and *evaluation* and *epistemic* stance markers displaying the levels of accepted personal elaboration that are allowed in this genre of writing. Therefore, further phraseological research with a focus on PFs and their role in EAP pedagogy is needed.

There have been several recent exploratory studies investigating the significance of this structure and what it could indicate regarding discourse development in native and non-native pieces of writing both in the contexts of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP). For instance, concerning ESP research, Grabowski's (2015) study sought to identify the use, structural and functional features of PFs in four English pharmaceutical text types: patient information leaflets, summaries of product characteristics, clinical trial protocols, and chapters/sections from academic textbooks on pharmacology. Based on his analysis of 4-word units with an open slot in the medial position, he found that even within the same register, the use and discourse functions varied across different genres, justifying the treatment of the discourse functions of phrase-frames, as separate from their variants. Cunningham (2017) in her research on PFs analyzed a corpus of recent mathematics research articles finding that this genre had its own distinctive set of PFs which specifically characterize that kind of writing. She acknowledged after conducting this study that "...phrase-frames can provide students with a clearer understanding of how language works within a specific discipline, and such analysis can give instructors a start to understanding new disciplines and genres" (Cunningham, 2017, p. 81). Her study highlights the pedagogical potential of PFs as a measure to help learners and instructors alike distinguish the specific conventions of discipline-specific writing.

While Grabowski's focus was on natively composed texts, Garner's (2016) EAP research focused on analyzing learners' use of phrase-frames in their own writing. In his study, he observed phrase-frames produced by EFL L1 German learners across five different proficiency levels in the *EF-Cambridge Open Language Database* (EFCAMDAT) finding that writers at higher proficiency levels produced more syntactically varied, unpredictable and complex structures in their texts. In the same vein as Cunningham (2017), Lu, Yoon, and Kisselev (2018) took a pedagogically motivated PF approach in their study and compiled a list of "pedagogically useful" PFs. Their list consisted of research article introductions in six social science disciplines consisting of 370 five-word phrase-frames and 84 six-word phrase-frames. In order to determine pedagogically useful PFs, they had a panel of academic writing instructors and student writers evaluate a random sample of 100 PFs, and based on these evaluations, concluded that their identified frames were considered useful for instruction by either the instructors or the student writers, or both. Investigating PFs' role in the development in learner writing, Jukneviciene and Grabowski (2018) analyzed writing from the Polish and Lithuanian sub-corpora from the International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE) and writing from British and American students in the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS). The authors determined there were differences in PF use between the Polish and Lithuanian writings due to L1 transferal, but also noticeable similarities between the Lithuanian and Polish students who used some less frequent PFs or PFs that were completely absent from the native texts presented in the LOCNESS corpus. Finally, Nekrasova-Beker's (2019) study investigated PF structural and functional characteristics in pedagogical materials for undergraduate lower-division engineering courses. She found that PFs shared characteristics across engineering disciplines regarding position of the variant slot, and structural and functional features. However, the variants that could occupy the frame presented a high range of variability even within that single discipline, aligning with Cunningham's (2017) study which emphasizes that even within a respective discipline's discourse, there can be great variation in PF usage. All of these studies confirm once again that there are complex factors at play in the language development process for L2 writers which can be observed through PFs: L1 influence, common learner trends in PF usage, PF exposure through pedagogical materials, and distinguishing usage of PFs in native writing.

Thus, based on this expansive body of SLD research, it appears evident that language is a non-linear complex process that demands a great deal of cognitive processing (Garner, 2016). However, quicker processing of specific linguistic structures can be enabled by increasing learners' awareness of PFs in the classroom. The most recent studies in PFs have established that there are, indeed, differences in usage and function of PFs across genres and disciplines (Grabowski, 2015; Cunningham, 2017; Lu, Yoon, & Kisselev, 2018; Nekrasova-Beker, 2019), across learner proficiency levels (Garner, 2016), and between learners with a different L1 and native speakers (Jukneviciene & Grabowski, 2018). This study hopes to further contribute to the body of literature regarding how PFs can be identified from corpora of expert texts and successfully implemented into L2 writers' syntactic repertoire. The current study builds on the previous research on PFs while offering further insight into the variability, predictability, and functional

characteristics within the expert corpus of Michigan Corpus of Upper-Level Student Papers (MICUSP) argumentative essays. Based on the results of this study, the goal is then to develop and directly implement PF-focused pedagogical strategies in an EAP instructional setting to help learners enhance their academic writing.

C. Brief Overview of MICUSP Corpus

As stated above, this current study aims to unify research with practical application of the prominent structure of PFs in learner writing, drawing upon the methodology established in previous research. Argumentative essays were extracted from MICUSP, a compilation of A-graded papers from students at the University of Michigan from four different student levels (senior undergraduate-3rd year graduate student) and 16 different disciplines which include Biology, Civil & Environmental Engineering, Economics, Education, English, History & Classical Studies, Industrial & Operations Engineering, Linguistics, Mechanical Engineering, Natural Resources & Environment, Nursing, Philosophy, Physics, Political Science, Psychology, & Sociology (Römer & O'Donnell, 2011). This collection of texts spans seven academic written genre types: the argumentative essay, creative writing, critique/evaluation, proposal, report, research paper, and response paper. Of these seven genres, the argumentative essay is the second highest in distribution in the corpus at 22.4% only coming after the report at 43.9% (Römer & O'Donnell, 2011). Writers of these papers included native speakers of English who composed 82% of the corpus (681 papers) and non-native speakers of the language who composed 17.9% (148 papers) of the corpus. Since its compilation in 2009, MICUSP has served as a collection of exemplary academic written texts used to inform pedagogical materials development and research.

D. Studies of Writing Using MICUSP and Other Corpora

Since its creation, MICUSP has served as an informative corpus for L2 research concerning genre-specific characteristics of academic writing which have been used to further inform current SLD research and pedagogy. In fact, in a case study conducted by Hardy, Römer, and Roberson (2015), they observed the implementation of this corpus in a first-year composition classroom, which, according to student feedback at the end of the course, provided a wide variety of useful models in different disciplines and genres from which they could draw on to enhance their academic writing. This study demonstrates how MICUSP can provide models of expert-level writing that instructors may use to facilitate more authentic practice in the target register (Hardy, Römer, & Roberson, 2015). Further informing ESL/EFL pedagogy, corpus studies have also observed lexical bundles and phrase-frames in expert writing to identify key syntactic units which may be useful for writing pedagogy. Bychkovska and Lee's (2017) study on lexical bundles compared native-speaker argumentative essays from the MICUSP corpus and ESL texts from the Corpus of Ohio Learner and Teacher English (COLTE), finding that in both corpora, a tendency toward more phrasal styles of writing was indicative of highly rated writers who were developing increased proficiency in their compositions. Concerning PFs, several studies have been conducted on MICUSP. For instance, the creators of this corpus, Römer and O'Donnell (2009) have examined positional variation of 3-5 word PFs with only a variant in the medial slot in the works of native and non-native academic writers, finding that particular PFs occupy positions in paragraphs, sentences, and whole texts. O'Donnell, Römer, and Ellis (2013) also conducted a comparative analysis of corpora, still using the 3-5 word PF units, between MICUSP, LOCNESS, and ICLE, finding that manual analysis of PFs is necessary to fully recognize their semantic and discourse functions.

At the time of writing, no research has been conducted specifically examining variability, predictability, and function of PFs in the argumentative essay sub-corpus of native and non-native writers' works in MICUSP for the creation of genre-specific pedagogical materials. Therefore, this study seeks to provide insightful analysis of PFs identified in this sub-corpus which could then be applied toward the creation of pedagogical materials encouraging more focused SLD in argumentative essay composition.

III. OVERVIEW OF CURRENT STUDY

It should first be noted that in the context of the MICUSP corpus and for the purpose of this research study, there will not be a distinction where native speaker writing is considered the "better" or "ideal" alternative to non-native writing. Rather, the terminology of 'expert' will be used to recognize any writer within the MICUSP corpus who attained an 'A' grade on their composition (Flowerdew, 2017). This approach aligns with the study conducted by Römer and Arbor (2009) which asserts that in higher-level academic writing, writers tend to display more overlap in their language production so that nativeness is less important than expertise in a subject. This means that even non-native writings would be considered expert level compositions since they were designated the same high rating and, at this level, may display more similarities rather than differences in language use compared to native texts, though this assertion will be more carefully examined in this study through the proposed research question. Additionally, as addressed in the introduction, argumentative essays were the genre of choice for analysis in this study, as argumentative writing proves to be one of the more challenging genres for learners to grasp in their writing development.

In emulation of previous studies focusing on PFs in writing (Garner, 2016; Jukneviciene & Grabowski, 2018; and Grabowski, 2015), *kfNgram* was implemented as the (Fletcher, 2002-2012) text analysis tool to analyze most frequent 4-word PFs in this sub-corpus of native and non-native argumentative essays. These studies also guide the selection of

variability, predictability, and function as the key factors of investigation for PFs in this study in order to establish a phraseological profile of academic texts in this corpus while answering the following research question:

Do native and non-native expert academic writers display significant differences in syntactic complexity through their use of PFs considering:

      a.   Variability?

      b.   Predictability?

      c.   Functional characteristics?

IV. METHOD

This section discusses the details of the corpus composition as well as the criteria for analysis used to help answer the research question of this study.

A. Composition of Corpus

The original sub-corpus of native and non-native argumentative essays selected for investigation in MICUSP consists of 186 papers total. Once the sub-corpus of 186 native and non-native argumentative essays was extracted from MICUSP in the form of PDF documents, all files were converted to .txt format. In this format, tags labeling the texts as part of the MICUSP corpus were manually removed. Originally, the corpus was composed of 27,393 word types and 561,013 tokens. These numbers were determined by removing the corpus tags and then running all 186 files through *AntConc 3.5.8* (Anthony, 2019), using the word list function. Due to the stark differences in sample sizes between the sub-corpora (for instance, there are far fewer words in the non-native sub-corpus than the native one), the data analysis approach used in Nekrasova-Beker's (2019) study was adopted. This method involves extracting equal sample sizes from the argumentative essays so that results are more comparable across corpora. The smallest corpus of non-native writer texts (78,088 tokens) was used as a basis of extraction for the corpus of native writer papers. As a result, 72 out of the 186 papers were analyzed. The following section discusses more extensively the extraction and filtration methods for PFs in this sub-corpus.

Native-speaker essays before extraction comprised much of the corpus (155 papers) while non-native speaker essays comprised the minority (31 papers). Therefore, the number of tokens for the non-native speaker essays (78,088) was used as the basis for extraction from the native corpus and all papers in the non-native-speaker corpus were unmodified (meaning no number of tokens were cut from the original papers) for analysis. The non-native speaker corpus had papers from the following disciplines: Biology, English, Natural Resources, Nursing, Philosophy, Political Science, Psychology, and Sociology. Therefore, the papers extracted from the native speaker corpus were also from these same disciplines so that only 41 papers were included. Tokens were extracted so that the number of tokens per discipline type in the native corpus matched those of the non-native corpus. The method of extraction was done in this way to make sure that there were an equal number of tokens in both corpora of analysis and to reduce the influence of discipline-specific language represented by drastically more tokens in the original native speaker data set.

B. Analysis

As addressed before, the program *kfNgram* (Fletcher, 2002-2012) was used to generate PFs for this study. First, n-grams of size 4 with a floor of 1 were generated, then using those same parameters, phrase-frames with four words and occurring at least once in the corpus were extracted. Four-word PFs were chosen as the unit of analysis because it has been used successfully by many previous PF studies such as those of Garner (2016) and Jukneviciene & Grabowski (2018), since "...they have a more readily recognizable range of structures and functions than the shorter sequences and are more frequent than the longer ones" (Jukneviciene & Grabowski, 2018, p. 307). PFs with variable slots in either the initial or final position (*BCD and ABC*) were included along with those in the medial position in the hopes of capturing the variation in usage of PFs for this corpus. First, any PFs that were only prevalent in one discipline type such as "in french polynesia *" and "toxic cane toads *" were removed; PFs had to occur in at least two different disciplines to be included for analysis since the goal of this study is to identify cross-disciplinary frames for native and non-native speakers. Then, frames that had numbers as part of their structure were excluded such as "tree ## ###-### *" and "and * #### in." Instances where a number occupied the variable slot for a frame were also not counted toward final calculations and analysis for variants. Discipline-specific frames such as "the native species *" and topic-specific frames such as "moll is a *" were eliminated from the final analysis to identify frames that could be used regardless of discipline and topic. Nonsensical frames such as "* â œgreatâ and" and any 4-frames that did not serve a distinct pragmatic or discourse function such as "d by * and" and "s * it is" were also removed. Finally, the units were checked for correct spelling so that misspelled units were combined with their correctly spelled counterparts. Following the example of Lu, Yoon, and Kisselev (2018), with the data collected, a list of pedagogically useful frames was compiled as part of the sample teaching materials for this study. Only the top 60 most frequent phrase-frames were kept from the native and non-native speaker corpora so that there were a total of 120 frames to be put into functional and structural categories and analyzed for their variability and predictability. After combining phrases in common between the corpora, 103 total frames were identified and 15 of these frames were selected for a sample PF list in Appendix A.

C. Variability

In emulation of Garner's (2016) study, the same calculation method was employed to find out the difference in variability between groups. This was accomplished using a variant/p-frame ratio (VPR) for each 4-frame, showing how fixed or variable the structure is in its use (Römer, 2010). This was calculated by dividing the number of variants in a PF from the number of times it occurs in the corpus. For instance, the frame "* it would be" has seven potential variants (that, than, fact, seems, important, whatsoever, now) that could occupy that slot. In total, it occurs in the corpus ten times. Therefore, to calculate VPR for this frame, it would be seven divided by ten, yielding a value of 0.70. A VPR closer to one shows that the slot is highly variable, whereas a value closer to zero reveals that it is more fixed. Classifications for this study are the same ones used in the Garner (2016) study: fixed-VPR<.30, variable-VPR between .30-.70, and highly variable if VPR>.70. Based on these designations, the frame "* it would be" would then be classified as variable. Frames such as "on the * hand" (with a VPR of 0.12) which had few possible variants and a high occurrence in the corpus fell into the fixed category. Highly variable frames such as "does not * the" were typically characterized by a high number of possible variants and a high number of occurrences. So, in the case of this frame, it had six potential variants and occurred six times total in the corpus. This means that its VPR was one and with every occurrence it had in the corpus, there was a different variant occupying its slot.

D. Predictability

Again, using the same calculation method as Garner (2016) and Gray & Biber (2013), predictability was calculated by dividing the number of times the highest occurring variant occupied a slot by the total number of occurrences for that frame in the corpus. As an example, the variant *others* occurred the most within the frame "the rights of *" (five times) compared to other potential variants for that structure. The frame itself occurred within the corpus seven times. In dividing five by seven, the predictability value for that frame is 0.71. Frames were classified using the following system: highly unpredictable (<0.25); unpredictable (>0.25≤0.50); predictable (>0.50≤0.75); and highly predictable (>0.75). According to this system then, the example frame is predictable. Highly unpredictable frames such as "would like to *" (with a predictability value of 0.23) were often characterized by their highest occurring variant having a low value, while the overall number of occurrences for the frame in the corpus were high. Unpredictable frames like "it would be *" (with a predictability value of 0.50) had a moderate number of occurrences for their most common variant in comparison to the overall number of occurrences for that frame in the corpus. Lastly, predictable and highly predictable frames had high values for their most occurring variant that was closer to the number of occurrences of that frame in the corpus. For instance, the frame "on the * hand" had *other* as its highest occurring variant (it occurred ten times out of the 17 times the frame was used in the corpus), so that with a predictability value of 0.59, it would be a predictable structure writers could use.

E. Function

Functional categories were determined by manual analysis based on Grabowski's (2015) approach which stresses that PFs can be sorted into distinct categories independently from the semantic manifestations of their slot fillers in a text. This study utilizes the same classification system as Biber, Conrad, & Cortes (2004) in considering the function of 4-frames. The three possible classifications are referential expressions (like "theory of the *" or "the level of *"), stance expressions (including frames like "it is not *" and "can be * as"), and discourse-organizing expressions (such as "in order to *" and "on the * hand"). Within the context of this study, referential frames are used to describe or identify attributes in a text. Stance frames show the writer's disposition toward a particular subject/idea in their composition. And, finally, discourse-organizing frames reveal relationships between different pieces of language or ideas within the paper. In addition to these primary level classifications, the PFs were analyzed using secondary level classifications as devised by Simpson-Vlach & Ellis (2010) and Biber et al. (2004) to further refine the functions of PFs in this corpus. This is in emulation of the Lu et al. (2018) study which also used this method of classification in determining functions of PFs in introductions. Therefore, the second-level categories that were used to refine functional classification are the following:

a. Referential Expressions: Specification of Attributes, Identification and Focus, Contrast and Comparison, Deictics and Locatives, & Vagueness Markers.
b. Stance Expressions: Hedges, Epistemic, Ability, Evaluation, Obligation, and Intention.
c. Discourse-Organizing Expressions: Metadiscourse and Textual Reference, Topic Introduction and Focus, Topic Elaboration, and Discourse Markers

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study's aim was to determine if there were significant differences in phrase-frame usage among expert writers in argumentative essays from MICUSP concerning variability, predictability, and function. Detailed below are the results of this inquiry along with a discussion in each section of how they compare to the results of previous PF studies investigating these factors.

A. Variability

Out of 60 frames in the native corpus, none were identified as fixed, eight were identified as variable (13%) and 52 were identified as highly variable accounting for 87% of the corpus. In the non-native writer corpus, there was only one fixed frame (2%), 15 variable frames (25%), and 44 highly variable frames which make up 73% of the corpus. Based on these descriptive statistics, it was determined that concerning variability, both sets of data did not have a normal distribution; therefore, the Mann Whitney U test was implemented as a non-parametric statistical measure to determine if the differences in the data were statistically significant. Significance level was set at 0.50 with a 2-tailed hypothesis, with a p-value less than 0.05 indicating that the differences are indeed significant. Upon running this analysis between these data sets, the p-value was 0.00008, showing that variability between native and non-native expert texts is statistically significant. These results could be attributed to the drastic trends in the native-speaker corpus where there are no fixed frames and a high amount of highly variable frames. Such results indicate that perhaps native writers are more experimental in their use of the many possible variants that could occupy a frame compared to their non-native counterparts. Additionally, these native writers could have had more exposure to and practice with highly variable frames through their coursework.

While these results confirm that native writers generally use more highly variable frames, there is also a general trend in both groups of expert writers to use highly variable frames. These results make sense since, according to the selection method for frames, it did not exclude function-word frames such as *the * of the*, and as supported by Grabowski's (2015) study concerning PFs in pharmaceutical texts, function-based frames present the most phraseological variation. He found this especially the case with academic pharmaceutical discourse so, perhaps, the same could apply to other brands of academic discourse from various disciplines. Nekrasova-Beker (2019) also confirmed that in her research on the use of PFs in an engineering corpus, there were frames in common with other types of academic texts, suggesting that these function-based frames could be more indicative of the register of academic prose. Even between this study and Nekrasova-Beker's (2019) the function based frame "on the * of" is shared indicating a thread of commonality in the frames used for high-level academic writing. Thus, because this corpus's identified PFs are primarily function word based, they present a great deal of variability in the works of these expert writers, confirming what Garner asserted in his study (2016) that at higher levels, writers present compositions with more variable structures.

B. Predictability

Distributions regarding predictability in both corpora were also not normal, again justifying the application of the Mann Whitney U test to determine statistical significance. Parameters for this test were the same as those used to measure variability with a significance level of 0.50 and a 2-tailed hypothesis. The p-value was 0.65, indicating that the differences in predictability between the groups were not statistically significant. This means that overall, expert writers are consistent in their usage of mostly highly unpredictable and unpredictable frames in their writing, which again aligns well with Garner's (2016) general observation that higher level writing becomes less predictable in frame usage.

Again, perhaps due to the selection process of frames for this study, as well as the selection of frames across several disciplines, many of them were identified in both corpora as predominantly unpredictable or highly unpredictable. This could be because of the inclusion of function-based frames which allow more variation in their respective slot. For instance, a function-based frame like "on the * of" allows for as many as 35 different kinds of variants in the corpus. In contrast, verb-based frames such as "does not * the" (with 6 potential variants in the corpus) and content word-based frames like "the rights of *" (with 3 potential variants) often allow for less variation when filling their slot. Such results contrast those attained by Garner in his study (2016) which identified more highly predictable frames. However, such results could confirm that in addition to more common PFs across disciplines being highly variable, the variants themselves are also highly unpredictable (Nekrasova-Beker, 2019). This would again support the idea that with greater inclusion of other disciplines within a corpus of the same genre, the unpredictability of variants increases, since there are more possibilities for the kinds of lexical items that could fill said slot. In looking at academic prose as a register, this feature of higher unpredictability would then make sense and, perhaps, more discipline-specific analyses of PFs within a register would be needed in addition to the studies that have thus far been conducted to determine what more predictable frames and variants look like according to discipline and topic (Cunningham, 2017; Grabowski, 2015; Lu et al., 2018; Nekrasova-Beker, 2019).

C. Function

Of the functional categories, referential PFs were the most prevalent in the corpus, stance PFs were second most frequent, and discourse PFs were the least frequent (see Table 1 below). Conducting a Chi-square test for this data, there was also no statistically significant difference in usage of functional frames between the two groups of writers (p=0.82). This could indicate that generally high level writers within this corpus have a tendency toward using a high number of referential and stance frames regardless of their status as a native or non-native writer. So then for this section of analysis, both corpora were analyzed together to understand the common trends of expert writers concerning frame function. Comparing the overall results to the Lu et al. (2018) and the Garner (2016) studies which also employ the same Simpson-Vlach (2010) classification system, these results are to be expected since in both studies, referential PFs either make up a great proportion of usage in the corpus, or are most frequent overall, respectively. Therefore, the results of this study suggest that referential PFs play a prominent role in expert writing of academic prose.

Writer Status	Referential PFs	Stance PFs	Discourse PFs	Grand Total Frames
Native Speaker	38	19	3	60
Non-Native Speaker	34	19	7	60
Total	72	38	10	120

In the rest of this section, the sub-types of functional PFs are briefly discussed with a couple of examples of these frames being used for their designated function from the corpus.

Referential PFs make up most of the corpus. Concerning sub-types, *specification of attributes* were the highest occurring PFs within this category while *identification and focus* frames were second most occurring. No *deictics and locatives* (PFs indicating temporal, spatial, or environmental reference points) were identified in the corpus (Simpson-Vlach & Ellis, 2010). This indicates then that within this corpus of expert texts, writers prioritized specifying characteristics of concepts within their writing and introducing ideas or focal points for their composition. These results align with those of the Lu et al. study (2018) which also identified these sub-types as prominent features in social science research articles.

    a. Referential PFs
        i. Specification of Attributes[2](a PF identifying specific characteristics of a following nominal or clause):
            1. Example: *A study on the [effects] of introduced trout on frogs showed that native populations can dramatically rebound upon extirpation of the invasive predator (Vredenburg 2004).*
               From a Biology text written by a non-native senior undergraduate writer.
        ii. Identification and Focus(PFs that introduce an idea or focus of a paper/section):
            1. Example: *It is [said] that Arendt has always refused to be labeled as a philosopher since she thought philosophy is concerned with man in the singular...*
               From a Sociology text written by a non-native 1st year graduate writer.

Of the phrase-frames identified as Stance PFs, *evaluation* PFs were most common, with *epistemic* frames being the second most common type of frame. No frames concerning *obligation* (PFs that ask readers/listeners to perform a certain action) were found (Simpson-Vlach & Ellis, 2010). Based on this data then, it seems that when composing argumentative essays, statements of evaluation and expressions of personal views/opinions towards an idea take priority to create a successful piece of writing. Something worth noting is that *obligation* frames were identified in the Lu et al. (2018) study though it may be due to difference in genre since the focus of their study was to observe PFs in social science research article introductions whereas this study observed prominent PFs in argumentative essays. Another consideration is that this difference could be due to discipline specific practices where social science articles exhibit this type of PF specifically, whereas other disciplines may not.

    a. Stance PFs
        i. Evaluation (PFs that evaluate a claim/idea in the text):
            1. Example: *James' beliefs which result from memory processes should not be [counted] as justified.*
               From a Philosophy text written by a native senior undergraduate writer.
        ii. Epistemic (PFs that function as personal knowledge claims or reports of others' knowledge on a topic):
            2. Example: *It is [clear] that he sees nothing more perfect in life than a happy, loyal family.*
               From an English text written by a native senior undergraduate writer.

Most frequent types of PFs within the Discourse-Organizing category were *topic elaboration cause and effect* and *discourse markers.* No *metadiscourse and textual reference* frames (indicating the outline/organization of the document) were identified. Prevalence of those two categories again aligns with the Lu et al. (2018) piece demonstrating how expert writers will employ PFs to show cause and effect relationships as well as connections between content. Lack of *metadiscourse and textual reference* PFs in comparison to the Lu et al. (2018) study could again be attributed to a difference in genre or discipline. Perhaps, at least in this corpus of argumentative essays, such PFs are not needed.

    a. Discourse-Organizing PFs
        i. Elaboration Cause and Effect (frames indicating a cause-effect relationship)(Simpson-Vlach & Ellis, 2010):

---

[2] All definitions for functional sub-categories come from Lu et al. (2018) unless otherwise stated.

    2.   Example: *This is a form of self-handicapping, which occurs when people take actions to hurt their own performance or image in order to [protect] their own self-esteem (Berglas & Jones, 1978).*

        From a Psychology text written by a non-native senior undergraduate writer.

    ii.   Discourse Markers(PFs which act as connectives signaling transitions in a text)(Simpson-Vlach & Ellis, 2010):

        1.   Example: *The conscription system, on the [other] hand, exploits physical resources from the morally virtuous citizen.*

           From a Sociology text written by a non-native 3rd year graduate writer.

VI. CONCLUSION: LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH AND PEDAGOGY

This study's aim was to investigate common trends in PF usage among native and non-native expert writers from the argumentative essay portion of the MICUSP corpus. These common trends were investigated by analyzing predictability, variability, and function of the most common frames used by these writers. Four-word frames were selected for study including function word-based PFs with the intent to create pedagogical materials based on the results of this study. While the corpus used for this study was relatively small (78,088 tokens for each collection of native and non-native speaker texts totaling 156,176 tokens total for the entire corpus), the study itself utilized some already well-established methods from the field of ESL/EFL research, such as the selection of 4-word PFs (Garner 2016), calculation of variability and predictability (Garner, 2016), inclusion of function word-based PFs (Grabowski, 2015), and functional (Biber et al., 2004; Simpson-Vlach & Ellis, 2010) PF classification systems. Through these methods, some PFs were identified and extracted from the corpus which could prove pedagogically useful (refer to Appendix A).

It should be acknowledged, however, that this study had limitations in terms of time constraints and some issues which naturally come from using the MICUSP corpus. As addressed in the work of Bahrami, Dowlatabadi, Yazdani, & Amerian, (2018), there is a need for understanding how expert writers use stance and other metadiscourse markers in their writing. For this study, Grabowski's (2018) fixed-frame-based approach was primarily used to address this need and categorize frames for their function. Categorization was done this way due to time constraints. While this is certainly a useful approach which focuses on structural rather than semantic characteristics of the frames, it could overlook multifunctional frames which may be more easily identified through a more variant-based approach. This may be an interesting venue to pursue in future research to further differentiate how expert writers employ frames for various uses in argumentative essays. In addition to implementing this strategy for analysis, it would also be helpful in a future iteration of this study to have another coder for functional designations of frames. This would ensure further reliability of the classifications for those structures. Another issue encountered in the construction of the study was the size of the corpus. Though this was somewhat managed by choosing comparable sample sizes, it would be useful to redesign the study so it's analyzing a greater data set across more disciplines, ensuring that the trends observed in this study could be used to inform cross-disciplinary writing instruction for argumentative essays.

Other corpora could also be examined using the measures of predictability, variability, structure and function. For instance, in emulation of Jukneviciene & Grabowski's (2018) study, influence of L1 background could be more diligently analyzed among expert and developing student writers. In their study, they focused on Lithuanian and Polish speakers in the ICLE, though this could be done with other L1 backgrounds represented in that corpus. Such investigation would be especially timely as the third version of the ICLE is released for the ESL/EFL research community's use to identify trends among different L1 writers. Besides L1 backgrounds, expert writing could be analyzed even within the MICUSP corpus based on student levels so that a future study could analyze key differences in PF usage between senior undergraduates, and 1st-3rd year graduates to discern more subtle differences/potential trends in development between expert writers at the university level.

As asserted by previous studies in EFL research and pedagogy, explicit instruction in referential, stance and discourse markers is needed to demonstrate how to create successful academic texts (Candarli, Bayyurt, & Marti, 2015; Crosthwaite & Jiang, 2017; Escobar & Fernandez, 2017; Jomaa & Alia, 2019; Lee & Deakin, 2016; MacArthur, Jennings, & Philippakos, 2019; Manan & Raslee, 2018; Povolna, 2012). For instance, Crosthwaite & Jiang, (2017) found in their longitudinal study that students incorporated more hedges and less boosters and self-mentions (with an overall decrease in stance markers) leading to higher rated argumentative essays as a result of EAP instruction over time. Lee & Deakin (2016) also identified a greater use in hedges as a feature common to successful academic texts for undergraduate writers. Referential cohesion also contributed to more effective compositions for college level writers as well, as presented in the work of MacArthur, Jennings, & Philippakos (2019). Finally, discourse markers have been established as an especially crucial element for the higher levels of academic writing to help enforce coherence and cohesion (Povolna, 2012). More recent studies such as those of Candarli, Bayyurt, & Marti (2015) and Jomaa & Alia (2019) also assert that exposure to corpora of texts displaying target usage of these functional devices would prove beneficial to developing academic writers. Such exposure would allow them for opportunities to identify, discuss, and implement these features in their own writing. When designing pedagogical materials then, it may be a worthwhile task to include a healthy mix of PFs that function as referential markers since they are most frequent in academic writing, as well as discourse and stance markers (as displayed by the sample list in Appendix A). This may prove useful in creating

an environment where learners could hone their writing abilities, developing the right amount of explicitness, elaboration and complexity that is expected in the register through these functional frames. Lists like this would need to be rated for pedagogical usefulness by instructors and students alike, following the example set by Lu, Yoon, and Kisselev (2018). In addition, to make them more reliable as a pedagogical tool, further studies should be conducted to observe the relationship between student retention/application of PFs when using PF lists in conjunction with other class materials. And while studies such as those of Barabadi, Robatjazi, & Bayat (2020) and Golparvar & Barabadi (2020) stress the importance of developing and implementing PF lists for instruction, they do not always address how to do so. This study proposes combining PF lists with other available resources such as corpora/other target texts for academic writing engaging students in activities that demand first recognition and then practice and successful application of these structures. Appendix B offers a sample recognition activity that could be adapted for use in an EAP classroom with a target text based on the compiled list from this study.

The results of this study also contribute to the ever-growing body of research which intends to situate PFs as perhaps a more sensitive measure to detect syntactic complexity in academic genres. Differences in the use of variable frames among native and non-native expert writers could suggest that in alignment with other studies, such as Garner's (2016), variability is a defining element of successful academic writing and that as writers become more familiar with potential variants for a frame, they are more likely to implement them in their writing. Additionally, when examining predictability between the groups, it appears that both groups of writers use less predictable frames in their writing. Similar tendencies in frame usage were also found concerning function. Thus, based on this study, the differences in PF usage among expert writers is slight (concerning variability) and best measured through PFs. This should, however, be further examined by conducting more corpus studies with MICUSP and other sets of L2 writing data. In addition to their role as a potentially more sensitive measure for syntactic complexity, they present a pedagogical opportunity to lessen the cognitive strain experienced by ELLs.

Many studies still indicate that teaching language in processable chunks, such as lexical bundles, or potentially phrase-frames, is beneficial in ESL/EFL instruction to foster writing development for various rhetorical contexts (Araghi, Oskuee, & Salehpour, 2014; Chen & Baker, 2010; Hong & Hua, 2018; Hyland, 2012; Kazemi, Katiraei, & Rasekh, 2014; Rashti & Mohammadi, 2017). For a long time, lexical bundles have been considered a useful language unit for both pedagogy and research. However, as with any language unit, there are some pedagogical issues in using that unit for language instruction. For instance, learners still have issues implementing them in their writing even after overt instruction. Rashti & Mohammadi (2017) in fact highlighted how learners may tend to overuse or misuse discourse organizers and prepositional phrases such as "in addition to," "furthermore," "in other words," and "as a result of" (p. 212). Additionally, when introducing lexical bundles to learners, they may be asked more often to memorize chunks such as "on the other hand" and "on the one hand" as separate expressions, rather than as a single frame with other potential slot fillers. Therefore, the advantage of using phrase-frames as a unit of instruction may be that they demand learners process language inductively, accounting for linguistic variation in writing, rather than learning through rote memorization. PFs may then be the answer to enabling less strenuous cognitive processing in academic writing with the implementation of pedagogical materials towards this aim.

APPENDIX A. POTENTIALLY USEFUL PHRASE-FRAMES FOR ACADEMIC WRITING

Helpful Phrases for Academic Writing

Please keep this handout to help guide you while you write your essay. We will refer to these phrases often to enhance your writing.

Phrase-Frame	Slot Fillers	# of Potential Fillers	Functional Category
1. on the * hand	other (10), one (7).	2	Discourse Frame; Discourse Marker
2. out of the *	question(3),ordinary, material	3	Stance Frame; Evaluation
3. the rights of *	others(5),women, individuals	3	Referential Frame; Specification of Attributes
4. no * of the	knowledge, culture, fact (5), interpretation, facts.	5	Stance Frame; Evaluation
5. is that * is	there (4), it (2).	2	Stance Frame; Evaluation
6. * and the society	individual (4), individuals.	2	Referential Frame; Contrast & Comparison
7. the same * of	level (2), amount, way, understanding.	4	Referential Frame; Contrast & Comparison
8. *the relationship between	is (2), with, redefine, discussing.	4	Referential Frame; Contrast & Comparison
9. * it seems that	then(2), however, indeed, where, later, clearly	6	Stance Frame; Hedge
10. would be * to	committed, best, unlikely (2), unable, uncomfortable, natural, worthwhile, important, impossible, able, required, prone, difficult.	13	Stance Frame; Epistemic
11. should not be *	permitted (2), taken (2), made, overlooked, described, decided, articulated, justified, counted, removed, manipulated, excused.	12	Stance Frame; Epistemic
12. can be * as	interpreted (2), categorized, rewritten, restated, regarded.	5	Stance Frame; Epistemic
13. it is * to	worthy, useful, preferable, desirable, important (5), mistaken, difficult (2), enough, likely, ideal, up, hoped.	12	Stance Frame; Evaluation
14. in order to*	prevent (5), punish (2), provide (2), make (2), protect (2), maintain (2), determine (3), get (2), know (4).	46	Discourse Frame; Topic Elaboration Cause & Effect
15. to * with the	deal (6), cope (2), live, communicate, do (2), compete.	6	Discourse Frame; Discourse Marker

APPENDIX B. SAMPLE ACTIVITY COMBINING CORPUS WORK WITH PHRASE-FRAMES

Checklist for Phrase-Frames

Directions: Please use this checklist to identify the target frames in the text we have been working with today.
1. <u>Underline</u> all target frames that you can find in the text provided. Keep in mind, not all of them from our list may be found in the text.
2. Then, using the checklist, determine which frames have been used, and their function in the text (you may use your handout of frames to help you).

Frames	Is it included in the text?		If so, where is it in the text? (Include at least one example and the page number/s)	Variants used in the frame	Function(s) in the text
1. on the * hand	❏	Yes			
	❏	No			
2. out of the *	❏	Yes			
	❏	No			
3. the rights of *	❏	Yes			
	❏	No			
4. no * of the	❏	Yes			
	❏	No			
5. is that * is	❏	Yes			
	❏	No			
6. * and the society	❏	Yes			
	❏	No			
7. the same * of	❏	Yes			
	❏	No			
8. *the relationship between	❏	Yes			
	❏	No			
9. * it seems that	❏	Yes			
	❏	No			
10. would be * to	❏	Yes			
	❏	No			

REFERENCES

[1] Anthony, L. (2017). Antconc (Version 3.5.8) [computer Software]. Tokyo, Japan: Waseda University. Available from: http://www.laurenceanthony.net/software (accessed 01/09/2019).
[2] Araghi, S.M., Oskuee, M.Y., & Salehpour, S. (2014). The Effect of Pre-teaching Extended Prefabricated Lexical Bundles on the Writing Development of Advanced EFL Learners. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature,* 3.1, 214-219.
[3] Bahrami, L., Dowlatabadi, H. R., Yazdani, H., & Amerian, M. (2018). Authorial Stance in Academic Writing: Issues and Implications for Research in English Language Teaching. *International Journal of English Language & Translation Studies,* 6.2, 69-80.
[4] Barabadi, E., Robatjazi, M. A., & Bayat, M. (2020). A phraseological examination of research Articles in the field of environment using key phrase frame. *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics,* 6.1, 81-100.
[5] Biber, D., Conrad, S., & Cortes, V. (2004). If you look at…: Lexical bundles in university teaching and textbooks. *Applied Linguistics*, 25.3, 371-405.
[6] Biber, D. & Gray, B. (2010). Challenging stereotypes about academic writing: Complexity, Elaboration, explicitness. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 9, 2-20.
[7] Biber, D., Gray, B., & Ponpoon, K. (2011). Should we use characteristics of conversation to measure grammatical complexity in L2 writing development? *TESOL Quarterly,* 45, 5-35.

[8]   Bychkovska, T. & Lee, J.J. (2017). At the same time: Lexical bundles in L1 and L2 university Student argumentative writing. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 30,* 38-52.

[9]   Candarli, D., Bayyurt, Y. & Marti, L. (2015). Authorial presence in L1 and L2 novice academic writing: Cross-linguistic and cross-cultural perspectives. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 20,* 192-202.

[10]   Chen, Y.-H. & Baker, P. (2010). Lexical Bundles in L1 and L2 Academic Writing. *Language Learning and Technology*, 14.2, 30-49.

[11]   Crosthwaite, P. & Jiang, K. (2017). Does EAP affect written L2 academic stance? A longitudinal learner corpus study. *System,* 69, 92-107.

[12]   Cunningham, K.J. (2017). A phraseological exploration of recent mathematics research articles through key phrase frames. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 25,* 71-83.

[13]   Escobar, C. F. & Fernandez, L. C. (2017). EFL Learners' Development of Voice In Academic Writing: Lexical bundles, Boosters/Hedges and Stance-taking Strategies. *Gist Education and Learning Research Journal, 15,* 96-124.

[14]   Fletcher, W. (2002-2012). KfNgram. A free software program. Available at: http://www.kwicfinder.com/kfNgram/kfNgramHelp.html (accessed 01/09/2019).

[15]   Flowerdew, J. (2017). Corpus-based approaches to language description for specialized academic writing. *Language Teaching*, 50.1, 90-106.

[16]   Garner, J.R. (2016). A phrase-frame approach to investigating phraseology in learner writing across proficiency levels. *International Journal of Learner Corpus Research, 2.1,* 31-68.

[17]   Golparvar, S. E. & Barabadi, E. (2020). Key phrase frames in the discussion section of research articles of higher education. *Lingua, 236,* 1-15.

[18]   Grabowski, L. (2015). Phrase frames in English pharmaceutical discourse: A corpus-driven study of intra-disciplinary register variation. *Research in Language, 13.3,* 266-291.

[19]   Gray, B. & Biber, D. (2013). Lexical frames in academic prose and conversation. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics* 18.1, 109-135.

[20]   Hardy, J.A., Römer, U. & Roberson, A. (2015). The power of relevant models: Using a corpus of student writing to introduce disciplinary practices in a first year composition course. *Across the Disciplines, 12.1,* 1-20.

[21]   Hong, A.L. & Hua, T.K. (2018). Specificity in English for Academic Purposes (EAP): A Corpus Analysis of Lexical Bundles in Academic Writing. *The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies, 24.2,* 82-94.

[22]   Hyland, K. (2012). Bundles in Academic Discourse. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 32,* 150-169.

[23]   Jomaa, N. J. & Alia, M. M. (2019). Functional Analyses of Metadiscourse Markers in L2 Students' Academic Writing. *Arab World English Journal,* 10.1, 361-381.

[24]   Jukneviciene, R. and Grabowski, L. (2018). Comparing formulaicity of learner writing through phrase-frames: A corpus-driven study of Lithuanian and Polish EFL student writing. *Research in Language, 16.3,* 303-323.

[25]   Kaewpet, C. (2018). Quality of argumentation models. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 8.9,* 1105-1113.

[26]   Kazemi, M., Katiraei, S. & Rasekh, A. E. (2014). The Impact of Teaching Lexical Bundles on Improving Iranian EFL Students' Writing Skill. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 98,* 864-869.

[27]   Kyle, K. & Crossley, S.A. (2018). Measuring syntactic complexity in L2 writing using fine-grained clausal and phrasal indices. *The Modern Language Journal*, 102, 333-349.

[28]   Larsen-Freeman, D. (2009). Adjusting expectations: The study of complexity, accuracy, and fluency in second language acquisition. *Applied Linguistics, 30.4,* 579-589.

[29]   Lee, J.J. & Deakin, L. (2016). Interactions in L1 and L2 undergraduate student writing: Interactional metadiscourse in successful and less-successful argumentative essays. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 33,* 21-34.

[30]   Lu, X. (2011). A corpus-based evaluation of syntactic complexity measures as indices of college-level ESL writers' language development. *TESOL Quarterly*, 45, 36-62.

[31]   Lu, X. & Ai, H. (2015). Syntactic complexity in college-level English writing: Differences among writers with diverse L1 backgrounds. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 29, 16-27.

[32]   Lu, X., Yoon, J., and Kisselev, O. (2018). A phrase-frame list for social science research article introductions. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 36, 76-85.

[33]   MacArthur, C. A., Jennings, A., & Philippakos, Z. A. (2019). Which linguistic features predict quality of argumentative writing for college basic writers, and how do those features change with instruction? *Reading and Writing, 32.6,* 1553–1574.

[34]   Manan, N. A. A. & Raslee, N. N. (2018). Explicit Discourse Marker Instruction to Improve Coherence and Cohesion in Academic Writing. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business & Social Sciences, 8.1,* 465-483.

[35]   Martinez, A. C. L. (2017). Syntactic complexity in secondary-level English writing: Differences among writers enrolled on bilingual and non-bilingual programmes. *Porta Linguarum*, 28, 67-80.

[36]   Martinez, A.C.L. (2018). Analysis of syntactic complexity in secondary education: EFL writers at different proficiency levels. *Assessing Writing, 35,* 1-11.

[37]   Michigan Corpus of Upper-Level Student Papers. (2009). *Distribution Across Disciplines* [Data file]. Retrieved from: http://elicorpora.info/ (accessed 01/09/2019).

[38]   Nekrasova-Beker, T.M. (2019). Discipline-specific use of language patterns in engineering: A comparison of published pedagogical materials. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* 41, 1-12.

[39]   O'Donnell, M. B., Römer, U. and Ellis, N.C. (2013). The Development of Formulaic Sequences in First and Second Language Writing. Investigating Effects of Frequency, Association, and Native Norm. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics* 18.1, 83–108.

[40]   Povolna, R. (2012). Causal and Contrastive Discourse Markers in Novice Academic Writing. *Brno Studies in English, 38.2,* 131-148.

[41]   Römer, U. (2010). Establishing the phraseological profile of a text type: The construction of meaning in academic book reviews. *English Text Constructions, 3.1,* 95-119.

[42] Römer, U. & Arbor, A. (2009). English in Academia: Does Nativeness Matter? *Anglistik: International Journal of English Studies*, 20.2, 89-100.

[43] Römer, U., & O'Donnell, M.B. (2009). Positional variation of phrase frames in a new corpus of proficient student writing. [Online] Paper presented at AACL conference. Edmonton, Canada, 9 Oct 2009.

[44] Römer, U., & O'Donnell, M. B. (2011). From student hard drive to web corpus (part 1): the design, compilation and genre classification of the Michigan Corpus of Upper-Level Student Papers (MICUSP). *Corpora*, 6.2, 159–177.

[45] Simpson-Vlach, R., & Ellis, N. C. (2010). An academic formulas list: New methods in phraseology research. *Applied Linguistics*, 31, 487-512.

[46] Vercellotti, M. L. (2017). The development of complexity, accuracy, and fluency in second language performance: A longitudinal study. *Applied Linguistics,* 38, (1), 90-111.

[47] Yang, W. & Sun, Y. (2015). Dynamic development of complexity, accuracy and fluency in multilingual learners' L1, L2, and L3 writing. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies,* 5.2, 298-308.

[48] Yoon, H.-J. (2017). Linguistic complexity in L2 writing revisited: Issues of topic, proficiency, and construct multidimensionality. *System*, 66, 130-141.

Kseniya N. Walcott was born in Tyumen, Russia in 1995. Ms. Walcott attained her Bachelor of Arts in English with a language concentration and her Master of Arts in English with a focus on teaching English as a second/foreign language at Colorado State University in Fort Collins, CO, USA in 2017 and 2019 respectively.

She has worked as a Composition Instructor, Language Tutor, Research Assistant and College Test Proctor. She currently works as an Admissions Processor for Colorado State University and Private Language Tutor in Fort Collins, CO, USA. Some of her research interests include topics in neurolinguistics and novel ways to teach syntax to language learners.

A Tentative Study on Thomas Hardy's Fatalism in *The Return of the Native*

Xue Zhao

English Language and Culture Department, Teachers' College of Beijing Union University, Beijing, China

Abstract—**Thomas Hardy, the most influential novelist in British literature is famous for the pessimism and fatalism in his works. This paper mainly discusses the characters in *The Return of the Native* to probe into Hardy's fatalism through his keen observation and skillful writing of the description of the tragedy. Instead of the overwhelming pessimism, the author also sheds a hope for the human beings.**

Index Terms—**The Return of the Native, fatalism, destiny**

I. INTRODUCTION

The Return of the Native is the first mature novel written by Thomas Hardy in 1878. From the first publication of his first novel, it aroused great attention. Not so much because it achieves great artistic excellence in painstaking character-portrayal and the vivid descriptions of nature and a locality and of the rustic folk, but because it is the novel embraces all the basic and essential points of the novelist's philosophy (Jia Chen, 1996). Hardy's critics accused him of being overwhelmingly pessimistic about human's position in the wild background of nature. *The Return of the Native* was regarded as the representative works which showed the dominance of Nature over Man, stressing the powerless man's against the infinity of nature.

As Lord David Cecil (2000) remarked in *Hardy, the Novelist*: "In all his fiction, *The Return of Native* is the most Darwinian novel in the emphasis he placed on the bleak struggle for survival in the blind forces controlling human destiny" (p. 23).

With the same tone, Tony Tanner (1998) presented: "Like the great tragedies of the fifth century, Athens and Elizabethan England, Hardy's character and environment of *The Return of the Native* convey a strong sense of fatalism, a view that in life human actions have been predetermined either by the very nature of things, or by God, or by Fate" (p. 425).

This paper intends to give a glimpse of the Hardy's philosophical view of life and fate so as to explore whether Hardy is as pessimistic as what all the above critics pointed out, how Hardy becomes so despondent about human beings in the vast nature, in their struggle against fate, and what Hardy's philosophical views about this exactly is.

II. INFLUENCE OF DARWINISM ON HARDY

With the study of Hardy's notes and autobiography, it is clear that he was strongly influenced by Darwinism. No other single book made a more significant immediate impact on him than *The Origin of Species*. However, different from his contemporaries who advocated the progress of their time, Hardy has originality of his own pessimistic view of human beings who were extremely helpless and smallness in a wild universe which was indifferent to human feelings and ethical aspirations. Darwinism prompted him to set images of human life against the background of vast nature.

Concerning nature, Hardy also pointedly stressed that nature is immoral and indifferent to human beings who are temporarily lived in it. In his autobiography, for example, he consequently expressed his sense of the losing struggle of individuals against the forces of Nature that gradually destroy them. Working behind the pressures is Fate. "It is not his fault," he said, "that they do not suffer; nor is it their fault either they are pushed and finally pinned down by the overwhelming forces of fate" (Schweik, 2000, p. 62).

This view can also find good expressions *Edinburgh Review* in 1886 where Hardy showed his admiration of Hugo. Hugo's theme is the predestined fate of human existence, the struggle between man and destiny; he insists upon the compulsion of circumstances, the tragic force that overrides the human will" (F. B. Pinion, 1977, p. 37).

Among Hardy's so many works, of earlier fictions, *The Return of the Native* most distinctly embodies those concerns. Hardy (1975) depicts Clym Yeobright whose ideal physical beauty is incompatible with growth of fellow-feeling and a full sense of the coil of things (p.138); He also describes Eustacia Vye's frustrated longings for hopeless ideals; These convey the alienation of thinking and feeling that humans in a universe which is indifferent to their ideals and sensitivities. It suggests the hostile nature of the heath against these characters. Critics, as John Goode, referred to Hardy's (1975) themes in this novel as "expressing a fatalism view of life; that is to say, a view of life which depicts human actions as subject to the control of an impersonal force, perhaps called Destiny or Fate. Obey it, men survive; otherwise, die" (p. 39).

In *The Return of the Native*, Hardy specialized nature, the vast force in the Egdon heath where most of the actions of

the story take place and which he was constantly concerned to emphasis its intense natural power, generalized as the indifferent universe.

III. Characters under the Influence of Fatalism

A. Dominance of Nature over Man

From the first page, the Heath is established as an environment larger, older and stronger than its inhabitants are. It is depicted as a backdrop with boundless darkness and primitive forces. It is an immortal place. It is described in the Domesolay Book nine hundred years as it is today. As its inhabitants live and die, it keeps the same. Here Egdon Heath does not simply serve as the backdrop for the story, but a complex symbol of indifferent nature, a blind eternal force that governs the all. Hardy dramatized to present humankind against a background of vast impersonal force. In contrast with the Heath, which becomes an embodiment of the powerful force, is the man itself: mortal and vulnerable, selfish, and always looking to advance his place in the world (Robin Mayhead 34)[10].

This novel is to show the predominance of nature over man. This view is shared by the character of Eustacia Vye, who rebels against these inevitable, leading to her downfall, and Clym Yeobright, who tries to change the heath only ending changed by nature and lonely living in the heath. All these explicitly show Hardy's pessimistic view of human being's struggle against nature.

B. Eustacia Who Constantly Rebels Against Life but Receives Failure

Eustacia, one of the main characters dreams to leave the heath where she feels she doesn't belong; however, it is also where she is determined to stay until death. In the novel, Eustacia is introduced as a native of the fashionable seaside resort of Budmouth. Her non-English father gives her a slightly exotic appearance, which makes her a little bit different from the others thus is regarded as an outsider on Egdon Heath.

However, fate makes her come to heath, which she says despairingly and prophetically, is "my cross, my shame, and will be my death" (Hardy, p. 91). However, she extremely hates the heath and is eager to leave here. Constantly building up memories of her childhood in Budmouth into a fantasy of the delights of a town, for several years, she has been starved of what she calls 'life': 'life---music, poetry, passion, war, and all the beating and pulsing that are going o in the great arteries of the world' (Hardy, p.333-4). Rebellious by nature she refuses to try to come to terms with the heath, thinking herself superior to the people of Edgon and holding arrogantly aloof. All her desires lie in dreams of escape.

Suddenly an opportunity comes in the form of a clever young man from Paris. In her eyes, the young man Clym is more than a human being but a key to unlock the glittering world of the dream of her city. She dresses as a male mummer and roams the heath so frequently in an attempt to meet Clym by accident because she thinks he will give her a reassurance that his return to Paris is a possibility. With the thought that this man can change her fate living on the heath, Eustacia marries the man---to say exactly, to her dream.

However, fate has determined her to pin on the Heath. Therefore, any effort of her escape from nature is in vain. After her marriage, disaster inevitably follows. The first thing that makes her disappointed is that her knight who she thinks will bring her to her dreaming-city, decides to stay in nature because he regards himself as the son of nature. However, so conceited she is, she thinks she has a decisive influence on her husband that can change his mind. As a consequence, she is even willing to abandon her high economic status and move to a small house, which she fails to conceive it will last for quite long time. She has thought that they would leave there to Paris and begins a glamorous life.

By a cruel irony of fate, despite all of her painstaking efforts, Clym turns out to be the only man that cannot fulfil her desires since Clym chooses to stay at the heath and educate the uneducated, instead of leaving the heath. Even so, Eustacia still has hopes of Paris until her husband goes blind. While to Eustacia, purblind Clym is now an unambitious man and a fallen idol; far from being the knight who she had once idealized her lover. Now Clym has degraded into a mere workman. Seeing her husband happily singing while working, she is totally in despair. Until that moment, she suddenly realizes that they will never leave the heath.

Making painstaking efforts only to discover that the one man whom she has thought to take her escape is just the opposite; Crazed, Eustacia leaves her husband. However, if Eustacia could have lived as the other natives and accepted the life on the heath, if she would have been obedient to her fate, her life will be completely different.

Yet, Eustacia does not. With the disillusionment of her husband to escape from the native, she changes to Wildeve by abusing her attraction to him. Yet, fate is destiny that couldn't be changed by the individuals. So, fighting against the inevitable, the only result of Eustacia is death when she tries to escape with Wildeve from the control of nature, the fate.

Just before her drowning, she reveals her complain of her injustice fate and her impotence of rebelling against her fate:

> How I have tried and tried to be a splendid woman, and how destiny has been against me!…I do not deserve my lot!…o, the cruelty of putting me into this ill-conceived world ! I was capable of much; but I have been injured, blighted, and crushed by things beyond my control! O, how hard it is of heaven to devise such tortures for me, who have done no harm to heaven at all!   (Hardy, p. 357)

Eustacia's view of herself as a victim of a cruel destiny is the echo of Hardy's pessimistic view of the useless rebellion against the unavoidable.

Such is Eustacia who sacrifices her life to escape from fate, from the control of nature. She is a poor, trapped bird like so many of Hardy's heroines, a queen "without realms or hearts to queen it over" (Hardy, p.167). Too passionate for her good, she is forced to live on Egdon where "coldest and meanest kisses were at famine prices" until her death (Hardy, p.84). These portrayed Eustacia as a victim who falls into the web of inevitable fate which she desperately fights against but is finally punished by.

From there, we can get knowledge of Hardy's philosophical view about the sheer futility of individual's struggle against the cruel universe.

C. Clym Who Intends to Change the Reality but Be Changed by It Finally

Hardy's pessimistic and fatalistic views can also be well illustrated by Clym's characters and his relationships with the other characters. In the novel, he is depicted so unwoven with the heath in his boyhood that hardly anybody could look upon it without thinking of him (Hardy, p.174); Edgon "permeates" him "with its scenes, with its substance, and with is odors" (Hardy, p.172). With the conception that he is rooted in the heath, the native Clym, once highly regarded, could have much more chances to pursue a splendid life in the big city, but decisively gives up the worldly success and answers the call of his native land. However, everything between the two worlds ---Paris and the heath, are not just incompatible: there exists a deadly animosity between them like that between Edgon and 'civilization' (George Wotton, 1985, p. 116).

On his return from Paris, failed to make a right and realistic judgement of the reality, Clym is so ignorant that he even dreams of educating the workfolk without solving the problem of their poverty first. Therefore, there is a conflict between the heath and him. Of course, the result of human against nature and fate is undoubtedly known---he is fatefully destroyed.

In the treatment of this character who wants to change the forever nature, Hardy makes Clym exposed to a series of misfortunes, one blow after another. After the death of his mother, he returns to an extreme form of the guilt and remorse. At last, he is much more vulnerable, but he is not so frenzied to realize his dream to educate the heath person. Moreover, he is indulging in a barbarous satisfaction at the heath's resistance to cultivate and survive in the heath working and preaching.

Clym determines to give up all he gains in Paris and returns to his native land in order to change the heath in the way of bringing civilization to it. Trusted by his mother, he plans to be a teacher to educate the natives and live a happy marriage life. Yet, in the end, Clym only destroys all the three goals and is stripped of respect and trust, finally becomes a rootless itinerant in the heath.

Contrasted to Eustacia who rebels against nature and longs to escape from nature, Clym who returns here, only wants to improve and change the conditions in the heath. However, he still fails in the bout between human being and nature or fate.

From here, we can sense that Hardy was quite obviously trying to contrast the strong power of fate symbolized by the Egdon heath with the insignificance of man and to show the utter helplessness before the inevitable. He believed that human being couldn't change the inevitable; conversely it is human beings who are changed by nature. These can be illustrated by Clym's original intention and final ending.

D. Minor Characters

The well-known happy character in this novel is regarded as Thomason. Most reader must presume she should lead a happy life because she always obeys the fate. However, it is not the intention of Hardy to create a happy Thomasin but to create this character in the belief that the world needs its Thomasins---those who quietly accept the tragic inevitability of things (Rosemary Sumner, 1981, p. 55). In addition, in fact, it is not Hardy's original idea to make such kind of happy end of this character---marrying her lover. Hardy added a tantalizing note in the 1912 edition explaining that the Thomasin-Diggory marriage was not part of his original conception of the novel and that was forced by the public demand for a happy ending (Sumner, p. 54).

We can say that Thomason is the model woman created by Hardy. However, although she always obeys what gives her, carrying the fatalistic view of her life, her life is not so quite satisfactory. She is too obedient to what life orders her to do. Her obedience to her fatalistic views pushes her dealing with the relationship with Wildeve. Although she knows there exists no real love between them, she still agrees to marry him. Because she realizes that if she does not marry him, inhabitants in the heath will gossip about her. However, their after-marriage life is not so satisfactory. Lonely at home, waiting for her husband dating with another woman, that is the life of the so-called model lady. Although in the end, she accepts his second marriage proposal with the following view: "I agreed to it… because I am a practical woman now. I do not believe in hearts at all. I would marry him under any circumstances…" (Hardy, p. 316). In the end, the good Thomason with her do-good husband has removed to the very fringe of the heath's reaches-of no account to it. Therefore, we can know that even the obedient one cannot easily find their happy life.

IV. CONCLUSION

Hence, it is fully reflected in his novels that Hardy himself was strongly influenced by the pessimistic view that no matter how human beings put forward to change the fate, no matter how hard they make efforts to pursue happiness, to

achieve ethical ideas, the results keep the same. Men are always the loser.

However, to say Hardy is completely pessimistic is not completely correct and justified. We can surprisingly find that he also carries some hope on human's struggle against nature, against fate. We can sense it from his creation of the death of Eustacia. Although dead for her dream, she dies peaceful and happy. Here on Eustacia this character, besides the mainstream of Hardy's pessimism, we can sense a little of the optimistic tendency of Hardy's view of human's struggle against fate.

Just as many critics, represented by Robin Mayhead, have pointed out, she is created as the Promethean and Byronic rebel who is "emblematic of the feeling and infinite desire which rebel against inevitable limitation' (Hardy, p. 37). Hardy's intentional creation of this character represents his conflict mind towards human's struggle. Although in the whole, he is pessimistic towards fate, in the trivial details, we can be aware that he also pins hope on human's rebellion. It can be fully shown in the ending of Eustacia. In her death, Eustacia is happy and peaceful. It is very ironic that only death could bring her happiness and peace, and finally give her relief from the dejectedness of the heath. Her death must become a victory over life which has been always indifferent to human being's aspiration and ideals. From here, we can sense his sympathy towards the tragic resister who carries his hope in the struggle against the inevitable fate. Anyway, it cannot change Hardy's pessimistic view towards human being in the society, for in the end, Hardy still makes the rebellious heroine die which symbolizes the failure of human's attempt to rebel.

Besides, one thing must be mentioned that Hardy is not passively pessimistic. When a man living in the inevitable, although, he cannot change all, Hardy advocates Darwin's survive for the fittest. That is to say, whatever happens, human being should try to be adapted to the society, the change. This philosophical attitude towards human's existence can be fully expressed by Clym's final survive in the heath. His survive in the struggle of human against nature is due to his ability to constantly change his way of life to make himself fit to nature. He takes all of his successes and failures as they come because he knows everything in his life has been determined. With the notion that he is the son of the heath where he belongs, he thinks the life in Paris is not right for him, and he must return to his native heath. It seems like a birthright which symbolizes his root and identity although he is described as someone extraordinary from the birth time but at heart a man of the heath.

Again, when Clym is blinded, he is not destroyed by this mishap. Instead, he makes some changes in his lifestyle. Although he is an exceptional person, he doesn't care to become a furze-cutter as the other natives do. He even enjoys the job, as, "the monotony of his occupation soothed him, and was in itself a pleasure…his effort offered homely courses" (Hardy, p. 232). He enjoys his new work, which shows he is at peace with the nature. The adaptivity that Clym shows in his lifestyle reflects his notion of fatalism. This character represents Hardy's view that man should not be destroyed by nature, or helplessly give up, instead, he should actively accumulate himself to nature.

Analyzing the lives of these people in *Return of the Native*, we can find that life has been stern with all of them; Hardy is a severe writer, and his characters always have to struggle against the dour, unsmiling hostility of existence. In addition, the result is always that nature that symbolizes the force and fate overwhelms human being; and human being unchangeably obeys t nature. Jake Lothe (2000), pointed out that Hardy caught a pessimistic philosophy that accentuated the active part played by the mysterious force of external circumstances upon human lives (p. 115). From his point of view, there seems to be something mysterious in nature, something out of the control of the human power, but determines human fate and frustrates human desires. He advanced that "tragedy exhibits a state of things in the life of an individual which unavoidably causes desire of his to end in a catastrophe when carried out" (Garwood, 1911, p. 182). Anyway, Egdon will remain the same forever.

However, at the same time, we cannot neglect that although Hardy creates the lives of the characters assuredly be tragic, but for a tendency, he still is not over pessimistic. He does carry sympathy to the resister and pin hope on the human's struggle in nature. Instead of submitting to the fate, he advocated the active amalgamation and adaptation to nature that is manifest by Clym's flexible lifestyle.

Therefore, to sum up, by the comprehensive analyses of the main characters in *The Return of The Native*, it gives most explicit expression of Hardy's philosophical view on the human's fate. Reading this novel, we can justify Hardy's attitude towards human's struggle in nature. Despite the prevailing image of Hardy as a pessimist, there is ample evidence that he shared the guarded optimism of human being. The readers instead of depressed by the novel, can still see hope of our life in nature. "It (nature) was at present a place perfectly accordant with man's nature---neither ghastly, hateful, nor ugly: neither commonplace, unmeaning, nor tame" (Hardy, p. 33).

<div align="center">REFERENCES</div>

[1]   David, Cecil. (2000). Hardy the Novelist, quoted in Peter Widdowson, "Hardy and Critical Theory*"*, in Dale Kramer eds., *The Cambridge Companion, to Thomas Hardy*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press, p. 23-24.
[2]   Goode, John. (1988). Thomas Hardy, the Offensive Truth. United Kingdom: Basil Blackwell.
[3]   Hardy, Thomas. (1975). The Return of the Native. London: The Macmillan Press LTD.
[4]   Helen, Garwood. (1911). Thomas Hardy: An Illustration of the Philosophy of Schopenhauer. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Cooperation.
[5]   Jia, Chen. (1996). A History of English Literature III. Beijing: The Commercial Press.
[6]   Mayhead, Robin. (1978). Thomas Hardy, British Authors. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[7]   Pinion, F.B. (1977). Thomas Hardy: Art and Thought. London: The Macmillan Press LTD.

[8]   Sumner, Rosemary. (1981). Thomas Hardy: Psychological Novelist. New York: St. Martin's Press.
[9]   Tony, Tanner. (1998). The Victorian Novel: Essays in Criticism. Hong Kong: Macmillan. D.
[10] Wotton, George. (1985). Thomas Hardy: Towards A Materialist Criticism. Ireland: Gill and Macmillan LT.

Xue Zhao was born in Tianjin, People's Republic of China in 1979. She received Master Degree of English Language and Literature from Beihang University in 2004, specialized in American literature.

From 2004, she has worked as an English Teacher at Teacher's College of BUU in Beijing. Currently she is an associate professor there. She has published several coursebooks and books in the field of American literature: Selective Readings of American Literature in 20th century (Shanghai, China: Tongji University Press, 2018), Study of Deconstructive and Constructive Techniques and Functions in the Novels of Kunt Vonnegut (Shanghai, Donghua University Press, 2014), The Oedipus Paradox : Study of Paternal Characters and Authority in the Novels of John Irving (Shanghai, Donghua University Press, 2013). Her research interests and publications cover the areas of American Literature and TESOL, particularly Modern American Literature and the teaching of Chinese as a second for normal students.

Levels of Integrating the ASSURE Model in Lesson Delivery of Selected Primary School Teachers in Nigeria

Adeyemi Adedapo
Department of Educational Foundations, National Open University of Nigeria, Abuja, Nigeria

Bolanle T. Opoola
Linguistics and Languages Department, Federal University, Oye-Ekiti, Ekiti State, Nigeria

Abstract—**Scholars are aware of the fact that there have been many instances of teaching with no learning. One plausible reason for learning not to have taken place is when a teacher fails to design and creates conducive learning environments where changes in psychomotor, cognitive and affective behaviours can be accomplished effectively. But this can be corrected using the ASSURE model. Thus, the ASSURE model was investigated in this study as a method of lesson delivery to assess how far primary school teachers have gone in analyzing learners' characteristics, stating lesson objectives and utilizing instructional media. Three research questions guided the study. Fifty primary school teachers were purposively sampled and responded to a questionnaire during the 2016 FGN-UBEC/OYO-SUBEB Teacher Professional Development Capacity Building workshop. An appraisal of the sit-in-observations of this workshop shows the need for assessing the use of integrating the ASSURE model in lesson delivery. Results show that primary school teachers were below the average in terms of analyzing their pupils' characteristics before beginning their lessons and slightly above averages in the areas of systematically defining the lesson objectives and utilization of instructional media. It is recommended that the FGN-UBEC/OYO-SUBEB Teacher Professional Development Capacity Building workshops be extended to all categories of teachers in the UBEC scheme to update their knowledge to ensure effective teaching and learning situations.**

Index Terms—**ASSURE model, lesson delivery, instructional media, sit-in-observation**

I. INTRODUCTION

An effective teacher is one who can create or contrive a rich and stimulating environment where learning can occur. It is not easy to define teacher effectiveness in classroom service delivery. This is so because of the complexity of the teaching-learning process and the different expectations and aspiration of the learners and the stakeholders in education. As an attempt to the definition of teacher effectiveness, Isaiah (2010) said it is the degree of proficiency and competence to which a teacher can achieve and demonstrate mastery and use of educational technology to attain set objectives in teaching-learning situations. Any teaching or learning that is result-oriented is termed as effective. A lesson whose objective is achieved is said to be an effective lesson. According to Bernard (2007), this effectiveness comes to focus through the student's result in examination. An effective lesson is not achieved without an effective teacher. An effective teacher uses good educational technology and methodologies. An effective teacher produces a practically oriented result where students do not only pass the examination but can practicalize their knowledge. For instance, a student who went through effective learning should be able to make learning autonomous and self-directed with the educational tools. He can produce and organize the material at his/her pace for maximum use and achievement in school and outside school. The use of an ASSURE model in lesson delivery is of interest in this study.

The Assure model is an instructional systems design process that was modified to be used by teachers in the regular classroom, to design and develop the most appropriate learning environment for their students (Megaw, 2006). The ASSURE model incorporates Robert Gagne's events of instruction to assure effective use of media in instruction. ASSURE is an acronym formed with the capitals of the model's steps. A — Analyze learners, S — State standard and objectives, S — Select strategies, technology, media and materials, U — Utilize technology, media and materials, R — Require learner participation, and E — Evaluate and revise. According to Megaw (2006), the ASSURE model is the most convenient model for integrating the theories of instructional technology and research with practice. An instructional designer believes that the use of systematic design procedures can make instruction more effective, efficient and relevant than less rigorous approaches to plan instruction. To integrate the technology, education must require the systematical use of technology. According to Smaldino, Lowther and Russell (2012), a planning model called the ASSURE model is concerned with the use of technology systematically in lessons. For the teacher to get the maximum benefits out of the integration of media, he/she must systematically plan for it (Anulobi & Akude, 2012).

Hence, the need for the utilization of the ASSURE model, developed by Heinich, Molenda and Russel (1985) could be applied by the teacher for a systematic instructional delivery.

Baran (2010) investigated university-level students' experiences of designing lessons with an interactive whiteboard as an instructional medium. The sample consisted of 40 students who would be both moderators of technological resources in schools and computer teachers after graduation from university. In the design of a lesson process, the ASSURE instructional design model was their roadmap. The results showed that none of the students had used interactive whiteboards before the course. However, most of them knew interactive whiteboards from other courses, seminars, or the internet. Nearly half of the participants had some hesitations when they first learned that they were going to use interactive whiteboards in the course. After using it during a lesson, however, their opinions became positive. Besides, ASSURE instructional design model let them to progress systematically and step-by-step. It is instructive to find out whether or not Nigerian teachers can also benefit from the ASSURE model.

II. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This study has two main objectives. The first objective is exploratory. It is to report an assessment of a workshop aimed at gaining insight into lesson delivery of sampled teachers during the sit-in-observation. The second objective is to carry out a survey focusing on the identified teachers' needs during sit-in-observation.

A. Reports of Sit-in-observations

The authors of this paper were fortunate to serve as facilitator during the 2016 Federal Government of Nigeria-Universal Basic Education Commission (FGN-UBEC) Teacher Professional Development Capacity Building workshop. The aims and objectives of the workshop include among others: preparation of lesson plan; designing of instructional materials and effective utilization of materials; developing strategies for starting lesson; and lesson delivery during the sit-in-observation. During the sit-in-observation, the researchers did some focus observations of lessons taught by participants, took observation notes and conducted post-lesson debriefing interviews with only twenty participants assigned to mentor. Each participant was observed for three lessons (per week) which lasted for 13 weeks.

During the sit-in-observation, the researchers noted the following lapses:
  (i)   Participants failed to analyse their pupils' entry behaviours before beginning their lessons;
  (ii)   Many of the participants failed to revise the previous lesson with the pupils;
  (iii) Not all participants prepared at least three lesson plans per week in any of the four core
         subjects (English Studies, Mathematics, Basic Science and Social Studies;
  (iv)   Lack of cognate experience on how to integrate instructional media;
  (v)   Participants failed to base their evaluation questions on the behavioural objectives.
  (vi)   Lack of classroom management and control.

It was discovered from a few instances seen during the classroom observation that instructional materials have the potential of helping teachers perform better if only extra efforts could be employed by them. For instance, a teacher who was observed made use of detergent and water stirred together to form bubble as improvised instructional material for snow. The use of improvised instructional material for snow made the lesson interesting and effective that the weakest pupil in the class was able to answer correctly questions posed after the lesson. In many of the cases, teachers who used only flashcards would normally teach about three-quarters of their lessons verbally and then, only about one quarter would be used for the display and use of the flashcards. This technique usually made English lessons dull and uninteresting and does not allow the use of verbal instruction to be well blended with instructional materials. This corroborates the study conducted by Ajayi-Dopemu (1986) in which he concluded that verbal instructions complemented with illustrations will be more effective than verbal instructions used alone.

The reasons for this observed ineffective teaching performance as given by various educators were varied and numerous: They include:
  •   Defective lesson- plans and weak delivery strategies (Udo & Patrick, 2014).
  •   Lack of analyses of the learners' characteristics (Gage, 1971, Karagiannopoulou & Entwistle, 2019).
  •   Lack of cognate experience on how to integrate instructional media into the implementation (Okolie, 2000, Adedapo, 2017).
  •   Ignorant of attending workshops and seminars on how to use the ASSURE model for integrating mediaand designing a lesson plan (Okolie, 2000; Maduabumi, 2003)..

B. ASSURE Model and Teacher Effectiveness

Given the observed ineffective teaching performance as mentioned above, the researchers of this study believed that teaching being an attempt to help someone acquire a change of attitude, knowledge, ideal, skills or appreciation, could be better carried out if a systematic methodology is correspondingly applied. Such method is the one which would make the learners become participatory learners, armed with skills to sharpen and update their scientific prowess to remain functional at all times. Thus, the ASSURE Model was investigated in this study, as a method of lesson delivery with a view of assessing how far primary school teachers have gone concerning its utilization for teaching effectiveness.

Specifically, the study sought:

(i) the extent to which primary school teachers analyse their pupils' characteristics before beginning their lesson;

(ii) the extent to which primary school teachers systematically define their lessons objectives to reflect the three conditions (standard, condition and performance) necessary in the statement of lesson objectives;

(iii) the frequency to which primary school teachers utilize instructional media in teaching;

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions were posed to guide the study:

(i) To what extent do primary school teachers analyse their pupils' characteristics before beginning their lessons?

(ii) To what extent do primary school teachers systematically define their lesson objectives to reflect the three conditions necessary in the statement of lesson objectives?

(iii) To what extent do primary school teachers utilize instructional media in teaching?

IV. METHODOLOGY

The research design adopted for this study was a descriptive survey. It involves collecting data from a sample of 50 primary school teachers in Oyo West local government area of Oyo State, Nigeria. The participants were purposefully selected during 2016 FGN-UBEC Teacher Professional Development Capacity Building Workshop. Forty-two of the participants which represent 84% were female teachers, the remaining eight, that is 16%, were male teachers.

The instrument for the study was a questionnaire titled: "Extent of the Use of Integrating ASSURE Model in Lesson Delivery" (EUIAMLD). The instrument is an 18-item structured questionnaire developed and administered by the researcher. It was adapted from the work of Udo and Patrick (2013). The questionnaire consists of two sections: A and B. Section A was designed to elicit personal information about the respondents while Section B was a four-point response format (Very Often= 4, Often = 3; Rarely = 2; Not at All =0) of items made up of three parts (A, B and C). Part A, dwelt on analysis of learners' characteristics before beginning the lesson and Part B dwelt on defining lesson objectives to reflect the three conditions. Part C dwelt on the utilization of instructional media in teaching. The 18-item questionnaire was duly validated by two experts in educational technology and primary education, who offered valuable suggestions about the content validity. The internal consistency of the questionnaire was established using a split-half method and a reliability index of 0.83 was obtained. The collected data were analysed using frequency and mean scores.

V. RESULTS AND FINDINGS

Research Question 1: To what extent do primary school teachers analyse their pupils' characteristics before beginning their lessons? The data gathered are summarized in Table I.

TABLE I
PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' RANK ORDERED RESPONSES ON THE ANALYSIS OF PUPILS' CHARACTERISTICS

S/N	Analysis of Pupils' Characteristics	CWS	Mean N	SD	Rank	Decision
1.	Consideration of pupils' specific needs.	165	3.30	1.07	1	High Extent
2.	Consideration of pupils' range of background in terms of their cultural and socio-economic factor.	120	2.52	1.13	2	High Extent
3.	Consider their age differences.	117	2.34	1.09	3	Low Extent
4.	Consideration of pupils' learning styles	117	2.34	1.03	3	Low Extent
5.	Consideration of pupils' previous knowledge/ experience.	115	2.30	1.09	5	Low Extent
6.	Consideration of pupils' intellectual aptitude	115	2.30	.83	5	Low Extent
	Grand Mean Score		**2.52**	1.02		

Table I indicates that teachers' analyses of pupils' characteristics before beginning a lesson were low as virtually all the variables tested except in the aspects of considering the pupils' range of background and pupils' specific needs are above the acceptable mean score of 2.50. Pupils' intellectual aptitude, differences in age, specific needs and learning styles were at very low levels. Meanwhile, the grand mean score here shows that the teachers were within the average in terms of analyzing their pupils' characteristics before beginning their lessons.

Research Question 2: To what extent do primary school teachers systematically define their lesson objectives to reflect the three conditions necessary in the statement of lesson objectives? The data gathered to answer this question are summarized in Table II.

TABLE II
PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' MEAN RESPONSES ON SYSTEMATIC DEFINITION OF LEARNING OBJECTIVES

S/N	B. Systematic Definition of Lesson Objectives	CWS	Mean	SD	Rank	Decision
1.	Specify the content.	184	3.68	1.17	1	High Extent
2.	Specified in measurable and observable terms	178	**3.56**	**1.12**	**2**	High Extent
3.	Directed to the target learners	143	2.86	1.13	3	High Extent
4.	Specified to indicate the condition that will be used to judge learners' performance	121	2.42	1.01	4	Low Extent
5.	Specified to reflect the affective domain	110	2.20	.86	5	Low Extent
6.	Specified to indicate the acceptable standard of performance	101	2.02	.99	6	Low Extent
	Grand Mean Score		**2.79**	**1.07**		

Table II indicates the extent to which primary school teachers systematically define their lesson objectives. The outcome reveals that participants who are primary school teachers clearly stated their lesson objectives to specify the content, making it measurable and observable; averagely specified the pupils to which the objectives are directed; and also highly specified the lesson content in line with the lesson objectives; and also achieved within the stipulated time in that order.

However, the response of the participants in defining the lesson objectives to reflect the affective domain, indicate the acceptable standard of performance and show the conditions that would be used to judge their learners' performance all fall below average. This indicated that the three factors are rarely stated in their lesson objectives. The overall mean for this section was 2.79 which was above the acceptable mean. The implication of this is that the participants were rated above the average in terms of systematically defining their lesson objectives.

Research Question 3: To what extent do primary school teachers utilize instructional media in teaching? The data gathered are summarized in Table III.

TABLE III
PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' MEAN RESPONSES ON UTILIZATION OF INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA IN TEACHING

S/N	C. Utilization of Instructional Media in Teaching	CWS	Mean	SD	Rank	Decision
1.	Consider the interests and needs of the pupils in selecting the instructional media?	164	3.28	1.10	1	High Frequency
2.	Source for instructional media?	104	2.08	.98	2	Low Frequency
3.	Display basic knowledge and skills for effective utilization of instructional media?	98	1.96	1.02	3	Low Frequency
4.	Utilize enough time for instructional media in teaching?	97	1.94	1.01	4	Low Frequency
5	Utilize instructional materials to the appropriate level of difficulty?	96	1.92	.92	5	Low Frequency
6.	Attend seminar/workshop /conference on effective use of instructional media?	58	1.16	1.09	6	Low Frequency
	Grand Mean Score		**2.05**	**.98**		

Table III indicates that the participants always considered the interest and needs of the pupils in the selection of instructional media with mean of 3.28 which was to a high extent. However, the participants indicated that the frequency at which teachers attended workshop/seminar/conference, sourced for instructional media, utilized instructional media, encountered obstacles in the course of utilization and displayed basic knowledge and skills with respective means of 1.16, 2.08, 1.92, 1.94 and 1.96 were at very low frequency. The overall mean for this section was 2.05 indicating that primary school teachers exhibit a low frequency in effective utilization of instructional media.

VI. DISCUSSION

The findings on research question one reveal that pupils' characteristics such as pupils' intellectual aptitude, age differences, specific needs and learning styles were not adequately analysed by primary school teachers before beginning their lesson as against what the ASSURE model emphasizes. The result, however, reveals that variables like pupils' cultural and socio-economic background and specific needs were given consideration. This might not be unconnected with the fact that teachers are aware of the tribe of the pupils and the economic status of their parents as these influenced their decision. This result is not in conformity with the assertion of Heinich, Molenda, Russell and Smaldino (2001), Baran, (2010) who noted that for the ASSURE model to be properly utilized, it is essential to first think about the learners and their general characteristics, academic levels, skills, and styles of learning before beginning a lesson.

The study also reveals that primary school teachers scarcely or hardly reflect the affective domain in their lesson objectives, hardly indicate the acceptable standard of performance in lesson objectives and also hardly indicate the conditions that would be used to judge their learners' performance. It means that teachers lack competencies in stating instructional objectives. The result conforms to the findings of Ifegbo (2009), Udo and Patrick (2014) who reported that

teachers lacked competencies in stating objectives in affective domain for lessons and they also fail to indicate conditions and degrees of performance while stating objectives for the lesson.

It was indicated in the findings that primary school teachers exhibit to a low extent effective utilization of instructional media which the adoption of the ASSURE model emphasizes. One plausible reason for this outcome is that of non-availability and poor usage of instructional media as majority of the sampled respondents indicated that it was on the rare occasion that they sourced for instructional media for instruction. On this note, one could say that the availability and accessibility of instructional media resources are important factors that determine the frequency with which primary school teachers use instructional media. The use of instructional media is always necessary irrespective of the subject or the level that one teaches. It, therefore, suggests that the extent to which primary school teachers use instructional media is related to the availability of teaching media in the classroom. From the reviewed literature on the usage of media and resources available for teachers to use, all studies reported poor usage of the teaching media by teachers. Very significant one of them is that of Onansanya, Adegbija, Olumorin & Daramola (2008) which reported a woeful usage of media at 2% by teachers. Olumorin (2008) reported that the majority of the lecturers had poor usage of the educational resources and that they use them less frequently. Piper (2003) reported a significant influence of knowledge on novice teachers' classroom uses of instructional media. Evidence suggests that the teachers lacked the required skills and knowledge to use instructional media in the classroom. Borko and Putnam (cited in Udo & Patrick, 2013) opined that teachers' poor attitude towards the use of instructional media in the classroom is sometimes attributed to lack of knowledge in using visual materials and media. They get reluctant in getting acquainted with different innovations because they feel that such will invade their professional autonomy and expose their inadequacy.

VII. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The integration of ASSURE model in lesson delivery is a way to ensure that the learning environment is appropriate for students as it can be used in lesson plans to improve teaching and pupils' learning while using instructional media. This is based on the fact that teachers would be able to analyse their pupils' characteristics before beginning their lesson; systematically define their lessons objectives to reflect the three standard, condition and performance necessary in the statement of lesson objectives and effectively utilize instructional media in teaching among others. However, based on the findings of this study it is evident that:

(i) teachers were just within the average in terms of analyzing their pupils' characteristics before beginning their lessons;
(ii) teachers rated themselves slightly above the average in terms of systematically defining their lesson objectives; and
(iii) teachers exhibit a low level of effective utilization of instructional media.

It is recommended that the FGN-UBEC/OYO-SUBEB Teacher Professional Development Capacity Building workshops be focused on ASSURE Model and be extended to all categories of teachers in the UBEC scheme to ensure effective teaching and learning situations. Particular attention needs to be paid to the effective utilization of instructional media.

REFERENCES

[1] Adedapo, A. (2017). Media technology exposure and the Nigerian primary school children. *NOUN Journal of Education*, 4, 82-86.
[2] Ajayi-Dopemu, Y. (1986). The place of Educational Technology in Physical Education. *West African Journal of Physical and Health Education,* 4(2). Pp. 89 – 95.
[3] Anulobi, J.C. & Akude. (2012). Integration of Instructional Materials in the Classroom Lesson Delivery: A lead paper presented at the NAEMT regional conference in Owerri, Imo State.
[4] Baran, B. (2010). Experiences from the process of designing lessons with interactive whiteboard: ASSURE as a road map. *Contemporary Educational Technology*, 1(4), 367-380.
[5] Bernard, J. R. (2007). Active Learning in the Maths Classroom Implication to Secondary School Maths. A paper presented at a workshop for the retraining of Mathematical Science Technology in Plateau State.
[6] Gagne, R.M. (1971). The Condition of Learning. New York: Holt, Rinehard and Winston.
[7] Heinich, R. M., Molenda, M. Russell, J.D. &Smaldion, S.F. (2001). Instructional Media and Technologies for Learning (7th ed.), New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.
[8] Heinich, R., Molenda, M. & Rusell, J.D. (1985). Instructional Media and the New Technologies of Instruction. New York: John Wiley and Sons Publishers.
[9] Ifegbo, P. C. (2009). Competencies required by primary school teachers in the planning and utilization of instructional materials for quality assurance, *Journal of Educational Media and Technology and Instruction,*1 (1), pp. 87-92.
[10] Isaiah, O. (2010). Beyond the Stereotype Thoughts and Reflections on Education. Lagos: The CIBN Press Limited.
[11] Karagiannopoulou, E. & Entwistle, N. (2019). Students' learning characteristics, perceptions of small-group university teaching, and understanding through a "meeting of minds", Front Psychol, 10. Retrieved on November 9, 2019, from ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC6448036.
[12] Maduabunmi, B.O. (2003). Towards the Optimal Utilization and Management of Resources for the Effective Teaching and Learning of Physics in Schools. Proceedings of the 41stAnnual Conference of the Science Teachers' Association of Nigeria, (STAN), University of Lagos, Nigeria, pp.: 215-220.

[13] Megaw, A. (2006). Deconstructing the Heinch, Molenda, Russell and Smaldino Instructional Design Model. Retrieved on November 9, 2014, from https://ipislam.edu.my/ kplir/Bacaan/Assure/idm_angela.pdf.

[14] Okolie, T.O. (2000). Teacher competence in evaluation of instruction programmes in austere times: the case of mathematics. In Imogie, I., Onyejemezi, D.A., Mkpa, M.A. & Anukam, I.L.. (eds.), *Trend and Research in Educational Technology.* Okitipupa: Ebun Ola Printers Nig. Ltd.

[15] Olumirin, C.O. (2008). An Investigation of Tertiary Institution Lecturers' Attitude To Competence In And Use of Computers In Kwara State, Nigeria: Unpublished PhD Thesis, Science Education Department, Faculty of Education, University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria.

[16] Onansanya, S.A., Adegbija, M.V., Olumorin, C.O. & Daramola, F.O. (2008). Education reforms and assessment of teachers' competence in instructional media technology use in junior secondary schools in Kwara State. *Education Reforms in Nigeria: Past, Present and Future,* Stirlling-Horden Publishers Ltd., 259-271.

[17] Piper, D. (2003). The relationship between leadership, self-efficacy, computer experience, attitudes and implementation of computers in the classroom. In C. Crawford, D. Willis, R. Carlsen, I. Gibson, K. Meferrub, J. Prince & R. Weber (Eds.), *Proceedings of Society for Information Technology,* 1057-1060.

[18] Smaldino, S., Lowther, D., & Russell, J. (2012). Instructional Technology and Media for Learning (10th Ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

[19] Udo, A.L. & Patrick, J.U. (2013). System approach in science lesson delivery: An assessment of state colleges of education science lecturers in Akwa Ibom and Cross Rivers. *Journal of Educational Media and Technology,* 18 (1), pp. 106-113.

Adeyemi Adedapo is a lecturer of Educational Technology at the National Open University of Nigeria, Abuja, Nigeria. He attended University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria for his first and second degrees and later proceeded to Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Ogun State, Nigeria for his doctorate degree in Educational Technology. He has taught a variety of courses leading to the award of Nigeria Certificate in Education and Bachelor Degree in Education while he was in Emmanuel Alayande College of Education, Oyo, Oyo State, Nigeria. He started his teaching career as an assistant lecturer in the year 2002 and rose to the position of principal lecturer before joining the National Open University of Nigeria as a Lecturer I in 2017. He has published articles in reputable journals in both national and international levels. His research interests are teacher education, educational technology, microteaching, open and distance learning and e-learning.

Bolanle T. Opoola is a Professor of Linguistics at the Federal University, Oye-Ekiti, Ekiti State, Nigeria. He attended University of Calabar, Cross River State, Nigeria for his first, second and doctorate degrees with speciality in Applied Linguistics. Prior to joining the Federal University, Oye-Ekiti, he taught a variety of courses at the Colleges of Education (Federal College of Education, Obudu, Cross River State and Federal College of Education (Special), Oyo, Oyo State, Nigeria). He served as Head of Department, Dean, Director of Academic Planning and Deputy Provost of his former college. He is the current Dean, Faculty of Arts at the Federal University, Oye-Ekiti and he supervised several degree projects, masters' dissertations and as well as ongoing thesis. He is a member and chairman of various committees at the university level and chairman/member of editorial boards and appointed reviewer of international journals. He has published several articles and attended conferences in both national and international levels.

A Longitudinal Investigation into the Chinese Language Development of Non-Chinese Speaking Preschoolers in Hong Kong

Shek Kam Tse
Faculty of Education, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong SAR, China

Cheong Yam Leung
Faculty of Education, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong SAR, China

Pik Fong Tsui
Faculty of Education, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong SAR, China

Kit Yee Chan
Faculty of Education, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong SAR, China

Mei Chi Kwok
Faculty of Education, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong SAR, China

Abstract—**Learning Chinese as a second language is challenging for non-Chinese speaking population in Hong Kong. In order to facilitate the Chinese learning of this group of people, understanding their trajectory of Chinese language development is crucial. The present longitudinal study follows 88 non-Chinese speaking preschoolers in 4 time points, from their K1 to K3, in order to have a grasp of their Chinese language development in three key aspects, namely listening, speaking and reading. Results showed that non-Chinese speaking preschoolers progressed their Chinese language proficiency over time in the three domains, whereas their listening abilities have the best advancement. Though their speaking abilities were the worst at the beginning, they had significant improvement by the end of their K3. The qualitative data provides descriptors of the Chinese language proficiency of non-Chinese speaking preschoolers in different grades. The study's findings serve as a valuable reference for schools regarding school-based curriculum development, learning and teaching materials, approaches and assessments.**

Index Terms—**non-Chinese speaking students, Chinese language development, early childhood education, listening competence, speaking competence, reading competence**

I. INTRODUCTION

Non-Chinese speaking (NCS) population in Hong Kong constituted 8% (that is 584,383 people) of Hong Kong total population (Census and Statistics Department, 2017). The young generation of these people are undeniably playing a more important role in future Hong Kong society. These NCS people in Hong Kong generally refer to the non-Chinese Asian ethnic groups, including but not limited to Filipinos, Indians, Nepalese, Pakistanis, Vietnamese, and Bangladesh. Among the ethnic minority people, 14% of them were born in Hong Kong but only 30.3% reported that Cantonese was the most commonly used language in their home (Census and Statistics Department, 2017), while Cantonese is the mother-tongue of the majority (89.5%) of the local population (Census and Statistics Department, 2012).

Though several support services have been launched in primary and secondary schools to enhance NCS school-age children to learn Chinese (Education Bureau, 2017), these students in general are reported to perform at levels below the accepted standards in Chinese language (The Zubin Foundation, 2017) and there is no information of how NCS children progress in their Chinese language learning, especially in their first few years of kindergarten schooling. Being the minority language learners, NCS preschoolers' experience of the local majority language is likely to be restricted (Verhallen & Schoonen, 1993). Jiang (2004) holds the view that educators should be aware of the distinctive characteristics of the Chinese language, otherwise, analyses may be invalidated if sweeping generalizations are made based upon Western language theories. Therefore, it is crucial to know the Chinese language development of these preschoolers in order to enhance their learning progress.

A. Learning Chinese as a Second Language of NCS Preschoolers in Hong Kong

As stated by Tabors (2008), young children usually undergo four stages in second language development, they are (i) home language use, (ii) silent period, (iii) telegraphic and formulaic speech, and (iv) productive language. In the first

stage, young children automatically use their mother tongue to communicate with others in a new language environment (i.e. second language environment). However, most children face obstacles when others cannot understand them. Then, they will enter into the silent period and observe the use of language of other people. They prefer non-verbal communication to verbal communicate. After a period of observation and absorption, children begin to use telegraphic speech (i.e., words or phrases) to communicate with others. In the final stage, children have basic competence in the second language and can use sentences to express themselves. Errors are expected as children try to learn different structures of the new language.

NCS students in Hong Kong are learning Chinese as their second language and the government places their Chinese language proficiency high on its policy agenda (Education Bureau, 2017). Chinese is widely adopted as the medium of instruction in preschools when the government decided to implement the policy of mother-tongue teaching (Curriculum Development Council, 2017). Preschools in Hong Kong offer educational services for three- to six-year-old children. To enhance the Chinese language learning of NCS students, the government encourages "parents of non-Chinese speaking children to arrange for their children to study in kindergartens as early as possible, so their children can be immersed in an authentic Chinese language environment" (Curriculum Development Council, 2017, p. 37).

As a multi-lingual community, Hong Kong has a very rich literacy practice. There are almost 20 language elements that are in use in the daily living of Hong Kong people, including the listening and speaking of Cantonese, Putonghua, and English; reading and writing of modern Chinese and English; reading of classical Chinese; and listening and speaking of minority languages (Tse, 2014). Given the variety of language elements involved, the difficulties of NCS children in learning Chinese as a second language can be imagined.

Second language learners usually transfer some of their first language skills and abilities when acquiring second language. However, this transference ability does not work for ethnic minority preschoolers because their mother tongues (such as English or Thai) mainly follows the phonological principle (Perfetti & Tan, 1999) in which pronunciation can be reflected through their writing symbols, whereas Chinese is an ideographic language and its writing "does not reflect phonemic representations of sound as alphabetic writing does" (McBride, 2016, p. 527). In a survey completed by over 300 NCS students in Hong Kong (Shum, Gao, Tsung, & Ki, 2011), most of the students ranked their language competency with English being the best, followed by their mother tongues, and Chinese (reading and writing) as the weakest.

B. Learning of Chinese Language

Regardless of language involved, words "must now be recognized and matched with spoken words and sounds" (Chall, 1983, p. 41) at the initial stage of literacy development. Chinese is ideographic in origin with each character simultaneously carries the pronunciation, the meaning, and the symbol (Woo, 2019). Most Chinese characters are monosyllabic and stand as free morphemes which can be used as independent words or in compound words (Hu, 1981; Shao, 2001), whereas the majority of modern Chinese words are making up of two characters. Nearly 96% of the Chinese characters are composed of more than one radical, and each character formed from clusters of strokes (Su, 2001). For compound characters, the majority are ideo-phonetic compounds (Cheung, McBride-Chang, & Chow, 2006; Kang, 1993; Li & Kang, 1993) composing of a semantic radical cueing the meaning and a phonetic radical indicating the pronunciation. Regarding the Chinese orthographic system, there are three levels, the first level is the stroke, such as "一"; the next level is the componential chunk, such as "扌"; and the third level is the full character, such as "打" (Perfetti & Tan, 1999).

Li (2014) considered the recognition of Chinese characters to be the very foundation of early Chinese language acquisition, and a steppingstone towards developing the ability to read and write. In learning Chinese as a second language, morphological awareness and lexical tones are vital to the listening, speaking, and reading aspects of language development of NCS students. Morphological awareness is the ability to notice "the morphemic structure of words and their ability to reflect on and manipulate that structure" (Carlisle, 1994, p.194) and lexical tone refers to the pitch of syllables. There are nine lexical tones in Cantonese and every syllable contains one lexical tone (Tse, 2014). On top of that, phonological awareness, radical awareness, orthographic awareness, and syntactic skills are also crucial. Give the structural characteristics of Chinese characters, both orthographic skills including radical awareness and structural knowledge were found to be important for beginning native and non-native learners of Chinese (e.g. Loh, Liao, & Leung, 2018; Shen & Ke, 2007).

II. THE PRESENT STUDY

NCS children encounter a considerable number of learning difficulties, they not only have a higher school drop-out rate compared to the Chinese students, their parents also have difficulties in helping them to learn Chinese (The Zubin Foundation, 2017). Once the young children have lagged behind in their language abilities, it is difficult for them to catch up. According to the Matthew Effect introduced by Stanovich (1986), children's capacity for learning is restricted by their reading ability, thus causing a vicious cycle. The gap between children with slower academic progress and those with faster progress widens as they progress through school, hence educators must diagnose NCS children's literacy difficulties and provide them with timely and effective support measures. In order to tackle the problem at source, a five-year project "C-for-Chinese@JC" was launched in 2016 with the aim of developing the fundamental

Chinese language proficiency of NCS kindergarten students in order to ensure a better transition into primary education and early integration within Hong Kong society.

Aim of Study

This longitudinal research study aims to analyze the Chinese language development of Hong Kong NCS kindergarteners in three aspects, namely listening, speaking, and reading. To have a better understanding of their Chinese language development, descriptions at different grades of their Chinese language abilities in the three domains were identified. Insights generated regarding the specific needs of NCS children in Chinese language learning in terms of future policy formulation will also be discussed.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The present data were drawn from a five-year project. This study involved 88 ethnic minority preschoolers (50 boys and 38 girls) from six kindergartens in the 2016-17 cohort (i.e., the first year of the project). Their mean age was 40 months (SD = 4.02 months) in the beginning of the study and most of them were Nepalese (42%) and Pakistani (30.7%). The distribution of participants' ethnicity can be seen at Table 1.

TABLE 1.
ETHNICITY OF PARTICIPANTS

Ethnicity	N	Percentage (%)
Pakistani	27	30.7
Indian	16	18.2
Nepalese	37	42.0
Filipino	3	3.4
Vietnamese	2	2.3
Others	3	3.4
Total	88	100

B. Data Collection

The same cohort of 88 students were traced for three consecutive years and data were collected in four time points: (i) in the beginning of K1 in October 2016 (K1 Pre-test); (ii) at the end of K1 in June 2017 (K1 Post-test); (iii) at the end of K2 in June 2018 (K2 Post-test); (iv) at the end of K3 in June 2019 (K3 Post-test). All participants attended all assessments in the four time points. Every assessment was conducted on a one-to-one basis by a trained kindergarten teacher at the participants' kindergartens and each assessment lasted for 45 minutes. School and parent consents had been obtained before data collection.

C. Instrument

The Chinese Language Learning Progression Framework for Non-Chinese Speaking Children in Kindergartens in Hong Kong (LPF) (Lam, Hui, & Cheung, 2018) was adopted to test the Chinese language proficiency of NCS students in the four time points. LPF was developed as a tool to measure NCS preschoolers' basic competence in Chinese with the financial support from the Hong Kong Education Bureau (Quality Education Fund, 2017). Each assessment contains two papers. Paper I assesses students' listening and speaking abilities. For listening domain, NCS students' understanding of verbal commands, questions, descriptive content, and informational content are evaluated; and for the speaking domain, students' verbal abilities in answering questions, describing personal experience, providing information, making enquiries or requests, and expressing views or feelings are tested. Paper II assesses students' reading ability – how well they can recognize Chinese characters or components, read aloud text, retell text, link text with daily life experience, and understand of common daily used words. Students then obtain marks for different tests. The scores range from 0 to12 for the listening test; from 0 to15 for speaking and reading tests. Zero mark represents students' giving no response during the test. A sample test was attached in the Appendix.

Taking the assessment results of 279 students in LPF in the second year of the project, the project team has developed five levels in each testing domain to reflect preschoolers' standards in Chinese language proficiency. The higher the level, the better their Chinese language abilities.

TABLE 2.
LEVEL INDICATOR OF CHINESE LANGUAGE LEARNING PROGRESSION FRAMEWORK

Level	Range of Score		
	Listening domain	Speaking domain	Reading domain
0	0	0	0
1	1-3	1-4	1-4
2	4-6	5-8	5-8
3	7-9	9-12	9-12
3*	10-12	13-15	13-15

D. Analysis

SPSS statistical methods were used to carry out simple quantitative analyses; comprising Cohen's d (1988) effect size calculator used for the calculation of value-addedness between the pre-tests and post-tests and two-way repeated measures ANOVA in order to evaluate the Chinese language ability of participants in the three areas of listening, speaking, and reading. During the assessment test, the assessor rated the students' performance on site and video-taped the process. In order to give readers about the information of the actual language performance of NCS students, detailed descriptions of students' Chinese language abilities from K1 to K3 will be presented apart from descriptive statistics of the results. The descriptions were episodes drawn from the assessment videos.

IV. RESULTS

A. Overall Chinese Performance of NCS Preschoolers

A two-way repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to investigate the interaction effect of four time points and the three domains (listening, speaking, and reading) on LPF sub-scores of NCS students. Mauchly's test indicated that the assumption of sphericity had been violated for the interaction, $\chi2(20)= 129.78$, $p< 0.001$. Therefore, a Greenhouse-Geisser correction was applied.

Results showed that there was a significant interaction effect, $F(3.92, 340.79) = 17.65$. Further tests revealed that at the K1 Pre-test, the listening score (M = 2.36, SD = 2.16) was significantly higher than the speaking score (M= 0.79, SD= 1.37, p< 0.001), but did not differ to the reading score (M= 2.52, SD= 2.94, p= 1.00). The reading score was also significantly higher than the speaking score (p < 0.001).

At K1 Post-test, the listening score (M= 3.09, SD= 2.33) was significantly higher than the speaking score (M= 0.87, SD= 1.67, p< 0.001) and lower than the reading score (M= 4.35, SD= 3.36, p= 0.014). The reading score was significantly higher than the speaking score (p< 0.001). At K2 Post-test, the listening score (M= 4.86, SD= 2.90) was significantly higher than the speaking score (M= 2.68, SD= 2.47, p< 0.001) and the reading score (M= 3.82, SD= 1.93, p= 0.001). The reading score was also significantly higher than the speaking score (p< 0.001). At K3 Post-test, the listening score (M= 6.98, SD= 3.37) was significantly higher than the speaking score (M= 5.30, SD= 3.79, p< 0.001) and the reading score (M= 5.19, SD= 2.77, p< 0.001). The reading score was no different to the speaking score (p= 1.00).

Figure 1 shows that listening scores were consistently higher than that of speaking over the four time-points, with a similar rate of improvement. Reading scores, on the other hand, showed a slower rate of improvement, starting close to the listening scores at K1 Pre-test, but ending close to the speaking scores afterwards.
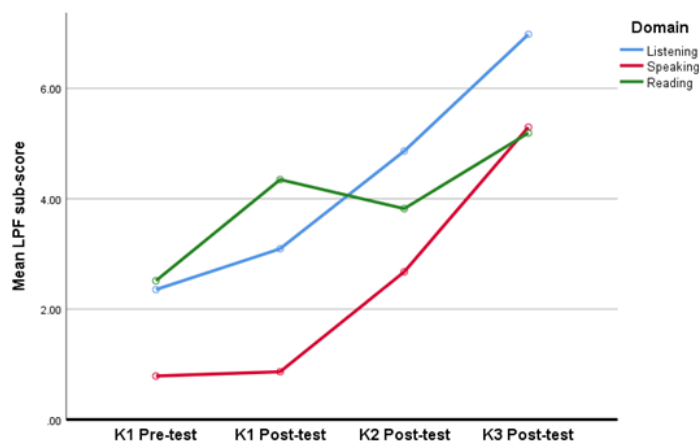
Figure 1. Participants' LPF Mean Score in Different Domains over Time.

As drawn from the records of the assessment tests, it was found that at the end of their K1, the participating NCS preschoolers were capable of performing various listening tasks with the assistance of an adult and could also recognize some commonly-used Chinese character components and characters, even though they could not speak to the assessor in Cantonese. Towards the end of lower class (K2), the participating preschoolers were generally capable of finishing simple listening tasks independently and without hints, and could deliver some Chinese words, including nouns, verbs or adjectives, when answering simple questions. In the reading domain, they began to get acquainted with basic Chinese character components and content and could read some text or print aloud in Cantonese with limited understanding of the content. Upon completion of kindergarten education, the K3 preschoolers were able to follow verbal instructions and process complicated tasks independently. Occasionally, they were willing to deliver words, phrases, or sentences in Cantonese in order to express themselves. Ultimately, their reading ability was further improved through the combined training they received at school, with their family and in society at large. The participating NCS children were able to read aloud some text and environmental prints in Cantonese and deliver short sentences to retell part of a story without

the assistance of an adult. By developing their reading ability, they became capable of understanding the text, grasping the storyline and connecting the reading with their own real-life experiences.

As a summary, NCS preschoolers progressed their Chinese language proficiency over time in terms of their listening, speaking, and reading abilities. Among the three, their speaking abilities seemed to be the worse at the beginning of their kindergarten schooling, followed by reading, and the best was their listening abilities. Their speaking abilities progressed significantly from K1 Post-test to K2 Post-test and from K2 Post-test to K3 Post-test with a large effect size. Their listening abilities progressed in a similar pattern, but the effect size was only medium. For the reading domain, while a significant increase with medium effect size was found from K1 Pre-test to K1 Post-test, there was a decrease in mean scores in K2 Post-test and their reading abilities advanced again in K3 Post-test. The summary of results of NCS students in different domains can be found in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
MEAN SCORES IN LPF OF NCS STUDENTS IN DIFFERENT DOMAINS

Domain	K1 Pre-test	K1 Post-test		p	Cohen's d
	M	M	MD (SD)		
Listening	2.36	3.09	0.74 (2.10)	.001	0.33
Speaking	0.79	0.87	0.08 (0.96)	.455	0.05
Reading	2.51	4.35	1.83 (4.55)	.000	0.58
	K1 Post-test	K2 Post-test			
	M	M	MD (SD)		
Listening	3.09	4.86	1.77 (2.94)	.000	0.67
Speaking	0.87	2.68	1.81 (2.05)	.000	0.86
Reading	4.35	3.82	-0.53 (3.70)	.185	-0.19
	K2 Post-test	K3 Post-test			
	M	M	MD (SD)		
Listening	4.86	6.98	2.11 (3.21)	.000	0.67
Speaking	2.68	5.30	2.62 (3.11)	.000	0.82
Reading	3.82	5.19	1.37 (2.70)	.000	0.57

B. Performance in Listening

As seen in the level distribution on listening domain (Table 4), there was an increasing proportion of participants attaining higher levels from K1 Pre-test to K3 Post-test. At K1 Pre-test, over 70% of participants fell into Level 0 and Level 1 but in K3 Post-test, only about one-fifth of students (19.3%) were in these two levels. The percentage of students achieving Level 3 and Level 3* increased from 5.6% in K1 Pre-test to 56.8% at K3 Post-test.

TABLE 4.
LEVEL DISTRIBUTION ON LISTENING DOMAIN OF NCS STUDENTS

	K1 Pre-test		K1 Post-test		K2 Post-test		K3 Post-test	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Level 0	18	20.5	14	15.9	5	5.7	2	2.3
Level 1	45	51.1	39	44.3	25	28.4	15	17.0
Level 2	20	22.7	30	34.1	37	42.0	21	23.9
Level 3	4	4.5	3	3.4	14	15.9	27	30.7
Level 3*	1	1.1	2	2.3	7	8.0	23	26.1

Based on the records of assessment tests, the general characteristics of Chinese listening abilities of NCS students from K1 to K3 are captured and described below. Generally speaking, NCS students experienced effective Chinese teaching and learning during their preschool years, which resulted in a large upswing in their listening proficiency.

In their K1, most NCS students had a basic understanding of simple commands, simple questions [such as grasping the names of some commonly-used objects and knowing some emotion vocabularies (e.g., happy, love)], simple descriptive content (such as comprehending the name and actions of a story's character and the storyline), and simple informational content (such as receiving different messages concerning the names, colors, and forms of an object) with the assistance of an adult (e.g. gesture, move or picture). For example, children could pick up a handkerchief and put it in a basket when being commanded (the adult had to make a gesture to put down something). When being shown a picture of a smiling girl and were asked "你覺得點呀? / nie5 gok3 dak1 dim2 aa1 / How do you feel?", they were able to respond accordingly. When an adult told a story and showed a picture from the story and asked "個主角做咩? / go3 zyu2 gok3 zou6 me1 / What does the main character do?" and the child responded accordingly. When the assessor took out a fork, making a gesture of eating and asked "呢個係咩? / ni1 go3 hai6 me1 / What is it?", the child could respond accordingly.

When moving to the end of K2, NCS students had a nearly complete understanding of simple commands (perform simple tasks) and simple questions independently and without hints. For example, they could respond to simple command in Cantonese, such as "拎個樽放入個環保袋 / ling1 go3 zeon1 fong3 jap6 go3 waan4 bou2 doi2 / Take a bottle and put it inside the Eco bag" or answered simple question in Cantonese such as "你鐘唔鐘意水果? / nei5 zung1 m4 zung1 ji3 seoi2 gwo2 / Do you like fruits?". Moreover, they had a nearly complete understanding of simple

descriptive / informational content with limited assistance of an adult. For example, after telling a story, the assessor asked the child "發生緊咩事? / faat3 sang1 gan2 me1 si6 / What's happening?", the child could respond accordingly. When the assessor took out a fork, making a gesture of eating and asked "呢個係咩? / ni1 go3 hai6 me1 / What is it?" and "你點樣用佢? / nei5 dim2 joeng6 jung6 keoi5 / How do you use it?", the child could respond accordingly.

At the end of K3, most NCS students had reached a satisfactory standard in listening. In addition to simple commands and questions, they now had a nearly complete understanding of complex commands and complicated questions. They were able to perform three or more commands in sequence independently; could verbalize feelings as well as the names and usages of commonly-used objects and gave reasons for their answers. For example, the assessor delivered a complex command in Cantonese, such as "拎起個郵票，將佢痴喺紅色信封，然後將個信封封好 / ling1 hei2 go3 jau4 piu3, zoeng1 keoi5 ci1 hai2 hung4 sik1 seon3 fung1, jin4 hau6 zoeng1 go3 seon3 fung1 fung1 hou2 / pick up a stamp, stick it on the red envelop, and then seal the envelop" or the assessor took out a pencil, a bottle, and a towel and asked "邊個係水樽? / bin1 go3 hai6 seoi2 zeon1 / which one is a bottle?" and "你用佢嚟做咩? / nei5 jung6 keoi5 lai4 zou6 me1 / What do you use it for?", the child was able to respond correctly. Moreover, students had nearly complete understanding of descriptive and informative content. They could comprehend the names and the actions of the story's character(s), and the storyline without hints as well as grasping different messages concerning the name, color, and form of an object. For example, the assessor told a story and asked "個故事講咩? / go3 gu3 si6 gong2 me1 / What's happening in the story?" and "故事結尾係點? / gu3 si6 git3 mei5 hai6 dim2 / What's the ending?", and the child responded appropriately. Or the assessor provided information in Cantonese about the usage of a fork and asked "隻叉有咩用? / zek3 caa1 jau5 me1 jung6 / What's the function of a fork?" and the child could answer correctly.

C. Performance in Speaking

Table 5 shows the level distribution in the speaking domain. Nearly all students were categorized as Level 0 and Level 1 in K1 Pre-test (97.8%) and K1 Post-test (96.6%). Starting from K2 Post-test, their speaking performance was improving. A majority of students (85.2%) attained Level 1 or above in K2 Post-test; and in K3 Post-test, more than a half of the participants (52.2%) reached Level 2 or above.

TABLE 5.
LEVEL DISTRIBUTION IN SPEAKING DOMAIN OF NCS STUDENTS

	K1 Pre-test		K1 Post-test		K2 Post-test		K3 Post-test	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Level 0	43	48.9	44	50.0	13	14.8	2	2.3
Level 1	43	48.9	41	46.6	55	62.5	40	45.5
Level 2	1	1.1	2	2.3	17	19.3	26	29.5
Level 3	1	1.1	0	0	3	3.4	15	17.0
Level 3*	0	0	1	1.1	0	0	5	5.7

From the records of assessment tests, about half of the NCS students were in the silent period of Cantonese speaking in their K1 and they were totally incapable to express verbally. Even some of them could speak a little, they only had very limited expression when answering questions, describing experiences, providing information, asking questions, making requests, or expressing views or feelings.

Toward the end of K2, the majority of the students had departed from the silent period. Most of them were able to give simple answers in relating to simple questions asking about an object or an event. For example, they were able to give answers relating to the nouns (蛋糕 / daan6 gou1 / cake), verbs (轆 /luk1 /roll) or adjectives (綠色 / luk6 sik1 / green). They could use simple words to describe experience, provide information (such as the name or usage of an object), make simple enquires or requests, such as nouns (聖誕節 / sing3 daan3 zit3 / Christmas; 小貓 / siu2 maau1 / kitten; 消防車 / siu1 fong4 ce1 / fire engine), verbs (玩 / waan2 / play; 推 / teoi1 / push) or adjectives (靚 / leng3 / beautiful; 紅色 / hung4 sik1 / red). They were also able to express views or feelings toward an event or action using words relating to nouns (媽咪 / maa1 mi4 / mommy), verbs (笑/ siu3 / smile) or adjectives (開心 / hoi1 sam1 / happy).

At a late stage of K3, students were able to use phrases or simple sentences to communicate with others. For example, they could deliver verb-object phase (食啫喱 / sik6 ze1 lei2 / eat jelly) or subject-verb-object pattern (呢個係電車 / ni1 go3 hai6 din6 ce1 /This is a tram) to give simple answers to questions relating to an object and an event. They could also use verb-object phrase (見到蝴蝶 / gin3 dou3 wu4 dip2 / see a butterfly) or cause-and-effect structure (因為學校好多嘢玩，好多功課畀我哋。/ jan1 wai6 hok6 haau6 hou2 do1 je5 waan2, hou2 do1 gung1 fo3 bei2 ngo5 dei6 / It is because the school offers me a lot of toys to play with and gives me a lot of homework) to describe personal experience or narrate the experience of an event or activity. Moreover, they were able to use coordinate phase (私家車同埋巴士 /si1 gaa1 ce1 tung4 maai4 baa1 si6/ private car and bus) or subject-verb-object pattern (妹妹有裙子同公仔 / mui6 mui6 jau5 kwan4 zi2 tung4 gung1 zai2 / My sister has a dress and a doll). When making enquiries or requests, they could deliver coordinate phase (可以飲水? /ho2 ji5 jam2 seoi2 / Can drink water?) or subject-verb-object pattern (佢唔識寫香蕉 / keoi5 ng4 sik1 se2 hoeng1 ziu1 / He doesn't know how to write "banana") to solicit assistance from adults.

Furthermore, students could use subject-predicate phrase (我鍾意 / ngo5 zung1 ji3 / I love) or cause-and-effect structure (好肚餓，因為冇食早餐 / hou2 tou5 ngo6, jan1 wai6 mou5 sik6 zou2 caan1 / hungry, because haven't eaten breakfast) to express views or feelings about an event / action or give reasons to feelings.

D. Performance in Reading

Table 6 shows the level distribution in the reading domain. Similar to that of speaking, nearly half (45.5%) of participating students got zero mark in K1 Pre-test but no student remained in this level at K3 Post-test. Students' performance had improved by K1 Post-test with 75% of students reached Level 1 or above. At K3 Post-test, over 60% of students reached Level 2 or above.

TABLE 6.
LEVEL DISTRIBUTION ON READING DOMAIN OF NCS STUDENTS

	K1 Pre-test		K1 Post-test		K2 Post-test		K3 Post-test	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Level 0	40	45.5	22	25	1	1.1	0	0
Level 1	34	38.6	37	42	45	51.1	32	36.4
Level 2	9	10.2	22	25	40	45.5	40	45.5
Level 3	5	5.7	7	8	2	2.3	16	18.2
Level 3*	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

NCS preschoolers' reading abilities in K1 and K2 were similar. They were able to recognize two to four common Chinese character components, such as "氵", "女" or "扌". For example, when the assessor displayed word cards for "媽媽 / maa4 maa1 / mother" and "姐姐/ ze4 ze1 / elder sister", the child could point out the same Chinese component "女/ neoi5 / female" in each word. When given a story book that students used during the school semester, they were able to read out about one-third of the book without understanding the meaning. Moreover, when the assessor told a story, the children were able to grasp the text roughly with the assistance of an adult (e.g. picture, question), such as delivering simple words and phrases "去餐廳，食呀 / heoi3 caan1 teng1, sik6 aa3 / Go to restaurant, eat!)" to retell part of the story. They were also able to roughly connect the text with real-life experiences and recognize some environmental prints with the assistance of an adult (e.g. picture, question), for example, the assessor showed a picture of a kid go eating ice-cream with his mum and asked "佢哋做緊咩? / keoi5 dei6 zou6 gan2 me1 / What are they doing?" or the assessor showed photos of different places and asked "呢度喺邊度? / ni1 dou6 hai2 bin1 dou6 / Where is it?", and the children could respond accordingly.

Toward the end of K3, students were able to recognize more Chinese character components (around five to six components), such as "氵", "女", "扌", "口", "土", and "亻". For example, the assessor randomly displayed several word cards and the student could match the Chinese component with their corresponding words, such as "沙灘 / saa1 taan1 / beach" to "氵"; "喝水 / hot3 seoi2 / drink water" to "口 / hau2 / mouth"; "商場 / soeng1 coeng4 / shopping mall" to "土 / tou2 / ground" ... etc. When given a story book that students used during the school semester, students could read aloud in Cantonese about two-thirds of the book with limited understanding of the content; they had a sense of the people, places, and events in the storyline. For example, they could tell "他們在候診大堂等候…最後他還是喝下了藥水 / taa1 mun4 zoi6 hau6 can2 daai6 tong4 dang2 hau6…zeoi3 hau6 taa1 waan4 si6 hot3 haa6 liu5 joek6 seoi2 / They wait in the waiting room … Finally, he still drinks the medicine" and identify the story's theme as "consulting a doctor". When the assessor told a story, students now could retell a small part of the story independently and without hints. For example, they would say "佢病咗，要睇醫生，要食藥 / keoi5 beng6 zo2, jiu3 tai2 ji1 sang1, jiu3 sik6 joek6 / He's sick, needs to consult a doctor and take medicine" which was part of the storyline. Finally, they were able to connect the text with real-life experiences and recognize a few samples of environmental prints independently. For example, the assessor invited students to share their views on what they had been reading with questions such as "如果你係佢，你會唔會都係咁做? / jyu4 gwo2 nei5 hai6 keoi5, nei5 wui5 m4 wui5 dou1 hai6 gam2 zou6 / If you were the character, would you also do this?" and the students responded appropriately. When being displayed with word cards such as "保持安靜 / bou2 ci4 on1 zing6 / keep silence" or "商場 / soeng1 coeng4 / shopping mall", the students could tell the meaning without hints.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study aims to trace the path of NCS preschoolers' development in Chinese language proficiency throughout their kindergarten years and thus create a general description of their Chinese language development. To summarize, the subjects' Chinese language development resembles the stages of second language development proposed by Tabors (2008). At K1 Pre-test, the participating NCS preschoolers were able to complete sporadic listening tasks with the assistance of an adult, but failed to complete the speaking and reading tasks (silent period). By end of K1 to end of K2, participants were in their "telegraphic and formulaic speech" stage. By K1 Post-test, the preschoolers were capable of performing various listening tasks with the assistance of an adult and could also recognize some commonly-used

Chinese character components and characters, even though they could not speak in Cantonese. In K2 Post-test, the participants could finish simple listening tasks independently and without hints in general, and could deliver some Cantonese words, including nouns, verbs, or adjectives and could answer to simple questions. In the reading domain, they began to get acquainted with the basic Chinese character components and content and could read some text or print aloud in Cantonese with limited understanding of the content. In K3 Post-test, preschoolers were in the "productive language" stage. They were able to follow verbal instructions and process complicated tasks independently and without hints. Occasionally, they were willing to deliver words, phrases, or sentences in Cantonese in order to express themselves. Ultimately, their reading ability was further improved. They were able to read aloud some text and environmental print in Cantonese and deliver short sentences to retell part of a story without the assistance of an adult.

Results showed that NCS preschoolers progressed towards higher levels of language proficiency at K3. Their listening abilities increased steadily from K1 to K3. According to Tse, Lee, and Chan (2015), listening is the starting point of children's language learning. Children first listen (input) then speak (output), and thus, like any other language, proficiency in Chinese begins with listening followed by speaking and then reading. It would be logical to expect that preschoolers are able to understand instructions from teachers and listen attentively before participating in language activities. The Guide (Curriculum Development Council, 2017) advocates a pedagogical approach that places emphasis on the importance of catering for preschoolers' interests and improving their listening skills through various learning activities, such as singing nursery rhymes, listening to stories, and reading picture books. When preschoolers' language experiences are enriched through a variety of pleasurable activities their listening skills will flourish spontaneously.

Among the three domains of skills tested in the study, their progress in speaking Cantonese was relatively slow, with just 45.5% of participating students attaining Level 1 in the last assessment. This finding reflected the deficiency in oral learning and practicing opportunities that impacts upon NCS preschoolers' speaking skills. Taking into account the actual performance in this study, it is necessary to create for NCS preschoolers a language-rich environment, so they can immerse themselves in the local language culture and social context and have more chances to speak Cantonese. Livaccari (2012) highlights that teachers could encourage second language learners to speak spoken Chinese exclusively during those learning activities and lessons that adopt Chinese as the medium of instruction. Law, Rush, King, Westrupp, and Reilly (2018) suggested some home activities that have a positive impact on the development of early communication skills in children aged three to five years, such as parents' reading and storytelling. In his research work on Chinese language development in children exploring the effective pedagogies for learning Chinese in Hong Kong, Tse (2002) formulated specific recommendations in an integrative perceptual approach to learning Chinese characters which facilitate children to learn Chinese characters and words in a pleasurable way. Unlike first language learners, NCS preschoolers lack the parental involvement in their oral Chinese language learning. Although NCS students are deficient in home-based acquisition of Chinese, this situation can be improved through their immersion in the learning process together with their peers. The present study has demonstrated that through local kindergarten schooling, NCS students will gain valuable Chinese language experience from this early learning stage. They will greatly enrich their vocabularies, significantly improve their Chinese language competency, and thus continue to build confidence to speak Cantonese in their daily lives.

Participants' Chinese reading ability has dropped in K2 but rebounded in K3. One possible explanation for the decrease in reading ability is that students were not performing their comprehension skills but only recalling their memories from their class learning. In their early stage, NCS preschoolers learn Chinese by rote memorization and thus when they are overwhelmed by loads of new information (i.e., the Chinese language), it is impossible for them to recognize those Chinese characters which they are not familiar with. As argued by Anderson and Pearson (1984), children's prior knowledge of a given topic has far-reaching implications for the development of their reading competence, and in particular their ability to handle inferential questions (Pearson, Hansen, & Gordon, 1979). The development of basic reading competence in Chinese is governed by factors such as the curriculum, teaching pedagogies, and textbooks; however, the focus of reading should be on the recognition of characters and writing of words. In order to ensure a smooth transition from pre-school education to primary education, the school-based curriculum will always emphasize the importance of word recognition during the K3 learning stage and implement a number of support measures with a view to enhancing children's Chinese proficiency.

The study results were based on summative assessment undertaken before participants' kindergarten graduation and, as Taras (2005) mentioned, these results can be regarded as standards and norms of their Chinese language development since the assessment collates all the evidence and constructs a reference point.

The current evidence-based descriptions can serve as benchmark indicators, offering an objective reflection of NCS preschoolers' Chinese proficiency at their kindergarten stage of schooling. Previous research on NCS students, such as the work of Heath, Bishop, Bloor, Boyle, and Fletcher (2014), has tended to focus selectively upon those children from high-risk backgrounds, such as low socio-economic status, a family history of language/literacy difficulty, and parents with low phonological awareness, would lead to poorer literacy outcomes. In contrast, by considering the integrated education system in Hong Kong, this study captures the overall performance of participants from six kindergartens and demonstrates the average proficiency in Chinese of NCS preschoolers. As a meaningful reference, local preschools might thus apply this detailed set of descriptions as a benchmark against which to clarify the standards expected at the preschool educational stage, and then amend curriculum design, learning outcomes, and assessment standards so as to

cater for all levels of Chinese language proficiency from beginners to advanced learners. With the recent rapid development of Chinese education in non-Chinese-speaking regions, this study might provide important information for the development of Chinese language teaching materials and pedagogies, and in turn could inspire the implementation of appropriate strategies, while also ensuring that NCS preschoolers are able to develop Chinese proficiency in an effective and pleasurable way. The findings also provide the policy makers with a concrete reference standard, which can serve to inspire future practice and policymaking in early childhood education.

Though the present study tries to present the general development of NCS students' performance in Chinese language proficiency, it should be noted that the small number of sample size would affect the generalizability of results across population. As such, future studies with a larger sample size would be useful to validate the results. In all, the descriptions in different grades of the present study provide useful information for assessing and describing NCS preschoolers' proficiency in the local language. Educators could refer to the findings and use them to get a general picture of preschoolers' learning progress, and hence will eventually be able to cater for learners' differences by implementing various modifications to their teaching. The ultimate goal is to help NCS preschoolers being capable of understanding instructions from teachers and can gradually integrate into local primary schools.

DISCLOSURE STATEMENT

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

APPENDIX

Sample of LPF assessment

Domain	Subsection	Sample question	Marking scheme
Listening	Understanding verbal instruction	"Put a book into a bag".	0 = unable to answer 1 = complete with adults' assistance 2 = complete by himself/herself
	Understanding verbal question	[A toy car, a ball and a building block are placed before the child.] "Which is a car?"	
Speaking	Answering questions	"Do you like going to school?"	0 = unable to answer 1 = answer in words 2 = answer in phases 3 = answer in sentences
	Expressing ideas or feelings	"Why do you like (XX – animal name)?"	
Reading	Recognizing Chinese characters ad components	[Six radical cards "氵", "土", "亻", "艹", "辶" and "扌" are placed before the child and then 13 word cards (such as "沙灘 (beach)", "河流 (river)" are given to the child.] Ask the child to match the word cards with radical cards.	0 = unable to answer or 1 correct answer 1 = 2-4 correct answers 2 = 5-6 correct answers

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

REFERENCES

[1]   Anderson, R. C., & Pearson, P. D. (1984). A schema-theoretic view of basic processes in reading comprehension. In P. D. Pearson (Ed.), *Handbook of reading research* (pp. 255–291). New York: Longman.
[2]   Carlisle, J. F. (1994). Morphological awareness and early reading achievement. In L. B. Feldman (Ed.), *Morphological aspects of language processing* (pp. 189-209). Hillsdale, N. J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
[3]   Census and Statistics Department, HKSAR. (2012). 2011 Population Census Thematic Report: Ethnic Minorities. Hong Kong: Hong Kong Government Publications.
[4]   Census and Statistics Department, HKSAR. (2017). 2016 Population by-census – Thematic report: Ethnic minorities. Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department. Retrieved April 30, 2020, from https://www.statistics.gov.hk/pub/B11201002016XXXXB0100.pdf.
[5]   Chall, J. S. (1983). Stages of reading development. New York: McGraw-Hill Publishing Company.
[6]   Cheung, H., McBride-Chang, C., & Chow, B. W.-Y. (2006). Reading Chinese. In R. M. Joshi & P. G. Aaron (Eds.), *Handbook of orthography and literacy* (pp. 421–438). Mahwah, N. J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
[7]   Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, N. J.: Lawrence Earlbaum Associates.
[8]   Curriculum Development Council, HKSAR. (2017). Kindergarten education curriculum guide. Hong Kong: Hong Kong Education Bureau.
[9]   Education Bureau, HKSAR. (2017). Existing and planned measures on the promotion of equality for ethnic minorities. Hong Kong: Hong Kong Government Publications.
[10]   Heath, S. M., Bishop, D. V. M., Bloor, K. E., Boyle, G. L., & Fletcher, J. (2014). A spotlight on preschool: The influence of family factors on children's early literacy. *PLoS ONE*, *9*(4): e95255.
[11]   Hu, R. S. (1981). Xiandai Hanyu (zengdingben) [Modern Chinese (revised ed.)]. Shanghai: Shanghai Education Press.

[12] Jiang, N. (2004). Semantic transfer and its implications for vocabulary teaching in a second language. *The Modern Language Journal*, *88*(3), 416-432.

[13] Kang, J. S. (1993). Analysis of semantics of semantic-phonetic compound characters in modern Chinese. In Y. Chen (Ed.), *Xiandai Hanyu yongzi xinxi fenxi* [Information analysis of usage of characters in modern Chinese] (pp. 71–83). Shanghai: Shanghai Education Publisher.

[14] Lam, W. I., Hui, S. Y., & Cheung, W. M. (2018). Chinese Language Learning Progression Framework for Non-Chinese Speaking Children in Kindergartens in Hong Kong. Hong Kong: Centre for Advancement of Chinese Language Education and Research.

[15] Law, J., Rush, R., King, T., Westrupp, E., & Reilly, S. (2018). Early home activities and oral language skills in middle childhood: A quantile analysis. *Child Development*, *89*(1), 295-309.

[16] Li, H. (2014). Teaching Chinese literacy in the early years: Psychology, pedagogy and practice. London: Routledge.

[17] Li, Y., & Kang, J. S. (1993). Analysis of phonetics of semantic-phonetic compound characters in modern Chinese. In Y. Chen (Ed.), *Xiandai Hanyu yongzi xinxi fenxi* [Information analysis of usage of characters in modern Chinese] (pp. 84–98). Shanghai: Shanghai Education Publisher.

[18] Livaccari, C. (2012). Instructional strategies: Successful approaches to immersion teaching. In Asia Society (Ed.), *Chinese language learning in the early grades: A handbook of resources and best practices for Mandarin immersion (pp. 30-33).* Retrieved February 28, 2020, from https://asiasociety.org/files/chinese-earlylanguage.pdf.

[19] Loh, E. K. Y., Liao, X., & Leung, S. O. (2018). Acquisition of orthographic knowledge: Development difference among learners with Chinese as a second language (CSL). *System, 74,* 206-216.

[20] McBride, C. A. (2016). Is Chinese special? Four aspects of Chinese literacy acquisition that might distinguish learning Chinese from learning alphabetic orthographies. *Educational Psychology Review, 28*(3), 523–549.

[21] Pearson, P. D., Hansen, J., & Gordon, C. (1979). The effect of background knowledge on young children's comprehension of explicit and implicit information. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, *11*(3), 201-209.

[22] Perfetti, C. A., & Tan, L. H. (1999). The constituency model of Chinese character identification. In J. Wang, A. Inhoff, & H.-C. Chen (Eds.), *Reading Chinese script: A cognitive analysis* (pp. 115–134). Mahwah, N. J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

[23] Quality Education Fund, Education Bureau, HKSAR. (2017). Report on Development of Chinese Language Learning Progress Framework for non-Chinese speaking (NCS) children in kindergartens in Hong Kong. Retrieved February 5, 2020, from https://qcrc.qef.org.hk/Publish/project_information/201712/20130076FR.pdf.

[24] Shao, J. M. (2001). Xiandai Hanyu tonglun [An outline of modern Chinese]. Shanghai: Shanghai Education Press.

[25] Shen, H. H., & Ke, C. (2007). Radical awareness and word acquisition among nonnative learners of Chinese. *The Modern Language Journal, 91(1)*, 97–111.

[26] Shum, M. S. K., Gao, F., Tsung, L., & Ki, W. W. (2011). South Asian students' Chinese language learning in Hong Kong: Motivations and strategies. *Journal of Multilingual & Multicultural Development, 32*(3), 285-297.

[27] Stanovich, K. E. (1986). Matthew effects in reading: Some consequences of individual differences in the acquisition of literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *21*(4), 360-407.

[28] Su, P. C. (2001). Xiandai Hanzixue gangyao (zengdingben) [Modern Chinese orthography (revised ed.)]. Beijing: Peking University Press.

[29] Tabors, P. (2008). One child, two languages: A guide for early childhood educators of children learning English as a second language (2nd ed.). Baltimore, Md.: Paul H. Brookes Pub.

[30] Taras, M. (2005). Assessment–summative and formative–some theoretical reflections. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, *53*(4), 466-478.

[31] The Zubin Foundation. (2017). Landscape study: Primary school education for non-Chinese-speaking children with special education needs in Hong Kong. Hong Kong: The Zubin Mahtani Gidumal Foundation Limited.

[32] Tse, S. K. (2002). Pedagogy: An integrative perceptual approach to learning Chinese characters. Hong Kong: Greenfield Educational Center.

[33] Tse, S. K. (2014). Oral language development of preschool children (2nd ed.). Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.

[34] Tse, S. K., Lee, T. N. M., & Chan, S. P. T. (2015). Early childhood literacy: Effective Chinese language acquisition and teaching. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.

[35] Verhallen, M., & Schoonen, R. (1993). Lexical knowledge of monolingual and bilingual children. *Applied Linguistics*, *14*(4), 344-363.

[36] Woo, P. S. (2019). The application of Stanislavski's system for the enhancement of narrative writing in Chinese as a second language for secondary school students. [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Hong Kong: University of Hong Kong Libraries.

Shek Kam TSE is a professor at the Centre for Advancement of Chinese Language Education and Research (CACLER), Faculty of Education, The University of Hong Kong. His research interests include: (1) teaching Chinese as a second language; (2) the influence of interventions on early literacy development; and (3) effective Chinese language pedagogy for different stages of education.

Cheong Yam LEUNG was an assistant lecturer at the Centre for Advancement of Chinese Language Education and Research (CACLER), Faculty of Education, The University of Hong Kong.

Pik Fong TSUI is a senior research assistant at the Centre for Advancement of Chinese Language Education and Research (CACLER), Faculty of Education, The University of Hong Kong.

Kit Yee CHAN is a lecturer at the HKU School of Professional and Continuing Education.

Mei Chi KWOK, assistant lecturer, Centre for Advancement of Chinese Language Education and Research (CACLER), Faculty of Education, The University of Hong Kong.

Analysis of Metaphor Translation from the Perspective of Relevance Theory—A Case Study of the Translation of Metaphor in *Fortress Besieged*

Mengzhu Xia
Shanxi Normal University, Linfen, China

Abstract—*Fortress Besieged* is a unique satirical novel in the history of Chinese contemporary literature. It is deeply loved by readers at home and abroad for its humorous and refined language. There are abundant Chinese metaphors in the novel, so it is of certain significance to explore the translation of metaphors for the cultural exchanges between China and the West. Taking the English translation of *Fortress Besieged* as the research subject, this paper explores how to translate metaphor in novel from the perspective of relevance theory. It is found that the translator adopts the following methods in dealing with metaphor translation: retaining the original metaphor image, transforming the original metaphor image, retaining the original metaphor image and annotating it, explaining or omitting the original metaphor image.

Index Terms—*Fortress Besieged*, metaphor translation, relevance theory

I. INTRODUCTION

Fortress Besieged is a novel written by Qian Zhongshu in the 1940s, which describes the situation of Chinese intellectuals during the National Crisis. This novel is widely popular with readers. The main reason of popularity is not only the fascinating story, but also the author's humorous irony and a large number of metaphors in the author's aplomb. All of these make the readers feel the charm of language. At the end of the 20th century, Jeanne Kelly and Nathan Mao finished the English translation of *Fortress Besieged*. The novel has been well received by foreign readers and is regarded as the best Chinese novel of the 20th century. Jeanne Kelly and Nathan Mao contributed a lot to the response of *Fortress Besieged* in western society, which reflects that their translation successfully conveyed what Mr. Qian Zhongshu wanted to convey in the book.

Through the elaboration of metaphor concepts and translation methods by domestic and foreign scholars, this paper analyzes the characteristics of the use of metaphor in the original work. And then, observe the examples of metaphor translation in the English version. At last, summarize the strategies of metaphor translation in the English version of *Fortress Besieged*.

II. THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

The relevance theory, the metaphor, metaphor translation and the applicability of relevance theory in metaphor are the theory foundations of understanding this paper. There are introductions of them.

A. Relevance Theory

Relevance theory is proposed firstly by Super and Wilson (2001) in their book *Relevance: Cognition and Communication.* It takes relevance as the principle and deductive reasoning as the mode of understanding. Relevance theory holds that verbal communication is a cognitive process, in which people understand utterances according to human cognitive assumptions, and the condition of human cognitive assumption is relevance principle, that is, they perceive things according to related information. Sperber and Wilson (2001) defined relevance as: "The relationship between propositions and a set of contextual assumptions". That is, under the same conditions, the greater the effect of context, the stronger the relevance. The less the processing efforts needed to obtain these effect, the stronger the relevance. It is optimal relevance (Carston, 1988).

Relevance theory holds that if a person wants to achieve communicative behavior, he or she will show his or her communicative behavior, and the other party can judge the communicative intention of this person based on such communicative behavior. The process of communication is a process of reasoning, and its core is a kind of reasoning thinking. It consists of three elements: the explicit language and language environment as the conditions, the process of which is the individual's behavior and processing in the process of communication, and finally the correlation and cognition as the result. The best outcome of the relevance is that the individual gets the best cognitive results with the least effort. Communication is a process of mutual recognition and understanding between two parties in the process of

communication. In the process of communication, people's language, people's environment and people's hints in the process of communication will have an impact on the receiver, who will have different judgments on these languages. When a language is understood by the recipient using only one standard, it is associated with the language.

B. Metaphor

"Metaphor refers to a particular set of linguistic processes whereby aspects of one object are 'carried over' or transferred to another object, so that the second object is spoken of as if it were the first" (Hawkes, 1980, p 26). Newmark（2001）holds that any figurative expression, including the escape of object words, the personification of abstract concepts, the abnormal use of words or collocation, that is, to describe one thing to another. From above we can know that metaphor is referring to one domain of knowledge to understand another. The former is usually a concrete, more familiar entity domain called source domain; the latter is usually an intangible and less familiar abstract domain called the target domain. The connection of two things is the similarity.

The traditional view holds that metaphor is only a rhetorical device and a rhetorical device to improve literary style. But in recent years, with the development of linguistics, more and more scholars have put forward more novel and comprehensive interpretations of metaphor. Lakoff and Johnson have made a bold reform of the definition of metaphor from the perspective of cognitive linguistics. Metaphor is not only regarded as a kind of rhetoric, but also a way of thinking. Furthermore, the concept of "conceptual metaphor" is proposed, that is, metaphor is a mapping from the ontological concept to the target concept. Peter Newmark (2001) proposed in his *A Textbook of Translation*: "By metaphor，I mean any figurative expression：the transferred sense of a physical word；the personification of an abstraction；the application of a word or collocation to what it does no literally denote，i.e.，to describe one thing in terms of another." The scope of Newmark's metaphor includes both the transformation of the meaning of a single word and the borrowing of concepts. It cannot be denied that metaphor is an unconscious way of thinking, which is ubiquitous in daily life.

C. A Brief Review of Metaphor Translation Method

Based on the theory of cognitive linguistics and the conclusion of Chinese scholar Shu Dingfang, the key to the establishment of metaphor is to establish the relation between the source domain and the target domain, so as to realize the purpose of rerecognizing the characteristics of the target domain. Metaphor is the connection of similarity between two things by amplifying some features of one thing. That is a process of "cognition-reasoning-expressiveness" in essence, which indicates that relevance theory is explanatory and instructive to metaphor. In the process of translation, the translator actually has to deal with two kinds of relations: one is the connection between the source language metaphor body and the noumenon, the other is the relation of noumenon and metaphor between the source language and the target language. This requires the translator not only to fully understand the original text, but also to convey the original author's intention to the reader as far as possible. A successful translator must be able to use double reasoning skill fully. In the practice of metaphor translation, the focus on the process of translator reasoning becomes metaphor breakthrough in translation.

D. The Cognitive Relevance of Metaphor in Translation

The essence of metaphor is that two different things have similarities, and there is some internal connection, which enlarges a certain characteristic of one thing. It can be seen that relevance theory plays an important role in metaphor translation. In the process of metaphor translation, the translator needs to understand the relationship between the object of translation, namely the relationship between the noumenon and metaphor, the relationship between the source language and the noumenon and metaphor of the target language. In order to translate metaphors, translators must have a deep understanding of the source language, be loyal to the expression of the original author, and convey the original meaning of the original author to readers. The translator should have dual reasoning ability for the source language and target language to meet the optimal relevance.

III. TRANSLATION OF METAPHOR IN *FORTRESS BESIEGED* FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF RELEVANCE THEORY

How do the translators deal with the translation of metaphor in the *Fortress Besieged* from the perspective of relevance theory? This paper studies on metaphor translation in the English translation of *Fortress Besieged* of Jeanne Kelly and Nathan Mao (2003) and translation strategies from four aspects as following.

A. Retain the Original Metaphor Image

If the original language and the target language in the two languages have the same meaning in the process of translating metaphor of literary works, that means the two cultures have a common characteristic in one area. In order to find the equivalent metaphors in the target language, the translator should try to retain metaphor image that reflects the author's writing style. Thus, the method of literal translation can be adopted. Therefore, the original metaphor image can be retained in this way. There are some examples.

Example 1
Source Language: 可是你这一念温柔，已经心里下了情种。

Target Language: But those tender feelings of yours have already planted the seed of love in your heart.

Example 2

Source Language：方鸿渐给鲍小姐一眼看得自尊心像泄尽气的橡皮车胎。

Target Language: Fang's self-esteem had deflated like a rubber tire under Miss Pao's glance.

Example 3

Source Language：相传爱尔兰人的不动产是奶和屁股。

Target Language: It is said that an Irishman's fortune consists of his two breasts and two buttocks.

Example 4

Source Language: 也许人家讲你像狐狸，吃不到葡萄就说葡萄酸。

Target Language: Some people might say you are like the fox who couldn't reach the grapes and complained that they were sour.

Example 5

Source Language：都是惊弓之鸟，看见女人影子就怕了

Target Language: Having recently been jilted by woman, we are like birds afraid of the bow; we're frightened even by woman's shadow.

In the example 1 "下了情种" can be literally translated into "planted the seed of love". The metaphor image is preserved, so that readers can have a deeper understanding of the original meaning. In the example 2, "橡皮车胎" is translated into "rubber tire". In the example 3"奶和屁股" is translated into "two breasts and two buttocks". The language is humorous, the metaphor is vivid, and the structure of the subordinate clauses in the translated text is more equivalent to the original text. In the example 4, "吃不到葡萄就说葡萄酸" is translated into "who couldn't reach the grapes and complained that they were sour". It is a Chinese slang. The source and the target language have the same metaphor expression. In the example 5, "惊弓之鸟" is translated into "birds afraid of the bow" .

In these translations, the original text and the translation text share the same metaphor. The images between the two conform to optimal relevance. Thus the literal translation can be adopted to retain the original metaphor image. So that readers have a more authentic understanding of the original text.

B. Transform the Original Metaphor Image

In the translation of literary works, due to the differences between Chinese and Western culture and social environment, metaphors sometimes cannot be found with the same metaphor image in the target language. This metaphorical expression is unique to Chinese culture, but a metaphorical representation of the same meaning can be found, then the translation method of transformed metaphor image is adopted. This method of image conversion is in fact indirect translation. This translation allows readers to experience the charm of the source language culture, reflects the essence of Chinese culture, and reproduces the national culture of the source language. For examples:

Example 6

Source Language：他说这冒昧话，准备碰个软钉子。

Target Language：Having made this rash remark, he braced himself for a polite rebuff.

In this phrase "准备碰个软钉子", "软钉子" in this case cannot find the same word in the target language. If translated as *soft nail*, English readers would have a hard time understanding the meaning. *Polite rebuff* has the same meaning to the original language. It can accurately express the meaning of the original text and realize the charm of the original culture.

Example 7

Source Language：我看李梅亭这讨厌家伙，肚子里没有什么货

Target Language: If you ask me, that obnoxious little Li Mei-t'ing doesn't amount to anything.

In this example "我看李梅亭这讨厌家伙，肚子里没有什么货", if translated "肚子里没有什么货" as *have nothing in his stomach*, it is difficult for English readers to understand the author's writing intention and the profound cultural connotation, so they can only transform the metaphor image to make the original meaning and writing style equal. Therefore, this phrase can be translated into "Li Meiting amounts to nothing".

Example 8

Source Language：鸿渐道: "我今年反正是个倒霉年，准备到处碰钉子的。"

Target Language：Hung-chien said, "This is my unlucky year in any case. I'm prepared to be disappointed wherever I go.

In this example, "到处碰钉子" means be rejected, therefore, it can be transformed into metaphorical images. This sentence can be translated into "I'm prepared to be disappointed where I go".

Example 9

Source Language：斜川笑道："这些大帽子活该留在你的社论里去哄你的作者的。"

Target Language："Such high-flown talk, "said Hsieh-ch'üan with a smile, "should be saved for your editorials to dupe your readers."

In this example , "大帽子" means impractical words. Therefore, this phrase can be translated into *high-flown talk*.

Example 10

Source Language：他相信苏文纨一定加油加酱。

Target Language: He was sure Su Wen-wan had exaggerated everything.

In this sentence "加油加酱" can be translated into *exaggerated everything*.

Example 11

Source Language :训导长寻花问柳的榜样，我们学不来。

Target Language: We can't follow the dean of student's example of visiting houses of ill repute.

In this sentence "训导长寻花问柳的榜样，我们学不来", "寻花问柳" can be translated into *visit houses of ill repute*.

In these translations, the original text and the translation text don't have equivalent metaphor image. Thus, the domesticating strategy is adopted to transform the metaphor image. The optimal relevance is met in this way between source language and target language.

C. *Retain the Original Metaphor Image and Annotate It*

Due to different language structure and expression, we sometimes neither find the corresponding metaphor image nor similar meaning of metaphors in the target language. Retaining a metaphor image and adding some brief notes can be used in the process of translation to help to convey primitive culture connotation, national customs, habits and thinking method to target language readers. And this method conforms to the optimal relevance. For example:

Example 12

Source Language：原来是苍蝇，这东西跟蚊子臭虫算的小饭店的'岁寒三友'。 Target Language: In fact, they were flies. These, along with mosquitoes and bed bugs, are considered the "three companions of winter".

In this example, the author succeeds in creating humorous aesthetic effects through profound contrast, further highlighting that flies, mosquitoes and bedbugs are still active in late autumn. In this sentence, "岁寒三友" is translated into three companions of winter. In order to make readers really understand the culture of the original text, the translator add annotations to explain the symbolic meaning of "岁寒三友": Pine, bamboo, and plum flower are traditionally known as "three companions of winter."

Example 13

Source Language :辛楣出路很多，进可以做官，退可以办报，也去坐冷板凳，我替他惋惜。

Target Language：But Hsin-mei has several options open him. He can either work for the government or run a newspaper, but instead he's going to go sit on a cold bench.

In this example "坐冷板凳" means to occupy a position of leisure because it is not valued, can be literal translated into "sit on a cold bench", and translator adds notes "be neglected or ignored". It not only retains the figurative image in Chinese culture, but also reflects the unique style of expressing humor and satire in the author's language, and makes English readers understand its connotation and profound meaning.

Example 14

Source Language：鸿渐气得脸都发白，说苏文纨是半老徐娘

Target Language: White with rage, Hung-chien called Su Wen-wan Old Lady Xu. In this example , "半老徐娘"is translated into "Old Lady Xu", then the translator adds the note "Old Lady Xu: an attractive middle-aged woman, from the story of Lady Xu a concubine of Emperor Yuan of the Liang Dynasty, who carried on amorous affairs even when she was quite old". This annotation can help English readers further understand the image in the idiom "Old Lady Xu" and the connotation meaning of Chinese culture.

Example 15

Source Language：只可惜这些事实虽然有趣，演讲时用不着它们，该另抱佛脚。Target Language: Such a pity that while these items of information were all very interesting, they could not be used in the lecture. He would have to read something else.

In this example,"抱佛脚" is translated into " read something else". And the translator add note"clasp the feet of Buddha": The idiom means that when someone gets into trouble through lack of due preparation, he seeks help at the last critical moment.

D. *Explain or Omit the Original Metaphor Image*

In translation, if we can't find the corresponding metaphors in the target language or other similar metaphor images, and the translator think it is not necessary to introduce to the readers that metaphor refers to the primitive culture, then interpretation or omit metaphors can be adopted. That is to translate a comprehensible language of the original content according to the target language features and primitives of the author's way of thinking. This method also conforms to optimal relevance. There are some examples.

Example 16

Source Language：批分数该雪中送炭，万万不能悭吝。

Target Language: In sum, when marking one should "send coal when it snows," that is, provide that which is most needed, and never be stingy.

In this example, "雪中送炭" is translated into "send coal when it snows", however, considering the acceptability and

cognitive environment of the translation readers, it is necessary to add explanation. Therefore, the translator adds explanation "that is …stingy".

Example 17

Source Language：你别称赞得太热心，我听了要吃醋的，咋们从前有误会。

Target Language：Don't praise her so enthusiastically. You'll make me jealous. We had misunderstanding once before.

Example 18

Source Language :我该好好的谢你，为我找到饭碗。

Target Language: I have to thank you for finding me a job.

In the above two sentences, if literal translated "吃醋" and "饭碗" to"eat vinegar"and "rice bowl*"*, the readers can hardly understand the meaning of the translation due to the differences between Chinese and Western cultures and the default cultural translation. Therefore, the translation method can be used to explain the meaning of the simile, which can be translated into "jealous and job".

Example 19

Source Language：太太不忠实，偷人，丈夫做了乌龟，买彩票准中头奖。

Target Language: If the wife is unfaithful and has an affair, the husband is sure to take first prize if he buys a lottery ticket, and he is sure to win if he gambles.

In this example , if "乌龟" is literal translated into "tortoise", it's easy to be misunderstand. Because its implicit meaning can be deduced from the context, the translator completely ignores it. Therefore, the translator omit the translation of "乌龟"and explain "买彩票准中奖" in detail. Thus, readers can fully understand the true connotation of the "tortoise" from the context.

IV. CONCLUSION

As we all know, Chinese and western culture is different in customs, way of thinking, aesthetic consciousness and values. If translator mechanically translates metaphor in rhetoric in the process of translation, it is difficult to convey the original author's writing intention, the appeal of language. Thus, readers are likely to misunderstand the original thoughts, which will lead to communication barriers between Chinese and western culture. Translators should flexibly cope with the metaphor translation according to the original author's writing intention, the culture rhetoric of English readers expect, the type of metaphor. Try to retain metaphors, the characteristics of the language and culture of the original work. Translator can also choose appropriate translation strategies and accurately express the connotation of the original to achieve the purpose of communication between Chinese and western culture according to two kinds of language and culture.

Under the relevance theory, through the in-depth analysis and discussion of the metaphor translation of *Fortress Besieged*, we can conclude that the translator adopts the following methods in dealing with metaphor translation: retaining the original metaphor image, transforming the original metaphor image, retaining the original metaphor image and annotating it, explaining or omitting the original metaphor image. All of these methods are used to meet the optimal relevance theory. In the process of metaphorical translation, the translator should use relevance theory to measure whether the metaphorical image of the original text needs to be transformed. This mainly depends on whether the mapping image of the source domain of translation and original image is consistent or not. If not, the translator should make up for the lack of cultural characteristics of the original text in the translation according to the context. If it is impossible to maintain the cultural metaphor of the original text, we should try our best to find the English equivalent to achieve the maximum relevance between the implied meaning of the target text and the semantic meaning of the original text.

REFERENCES

[1]   Carston, R. (1988). Language and cognition in F. J. Newmeyer (ed): Linguistics: The Cambridge Survey. Cambridge, New York: Cambridge University Press.
[2]   Hawkes, T. (1980). Metaphor. New York: Methuen & Co., Ltd.
[3]   Kelly, J. & Mao, N. (2003). Fortress Besieged. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[4]   Newmark. (2001). A Textbook of Translation. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[5]   Qian Zhongshu. (2013). Fortress Besieged. Beijing: People's Literature Publishing House.
[6]   Sperber & Wilson. (2001). Relevance: Communication and Cognition. Beijing: Foreign Language Education and Research Press.

Mengzhu Xia was born in Zhoukou, China in 1995. She received her Bachelor of Arts degree from Yuncheng University, China in 2018.

She is currently a graduate student in Shanxi Normal University, Linfen, China. She majors in foreign linguistics and applied linguistics. She is interested in cognitive linguistic, translation theory and practice.

A Critical Discourse Analysis of an Editorial Article (The Audience Affecting the Writer's Ideology and Lexical Choice)

Sanaa Hssni Al-Marayat

Language Center, English Language Department, The University of Jordan, Amman, Jordan

Abstract—This paper reports on the findings of how the status of the audience affects the discourse of the writer in terms of the lexical choice and ideology. The data are elicited through a questionnaire that consists of (11) questions represent lexical choice and ideology. Analysis of the data suggests that there is a great support and satisfaction about the ideology of the editor more than some of the lexical choice questions. In addition, the editor was somewhat successful in reflecting what the audience thinks of. The study concludes with some implications and recommendations in the field of discourse analysis.

Index Terms—discourse analysis, ideology, lexical choice

I. Introduction

The domain of this paper is discourse analysis of newspaper editorial articles. In particular, it reports on how the status of the audience affects the discourse of the writer and to what extent the editorial satisfies their needs and beliefs. In this regard, Moji (2011, p. vi) stipulated that "… the language of Editorials may not be necessarily objective, it is also reader-centered and realized facts. Editorials also to employ [*sic*] language as means". When doing a piece of writing, the author should have "a communicative goal by modulating and fine-tuning one's text" (Alamargot et al. 2011, p. 505) based on "audience awareness" (p. 505). He should further take into consideration the miscellaneous kinds of audience whom they differ according to their religion, education and country. Gross (2012, p. 203) referred to this kind of audience as the "universal audience" whom they "consist of all rational beings; persuasive discourse addressed to these thematic [*sic*] facts and truths" (p. 203). For this sake, Rose (quoted in Gregg et al. 1989, p. 181) posited that writers have to "write in a cognitive and social vacuum".

McCrimmon (1963, p. 3) defines the process of writing as "a deliberate attempt by one person to communicate to others those ideas, facts, or impressions that will create to the results *which the writer has intended to achieve*". Witte and Faigley (1981, p. 199) argued that "the quality or "success" of a text …depends a great deal on factors outside the text itself ".

According to them, writing quality is defined as "the "fit" of a particular text to its context, which includes such factors as the writer's purpose, the discourse medium, and audience's knowledge of an interest in the subject."

A significant factor which plays an essential role in the writing process is the Working Memory (WM). Alamargot et al. (2011, p. 506) affirmed the fact that "in the case of text composition, increased capacity could be expected to facilitate the storage of the communicative goal and the representation of the reader during the engagement of the writing processes".

Through analysis of the editorial article taken from the Jordan Times newspaper, the present research is intended to reveal how the writer should account for the audience's beliefs and needs in an international printed media with regard to the movie insulting prophet Mohammad-May peace be upon him. In other words, the study reported here examines how the national and international audience interacts with this piece of writing and to what extent this editorial meets their beliefs.

The theme of the movie insulting prophet Mohammed, May peace be upon him, was selected because of its recent prominence in Jordan and Jordan Press. So prominent was the subject of insulting the prophet in the months during the period in which the bulk data for this study was gathered that in a sense, it is no exaggeration to say that this theme selected itself. Indeed, the movie insulting the prophet was such a preoccupation of Jordan press during September 2012.

This paper proceeds as follows. Section II provides theoretical background. Section III presents the Literature review. Section IV specifies the study objectives. Methodology is described in Section V. Findings are presented and discussed in section VI, while conclusion and recommendations are provided in Section VII

II. Theoretical Background

A. Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), as a significant branch of discourse Analysis (DA), aims to trace the "cultural and ideological meaning in spoken and written texts" (O'Halloran, 2005, p. 1946). It takes into consideration the interaction between discourse and ideologies (Barletta Manjarres, 2007). Further, Wodak and Meyer (2001) points out that CDA accounts for investigating the relation between language, society and power. Such components play a signification role when interpreting a particular text.

Fairclough (1995, p. 7) viewed discourse as "… use of language seen as a form of social practice, and discourse analysis is analysis of how texts work within sociocultural practice". In short, Hall (2012, p. 16) defined CDA as "… the interface between speech acts in text and their subsequent effects on audiences."

There are three main approaches that deal with the communicative texts. These are Wodak's Discourse Historical Approach (1989), Fairclough's Social Discourse Approach (1995) and Van Dijk's Cognitive-discourse Approach (2006). The study in hand deals mainly with Van Dijk's Cognitive-discourse Approach (2006). This model is considered precise framework in studying ideologies as it combines political strategies, argumentation, semantic strategies, stylistic information and rhetorical devices (Rashidi and Souzandehfar, 2010).

B. Working Memory

Working Memory Capacity, abbreviated as WMC, has a very essential role in the process of writing "as a factor for individual differences in the ability to compose a text with communicative efficiency based on audience awareness" (Alamargot et al. 2011, p. 505). According to Baddeley (2003, p. 189), It "involves the temporary storage and manipulation of information that is assumed to be necessary for a wide range of complex cognitive activities." In one study conducted by Alamargot et al. (2011, p. 512), results confirmed that WM is the main factor that is responsible for the graduate to take the audience into account while composing a text.

C. Audience: A Brief Account of Its Significance

The interest in shedding the light on the importance of audience started in the 4th century BC. Cooper (quoted in Gregg et al. 1996, p. 121) denoted that the analysis of the audience along with its impact on the speaker first emerged in Aristotle's *The Rhetoric*. "Consider your audience" was the main focus of Aristotle's *The Rhetoric*. Ede (1979, p. 291) commented that "much of the Rhetoric is, in fact, concerned with ways of bringing rhetors and their audience closer together". Gregg et al. (1996, p. 121) summarized Aristotle's interest in the audience reporting that "the Aristotelian conceptualization of sense of audience is focused primarily on the writer's perception of the reader's (audience) needs rather than the dynamic interaction between the writer (self), audience (reader), and context".

Ede (1979, p. 291) argued "that teachers of written composition should place greater emphasis on the role of audience in discourse". In her study, Ede offered two responses "to the need for a more audience-centered approach to writing" (p. 291). Kroll (1984, p. 172) examined three views of audience which are the "rhetorical," "informational," and "social" perspectives. He explored the strengths and weaknesses of each one without preferring one over the other.

According to McQuail (1997, p. 1), ""audience" simply refers to the readers of, viewers of, listeners to one or other media channel or of this or that type of content or performance".

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

Below are several previous studies that are related to the current study in various ways. These studies are arranged logically rather than chronologically, i.e., they are arranged from general to specific according to their relationship with the present study.

Hallasa (2001) investigated "the use of adverbial clauses in the English language used in newspaper editorials" (p. ix). The study was based on the analysis of 56 texts taken from two English news papers; the international Herald Tribune and The Independent. Analysis of the data reported on the frequent use of complex sentences, finite and infinitival adverbial clauses, adverbial clauses embedded within a noun phrase and high frequency of adverbial clauses of time.

Al-Omari (2001) examined the problems found in the Friday sermons discourse in Irbid, Jordan. The data were elicited through 40 Friday sermons, recorded by audio cassettes. The findings showed that Friday sermons suffer from shortcomings in the coherence, cohesion, organization and unity which are the very essential discoursal qualities any Friday sermon.

Jawad (2002) held" a contrastive rhetorical analysis between The Jordan Times and The Guardian focusing on thought development and organization"(p. ix). The analysis of the study was based on the models developed by Connor and Lauer (1988) and Toulmin (1958) in terms of the superstructure of an argument and the informal reasoning, respectively. The study concluded that the same components such as situation, problem, solution and evaluation have been found between both The Jordan Times and The Guardian.

Yaghoobi (2009) explored how language and ideology are represented differently in the printed media, more specifically in an Iranian newspaper and an American magazine with opposing ideologies pertaining to Hizbullah-Israel last war in 2006**.**

Buja (2010) examined how "a text can be regarded as an interaction between writer and reader"(p. 85). The study was conducted based on a Romanian satirical newspaper, Academia Catavencu. Analysis of the data suggested that "the

linear organization both at sentential level and at discourse level will influence the reader's interpretation of the discourse"(p. 92).

The study reported here presents a critical discourse analysis of the way that Jordan Times editors construct discourses, paying heed to the audiences' different religions, backgrounds and beliefs.

IV. OBJECTIVES

This study seeks answers to the following questions:
    (1) How does the status of the audience affect the discourse of the writer in terms of the lexical choice and ideology?
    (2) How the composition of the writer is considered a reflection of the status of the public opinion in relation to the current issues and uprising stories?
    (3) To what extent does the writer account for the beliefs of his diverse kind of readers?

V. METHODS

A. Subjects

The subjects were two different groups of readers at the University of Jordan. The first group (G1) comprises 15 national readers (8 females and 7 males), all Muslims. Their countries of origin are Jordan, Palestine and Egypt. The members of this group have a good English facility which enables them to read and interact with any kind of English text. The second group (G2) consists of 15 international readers (9 females and 6 males), 2 Muslims amongst. These are taking Arabic courses and they are holders of Bachelor degree or Master's degree Members of this group are from diverse countries like U.S.A., U.K., Sweden, Italy, India, Norway and Turkey. All in all, both groups are well educated and good followers of news editorials based on a question jotted down in the questionnaire.

B. Data Selection and Sampling

This study is conducted based on one editorial article taken from Jordanian international newspapers, namely the Jordan Times. The Jordan Times has been chosen as it is oriented to the international community which means mass audience who are diverse in their beliefs, religion and language.

The editorial was first read in their entirety for a sense of the whole, and memos were written about the content and style. Particular words and phrases were highlighted to alert the author's attention during the more careful line-by-line rereading of the text.

Accordingly, a questionnaire was designed. It consisted of (11) items, some involved lexical choice and others involved ideological ones. The items (1-4) represented lexical choice and (5-10). Question number (11) came as to assess the audience sense of the editorial identity (see appendix).

C. Data Analysis

This study was held so to determine whether or not the audience affects the discourse of the writer in terms of the lexical choice and ideology as well as to examine whether or not the writer account for the beliefs of his diverse kind of readers. Data were collected. They were analyzed through SPPS program so to extract the different statistical procedures such as the descriptive statistics. This is to describe and summarize the data.

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table (1) provides the complete list of frequencies of the answers for each group of subjects on each question.

| # | Frequency | | | Frequency | | |
| | agree | it doesn't matter | disagree | agree | it doesn't matter | disagree |
	G1			G2		
1	5	3	7	6	2	7
2	12	0	3	12	1	2
3	0	3	12	3	7	5
4	8	3	4	6	4	5
5	14	1	0	13	0	2
6	14	0	1	14	0	1
7	13	2	0	13	1	1
8	15	0	0	14	0	1
9	13	1	1	14	0	1
10	14	0	1	12	2	1
Percentage	16.02	1.95	4.35	16.05	2.55	3.9

A glance at the results exhibits that the total percentages of answers for each group on the options (agree), (it doesn't matter) and (disagree) are close. The attitude and reaction of the diverse audience with the text was quite the same, the

readers were engaged, and remained so throughout the duration of this study. Accordingly, it is clear enough to claim that the editorial satisfies the audience's beliefs. To some degrees, the results reveal that the editor was trying to be neutral, objective and not bias since the editorial was straightforward. It emerged facts and showed what happened in reality as a reaction to the insulting movie.

Table (2) provides the complete list of the percentages of the answers for each group of subjects on each question.

	Frequency				Frequency		
#	agree	it doesn't matter	disagree		agree	it doesn't matter	disagree
		G1				G2	
1	33.3	20	46.7		40	13.3	46.7
2	80	0	20		80	6.7	13.4
3	0	20	80		20	46.7	33.4
4	53.3	20	26.7		40	26.7	33.3
5	93.3	6.7	0		86.7	0	13.3
6	93.3	0	6.7		93.3	0	6.7
7	86.7	13.3	0		86.7	6.7	6.7
8	100	0	0		93.3	0	6.7
9	86.7	6.7	6.7		93.3	0	6.7
10	93.3	0	6.7		80	13.3	6.7

A further examination of table (2) indicates that the percentages of (agree) answers for the last five questions which represent ideology in both groups are higher than those of the lexical choice which represent the first four questions. In the light of this, it seems that there is a great support and satisfaction about the ideology of the editor more than some of the lexical choice questions. This indicates that the writer was somewhat successful in reflecting what the audience thinks of. For example, question (2) on the lexical choice displays similar percentage in both groups which is (80%) believing that Palestinian are indigenous. However, one member in G2 said that; "of course I see them indigenous, but it might be a strong statement in a neutral newspaper". This consolidates the findings of previous researches that "audience is a physical, active presence in the discourse production process" (Johnson 1997, p. 364). In terms of question (1), both groups registered equal percentages of disagree, (46.7%), on using the word Jewish instead of Zionist while (33.3%) and (40%) of G1 and G2 agree, respectively. This expresses a dissatisfaction of the audience with the editor's lexical choice of one word over the other.

Regarding question (3), none of the national Muslim readers answer (agree) about not using the phrase -May peace be upon him- right away after the word Prophet. (80%) of them answer disagree upon not using it which is still a higher percentage than the (20%) of those who agree in G2. They argue that the writer being an Arab and Muslim should use it and not "sugarcoat" words so that to satisfy the international readers as Islam is our religion and Mohammad is our prophet whether they like or not. This is something we should be proud of. The editor has to respect other's religion no matter what s/he believes in or his/her religion is. (46.7 %) of the international readers' answer came as (it doesn't matter), some commenting that "it is ok to use it if is important to the writer" and "it doesn't impress or harm me".

The option (it doesn't matter) gives an indication that even if the editor used the phrase it would not make any problem or affect the international audience, especially that (80 %) of the national Muslims readers show dissatisfaction upon not using it, (20%) it doesn't matter and none agree. It is pretty clear here that the editor fails to account for the national Muslim readers pertaining to this point.

As to question (4), though the majority of both groups display agreement on the editor's description of the movie as a "US", they argue that "the editor's definition is very big" as "the movie was made in the US but it is not an official government policy." Therefore, the editor was not accurate and precise enough in his description. He should have been more careful in his/her lexical choice. Pertaining to question (11), (86.7%) of the international readers think that the editorial was taken from an Eastern newspaper while (13.3%) think that it is taken from a Western one. (53.3%) of the national readers think the editorial taken from an Eastern newspaper and (46.7%) of them think it belongs to a Western one. It is clearly evident that both groups registered the highest percentages thinking the editorial taken from an Eastern newspaper. Those who answer so argue that the editorial seems more like defending Islam and crediting Muslims against Israeli occupation and extremists who are actually creating violence. One of the international readers also commented that "it's favoring Muslim. The editor is not objective, fully agree though".

It might be safe to say that it is the editor's ideology which gives the audience a hunch about the nature of the editorial. Most international readers affirmed that the editor's ideologies reflect where he/she stands, though agree with them as this is the reality which sounds crystal clear to everybody. On the other hand, the national readers justified their answer of the editorial's nature as western commented that it is because of freedom of speech that the western newspapers have. Another one said that the editor may be a western one who is neutral and supporting our case.

It is clear here that each group has its own justifications and perspectives. Some members in (G1) evaluate the editorial as being neutral while others in (G2) see it the other way round.

VII. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study in hand has reported on how the diversity of the audience plays a significant role in the discourse adapted by the writer. It is clear enough to claim that the editorial satisfies the audience's beliefs. To some degrees, results reveal that the editor was trying to be neutral, objective and not bias since the editorial was straightforward. It emerged facts and showed what happened in reality as a reaction to the insulting movie. This consolidates the findings of previous researches that "audience is a physical, active presence in the discourse production process" (Johnson 1997, p. 364).

Discussion of the data had led to the following conclusions. First, the editor should be objective as much as possible, showing facts no matter what he thinks. Second, the more international the editorial is, the more careful the editor should be while writing and choosing his words.

Due to the importance of the written media in affecting the audience's beliefs and perspectives, more specifically the newspapers editorials and in the light of the discussion and conclusions, the following recommendation may be suggested for editors in order to improve the discoursal level. Courses may be organized which aim to train editors about how to be more meticulous avoiding the problematic lexical choices that cause misunderstanding and vagueness in its context like the words used here "US movies" and "Jewish". It remains for further research as to assess and compare how articles penned by the same writer change and differ based on the audience addressed.

APPENDIX

Nothing justifies murder
Sep 12, 2012 | 23:37 Updated: Sep 12, 2012 | 23:37
A provocative <u>US movie</u> on Islam triggered acts of violence in Libya and Egypt, leading to the murder of the American ambassador to Libya along with three of his staff.

The perpetrators of the attack certainly knew the ambassador and the other victims had no role in the making of the movie, which, according to news reports, intended to depict Islam in a negative manner, a goal that the killers of the US diplomats are also serving.

One of the main missions of the murdered diplomats was to build a bridge between Libya and the US, between two parts of the world and two cultures. Their undertaking seems to have been lost on extremist elements that, wittingly or unwittingly, vindicated the goals of the producer of the movie "Innocence of Muslims".

There were conflicting reports on the idm, /\

8 entity and nationality of the producer, identified by an Associated Press report early Wednesday as Israeli Sam Bacile, with the agency later in the day shedding doubts on its earlier report. Regardless of the identity and the nationality, <u>the producer certainly wished to sow hatred towards Muslims</u>, just as it happens Israel, where one-fifth of the population — <u>the indigenous Palestinians</u> of which a majority Muslim — is facing discrimination.

In the earlier AP report, the alleged moviemaker described Islam as a cancer and said he wanted his film to be a provocative political statement condemning the religion. He said the two-hour $5 million movie received financing from more than 100 <u>Jewish</u> donors who share his belief that the movie will help Israel "by exposing Islam's flaws to the world", according to the report.

Clearly stated, and regardless of the identity and nationality, the intentions are <u>to denigrate Islam, the faith of more than 1.5 billion people</u> , or around one quarter of the world's population, most of them living peacefully with followers of other faiths<u>. The movie certainly targets these people in a manner that aims to disrupt their relations with others who might view them in a negative light.</u>

Unfortunately such job sometimes is made easier by a very small minority of Muslims who advocate violence or the use of force to impose their views on others — others here being not only non-Muslims, but also Muslims who do not agree with them, meaning the vast majority of the followers of the faith.

This vast majority is victim of this small minority exactly as it is victim of this movie, produced to <u>provoke, harm and cause rifts</u>.

Muslims all over the world, who live in more than 200 countries and territories, should remember that their faith is that of peace and tolerance, that the <u>Prophet</u> and the caliphs instructed their armies not to kill innocent people, not even to cut trees or destroy houses.

They and others have to remember that this religion offered protection to messengers and ambassadors, as well as to all those living under the protection of any Muslim state, in times of war and peace.

In Islam and for Muslims, nothing <u>justifies violence and spilling blood of innocent people</u>.

Nothing justifies Wednesday's crime in Benghazi, and <u>nothing and nobody should exonerate the filmmaker whose sinister objectives are very clear</u>

The questionnaire
_ The gender: Male ☐   Female ☐   _ Country of origin:………………….
_ Religion: Muslim ☐   Non-Muslim ☐   _ The educational level:…………..
_ Your age:…………   _ Faculty: ……………………………..
- Are you a follower reader of newspaper editorials?
Reader ☐   Non-reader ☐

The following questions are based on your reading for an editorial article entitled" **Nothing justifies murder".**

1. In the text, to what extent do you agree with the use of the word "Jewish" instead of the word Zionist?
   Strongly agree   agree   it doesn't matter   disagree   strongly disagree
   Elaborate, please …………………………………………………………………

2. To what extent do you agree with the use of the word "indigenous" in the phrase" indigenous Palestinians"?
   Strongly agree   agree   it doesn't matter   disagree   strongly disagree
   Elaborate, please …………………………………………………………………

3. To what extent do you agree about not using the phrase-May peace be upon him- right away after the word "prophet "?
   Strongly agree   agree   it doesn't matter   disagree   strongly disagree
   Elaborate, please …………………………………………………………………

4. To what extent do you agree with the use of the word "US" in the sentence" A provocative US movie on Islam triggered acts of violence …"?
    Strongly agree   agree   it doesn't matter   disagree   strongly disagree
   Elaborate, please …………………………………………………………………

5. The editor of the editorial stated that "nobody should exonerate the filmmaker whose sinister objectives are very clear." To what extent do you agree?
   Strongly agree   agree   it doesn't matter   disagree   strongly disagree
   Elaborate, please …………………………………………………………………

6. The editor mentioned that the producer of the movie wished to "sow hatred towards Muslim." To what extent do you agree with the sentence?
   Strongly agree   agree   it doesn't matter   disagree   strongly disagree
   Elaborate, please …………………………………………………………………

7. The editor mentioned that the producer of the movie wished to "denigrate Islam, the faith of more than 1.5billion people." To what extent do you agree with the sentence?
   Strongly agree   agree   it doesn't matter   disagree   strongly disagree
    Elaborate, please …………………………………………………………………

8. The editor mentioned that the producer of the movie wished to "provoke, harm and cause rifts." To what extent do you agree with the sentence?
    Strongly agree   agree   it doesn't matter   disagree   strongly disagree
   Elaborate, please …………………………………………………………………

9. The editor stated that "The movie certainly targets these people in a manner that aims to disrupt their relations with others who might view them in a negative light." To what extent do you agree with the sentence?
   Strongly agree   agree   it doesn't matter   disagree   strongly disagree
   Elaborate, please …………………………………………………………………

10. The editor stated that "In Islam and for Muslims, nothing justifies violence and spilling blood of innocent people." To what extent do you agree with the sentence?
    Strongly agree   agree   it doesn't matter   disagree   strongly disagree
    Elaborate, please …………………………………………………………………

11. Do you think that this editorial is taken from a western newspaper or an eastern one?..............
    Elaborate, please …………………………………………………………………

Thank you

REFERENCES

[1]   Alamargot, D., G. Caporossi, D. Chesnet and C. Ros. (2011). "What makes a skilled writer? Working memory and audience awareness during text composition". *Learning and Individual Differences* 21. 505–516.

[2]   Al-Omari, O. (2006). An analysis of the Friday sermons discourse: A case study of Jordanian mosques. Unpublished M.A. thesis, Yarmouk University.

[3]   Baddeley, A. (2003). "Working memory and language: An overview". *Journal of Communication Disorders* 36. 189–208.

[4]   Barletta, Manjarres, N. (2007). "Critical Discourse Analysis: A review of critique". *Lenguaje.* 35(1), 219-242.

[5]   Buja, E. (2010). "Academia catavencu: A challenge for discourse analysts". *Philology and Cultural Studies* 3 (52). 85-94.

[6]   Ede, L. (1979). "On audience and composition". *College Composition and Communication* 30. 291-295.

[7]   Fairclough, N. (1995). Critical discourse analysis: The critical study of language. New York: Longman.

[8]   Gross, A. (1999). "A theory of the rhetorical audience: Reflections on Chaim Perelman". *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 85. 203-211.

[9]   Gregg, N., S. Sigalas, C. Hoy, J. Wisenbaker and C. Mickinley. (1996). "Sense of audience and the adult writer: A study across competence levels". *Reading and Writing* 8. 121-137.

[10] Halassa, C. (2001). The use of adverbial clauses in the English language of newspapers editorials. Unpublished M.A. thesis, University of Jordan.

[11] Hall, S. (2012). The discourse of Protest: Using discourse analysis to identify speech acts in UK broadsheet newspapers. M.A thesis, London School of Economics and Political Science. Retrieved December, 2, 2012 from http://www2.lse.ac.uk/media@lse/research/mediaWorkingPapers/MScDissertationSeries/2011/69.pdf.

[12] Jawad, F. (2002). A contrastive rhetorical analysis of editorials in The Jordan Times and The Guardian focusing on thought development and organization. Unpublished M.A. thesis, University of Jordan.

[13] Johnson, R. (1997). "Audience involved: Toward a participatory model of writing". *Computers and composition*. 14. 361-37.

[14] Kroll, B. (1984). "Writing for readers: Three perspectives on audience". *College Composition and Communication* 35. 172-185.

[15] McQuail, D. (1997). Audience analysis. London: SAGE Publication.

[16] Moji, A. 2011. "A systematic analysis of editorials in selected Nigerian newspapers". Retrieved December, 1, 2012 from http://www.unilorin.edu.ng/studproj/arts/0715CD049.pdf.

[17] McCrimmon, J. (1963). Writing with a purpose. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company.

[18] O'Halloran, K.A. (2005). "Mystification and social Agent Absences: A critical discourse analysis using evolutionary psychology". *Journal of Pragmatics*, 37, 1945-1964.

[19] Rashidi, N. and Souzandehfar, M. (2010). "A critical Discourse Analysis of the Debates between Republicans and Democrats over the Continuation of War in Iraq". *The Journal of Linguistics and Intercultural Education* 3(1), 55-82.

[20] Van Dijk, T. (2006). Politics, Ideology and Discourse. Retrieved on April, 5th, 2020 from http://www.discourses.org/OldArticles/Politics,%20Ideology%20and%20Discourse.pdf.

[21] Witte, S. and L. Faigley. (1981). "Coherence, cohesion, and writing quality". *College Composition and Communication* 32. 189-204.

[22] Wodak, R. and Meyer, M. (2001). Methods of Critical Discourse Analysis, London: SAGE Publication Ltd.

[23] Yaghoobi, M. (2009). "A critical discourse analysis of the selected Iranian and American printed media on the representations of Hizbullah-Israel war". *Journal of Intercultural Communication* 21. Retrieved December, 1, 2012 from http://www.immi.se/intercultural/nr21/yaghoobi.htm.

Sanaa Hssni Al-Marayat received her M.A in Linguistics in 2016 from the University of Jordan, Amman/Jordan. She is currently a full time lecturer in the University of Jordan. She has published many research articles. Her major areas of study include discourse analysis, semantics and sociolinguistics.

Underachievement in English Speaking Skills among Kuwaiti EFL Students at the College of Basic Education: Possible Causes and Possible Solutions

Mohammad A. Almutairi

Language Center, College of Basic Education, the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training, Kuwait

Abstract—**The purpose of this study is to investigate the possible causes and possible solutions of the massive underachievement in speaking skills among Kuwaiti EFL (English as a foreign language) students at the College of Basic Education (CBE). This study involved 331 male and female EFL students who are currently studying different bachelor degree programs at CBE. A questionnaire of 12 statements was used to collect their responses, and then the data was analyzed. After the analysis of the data, the findings indicated that the vast majority of students identified their speaking skills as weak or fair. Their answers revealed there are various factors that hinder in developing their weakness in speaking skills. The most obvious ones were lack of motivation, the lack of speaking skills emphasis in EFL syllabus design, and the absence of technology in ELT (English language teaching), including language laboratories and auditory aids. According to the recommendations of this study, this great challenge could be overcome by four central solutions. First, placing spoken English in the EFL syllabus. Second, including spoken English assessment in the coursework and providing a comfortable environment in class to motivate EFL students to use their target language and encourage them to improve it. Third, the study recommends that EFL teachers join special training courses in the Professional Development Center to learn the basic knowledge of how to use technology in ELT, including language labs. Finally, the researcher ends his recommendations by endorsing the administration of the College of Basic Education to provide modern language labs for the Language Center.**

Index Terms—**EFL speaking skills, English language teaching, TESOL, students' perceptions**

I. INTRODUCTION

Speaking is considered the most difficult and the most complex of all the four skills, as it needs experience and exposure to the target language. In English language teaching, it is a very crucial part of the learning process and a necessary component of any language education classroom. In this regard, and as an English language practitioner for many years, I have noticed that most of my EFL students suffer from a great weakness in expressing themselves effectively in English. In most cases, they turn to the Arabic language to participate in in-class activities. Almost all the researchers' colleagues have observed this phenomenon in their classrooms. Notably, despite the importance of speaking skills as a fundamental element of the language in the current era of globalization, the emphasis on this significant issue is very rare in the curriculum of the Language Center at the College of Basic Education. For this reason, this study aims to investigate and explore the possible causes and solutions for the underachievement of CBE EFL students from Kuwait in speaking skills in CBE. A questionnaire of 12 statements was distributed to 350 male and female students studying English as a foreign language at CBE. Three hundred and thirty-one students responded to the questionnaire, and their answers showed a real educational problem that needs to be addressed and discussed.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

For any learner of English as a foreign language, it is essential to be efficient in speaking and conversation. Since it is often thought to be the most important skill of language learning, speaking and conversation occupy a central part in most ELT programs (Bygate, 1987; Byrne, 1988; Nolasco & Lois, 1987). It is the duty of the language teacher to provide necessary help to the learners so that they acquire the desired level of speaking and conversation skills to be competent members of the speech or discourse community concerned (Lave, 1998; Swales, 1990). Conversation skill, a part of speaking ability and communication, requires guided practice for its development (Barker, 2007; Dugas & DesRosiers, 2010; Garner, 2017; Green & Burleson, 2003; Worth, 2004). In many cases, learners are found to attain a certain degree of writing skill easily, whereas they often struggle to attain speaking skills to that extent. In speaking, unlike its counterpart productive skill, a person has to face the audience in the immediate environment directly and produce utterances spontaneously without a long time to think, which proves to be a difficult task for them.

In fact, the biggest challenge for the learners of English as a foreign language is to speak the language accurately and fluently when they are engaged in real conversation. Without a certain degree of conversational competence, the learners cannot talk and communicate their ideas to others. Conversational weakness may be caused by various factors, resulting from a lack of required knowledge and skills in the domains of vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation, as well as sociological and psychological barriers. Added to them are institutional and pedagogical concerns. Hughes (2011) rightly observes that speaking/conversation is not a discrete but multifaceted skill; it is connected to intra-linguistic (sound, word, sentence, discourse, etc.) and extra-linguistic (psychology, physiology, environment, etc.) phenomena. If institutions do not provide a good environment for language learning and usage, and if the learning is not assisted by sound pedagogy, students will not achieve a level of understanding anywhere close to fluency.

The basis of all verbal communication is lexical knowledge. In order to communicate successfully, a person must know the basic words necessitated by the topic of conversation. Vocabulary building is thought to be the first and foremost job of the language learner. The more vocabulary they learn, the more likely they are to be able to sustain conversation. Words are the basic building blocks of any language. In the most fundamental sense, words are the total language. That is why, sometimes, a dictionary becomes representative of a particular language. Experts may differ on how vocabulary can be learned/taught, but they can never argue against its necessity. A study at Ajloun National University identified the lack of sufficient vocabulary of English language learners as the number-one difficulty in the performance of speaking/conversation (Al-Eiadeh, Al-Sobh, Al-Zoubi, & Al-Khasawneh, 2016).

After learning words, the learners must also know how they can be combined into meaningful sentences. That is where grammar comes in. A person must know the rules of sentence formation to speak efficiently. With only single-word utterances, one cannot be a good speaker. Thoughts are meant to be expressed in the form of complete sentences, but even then, the message may not be properly communicated to the listener. Grammatical errors may jeopardize the intended meaning and cause miscommunication. Learning grammar can be explicit and implicit, but it must be learned to become a successful language user.

To make an ELT program successful, teachers need to know the psychological aspects of language learning and use them, which is basically a cognitive process (Molder and Potter, 2005; Turnbull, 2003). When students are engaged in the learning process, they need to be motivated intrinsically or instrumentally. It is the responsibility of teachers to highlight the importance of language learning to strongly motivate students. Teachers should also encourage students with positive feedback and remove any mental setbacks (e.g., fear and anxiety). If learners can overcome their fear of learning and speaking, they often gain confidence and make efforts to become successful language learners and users. As Boonkit (2010) noticed, apart from competence, confidence is crucial for the development of speaking/conversational skills.

An institution has a significant role in producing good language learners. It can provide a congenial teaching/learning atmosphere inside and outside the classroom so learners may practice conversation anywhere. Frequent practice is the gateway to efficient conversation. Bilbrough (2007) recommended both authentic and scripted dialogue practices for rapid improvement. Pair/group practice that manifests collaborative learning is of utmost necessity in and outside the classroom (Sasson, 2013). The practice may also be based on discussion (Henning, 2008). Students may practice listening in the language laboratory or self-access center to boost their skills in speaking and pronunciation. Pronunciation software may be of special help to students (Bailey, 2005, p. 180). Nowadays, YouTube videos are also used to aid learners in enhancing listening and speaking skills. It is even possible for teachers to provide help to learners online. In a study in Russia, Kozar (2018) found that online conversation lessons were highly satisfying for learners. Lin, You, Shen, Qi, and Luo (2017) noticed the positive effect of mobile social networking on English speaking skills in China.

III. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Besides the researcher's personal interest in developing and improving the ELT curriculum in Kuwait, the results of this study will provide some insights and information towards redefining the current EFL syllabus at the College of Basic Education. Decision-makers and EFL textbook designers in Kuwait might find the study and its conclusions a useful start towards evaluating the current ELT curriculum and including speaking skills in the syllabus. In fact, due to the shortage of empirical studies that examine the speaking skills of Kuwaiti EFL learners, this study takes on a pioneering role. Therefore, this study could provide the basis for researchers' future studies in the Kuwaiti context.

IV. METHODOLOGY

This study aimed to find the possible causes of and the possible solutions for underachievement in speaking skills among Kuwaiti EFL students at the CBE. The researcher decided to use the quantitative method since it is the best one for gathering data from a tremendous number of participants.

A. Research Tools

A questionnaire of 12 statements was used by the researcher to gather his data. A questionnaire of a similar study was borrowed. It was amended by the researcher, and the statements were raised from 10 to 12 so as to cover more aspects

of the study to suit the sitting in CBE. Then, it was distributed to 200 male and female EFL students. Every statement had these options—I agree, I don't know, or I disagree—except statement 1, which tested their level of speaking skills and had the following options: excellent, very good, fair, and weak.

B. Participants

The participants of this study were 200 male and female Kuwaiti students pursuing BA degrees in various specialties at the CBE. Their ages range from 18 to 24 years old. During their BA studies, they have to take three English courses: English 099, English 1, and English 2.

V. RESEARCH QUESTION

As the main purpose of the study is to learn both the possible reasons behind the weakness of the speaking skills of Kuwaiti EFL students from CBE and the suggested solutions for combating the phenomena, this study addresses the following questions:

     1-What are the possible causes for underachievement in speaking skills among Kuwaiti students from CBE?

     2-What are the possible solutions for the underachievement in speaking skills among Kuwaiti students at CBE?

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Statement 1 was designed by the researcher to identify the speaking abilities of EFL students at CBE and to verify that the problem exists. An overview of the participants' responses on Statement 1, which examined their level of speaking skills, showed that most of the participants in the college (138: 41.7%) answered with **weak**, almost one third (104: 31.4%) identified their level as fair, a few participants (43: 14.5%) answered with very good, and a few participants (48: 14.5%) answered with excellent (Table 1). This shows that this problem is common among EFL students and needs to be addressed and discussed by the principals.

Statement 2 asked the EFL students if the Language Center offers special English courses for enhancing students' speaking skills like conversational English. The majority of them (264:79.8%) disagreed, a few participants agreed (63:19%) and just a few (4:1.2%) (Table 1). This result shows that the focus on teaching speaking skills is almost unavailable in the Language Center curriculum.

The participants' replies on Statement 3 showed that the great majority of them (256:77%) admitted that their classes have huge numbers of students, and these unacceptable numbers in classrooms hinder teachers from employing any speaking skills in their settings. Only (63:19%) disagreed that huge numbers of participants are considered as an obstacle for learning speaking skills and (12:3.6%) had no idea (Table 1).

Regarding the responses of EFL students on Statement 4, which examined their EFL syllabus, once again, the vast majority of them (244:73.7%) agreed that their textbooks don't focus on speaking skills. On the contrary, (77:23.3%) of the participants disagreed with the statement, and (10:3%) had no idea (Table 1).

Because language laboratories play a very important role in enhancing EFL students' speaking skills, Statement 5 was about using language labs by the EFL teachers for training and enhancing their EFL students' speaking skills. Unfortunately, almost all the participants (314:94.9) answered that no language labs were available at the College of Basic Education (Table 1), (13:3.9) disagreed with the statement, and (4:1.2%) had no idea. Not using the technology for practicing speaking skills could have contributed to the existence of this problem. Actually, their answers to Statement 5 proved once again that speaking skills are being kept out of the EFL syllabus and surely are not being made a priority by the principals.

Statement 6 asked the students about their motivation to learn and use English when speaking inside and outside of the classroom. Regrettably, the vast majority (314:94.9) of EFL students expressed their lack of motivation to speak English inside or outside of class (Table 1). This demotivation could have happened for various reasons, including the absence of a speaking assessment during the course, as will be mentioned in the discussion of Statement 11.

Concerning Statement 7, which asked EFL students about English language usage in EFL classes, most students (287:86.7) agreed with the statement that using the English language as a way of communicating with the teacher in the class was too infrequent; some students (39:11.8%) disagreed with Statement 7; and other students (5:1.5%) had no idea (Table 1).

Statement 8 is very similar to Statement 7 in that it asks the students about using their native language in their EFL classes with their teachers. The great majority of participants (96.1:93.7%) answered that they turn to Arabic if they want to ask their EFL teachers about any topic regarding the lessons. Only a few (11:3.3%) disagreed with Statement 8, and very few (2:0.6%) had no idea (Table 1).

Statement 9 was an estimation by the EFL students for their speaking skills syllabus in the college. Unfortunately, the vast majority of EFL students (310:93.7%) replied that speaking skills taught by EFL teachers is very limited and is not a priority. A few of them (18:5.4%) disagreed with this statement, and very few (3:9%) had no idea (Table 1).

Statement 10 asked the participants if the time of their classes was enough to learn speaking skills. Again, the great majority (270:81.6%) replied that time in the class was enough, and there was always room for learning speaking skills.

Only 43:13% disagreed and replied that the time was not enough for learning speaking skills, and 18:5.4% had no idea (Table 1).

As mentioned above in Statement 6, the students lacked motivation for using speaking skills in and out of the class. This state of motivation could be justified in their responses to Statement 11. In Statement 11, the participants were asked whether there was a score for speaking skills in the distribution of marks for the English courses the students were taking. Once more, a massive number of participants (309 or 93.4%) answered that there was no assessment done by their EFL teachers for speaking skills in the three modules of English language, 12 (or 3.6%) of the participants disagreed with the statement, and 10 (3%) had no idea (Table 1). This could be the main reason why the EFL students were not motivated to use or develop their speaking skills. In the same regard, as part of the teaching staff of the Language Center, I follow the same distribution of marks issued by the department: 30 marks for the mid-term exam, 10 marks for attendance, 10 marks for quizzes, and 50 marks for the final exam. The assessment of speaking skills is not used. This is more evidence that speaking skills have no priority or focus in the EFL curriculum at CBE.

Statement 12 was designed to explore the students' opinions of whether shyness was an obstacle for practicing their English or if shyness could have hindered them from using their speaking skills. Of the participants, 187 (56.5%) agreed with this statement, while 126 (38%) disagreed, and only 18 (5.4%) were not sure (see table 1).

TABLE 1
KUWAITI EFL STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO THE STATEMENTS ABOUT IMPROVING THEIR SPEAKING SKILLS

Statement	agree		disagree		don't know	
	frequency	percent	frequency	percent	frequency	percent
2- The Language Center at the College of Basic Education doesn't offer (conversational English courses) to improve and enhance the speaking and conversational kills	264	79.8	63	19	4	1.2
3- The large number of students in EFL classrooms is an obstacle for using speaking skills in-class.	256	77.3	63	19	12	3.6
4-speaking skills are part of EFL syllabus.	244	73.7	10	3	77	2.3
5- Language labs are not available in the college.	314	94	4	1.2	13	3.9
6- There are no motivations like giving grades or encouragement from EFL teachers to use and practice our spoken English.	314	94.9	17	5.1	0	0
7- Speaking and communicating with our EFL teacher in English language are little.	287	86.7	39	11.8	5	1.5
8- Most of the time, we use Arabic in class during English classes.	318	96.1	11	3.3	2	.6
9- Teaching us how to practice speaking skills during our study to English courses in the college is very limited.	310	93.7	18	5.4	3	.9
10- The time of English classes is short and is not enough to give a chance for practicing speaking skills. It could be an obstacle for improving speaking skills.	270	81.6	43	13	18	5.4
11- The assessment of speaking skills is not part of the coursework. There are no marks for speaking skills in the distribution of marks in English courses.	309	93.4	12	3.6	10	3.7
12-Shyness makes it difficult for me to use my spoken English with my classmates and outside.	187	56.8	126	38.1	18	5.4

VII. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

As previously mentioned, this study aims to investigate and examine the reasons why Kuwaiti EFL students cannot reach a certain degree of fluency in speaking English. It also aims to provide educational suggestions and recommendations to enhance the English-speaking skills. According to the findings of this study and depending on the highest responses of the participants, it is concluded that the weakness of spoken English among Kuwaiti EFL students at CBE could be a result of three causes. Firstly, ignoring speaking skills from the EFL syllabus caused the deterioration of the problem. Secondly, excluding students' oral assessment from the coursework helped to create a state of demotivation among EFL students. Thirdly, there was an absence of new technology in ELT, including language labs that do not exist in CBE.

Given the above causes, the following solutions (suggestions) can help improve the speaking skills of EFL students:

   - Spoken English should be included in the EFL syllabus. This could include speaking practices, dialogues, and presentations.
   - Spoken English should be assessed within the coursework. This will motivate students to use their speaking skills in class.
   - EFL teachers should provide a comfortable environment in class for EFL students to use their English. This includes encouraging students to participate in oral activities.
   - EFL teachers should join special training courses in using technology in classrooms, including courses on how to operate the language labs.
   - The Administration of the College of Basic Education should provide the up-to-date language labs for the Language Center to train students in using their speaking skills, especially if the budget is available.

REFERENCES

[1]   Al-Eiadeh, A. R., Al-Sobh, M. A., Al-Zoubi, S. M., & Al-Khasawneh, F. (2016). Improving English Language Speaking Skills of Ajloun National University Students. *International Journal of English and Education*, 5(3), 181–195.
[2]   Bailey, K. (2005). Practical English Language Teaching: Speaking. New York: McGraw-Hill.
[3]   Barker, A. (2007). Improve Your Communication Skill. 2nd ed. London: Kogan Page.
[4]   Bilbrough, N. (2007). Dialogue Activities: Exploring Spoken Interaction in the Language Class. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[5]   Boonkit, K. (2010). Enhancing the development of speaking skills for non-native speakers of English. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*. 2(2), 1305–1309.
[6]   Bygate, M. (1987). Speaking. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[7]   Byrne, D. (1988). Teaching Oral English. London: Longman.
[8]   Dugas, D. W., & DesRosiers, R. T. (2010). Speaking by Speaking: Skills for Social Competence. St. Petersburg, FL: Compass Publishing.
[9]   Garner, A. (2017). Conversationally Speaking: Tested New Ways to Increase Your Personal and Social Effectiveness. Kindle edition. New York: McGraw-Hill Education.
[10] Green, J. O. & Burleson. B. R (Eds). (2003). Handbook of Communication and Social Interaction Skills. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
[11] Henning, J. E. (2008). The Art of Discussion-Based Teaching: Opening Up Conversation in the Classroom. New York: Routledge.
[12] Hughes, R. (2011). Teaching and Researching Speaking. New Delhi: Pearson.
[13] Kozar, O. (2018). Teaching Conversational English to Adult Learners via Skype: A Russian Perspective. Anne Burns and Joseph Siegel (Eds.), *International Perspectives on Teaching the Four Skills in ELT* (pp. 125–140). Cham, Switzerland: Palgrave Macmillan.
[14] Lave, J. (1998). Communities of Practice. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[15] Molder, H. T. & Potter, J. (2005). Conversation and Cognition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[16] Nolasco, R. & Lois, A. (1987). Conversation. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[17] Sasikumar, V. & Dhamija, P. V. (1993). Spoken English: A Self-Learning Guide to Conversation Practice. New Delhi: Tata McGraw-Hill Publishing Company Limited.
[18] Sasson, D. (2013). Speaking and Writing for English Language Learners: Collaborative Teaching for Greater Success with K–6. Lanham: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc.
[19] Swales, J. M. (1990). Genre analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[20] Turnbull, W. (2003). Language in Action: Psychological Models of Conversation. New York: Psychology Press.
[21] Worth, R. (2004). Communication Skills. 2nd ed. New York: Ferguson.

Mohammad Almutairi is an assistant professor and the Head of English Language Unit, The Language Center, College of Basic Education, State of Kuwait. He has been involved in teaching EFL for college students since 1992 among different colleges: College of Business Studies, College of Technological Studies and finally College of Basic Education. He has earned his BA in English Language& Linguistics from Kuwait University in 1992, M.A. in Education (ELT) from the University of East Anglia, U.K. in 2003, and PhD in English Language and TESOL from the University of Leeds met in 2012. His main interests are Language & Culture, TESOL & TEFL.

Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

Aims and Scope

Journal of Language Teaching and Research (JLTR) is a scholarly peer-reviewed international scientific journal published bimonthly, focusing on theories, methods, and materials in language teaching, study and research. It provides a high profile, leading edge forum for academics, professionals, consultants, educators, practitioners and students in the field to contribute and disseminate innovative new work on language teaching and research.

JLTR invites original, previously unpublished, research and survey articles, plus research-in-progress reports and short research notes, on both practical and theoretical aspects of language teaching, learning, and research. These areas include, but are not limited to, the following topics:

- Language teaching methodologies
- Pedagogical techniques
- Teaching and curricular practices
- Curriculum development and teaching methods
- Programme, syllabus, and materials design
- Second and foreign language teaching and learning
- Classroom-centered research
- Literacy
- Language education
- Teacher education and professional development
- Teacher training
- Cross-cultural studies
- Child, second, and foreign language acquisition
- Bilingual and multilingual education
- Translation
- Teaching of specific skills

- Language teaching for specific purposes
- New technologies in language teaching
- Testing and evaluation
- Language representation
- Language planning
- Literature, language, and linguistics
- Applied linguistics
- Phonetics, phonology, and morphology
- Syntax and semantics
- Sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and neurolinguistics
- Discourse analysis
- Stylistics
- Language and culture, cognition, and pragmatics
- Language teaching and psychology, anthropology, sociology
- Theories and practice in related fields

Special Issue Guidelines

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.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
- Review process for the selection and rejection of papers
- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- 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

If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

If a proposal is accepted, the guest editor will be responsible for:

- Preparing the "Call for Papers" to be included on the Journal's Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal's style, together with all authors' contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

More information is available on the web site at http://www.academypublication.com/jltr/

(Contents Continued from Back Cover)