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Building Topics in Guiziga: A Cartographic Perspective

Martha Mbu Njui
Department of English Language and Literatures of English Expressions, The University of Maroua, HTTC, Cameroon

Théodore Bebey
Department of African Languages and Cultures, The University of Maroua, Cameroon

Abstract—This article attempts to provide a description of topic constructions in the Guiziga language within the cartographic framework. Data for this work were collected using both the primary and secondary source. The analyses reveal that this language does not select topicalizers as it is the case in other Chadic languages (Bebey 2015 and 2018). It also demonstrates that the topicalized constituents undergo an upward movement to land in the Spec,Top, while it leaves an empty trace in the original position. The language tolerates multiple Topic Phrases (TopP) in the sentence left periphery. Also, it is demonstrated that the subject –NP involves the apparition of the presumptive pronoun given the prominence of the latter. At the semantic level, the article indicates that topics in Guiziga are revelations about old information, rather than simple old information.

Index Terms—topicalization, upward movement, left periphery, multiple topics, revelation

I. INTRODUCTION

Topicality is a property of the nominal participants (referents), most commonly subject as objects of clauses, propositional information which are coded in state or event clauses. Some topical participant(s) in the state events are subject, direct object or indirect object of the clause. Typically, they are noun phrases (entities) rather than verbs (events) or adjectives (states). Whole events or states are always nominalised when they are made topical. In spite of being grammatically manifest at the clausal level, topicality is not a clause dependent property of referent, but a discourse well-coded clause of context. Otherwise, what makes participants topical is not the fact that they are grammatically coded as topical (subject, object) in the self-contained clause across a certain span of multi-clausal discourse, it is their status of being recurrent referents in the discourse.

The present article intends to describe the concept of topics in Guiziga, a Chadic language spoken in the Far-North region of Cameroon. The article is made up of nine sections.

II. THE LANGUAGE CLASSIFICATION AND WORD ORDER

A. The Language Classification

According to Ethnologues, Guiziga is classified under the Afro-Asiatic phylum, Chadic family and Biu-Mandara branch. The speakers inhabit primarily in the northern part of Cameroon and the south-western Chad. There are approximately 100,000 Guiziga native speakers. The basic word order in Guiziga is strictly SVO as illustrated in the example below:

a) Zrey á kidâm ballon ngi heney mutsohom
   Children SM.3pl play football Det. week past
   The children played football last week.

The direct complement must occur after the verb and be adjacent to it. Although in some Mandara languages, the subject NP can either appear in preverbal or post verbal position, in Guiziga, it is preferred in the preverbal position. The subject marker is positioned between the subject NP and the verb.

B. Guiziga: A Null Subject Language

Thematic subjects can be freely omitted in the language. As it is the case in Muyang and Mada (Bebey 2010 and 2015, Russel 2017 and Biloa 2019), Guiziga is said to be a null subject or pro-drop language. In other words, an empty category called pro is licensed in the language thematic subject position. So, if the NP subject “zrey” in (a) is dropped in the sentence (b) below, it will still be grammatically correct.

b) Pro á kidâm ballon ngi heney mutsohom
   SM.3pl play football Det. week past
   They played football last week.
On the surface form, Guiziga has High, Low, Middle tones. While HL falling tones do occur, LH rising tones are much rarer and appear never to occur on a single vowel. Our different examples such as sentences (a) and (b) of the preceding sections reveal that only vowels can carry tones in Guiziga.

IV. THE GUIZIGA SENTENCE PROJECTION

This section deals with the description of the Guiziga sentence. It analyzes its projection with a special focus on the different constituents.

A. The Guiziga Sentence: A Projection of the Agreement Phrase

Given the selection of the lexical item between the NP subject and the verb that bear their agreement features, Bebey (2015) proposes that the majority of Chadic languages are projections of the Agreement Phrase whose head is filled by the agreement or subject marker in the sense of Jean-Yves Pollock (1989) and subsequent works. Let us consider the following paradigm to see how the Guiziga sentence is structured.

a) Zráy arà keɗàm balon niŋ heney mutsohom lè
   Child-Pl SM.3pl play.TNS-P1 ball Det week last TNS.P1
   The children played football last week.

b) *Zráy keɗàm balon niŋ heney mutsohom lè
   Child-Pl play.TNS-P1 ball Det week last TNS.P1
   The children played football last week.

c) Peter à zubà Suzan lè
   Peter SM.3ps marry.TNS.P1 Suzan TNS.P1
   Peter married Suzan.

d) *Peter zubà Suzan lè
   Peter marry.TNS.P1 Suzan TNS.P1
   Peter married Suzan.

e) John à vulà dáf da Mary an̄y ngi ngadama
   John SM.3sg give.TNS-P1 food to Mary at house Def today
   John gave food to Mary in the house today.

f) À vulà dáf da Mary an̄y ngi ngadama
   SM.3sg give.TNS-P1 food to Mary at house Def today
   He gave food to Mary in the house today.

g) Mary à zum pan ngi hay ngi dubum meprik
   Mary SM.3sg eat.TNS-P1 bread Det house Det learning morning
   Mary ate bread in school this morning.

h) À zum pan ngi hay ngi dubum meprik
   SM.3sg eat.TNS-P1 bread Det house Det learning morning
   She ate bread in school this morning.

A sight at the structures of sentences (a), (c), (e) and (g) reveals that there is a lexically realised morpheme that occurs between the NP subject and the verb and bears their agreement features. In the absence of the subject nouns, as it is the case in (f) and (h), one realises that the constructions always remain acceptable. However, the language does not tolerate sentences without this lexical element like in sentences (b) and (d). Such an observation indicates those elements which mark subject or agreement properties are obligatory in Guiziga like in many Chadic languages (Bebey 2015, Biloa 2019), an analysis that comforts the assumptions that the Guiziga-type languages are projections of Agreement Phrase (AgrP). Thus, the agreement marker (the subject marker) fills the maximal projection of the AgrP that takes the NP subject as specifier and the verb as complement as illustrated in the familiar fashion:
When the tense is marked by tones, it is attached to the VP for the Economy Principle. The latter is projected when it is overt.

B. The Tense Phrase (TP)

In Guiziga, tense can be overtly marked and, of course, have a maximal projection occupied by a lexically realized tense marker.

1. Morphology

Richards and al. (1985) consider tense as the relationship between the phonetic form of the verb and the time of the action or state it describes. For Comrie (1986), it is a grammaticalized location in time. In Guiziga, tense is marked by tones and lexically realized morphemes. The past tense for instance is morphologically marked by the association of a Low Tone on the subject marker and the ultimate vowel of the verb and the morpheme lé. The constituent rá is used to mark the present progressive tense, while –sá is used for the simple future. Consider the examples below:

a) Ndur í zumám lé tá
   We SM.1pl eat.TNS TNS.P1 Neg
   We did not eat.

b) Ndur í tuwám lé tá
   We SM.1pl cry.TNS TNS.P1 Neg
   We did not cry.

One notices that when the sentence is negative, the tense marker is placed between the verb the negative marker at the terminal position.

2. The syntactic cartography of TP

In general, tense, particularly the simple past tense (P1), is overtly marked in Guiziga. Apart from the Low Tone on the subject marker and the verb last vowel, there is a lexically realized morpheme lè that occurs in the sentence final position. Let us look at the following sentences:

a) Seini à zubà  Suzan lè
   Seini SM.3sg marry Suzan TNS.P1
   Seini married Suzan.

b) Ndra í zumám ɗaf lè
   We  SM.1pl eat.TNS-P1 food TNS-P1
   We ate food.

c) Guizigahay à huvàm daw lè
   Guiziga-Pl SM.3pl cultivate millet TNS-P1
   The Guiziga people cultivated millet.

d) Guizigahay à huvàm daw
   Guiziga-Pl SM.3pl cultivate millet
   The Guiziga people cultivated millet.

e) I rá zum dáf
   SM.1sg go eat food
   I will eat food.

A remark is relevant when one considers the paradigm above: tense can be marked prosodically, lexically or by an adjacent occurrence of finite verbs. Questions that arise from this observation are the following:

- Does the Guiziga TP conform the Chomsky X-bar theory?
- Does Guiziga allow lowering?
- What accounts for the sentence linear order?

To answer those questions, let us assume that, for the Economy Principle as mentioned in the preceding section, the TP is attached to the VP when it is prosodically marked; it requires the projections of two Agreement Phrases when it is materialized by adjacent finite verbs as illustrated by the tree diagram below.
The sentence-final-position tense marking assumes that Guiziga is an example of languages that range higher constituents in the right periphery. Reasoning in the sense of Kayne (1994)'s LCA approach, a such construction supposes that the TP scopes over the sentence, then, the entire Agreement Phrase is piedpiped to the Spec,T in order to suit the language word order. The tree diagram that follows is more illustrative of such an analysis.
C. The Negation Phrase

Negation is very complex in African languages (Tamanji and Mutaka 2000). While it appears in duplicated morphemes with one copy occurring at the sentence final position in some languages, it is placed in the sentence beginning in others.

1. The negative sentence formation

Contrary to some Chadic languages which select numerous markers, Guiziga uses tá as the morpheme sentential negation. Let us consider the examples below:

a) Dada á züm tá
   Mother SM.3sg eat Neg
   Mother is not eating.

b) Anta á rám tá
   They SM.3pl go Neg
   They are not going.

c) Nang á züm tá
   He SM.3sg eat Neg
   He has not eaten.

d) John á kidâ Suzan lé tá
   John SM.3sg beat.TNS Suzan TNS.P1 Neg
   John did not beat Suzan.

e) Ndra i zumâm lé tá
   We SM.1pl eat.TNS TNS.P1 Neg
   We did not eat.

f) Ndra i tûwâm lé tá
   We SM.1pl cry.TNS TNS.P1 Neg
   We did not cry.

Here, one notices that the distribution of the unique negation morpheme tá is fixed: it is based in the sentence final position, after the tense morpheme when the latter is overt. However, one should note that in Guiziga, the sentential negation marker is not different from adverbs of negations.

2. The structure of NegP

Let us observe the structure of the Guiziga negative sentences that follow:

a) Seini á zubà Suzan tá
   Seini SM.3sg marry.TNS-P1 Suzan Neg
   Seini did not marry Suzan.

b) Ndra i zumâm daf tá
   We SM.1pl eat-TNS.P1 food Neg
   We did not eat food.

c) Guizigahay á huvàm daw tá
   Guizigahay SM.3pl cultivate millet Neg
   The Guiziga people did not cultivate millet.

d) *Guizigahay á huvàm daw lé tá
   Guizigahay SM.3pl cultivate millet TNS.P1 Neg
   The Guiziga people did not cultivate millet.

Sentences above show that the negation marker stands in the sentence final position. Also, one notices that it competes with the overt tense marker in (d). It is the low tone bore by both the agreement marker and the verb ultimate vowel that indicates tense. This remark reveals that piedpiping and remnant movement are operational, in the sense of Kayne (1994), Nkemnji (1995) and Bebey (2015), to account for the linear order of the language, meaning that the Negation Phrase (NegP) dominates the entire sentence which shifts to Spec,T and from TP to Spec, Neg as we can see on the following tree marker.
V. TOPIC MORPHOLOGY

Let us consider the following sentences.

a) Maï, ------ á sá zladibisé antá
   Princess SM.3sg fut sing song
   The princess, she will sing a song.

b) Ballon, zrey à kidâm ------ ngi heney mutsohom
   Football, children SM.3pl play.TNS.P1 Det. week last
   Football, the children played last week

Sentences (a) and (b) above show that in Guiziga, each time there is topicalization, the target constituent moves upward to occupy a pre-predicative (sentence initial) position. It is separated from the corresponding predicative by punctuation. Contrary to Muyang (Bebey 2015 and 2018), Mandara, Mada, Zulgo, etc. which are biu-mandara Chadic languages, topicalizers are not attested in Guiziga. Moreover, the topicalized constituents do not occur in the sentence final position like other C-constituents such as interrogatives and focused elements that characterize Chadic languages. In fact, topicalization is not lexically indicated. This remark is an indication that this syntactic operation is one of the most complex in the study of the morphology and the syntax of the sentence left periphery in Guiziga’s phylum and no generalization of analyses could account for the structures of all the languages.

VI. TOPIC EXTRACTION AND COREFERENCE

Some Chadic languages require lexical items to mark topicalization. Contrary to interrogation and focalization that shift the target constituents, they are placed in sentence initial each time there is topicalization as demonstrated in Bebey (2015 and 2018). Let us consider the following sentences to see how it occurs in Guiziga:

a) Zrey à kidâm ballon ngi heney mutsohom
   Children SM.3pl play-TNS.P1 football Det week past
   The children played football last week.

b) Zrey, tang à kidâm ballon ngi heney mutsohom
   Children they SM.3pl play-TNS.P1 football Det week last
   Children, they played football last week.

c) Ballon, zrey à kidâm ------- ngi heney mutsohom
   Football, children SM.3pl play-TNS.P1 Det week last
   Football, the children played last week.

d) Ngi heney mutsohom, zrey ná kidā-ka ballon ----------
   Ngi heney mutsohom, zrey ná kidākā ballon
   Det week last children SM.3pl play-TNS.P2 football
   Last week, the children have played football.

e) Peter à zubà Susan
   Peter SM.3sg marry-TNS.P1 Susan
   Peter married susan

f) Peter, nang à zubà-m-vule á i Susan
A sight at the paradigm above reveals that each time the NP-Subject is topicalized, it shifts from its original position to the sentence left periphery. While doing so, a lexically materialised personal pronoun which bears the same grammatical references occupies its trace. This rule does not apply to the other grammatical functions: direct object, indirect object, circumstantial complements of time, place, etc. When the latter are topicalized, the target elements also move to the sentence left periphery, but there is no pronoun occurrence at the non-lexical empty trace created at their originate position.

The above remark raises the question to know what accounts for the grammaticality of the Guiziga-type sentences that tolerates NP-subject and Subject-pronoun to coconstrue, for such sentences would sound ungrammatical given the government and C-command principles. In fact, the Subject-Pronoun that appears between the potential c-commander and its trace would prevent any relationship between the two constituents in the sense of Rizzi (2001).

According to Bebey (2015), subjects are prominent in some syntactic transformations such as topicalization in Chadic languages. Their movement requires the occurrence of a personal pronoun that bears the same agreement features with the NP-topicalized subject. In sentence (h) for instance, “John” and “nang” are both 3rd singular person. Their coconstruction supposes that government and c-commands have taken place before the appearance of the subject-pronoun.

The absence of topicalizers is an indication that the maximal projection of the Topic Phrase is empty in Guiziga. The target constituent moves from its original position to the Spec,Top as illustrated in the familiar fashion:

![Diagram of multiple topics](image)

**Suzan, Seini married her.**

### VII. Multiple Topics

Guiziga tolerates multiple constituents to be topicalized within the same syntactic construction. Sentences (a), (c) and (d) below give more illustrations.

a) John, ngadama, arhay ngi di dáf, nang à vulà dáf, da Aplamvu --- -----  
   John, today, house Det of food, he SM.3sg give-TNS.P1 food to Aplamvu
John, today, in the kitchen, gave food to Mary"
b) Nguakay à züm pàn ngi hay ngi dubum ngi meprik
   Nguakay SM.3sg eat-TNS.P1 bread house Det learn Det morning
   Nguakay ate bread in school this morning.

c) Ngï hay ngi dubum, ngi meprik, Nguakay à züm pàn ------, -----,
   Det house of knowledge, Det morning, Nguakay SM.3sg eat.TNS.P1 bread
   In school, this morning, Nguakay ate bread.

d) Zrey, ngi hiney, mutsohom, tang à kidâ-ka ------
   Zrey, ngi hiney, mutsohom, tang à kidákà
   Children Det week last they SM.3pl play.TNS.P2
   The children, last week, played football.

An observation of the sentences (a-d) shows that when there is a number of important information to convey within
the same discourse, the speaker can topicalize two or many syntactic constituents in Guiziga. All the target elements are
extracted out to the sentence beginning position leaving multiple empty traces in their respective original positions.
Their order in the sentence left periphery depends on the relevance of information expressed by each constituent. In fact,
the most relevant information stands higher than the less relevant information. In other languages such as Muyang
(Bebey 2018), this range implies the use of special topicalizers that precise the kind and semantic value of the
information: extraordinary, dangerous, important, etc.

The analysis above assumes that there are multiple Topic Heads in the Guiziga sentence beginning position. Given
the reasoning in the preceding section related to the emptiness of the maximal projection of TopP, it supposes that each
target constituent moves to Spec,Top and individually governs and c-commands its trace. The ungrammaticality of the
following sentences is more illustrative of that analysis:

ej) *Ngï hay ngi dubum, ngi meprik, Nguakay à züm pàn ----, ngadama
   *In school, this morning, Nguakay ate bread today.

   In (e), "ngadama" (today) circumstantial complement of time prevents "ngi meprik" (this morning) to properly
govern and c-command its trace. The two constituents have the same grammatical references.

The movement of the topicalized subject in (7) is not visible because it is deleted by the apparition of the resumptive
pronoun “tang” (they). Let us look at the following sentence for further illustrations:

f) John, ngadama, arhay ngi di dáf, nang à vuá dáf da Mary ........ .......
   "John, today, house Det. of food, he SM.3sg give food to Mary
   John, today, in the kitchen, he gives food to Mary"

   One realises that superposed topics are prosodically punctuated according to the syntactic adequacy of the
information structure in relation to the specific interactional context. Sentence (f) above demonstrates that a pitch
progression of the topicalized “John”, “ngadama”, “arhay ngi di dáf” supposes that the same level marks not only that
they are connected in terms of intonation but even in terms of information: all of them are introduced into the
interlocution for the first time and consequently, bring along relatively salient content. Equally important is the fact that
their information load is of the same impotence. Moreover, the privileged intonation-information structure of these topics is also consolidated by their close intensity values.

VIII. SEMANTIC PERCEPTION OF TOPICS

In Guiziga, topics are old but pertinent information whose comment provides precision, details, etc. Let us consider the meaning of topics in the following sentence:

Daf, John à vùlá ------- da Aplamvù arhay ngì ni ngadàma
Food John SM.3sg give-TNS.P1. to Aplamvu house Det of today
Some food, John gave to Aplamvu in the kitchen today.

Although “daf” is an old information in the syntactic construction above, it seems to bring a new information that the listener has been ignoring. Its left hand extraction makes it particularly extraordinary. The target element is perceived as known information that requires all attentions to which the speaker invites his interlocutor who is supposed to learn more than he knew before.

Contrary to literatures on topicalization, the above definition assumes that topics in languages like Guiziga are not only old information, but a revelation about old information. The remnant sentence, which is the comment of the topic, becomes additional information that gives details and precision about it. In fact, one resorts to topicalization when there is extraordinary and special old information.

IX. CONCLUSION

One set out in this work to discuss topics in Guiziga using a cartographic perspective and came out with the conclusion that, first, it is a null-subject language, a projection of the Agreement Phrase that hosts agreement or subject markers. Then, it is noticed that topics in the language are not lexically marked like it is the case with most Chadic languages. It was also analyzed in the sense of Kayne (1994) that negation and overt tense scope over the Guiziga sentence to suit the language linear order. Concerning topicalization, analyses revealed that the language, which does not select topicalizers, shifts the target constituents to the sentence left periphery where they occupy the Spec, Top.

Finally, one discovered that Guiziga tolerates the coconstruction of topicalised multiple constituents within the same syntactic constructions. As far as topics’ semantic value is concerned, one discovered that in this Chadic language, topicalization gives more than simple old information.

REFERENCES

Mbu M. Njui was born in the South West Region of Cameroon. She obtained a PhD in linguistics from the University of Yaoundé 1 Cameroon in 2016. She is currently a Senior lecturer at the Higher Teachers' Training College University of Maroua Cameroon. Her research interest includes general and African linguistics.

Théodore Bebey was born in Tokombere on 20th of March 1985. He obtained a PhD in General and Applied linguistics in 2015. He is currently an Assistant lecturer at the Faculty of Arts Letters and Social Sciences University of Maroua-Cameroon. His research interest is General and Applied Linguistics.
Speech Act Analysis of Dame Patience Jonathan’s Speeches

Bestman Esegbuyiota Odeh
Department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria

Augustina Ngozi Eze
Department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria

Bridget, O. Dioka
Department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria

Chinaza Loveline Ugochukwu
Department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria

Abstract—This research work is centered on the speech act analysis of Dame Patience Jonathan. The main objectives of the work are to identify the types of speech acts in the selected Dame Patience’s speeches as well as to discover its effects on the citizens of the country. The theoretical framework adopted for data analysis is Searle’s speech act theory. For the analysis, only three speeches of Dame Patience Jonathan will be used. The speeches include: Chibok girls speech, campaign speeches at Umuahia and Calabar. The study finds out that the speeches could have caused chauvinism and rivalry as well as proving that the then government is inept in solving the problem at hand. The findings also reveal different types of speech acts used by Dame Patience Jonathan using Searle’s speech act classification. The work identifies Declarative Speech act, Representative Speech act, Commisive speech acts and Directive speech act. The work also discovers how politicians such as Dame Patience Jonathan used language in such a way to manipulate the listeners/citizens. Furthermore, the work discusses the effect of Dame Patience Jonathan’s speeches on the people and how the people/citizens reacted to the speeches. The study recommended that if political figure wants to make a speech or address the citizens, s/he should weigh the speech and its consequence.

Index Terms—speech act, Chibok girls, political discourse, election

I. INTRODUCTION

Nigeria, as at the tenure of President Goodluck Jonathan, was faced with terrorism, kidnapping, high rate of mortality etc. The country was in chaos as several states were attacked by Boko Haram and other terrorists’ groups. Several government spokespersons tried in their words to address the citizens on the ways the issues are being handled. This paper therefore seeks to analyze some selected speeches of Dame Patience Jonathan, the wife of the Former President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, since she was one of the important figures that tried in her own way to proffer solution to the situation. In Nigeria federal system of government, the status of the first lady of Nigeria is an informal but accepted office held by the wife of The President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. The world is characterized by conflicting ideological stances. Many people are still vulnerable to the oratorical prowess of politicians and are influenced easily by ideologies that are imagined in the speeches of political actors. Irrespective of these scholarly researches, no speech act research has been done in the area of analyzing the speeches of Dame Patience Jonathan. The ability to use language to persuade or manipulate is more prominent in the lives and activities of politicians.

Dame Patience Jonathan is the wife of Goodluck Jonathan, the Former President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. Before her position as the first lady of Nigeria, she had been in the educational sector where she taught for some time before she was transferred to the Ministry of Education where she worked before her husband became the Deputy Governor of the state in the year 1999. She however became the first lady of Bayelsa state from 2005 to 2007 when her husband became the Governor. Again, her husband became the vice president of Nigeria and subsequently the president which elevated her status. However, this made her the first lady of the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

Given the enormous domestic and global significance of the said speeches in times of national political turmoil (insecurity, insurgency, and bad state of economy) in Nigeria, it is crucial to decipher ideological traits typical of Dame Patience embedded in her speeches. In other words, this research work tends to examine how far her speeches saved the situation of the country at that time as well as the effects they had on the people. The interest of this work lies on how Dame Patience Jonathan used words in her speech. The study is set to examine and find out whether her speeches were able to help her in the political battles during her husband’s regime, either by persuading his audience or masses with her adequate use of language. The specific objectives are to identify the speech act types that manifest in the selected
speech, assess the manner in which the speeches of Dame Patience Jonathan portray her manipulative intent and to analyse the effect of her speeches on the audience.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Quite a vast number of researchers have carried out researches on speech especially political speeches which show similarities with the one under study.

A prominent contribution on speech analysis was the research conducted by Omozuwa and Ezejideaku (2009) on the stylistic analysis of the language of political campaigns in Nigeria. Here, the authors set out to unravel the significance of the aesthetic use of language in campaign speech. They observe that political campaign language is characterized by propaganda through attack on party, exaggeration, vagueness and diatribes. Furthermore, the language of campaigns is characterized by pidgin, coinages, allusion, promises, literary language, repetitions and they are rhetorics in figurative term.

In the study conducted by Agbede (2011) on “fuel subsidy removal and mind game in Nigerian: a critical discourse analysis perspective”, he critically examines how the Nigerian government employs the role of language to influence the opinions and views of the generality of the Nigerians. The research employed the theoretical and methodological aspect of Critical Discourse Analysis. The government use language in order to make the citizens support their moves intended towards the removal of the subsidy which will invariably results in an increase in the price of petroleum products. He observed that dominant groups in our contemporary society use all shades and hues of language to create coercive tactics, persuasion and or interpersonal and group base influence, manipulation to control public discourse and run unpopular policies down the throat of the silent majority or populace equally appropriates the vocative power of discourse and accesses to the media to resist the systemic class domination and oppression.

Taking a glance in the study conducted by Ahamefula and Okoye (2012) entitled *felicity or insincerity: The pragmatics of selected speeches of Nigeria public leaders*; they looked at the use of language by the then president of Nigeria, Chief Olusegun Obasanjo and pointed out on their study that the then president violates the basic tenets of the Gricean cooperative principle and Austin’s felicity conditions which all propagate the need for good communication between and among people and groups of people. Thus, they pointed the following expressions in the president’s word which they observed from their finding to buttress their point: “this idiot, go get a job” _ a statement he used against the media chiefs to express his frustration towards their attempts to analyze and broadcast his words and actions as the president; “shut up” - his outburst to the victims of the Ikeja Military Cantonment Bomb blast when they cried out to him.

Alo (2012) examines the political speeches of well known African leaders with a look of viewing how politicians beg the Africans on the expediency of different political and socio-economic policies and plans to facilitate African economic recovery and development. The study also looked at a rhetorical analysis of selected political speeches of famous African leaders where it gathered that the speeches of African leaders are preoccupied with the political and socioeconomic problems of the continent and the need for change. The study revealed four dominant ideological preoccupations which are: national unity, nationalism, globalism and self – reliance.

Waya and Nneji (2013) in their work adopted the Speech Act Theory of Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) in the analysis of the speech corpus. Using the Overall Relative Frequency Percentage (ORFP) as a methodological technique, the study discovers that Jonathan made use of assertive acts than other speech acts. The study revealed that the sentences that were vindictive and directive made way for him to assert authority and exercise constitutional power as the president. The study concluded that good governance becomes visible and possible if the leaders work in line with their beautiful promises. Therefore, the paper seeks to fill a major gap by examining the ideological component of change adopted by Dame Patience Jonathan in her abduction of Chibok girls, campaign speeches and people democratic party (PDP) women presidential rally.

Aboh (2016) studied Jega speeches during the 2015 Nigeria general election. The main purposes of the work are to identify the extent at which Jega’s speeches reflect the values of INEC and the outcomes of Jega’s electoral speeches. The researcher adopted cooperative principle and critical discourse analysis for analysis of data. For the analysis of Jega’s two speeches, he adopted the descriptive method. Having used the maxims of cooperative principle, the researcher observed that the whole sections fulfilled the maxim of quantity. He added that the speech A fulfilled the maxim of quality but speech B flouted the maxim, thus committing a conversational implicature. The researcher also noted that Jega’s speeches reflected the values of INEC. The values include: autonomy, integrity, credibility, equity, impartiality, dedication, excellence, transparency and teamwork. The study also stated that the informative power of Jega’s speeches is very strong as it lured people to act positively towards the information. The study recommended that anyone preparing for a speech should do that meticulously in order to ensure a value-added speech. Also, other researchers should endeavor to study the speeches of various stakeholders who are not really politicians.

In the same vein, Chukwu (2016) looked into President Muhammadu Buhari’s language use using Critical Discourse Analysis as its framework. The speeches for this work were gotten via internet and newspaper and are selected using purposive sampling method. The study provided insights to the strategies adopted by Muhammadu Buhari in his speeches. These include: deployment of pronoun, propaganda and presentation of topical issues, etc. The study exposed the fact Buhari made use of adequate pronouns in uniting and aligning himself with the electorate and masses. The
study also reveals his use of propaganda which served as a linguistic tool for the defamation of rival’s character and upliftment of personal image. Conclusively, the study noted that Buhari’s language use is aimed at diverse purposes ranging from his aim to manipulate the mindset of the electorate so as to get their trust and his desire to impress the masses and foreign representatives.

Nwoye (2017) evaluated selected media interviews of Government spokesperson and the citizens of Nigeria. The study investigates the discursive strategies employed by the government and Nigerian citizens on some crucial national issues in order to reveal power and dominance. The study sampled twenty media interviews from which forty-seven were utterances extracted and analyzed. The research revealed that both the government and citizens used these pro-forms: ‘we’, ‘I’, ‘our’, ‘you’ and ‘me’ respectively. The study stated that it is within solidarity that their pronouns were used to establish oneness and attraction of public sympathy. The government used some of the pro-forms to represent the government as an entity that is inclusive in their discharge of duty, while the citizen used the pro-forms to attract sympathy, challenge and encourage the government. Framing as a strategy is employed by both sides of the discourse as pointed out by the researcher. On the side of the government, framing accounts for the ways government spokesperson apportion blame on the past government. On the part of the citizens, blame are shifted to the government and the President respectively.

From the reviews thus far, it can be seen that none of the researchers have carried any research on the Speech Act Analysis of Dame Patience Jonathan. The reviews show that political speeches have several effects on the citizens. Most speeches are employed by government for ulterior motives. The research tends to fill the gaps seen from the previous studies.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Speech act theory

Speech act theory is a crucial aspect of pragmatics. It is based on how a speaker understands an utterance. This theory was put forward firstly by Austin in 1962 in his work entitled “how to do things with words”. Austin (1962) notes that one thing many utterances do is to make propositions. Propositions are presented basically in form of statements, questions or other grammatical forms. These utterances are linked with happenings in a world possible. Searle (1969) further threw more lights on the theory.

Speech act is seen as the actions performed in saying something (Austin, 1962). The utterances are classified into two: constatives and performatives. Constatives are seen as utterances that can be evaluated along a dimension of truth. According to Morris (2007), Austin began not by focusing on sentences which seem to belong grammatically to that type but which look odd in a more unsettling way. These sentences which Austin called performatives, seem not to describe anything in the world at all, and so seem not to be true or false. Instead, Morris notes further that they seem to get something done. In using performative utterance, a person is not just saying something but is actually doing something at the same time if certain real world conditions are met. In the world of speech acts, attention has been shifted to realizing an utterance in a speech act situation rather than on sentence construction. (cf. Wardhaugh, 2006). Austin noted clearly the contrast between constative utterances and performative utterances. Performative utterances consist of performative verbs which spell out clearly the illocutionary forces of the sentences. Examples of such verbs are: acquit, abolish, accept, admonish, advise, affirm, announce, apologise, ask, assent, authorize, beg, query, promise, order, recommend, resign, swear, reject, christen, sanction, and prescribe (cf. Agbedo, 2015). Osasinwo (2003) notes that constatives are verbs that are used to make statements, describing situations, events, state of affairs, observing phenomena and asserting their truth or otherwise. These constative verbs are grouped as descriptive, ascriptive, retractive, assiative, dispositive, responsive and suggestive.

Austin further distinguished actions performed when an utterance is being produced in three segments: locutionary (the act of saying something, illocutionary (what one does in saying it) and perlocutionary (what one does by saying it). Searle (1976) grouped speech acts into five categories. They are: assertive, directive, commissive, expressive, effective, verdictive and quotation. Following Agbedo (2015) idea, assertive acts employed phrases to form in the addressee’s specific idea, proposition or belief. With assertive, the speaker commits himself to something being true. The directive acts beckon on the speaker to act, but do not require the sender to return any action of his own. Commissive act has to do with committing oneself to future action. Expressive act has to do with expression of feelings or emotion to the receiver. It involves one’s psychological state of reasoning while declarative speech act is grouped into effective and verdictive speech act (cf. Clark, 1996). The effective and verdictive speech acts according to Clark are the same but with slight difference. The effective and verdictive acts require the sender to be in power in an institution. The difference lies in the fact that effective speech acts are those utterances that are able to change institutional state of affairs while verdictive acts refer to judgments made by persons vested with specific institutional power.

Searle (1969) approached speech act analysis from a different light. He identified two types of speech act as: direct and indirect speech. In addition to this, Searle (1976) also classified speech act theory into the following large-scale classes:

1. Declaration: by declaration, we mean words and expression that change the world by their utterance. The utterance one gives is what brings changes to the world. For examples; I bet, I pronounce, I declare, I baptize
etc. I Baptise this boy, John Okafor which changes a baby that has no name to one with a name. Another example: I pronounce you husband and wife who changes the status of the people from single to married.

2. Representatives: they are what speakers are convinced to be the state of things. Examples include: hypothesizing, describing, predicting, claiming etc.

3. Commisives: These are acts in which the words are meant for the addressee to carry out an action. In other words, it commits the speaker to take some futuristic action. Examples include: ‘volunteering’, ‘inviting’ ‘guaranteeing’, ‘swearing’, ‘offering’, ‘promising’, ‘agreeing’ etc.

4. Directives: this class contains acts in which the words are meant to make the addressee carry out an action. Examples are requesting, suggesting, inviting, commanding, forbidding etc.

5. Expressives: this class has to do with the speaker’s feeling. This refers to expression of some psychological state. Examples are: ‘deploring’, ‘praising’, ‘regretting’ ‘apologizing’ and ‘congratulating’.

From the discussion above, it is seen that there are different types of speech acts as proposed by Austin (1962) and Searle (1976). For this work, Searle (1976) classification of speech act will be used for analysis of data.

IV. DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

The data for analysis are three speeches of Dame Patience Jonathan (henceforth, DPJ), which are: the speech in reaction to the abduction of the Chibok girls (henceforth referred to as ‘Speech A’), campaign speech at Umuahia (Speech B), and campaign speech at Calabar (Speech C). These speeches will be analysed using Searle’s Speech Acts Theory.

A. Types of Speech Acts in Dame Patience’s Speeches

In this part of analysis, the speech acts types that manifest in the speeches under study will be categorised and analysed.

1. Declarative speech acts

Declarative speech acts are those utterances or expressions that change the world by their utterance. This type of speech act can be referred to as assertives. In Speech A, DPJ made a declarative speech act when she said:

There is God o! There is God o! The bloods we are sharing, there is God o!

From the above excerpt, the statement, ‘There is God o’ asserts or declares the existence of a Being, who oversees the actions of human beings. This assertive statement draws the attention of the perpetrators of violence, especially the Boko Haram sect that kidnapped the Chibok girls that there is a God who will judge them in the ‘bloods’ they are sharing. In the same speech, the statement contains element of assertiveness or declaration:

Do you come with two teachers? You were not informed, too? Eh? Kontinu (Continue). No Problem.

From the utterance above, after the interrogative constructions, DPJ ended with a declarative statement, ‘Kontinu. No problem.’ This declaration establishes her stance on the matter, which enables readers and the audience to ascertain the position of DPJ on the matter.

More so, in speech B, DPJ referred to her husband, Goodluck Jonathan, as ‘talk na do’, which means that her husband is a man of his words. She went further to expatiate her utterance by saying, ‘He does whatever he says.’ These declarative speech acts substantiate the character of the person being referred to i.e. Goodluck Jonathan. Evident in these speech acts is the knowledge the speaker knows, to an extent the person referred to and believes in what he can do. Instances can be drawn from the campaign speeches in Umuahia:

“Our Los Angeles is here, our L.A is here, our boys can do it, our women can do it, we don’t need L.A, we don’t need Los Angeles”.

Here, the statement shows that DPJ knows what the husband, Goodluck Jonathan has achieved during his tenure.

2. Representative speech acts

Representative speech acts commit the speaker to what he/she said. In Speech A, an instance of a representative speech act is, “God will see us.” In this speech act, DPJ commits herself in the discourse. The personal pronoun ‘us’ used in the utterance is an in-group or inclusive one. This then means that God sees us in all that we do. Indirectly, the implication of the statement is that even in her public and private dealings, God sees her. With this interpretation, she also commits herself to what she said. However, she accepts the fact that God sees everybody and no one is exempted even her.

In Speech B, another utterance that contains elements of a representative speech act is:

If we have not done well, come out and challenge me.

A closer look at the above excerpt suggests that DPJ sees herself and her husband as people who are open to criticism and ready to answer to their actions. This statement commits her in the sense that she has opened the doorway of criticisms both constructive and destructive. However, this implies that if in the nearest future, the masses begin to question the government of she and her husband, no one will stop them (the masses) or speak ill of them because DPJ has surrendered herself for criticisms and challenge.

In Speech B as well, DPJ made another representative speech act when she said:

If my husband decides to come back after eight years again, I will drag him inside the house and tell him to allow the younger ones to rule.
From the above, representative speech act commits DPJ to what she has said. This commitment requires her to keep to her promise if all conditions are met. These conditions are if they win the 2015 presidential election and complete eight years in office. Because these conditions were not met due to the fact that Goodluck Jonathan lost in the presidential race, the execution of the speech acts was not obtainable. In addition, representative speech act entails that the speaker must fulfill the commitment he/she has made to the audience.

3. Commisive speech acts
Commisive speech act commits speakers to some future actions like offering, promising, or swearing. An instance of commissives was found in Speech A.

Now the first lady is calling you: come I want to help you. Come to find your child missing child...

The above statement is commissive in nature because of its promising content. In this statement, DPJ is committing herself to help parents find their missing children. This implies that the then government is doing everything within their strength to save the missing children. Be it as it may, one striking thing embedded in her speech act is a promise.

In Speech B, DPJ made the following statements:
I vow to do more, I vow to do more, we are going to do more. If you vote for Goodluck come March 28, 2015, he will do more. My husband, the President of Nigeria, is ‘talk na do’. He does whatever he says.

DPJ in the above assertions promises the electorates on behalf of her husband that he will do more than he has done in the previous years as the President. In the same vein, she offers a better Nigeria if her husband is re-elected into power.

In addition, in Speech C, DPJ made another statement that has commisive speech act:
…Baby wait let me go and vote baby wait let me Exercise my Mandate, Baby wait let me go and do what I will use to feed you. You won’t die, let me go and vote, after voting, I will come and deliver you, and you won’t die because Goodluck has given all the safety measures, you won’t die.

This statement was made in Calabar referring to pregnant women who would want to be delivered of their baby before voting. DPJ addressed them by telling them they will not die even if they leave the hospital where they should be going for childbirth and come to polling unit. The reason behind this is the ideology that Goodluck has given all the safety measures. This statement made the speech act a commisive one because of the promise it contains. After criticising the opposition, she offered continuity in the following words,

“From old age nothing, so nothing like change. Rather (it) is continuity.”

This then implies that she and her husband will continue in their bid of transforming Nigeria for good.

4. Directive speech acts
This category covers act in which the words are meant at making the hearer do something, such as commanding, requesting, inviting, forbidding or suggesting. In Speech A, DPJ said:

The above statement is a directive one because she is inviting the parents of the missing girls to come to her so that they will brainstorm on how to rescue the kidnapped girls. In “Will you keep quiet?” suggests to the mothers what they should not do, which is not to keep quiet but to do something to address their situation. In addition, her statement that ‘she will drag her husband inside the house if he wants to come back after eight years’, is a directive speech acts in the sense that she forbids her husband of not giving the youths the chance to rule the country. Also, in Speech B, the statement, “If we have not done well, come out and challenge” is a directive speech acts because through it, DPJ invites the masses to come and conduct a check and balance on her and the husband.

Admittedly, in Speech C, DPJ made the following directive speech acts:
Anybody that comes and tell you change, stone that person. Anybody that comes and tell you he will change, stone that person.

Even though belle (pregnancy) is disturbing you, tell it baby, baby let me go and vote. Baby wait let me go and exercise my mandate.

In the first excerpt, DPJ commands, suggests or directs her audience on what they are going to do in a scenario when someone approaches them with a change mantra, which is to stone the person. In the second one, she suggests that a woman due for delivery should choose her franchise over childbirth because according to her, her husband has taken care of everything. As such, she will not have any complications or die in the process of childbirth after exercising her franchise.

5. Expressive speech acts
This last type of speech act includes words that state the way the speaker feels such as apologising, praising, congratulating, deploring, and regretting. In Speech A, an instance of expressive is seen in the statement of DPJ where she says:
There is God. There is God in everything we are doing. Those bloods that are sharing in Bronu [Bornu] will answer.
The above statement has a deploring content because it condemns and expresses strong disapproval of the kidnapping of the Chibok girls. In this statement, DPJ expresses her mind and her position in the situation at hand. She expresses that Boko Haram who masterminded the kidnapping should know that there is God who sees their bad conduct. More so, she expresses that the blood of those killed will one-day torment them.

From the above analysis, DPJ made use of three speech acts each for declarative, and representative. On the other hand, DPJ made four commissive speech acts and four directive speech acts. Only one expressive speech act was identified in the analysis. The number of these speech acts has its implication. The number of expressive speech acts is one because DPJ never wanted disclose herself openly so that her words will not be used against her. Her ideologies are what she revealed through declarative and representative speech acts. Commisives and directives are four each, thus recording the highest numbers, because DPJ believed that these speech acts will go a long way in making her and husband to emerge victorious in the presidential election. These speech acts have their manipulative intent and the exegesis of these speech acts is the major preoccupation of the next section in this work.

B. The Manner in Which the Speeches of Dame Patience Jonathan Portray Her Manipulative Intent

Another aspect of speech acts theory is illocutionary force, which is what the speaker does with his word, the role of the words, the specific idea that the speaker has in mind. During electioneering period, politicians or campaigners use many forms of manipulative words to make the hearers do their bidding.

In Speech A, the repetitive use of ‘There is God o’ for eight times is manipulative. DPJ uses it to drive her message home and emphasizes on what she wants to communicate. This repetitive way of using language sends a message to the audience that DPJ is concerned about what has happened, which is the kidnapping of Chibok girls. In effect, if people had wanted to accuse her of being indifferent or not being a caring mother, with this, she has exonerated herself.

Continuing, inviting the mothers of the kidnapped girls in the following words, “Now the First Lady is calling you” creates in the mind of the intended audience that she is concerned about their well being. The use of ‘First Lady’ did not come accidentally. The phrase, ‘First Lady’ was used in expectancy that the people being invited would know that it is not an ordinary person that is calling them but the wife of the President. It also creates the notion that a ‘First Lady’ can be of a good use in Nigeria opposed to those who aim at scrapping the office of the First Lady. Admittedly, in order to complete her manipulative intents, she shed tears in front of Nigerians, which passed a message of grief, motherly care, and the commitment of Goodluck led administration in rescuing the kidnapped Chibok girls. This combination of verbal and nonverbal modes of communication made Nigerians not to criticise the Government the way they have planned. In fact, the speech resulted in an ‘accidental humour’ because Nigerians left the issue at hand and started discussing the First Lady’s speech and making a joke of her statements, “Nah only you waka come?” ‘The bloods we are sharing” …etc. This gave her time to think of what next to do.

In Speech B, the utterances of DPJ have its manipulative contents. In the statement, “If we have not done well, come out and challenge me,” it sends the message of self-confidence. The implication of the statement is that she and her husband have done well to the extent that the criticisms or challenge they will face is seemingly negligible. When someone invites another to challenge him/her, the speaker is confident that the hearer will not have much to say. The manipulative intent, therefore, embedded in the above utterance is meant to create an impression in the minds of the hearers that Goodluck led administration has performed well. It also connotes that they (Goodluck and DPJ) that practice democracy in the sense that they entertain the opinions and criticisms of the masses. But one may begin to wonder why DPJ started with a plural pronoun ‘they’ and ends with a singular pronoun ‘me.’ A closer look at it tends to suggest that she makes all decisions so she is responsible for all of them. This might be a scenario where the axiom that men are the head but women are the neck that turns the head becomes appropriate.

Put differently, it may mean that Goodluck is not a domineering or secretive husband in the sense that he does not hide anything from the wife. This might be the rationale behind DPJ offering herself to be challenged because she is been carried along in all political decisions and activities. In the same speech, DPJ said that she will not allow her husband to come back after eight years because the younger ones should be given the chance to rule. There are two implications of this statement that showcase her manipulative intent. Firstly, she is throwing jibes at All Progressive Congress’ (APC) flag bearer, Muhammadu Buhari who was seventy years in 2015, to exit the presidential race and leave it for younger ones. This is expected to pass a message to the electorates that they should not vote for an old man during the election because his brain is backward. Secondly, DPJ through her statement wishes to draw the support of the youths to vote for her husband because she will make sure that they are given the opportunity to rule after four years. If the illocutionary force of this statement yields the desired effects, the youths will be left with no option than to vote for someone who acknowledges their existence and the role they play in governance. In essence, making promises is one of the ways DPJ manipulates her audience. Promises increase their hopes and trust. This act of promising can as well be found in the statement, “If you vote for Goodluck come March 28, 2015, he will do more.” For her, Goodluck has done greater things than his predecessor and if Nigerians want to continue to enjoy the good governance offered by Goodluck and need more, they should vote for Goodluck in the coming election.

Furthermore, DPJ was out to convince Nigerians to hate APC with passion. Through hate speech and derogatory words, DPJ emphasised APC’s shortcomings and PDP’s successes. When DPJ said that ‘people should stone anybody that comes with change (referring to APC because of their change mantra),’ she manipulated the audience in such a way that they will not see anything good that comes from APC. As such, no one will be eager to vote for someone he/she
stoned during the electioneering period. DPJ further explained that Buhari did not achieve anything in his youth and hence nothing can be achieved in old age. This is evident in the excerpt below:

**What you did not do in Kirikiri, is now that old age has caught up with you, you want to come and change? You can’t change, rather you will turn back to a baby. You will turn back to a baby. From old age nothing, so nothing like change.**

From here, the person being referred to is Buhari who according to DPJ did not achieve anything when he was the Military Head of State at a very young age. By implication, Buhari cannot achieve anything now that he is old. By digging up history, DPJ tried to manipulate the electorate by making them know that what Buhari could not achieve at a youthful age will be difficult to be achieved in old age. Indirectly, since her husband is younger than Buhari, DPJ invites all to vote for a fresh blood instead of an old man.

Finally, the statement, “**Goodluck has given all the safety measures. You won’t die,**” has a manipulative intent in the sense that it promises the pregnant women that no harm will befall them if they go to the polling stations to vote because the president has put everything in proper shape. If there were to be any pregnant woman who was afraid of voting because of the violence that takes place in polling stations, her fears will be subsided because a promise has been made to her.

C. **Effects of Dame Patience Jonathan Speeches on the Citizens**

This section focuses on the effects of the speeches studied above on the citizens. In other words, it centers on discovering if the speeches achieved the aims to which it is said. To study this, reactions of the citizens which will be gotten in form of comments will be analysed for each speech.

1. **Speech A**

From the analysis above, it is pertinent to note that speech A is meant to show that the then government is aware of the people’s predicament and are trying so hard to make things better for them. Put in other words, the problem of the citizen is also the problem of the government. The speech is meant to calm the aggrieved citizens and to show that the then President; Goodluck Jonathan is not silent about the terrorist and their destructive deeds. DPJ also cried during this speech presentation in order to get pitied from the citizens. The question is, did the citizen get the message?

From the comments on the speeches, the citizens seem to be annoyed because the speech of Dame Patience Jonathan and the public outburst did not in any way bring back the abducted girls. In one of the reactions gotten from saharareporters.com titled “open letter first lady Dame Patience”, the writer notes:

**Madame Patience, let your husband and his advisors handle business. Given the lack of constitutional powers you have to handle such affairs of grave national security and international security, perhaps, you best leave it to those whose duties are to act (saharareporter.com).**

The abduction incident is one that needed urgent action and not gathering parents and teachers to weep and only talk. Also, due to the lack of action from the government at that time, the writer opines that it shows: “lack of political will, ineptness, and lack of strategy and security intelligence from the government of Nigeria against Boko Haram”. To Patience, she writes:

**Let your husband as the president show decisive action. If he wants to contest for elections next year (not like you’ve made any secret that he wants), let him prove his mantle by leaving the politicking to the side and show that this shadowy extremist group will not bring Nigeria to its knees (net.ng).**

The writer’s suggestion shows that at the point of the first lady’s speech, the president has been discreet about the incident as if he was unconcerned. In such case, the citizens are expecting him to address them and also to take action.

Another report from the net.ng notes that:

Patience Jonathan’s reaction was stunningly callous; according to state news media, she told one of the protest leaders, ‘you are playing games. Don’t use school children and women for demonstrations again (net.ng)’

To be callous means not feeling or showing any concern about the problem or suffering of other people. Dame Patience told a citizen protesting not to play games. The question is: how can aggrieved citizens protesting play games? The statement though said to be callous has another implied meaning. They are told to stop demonstrating in order to stop publicity and also to stop painting the government black. In these responses so far, the speech of Dame Patience did not achieve its aim despite the public outburst. From the reactions, the incident of Chibok girls’ abduction and the subsequent reaction from the government also made the then president, Goodluck Jonathan to lose the election.

2. **Speech B and C**

The reaction of these speeches can be analysed together since they all deal with campaign. The campaign speeches made by DPJ are actually for then President running for the next presidential election. The aim of these speeches was to solicit for votes from the citizens. From the comments online, her speech in Calabar:

“**were in bad taste and capable of inciting violence and ethnic division among the people ahead of the elections**” (vanguardngr.com).

It was also reported that:

Instead of the First Lady to use her position to campaign on the issues in the elections, she had by comments preached violence and resorted to character assassination (vanguardngr.com).

In Dame Patience campaign speeches, she slandered the name of the incumbent president’s opposition, Muhammed Buhari. She referred to him as ‘brain dead’; in another situation Muhammed Buhari and the All progressive congress
(APC) stakeholders and supporters were referred to as ‘conductors’ since conductors are the only ones that ask for change. The implication of DPJ’s hate campaigns is that PDP and its supporters seems agitated and desperate since they did not reprimand the First Lady for such hate speeches but instead protected her. Also, the campaign speeches created ethnic bigotry as seen in the comment: Why this kind of deliberate preaching of ethnic chauvinism, playing up the ethnic card? Now, what will our brothers and sisters in the North think about us from the South West and indeed the entire South? It is unthinkable but this is the reality of our circumstance as the First Lady went gaga, uttering provocative pronouncements with reckless abandon (vanguard.com).

Now, this is exactly what the campaign speeches resulted to. It pitched the North against the South and vice versa. Also, after the speeches, the two parties, All Progressive Congress (APC) and People’s Democratic Party (PDP) seemed to be at logger heads, trying to publicly disgrace and insult each other. This could be seen in the lampoon created by APC members to make jest of DPJ. APC reported DPJ to different governmental and non-governmental bodies, though she was protected by PDP. In the end, the husband and the incumbent president, Goodluck Ebele Jonathan loses the election in which case the aim of the speech was not achieved. In other words, it achieved a negative effect on the citizen.

V. CONCLUSION

The research focuses on the speeches of Dame Patience Jonathan. The speeches analysed for this study are: The Chibok girls’ speech, her campaign speech at Umuahia and another campaign speech at Calabar. The speeches were analysed using Searle’s Speech act analysis. With the use of this theory, the research work finds out the types of speech act that existed in Dame Patience Jonathan’s speeches. These include: declarative speech act, representative speech act, commissive speech act, directive speech act, and expressive speech act. In declarative speech act, there are utterances that established DPJ’s stance on certain matter and also her knowledge about a particular issue. Representative speech act shows utterances that commit the speaker to what she has said while commissive speech act are utterances that commits speakers to some future action. Directive speech act on the other hand, includes words that are aimed at making the hearer do something while expressive speech acts are utterances that state the way the speaker feels.

Also, there are evidences of illocutionary force aimed at manipulating the audience. In the Chibok girls’ speech, DPJ tries to manipulate the citizen to believe certain ideas which she passes across. For instance, the aim of shouting ‘there is God oo’ severally is in her bid to make herself and the then government free from the accusations that piled up against them. In other words, it is a tactic to exonerate her from blames. Her campaign speeches also bear evidences of manipulative intent, when she said that she would not allow her husband to come out after eight years and that the youths will be given a chance to rule; the idea was to manipulate the youths to vote for a candidate that have their course in mind. The hate speech and derogatory terms she employed is manipulative since it instigates the idea that nothing good will emanate from the opposing party being All Progressive Congress (APC), if voted into power. Also, DPJ dug up an issue that happened in history in order to prove that the people’s democratic party (PDP) flagbearer, Mohammed Buhari cannot achieve anything given his age.

On the effects of the speeches on the citizen, the speeches did not achieve its aim and as such the reaction of people seem to be negative. From the comments online, the Chibok girls’ speech was said to be callous. Despite the outburst, people still felt that the incumbent government is not working. For the campaign speeches, the flagbearer, Goodluck Ebele Jonathan being campaigned for did not win. This could be as a result of the insult and ethnic chauvinism that come with the speech.

The research work also identified the grammatical blunders committed by Dame Patience Jonathan. In all the speeches analysed, there are evidences of incorrect use of English language. This implies that Dame Patience Jonathan is not proficient in the use of English. This in a way affected the content of the speeches. It was also observed that if the citizens adhered to the instructions of the speeches of Dame Patience Jonathan, the country would have been in chaos. So, if any political figure wants to make a speech or address the citizens, s/he should be weighing the speech and its consequences.

REFERENCES


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**Bestman E. Odeh** hails from Delta state and was born on 7th June. He is a scholar who is interested in academic excellence. He got his B. A (Linguistics) and M.A (Linguistics) at the University of Nigeria, Nsukka. He has published articles which include: slang expressions used amongst students in Warri Metropolis, Nominalisation of Igbo personal names, lexical ambiguity in Urhobo, an X-bar analysis of aspect in Yoruba’ in Ideal journal of Igbo studies, 12(2), 164-183 etc. His area of specialization is morphology and syntax.

He is a member of the Igboscholars’ forum, Nigeria and also a member of Linguistics Association of Nigeria (LAN) and presently a PhD student in the department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka.

**Augustina N. Eze** has B.A, M.A and PhD in linguistics from the University of Nigeria, Nsukka. She also has PGDE from the same University. Augustina specializes in sociolinguistics. She has published ‘an X-bar analysis of aspect in Yoruba’ in Ideal journal of Igbo studies, 12(2), 164-183. She is a member of Linguistic association of Nigeria and Igboscholars’ forum, Nigeria.

**Bridget Ogechi Dioka** was born in Mbaise, Imo state on the 2nd of February. She has a bachelor of Arts Degree and a masters of Arts Degree in Linguistics and Igbo language at the University of Lagos, Akoka. She specializes in Semantics and Igbo language. She has published Chinua Achebe Things Fall Apart: A compass for Igbo Culture, in Chinua Achebe and the convolution of Immortality (75-84). She is also a PhD student in the department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka.

She is also a PhD student in the department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka.

**Chinaza Loveline Ugochukwu** hails from Anambra state. She got her B. A (Linguistics) at the department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka. She specialises in Sociolinguistics.
The Argument and Semantic Structures of Japanese Verb Give

I Gede Oeinada
Udayana University, Denpasar, Indonesia

Ni Luh Sutjiati Beratha
Udayana University, Denpasar, Indonesia

I Nengah Sudipa
Udayana University, Denpasar, Indonesia

Made Sri Satyawati
Udayana University, Denpasar, Indonesia

Abstract—This study examines four Japanese synonymous verbs that have the same equivalent in English, namely GIVE. These four Japanese synonymous verbs are ageru, kureru, kizou suru, and kifu suru. This study used a qualitative descriptive method. Example sentences for the data were taken from Balance Corpus of Contemporary Written Japanese corpus data. The theories applied in this study are argument structure theory and Natural Semantic Metalanguage theory. Based on the analysis, there were selectional restrictions found in the argument structure of these synonymous verbs that can be used to distinguish one verb from another. In addition, these synonymous verbs, although there are some overlapping meaning components, have distinctive meaning components belonging to each verb. Therefore, it can be said that these synonymous verbs cannot fully replace each other in all contexts.

Index Terms—natural semantic metalanguage, explication, semantic roles, synonymy

I. INTRODUCTION

According to a press release from the Japan Foundation (2019), in 2018, Indonesia has the second largest number of Japanese learners in the world. This survey is conducted every three years. Typologically, these two languages belong to distinct groups. Indonesian is in the same group with English that has the SVO sentence structure, while Japanese has the SOV sentence structure (Horie, 2018). Not only the sentence structure but also the phrase structure is different in Indonesian and Japanese. In Indonesian, for example, the phrase red car is expressed by mobil merah (mobil ‘car’ and merah ‘red’) while in Japanese, it is expressed by akai kuruma (akai ‘red’ and kuruma ‘car’). Besides these syntactical differences, Indonesian learners of Japanese also have difficulty in differentiating the right usage of synonymous verbs.

Previous studies on synonymous Japanese verbs have been conducted by several researchers such as Gumbira (2013), Zarifa, Herniwati, and Sutjiati (2017), Shiba and Cho (2017). These three studies on Japanese synonymous verbs used linguistic corpus as a tool for the analysis. By using linguistic corpus, the token frequency can be found, and the collocation of these verbs can be understood. However, it is difficult to grasp the meaning components without doing both the argument structure and semantic structure analysis. Semantic structure analysis can be done by applying the Natural Semantic Metalanguage (NSM) theory. Some studies on synonymous Japanese words that use NSM theory can be seen in Otomo and Torii (2005) as well as in Hasada (2008). Otomo and Torii (2005) analyzed Japanese verbs that have the meaning of TEAR. Three Japanese verbs, namely saku, chigiru, and yaburu were analyzed using Natural Semantic Metalanguage (NSM) theory. The results showed that these three verbs can be differentiated by their objects, the way to do the activity, and the end result expected from the activity. Another study conducted on Japanese words using NSM is the study on two virtuous emotions in Japanese, namely nasake ‘compassion’ and jihi ‘mercy’ by Hasada (2008). She found that nasake and jihi have very complex meaning components and distinguishing features which are clearly expressed after paraphrasing using the MSA theory. The word nasake has seven components of meaning, while jihi has 18 components of meaning.

In this study, four Japanese synonymous verbs GIVE are discussed. These four verbs are ageru, kureru, kizou suru, and kifu suru. By looking at their argument and semantic structures, the proper usage of these four synonymous verbs based on their meaning components can be obtained. Therefore, Japanese learners can benefit the most from this study.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
This study applied the argument structure theory proposed by Suzuki (2015) and the semantic structure based on the Natural Semantic Metalanguage (NSM) theory proposed by Goddard and Wierzbicka (2014).

A. Argument Structure

Argument structure is a representation of the number and type of role arguments associated with a particular predicate (Suzuki, 2015). Kroeger (2004) stated that even when an argument is grammatically optional, it may be semantically obligatory. Arguments are nouns born due to the semantic nature of a verb. In other words, the number and role type of noun of a verb is inherent. Based on the arguments that obligatorily accompany a verb, Japanese verbs can be classified into three categories, that is, monovalent verbs, divalent verbs, and trivalent verbs. The four Japanese synonymous verbs GIVE being discussed in this study belong to the trivalent verb category. There are three nouns that accompany these trivalent verbs. The roles of those nouns are agent (dousashu 動作主), beneficiary (juekisha 受益者), and theme (shudai 主題). In Japanese, there are case particles that follow nouns to determine the functions of those nouns in the sentence. The basic sentence structure for verb GIVE in Japanese can be seen as follows (Suzuki, 2015).

\[ \text{noun} ① \text{ ga } + \text{noun} ② \text{ ni } + \text{noun} ③ \text{ o } + \text{ verb} \]

The first argument noun (noun ①) followed by case particle ga is the subject of the sentence. The second argument noun (noun ②) followed by case particle ni is the indirect object of the sentence. The third argument noun (noun ③) followed by case particle o is the direct object of the sentence. In Japanese, the case particles, besides showing the grammatical relations, also show the semantic roles of the nouns. The ga particle shows the nominative case or the subject playing a role as the agent. The ni particle shows the dative case or the indirect object playing a role as the beneficiary. The o particle shows the accusative case or the direct object playing a role as the theme.

B. Semantic Structure

Semantic structure is the configuration of the meaning of the word. Semantic structure can be understood due to the grammatical relationship between the verb and the argument owned by the verb (Berath, 2000). The NSM theory used in this study is a mini-language that is formed by the lexicon and syntax of a natural language. The exponents used in the explication in this mini-language are called semantic primes. Up to now, there are 65 semantic primes that can be used to describe the meaning (Goddard and Wierzbicka, 2014). A list of these 65 exponents is provided in table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
<th>THE LIST OF 65 EXPONENTS OF SEMANTIC PRIMES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I-ME, YOU, SOMEONE, SOMETHING-THING, PEOPLE, BODY</td>
<td>substantives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KIND, PARTS</td>
<td>relational substantive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THIS, THE SAME, OTHER-ELSE</td>
<td>determiners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ONE, TWO, SOME, ALL, MUCH-MANY, LITTLE-FEW</td>
<td>quantifiers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOOD, BAD</td>
<td>evaluators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BIG, SMALL</td>
<td>descriptors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KNOW, THINK, WANT, DON'T WANT, FEEL, SEE, HEAR</td>
<td>mental predicates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAY, WORDS, TRUE</td>
<td>speech</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DO, HAPPEN, MOVE, TOUCH</td>
<td>actions, events, movement, contact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE (SOMewhere), THERE IS, BE (SOMEONE)'S, BE (SOMEONE/SOMETHING)</td>
<td>location, existence, possession, specification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIVE, DIE</td>
<td>life and death</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHEN-TIME, NOW, BEFORE, AFTER, A LONG TIME, A SHORT TIME, FOR SOME TIME, MOMENT</td>
<td>time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHERE-PLACE, HERE, ABOVE, BELOW, FAR, NEAR, SIDE, INSIDE</td>
<td>space</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOT, MAYBE, CAN, BECAUSE, IF</td>
<td>logical concepts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VERY, MORE</td>
<td>intensifier, augmentor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIKE-WAY-AS</td>
<td>similarity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

III. METHODOLOGY

The collected data in this study were taken from Balance Corpus of Contemporary Written Japanese (BCCWJ). This corpus can be accessed at https://chunagon.ninjal.ac.jp. In the BCCWJ corpus, the verb which is being studied is entered in the KWIC (Key Word in Context) search box. KWIC is a format for displaying concordance lines with the words that are the focus of the search lined up in the middle column, while the right and left columns contain words that indicate the context before and after the observed word (Yuliawati, 2018). By entering the verb in the KWIC, the usage of the verb can be described, and the semantic components of each verb can be determined. The example sentences found as data are glossed per morpheme and followed by free translation.

IV. DISCUSSION

There are at least four verbs that have the equivalent for GIVE in Japanese, namely ageru, kureru, kizou suru, and kifu suru. Although these four verbs are synonymous, they can be differentiated by their argument structures and
The role of components (a-e) as follows. In Japanese, the role of an animate noun, namely 'a deep impression'.

As can be seen in table 3 above, the verb ageru follows the basic sentence pattern of trivalent verbs. The noun which has the case marker particle ga acts as an agent. In addition to the semantic role of an agent, noun ① can also have a source semantic role with the particle marking of kara. Noun ① can only be in the form of a living being (animate), for example, occhan 'uncle' and oya 'parent'. The noun ② which has the case marking ni acts as a beneficiary and can be in the form of living things (animate) or non-living objects (inanimate), for example, kerara "they" and Amerika "America". Noun ③ that has the case marking particles o acts as theme and can be in the form of concrete or abstract objects, for example, purezento 'gift', esa 'pet food', choko 'chocolate', hyouka 'assessment', and hitotsumu no fukai inshou 'a deep impression'.

The following are examples of sentences that can be found in the data.

Example sentence (1) above shows the semantic role of the ablative which is marked by the particle kara in the form of an animate noun, namely oya 'parent'. The semantic role of beneficiary, which is indicated by the particle case ni is an animate noun, namely kodomo 'children'. Meanwhile, the semantic role of theme, which is indicated by the particle o, is a concrete noun, namely okane 'money'.

Example sentence (2) shows the semantic roles of agent and beneficiary that undergo a deletion process. Meanwhile, the semantic role of theme is marked with particle o together with an abstract noun, namely arigatou 'thank you'.

The verb ageru is the basic verb to express the meaning of GIVE. Therefore, it contains only five semantic components (a-e) as follows. In Japanese, the role of agent of ageru can be first person, second person, or third person. The role of beneficiary of ageru can be second person or third person (Tanaka et.al., 2018). Based on the usage found for the verb ageru, the semantic structure of ageru can be made as follows.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Meaning Components</th>
<th>ageru</th>
<th>kerera</th>
<th>Kijurura</th>
<th>Kizou suru</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>From people of high to low social positions</td>
<td>(+)</td>
<td>(−)</td>
<td>(+)</td>
<td>(+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Equal social position / equal</td>
<td>(+)</td>
<td>(+)</td>
<td>(−)</td>
<td>(−)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Speech level</td>
<td>(−)</td>
<td>(−)</td>
<td>(−)</td>
<td>(−)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Formality</td>
<td>(−)</td>
<td>(−)</td>
<td>(+)</td>
<td>(+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>There must be a specific purpose</td>
<td>(−)</td>
<td>(−)</td>
<td>(+)</td>
<td>(+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Gift in the form of money</td>
<td>(+)</td>
<td>(+)</td>
<td>(+)</td>
<td>(+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Gift in the form of goods</td>
<td>(+)</td>
<td>(+)</td>
<td>(+)</td>
<td>(+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Transfer of ownership</td>
<td>(+)</td>
<td>(+)</td>
<td>(+)</td>
<td>(+)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semantic Roles of the Arguments</th>
<th>Particle</th>
<th>Type of Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Noun(①) agent source</td>
<td>ga が</td>
<td>animate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kara から</td>
<td>animate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun(②) beneficiary</td>
<td>ni に</td>
<td>animate, inanimate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun(③) theme</td>
<td>o を</td>
<td>concrete, abstract</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A. The Verb Ageru

Ageru is a trivalent verb that has the basic sentence structure noun ① ga + noun ② ni + noun ③ o + verb. However, based on the data analysis, there is another sentence structure that can be found using the verb ageru. That sentence structure is noun ① kara + noun ② ni + noun ③ o + verb. The particle accompanying the noun ① is kara. By using a different particle, the semantic role of noun ① is changed. Table 2 below shows the semantic roles and types of each noun that function as argument in the verb ageru.
a) someone X does something to someone else Y
b) before this, something Z was X's
c) X wants other people Y to be able to say about Z, "this is mine."
d) something Z moves from X to Y
e) X wants this to happen.

B. Kureru

The verb Kureru is a trivalent verb that has the basic sentence structure noun ① ga + noun ② ni + noun ③ o + verb. Based on the data analysis, there is no other sentence structure that can be found using the verb kureru. Table 3 below shows the semantic roles and types of each noun that functions as argument in the verb kureru.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semantic Roles of the Arguments</th>
<th>Particle</th>
<th>Type of Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Noun ① agent</td>
<td>ga</td>
<td>animate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun ② beneficiary</td>
<td>ni</td>
<td>animate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun ③ theme</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>concrete</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in table 4 above, the verb kureru follows the basic sentence pattern of trivalent verbs. Noun ① which has the ga case marking particle, acts as agent and can be noun's in the form of living things (animate) or non-living objects (inanimate), for example, takusan no kata 'many people' and konbini 'mini market'. The noun ② which has a particle marking ni, acts as a beneficiary and can only be a noun in the form of a living being (animate). Observations on the corpus indicate the occurrence of this noun ② is deleted. This is understandable because the verb kureru 'to give' has selectional restrictions on its beneficiary argument, that is, it can only be in the first person. Nouns that have a case marking particle act as theme and can be nouns in the form of concrete or abstract objects, for example, biniiru-bakuro 'plastic bag', sensu 'fan', okozukai 'pocket money', yuuki 'courage', and chikara 'energy'.

The following are examples of sentences that can be found in the data.

(3) コンビニ は 袋 を くれる し、...。
Konbini wa fukuro o kureru shi,....
‘Mini market give (me) bag, ....’

Example sentence (3) shows that the semantic role of agent in the form of an inanimate noun is also a noun that functions as the topic of the sentence, namely mini market. In Japanese, when the topic of the sentence and the subject have the same noun, then the subject is deleted (Suzuki, 2015). The noun that has the semantic role of beneficiary also undergoes a deletion process in this example sentence. Meanwhile, the semantic role of theme which is indicated by the particle case o, is a concrete noun, namely bag.

(4) …たくさんの 力 と 元気 と 笑顔 を くれる ・・・ ありがとう。
...takusan no chikara to genki to egao o kureru ... arigatou.
‘...thank you for the giving of strength, energy, and your smile (to me).’

Example sentence (4) shows that the nouns with semantic roles of agent and beneficiary undergo the deletion process. Meanwhile, the semantic role of theme noun which is indicated by the particle o, is an abstract noun, namely strength, energy, and smile.

The verb kureru is similar to the verb ageru. It also contains only five semantic components (a-e) as follows. However, the difference is in the noun that can fill the role of beneficiary of kureru. It can be first person while the role of agent can be second person or third person (Tanaka et al., 2018). Based on the usage found for the verb kureru, the semantic structure of kureru can be made as follows.

X-ga Y-ni Z-o kureru ('X gives Z to Y')
a) someone X doing something to someone else Y (me)
b) before this, something Z was X's
c) X wants other people Y (I) to be able to say about Z, "this is mine"
d) something Z moves from X to Y
e) X wants this to happen.

C. Kizou Suru

The verb kizou suru is a trivalent verb that has the basic sentence structure noun ① ga + noun ② ni + noun ③ o + verb. However, based on the data analysis, there are two other sentence structures that can be found using kizou suru. That sentence structure is noun ① kara + noun ② ni + noun ③ o + verb and noun ① kara + noun ② e + noun ③ o + verb. The particle accompanying the noun ① is kara. By using a different particle, the semantic role of noun ① is changed. In the second new sentence structure, the particle accompanying the noun ② is e. In this new sentence
structure, the semantic role of noun ② is also changed. Table 4 below shows the semantic roles and types of each noun that functions as argument in kifu suru.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5</th>
<th>THE SEMANTIC ROLES AND TYPES OF NOUNS AS THE VERB KIZOU SURU’S ARGUMENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Semantic Roles of the Arguments</td>
<td>Particle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun ① agent source</td>
<td>ga が</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun ② beneficiary goal</td>
<td>ni に</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun ③ theme</td>
<td>o を</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in table 5 above, the verb kizou suru follows the basic sentence pattern of trivalent verbs. The noun ① which has the case marker particle ga, acts as an agent and can be nouns in the form of living things (animate) or non-living objects (inanimate). Apart from that, the particle marking for noun ① can also be kara with an animate noun filler, which acts as the source. Nouns that have particles marking this case, act as beneficiary and can be nouns in the form of living things (animate) or non-living objects (inanimate). In addition, the particle marking for the noun ② can also be the particle e with the inanimate noun filler which acts as a goal. Nouns that have case marking particles o, act as themes and can only be concrete nouns such as kichou na shiryou ‘precious material’, sharin hitokumi ‘a pair of wheels’, and tochi ‘earth’.

The following are examples of sentences that can be found in the data.

(5) 本庄小学校 へ 図書（五十万円分）を 寄贈。
Honjō shōgakkō e tosho (go jū man-en bun) o kizō shite itadakimashita
‘Giving books (¥ 500,000) to Honjo elementary school.’

Example sentence (5) shows that the noun with a semantic role of agent has been deleted. The noun which has the role of semantic role of goal marked by particle e is an inanimate noun, namely Honjo Elementary School. Meanwhile, the noun with semantic role of theme marked with particle o is a concrete noun, namely a book.

(6) 茅野市 の 方 から 車輪1組 を 寄贈していただきました。
Chinoshi no kata kara sharin hitokumi o kizō shite itadakimashita
‘One person from the city of Chino donated a pair of wheels.’

The example sentence (6) shows that the noun ① is an animate noun, that is, the word ‘person’ is marked by the particle kara and acts as the source. The noun ② is deleted. Meanwhile, the noun with semantic role of theme marked with particle case o is a concrete noun, namely sharin hitokumi ‘a pair of wheels’.

The verb kizou suru has three additional meaning components (f-h) compared to ageru and kureru verbs. The role of theme can only be a physical object (excluding money). The agent role is a person that has higher social status than the beneficiary role (meaning component g). Therefore, the verb kizou suru is chosen (meaning component h). Based on the usage found for the verb kizou suru, the semantic structure of kizou suru can be made as follows.

X-ga Y-ni Z-o kizou suru (X gives Z to Y)
- a) someone X does something to someone else Y
- b) before this, something Z [physical thing excluding money] was X’s
- c) X wants other people Y to be able to say about Z, "this is mine"
- d) something Z moves from X to Y
- e) X wants this to happen.
- f) this happens because someone X is thinking about something
- g) X is not someone like Y, Y cannot think of anything bad about X
- h) X says this way not any other way

D. Kifu Suru

The verb kifu suru is a trivalent verb that has the basic sentence structure noun ① ga + noun ② ni + noun ③ o + verb. Based on the data analysis, there is no other sentence structure that can be found using the verb kifu suru. Table 5 below shows the semantic roles and types of each noun that functions as argument in the verb kifu suru.
TABLE 6
THE SEMANTIC ROLES AND TYPES OF NOUNS AS THE VERB KIFU SURU’S ARGUMENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Particle</th>
<th>Type of Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>agent</td>
<td>ga ⚫️</td>
<td>animate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beneficiary</td>
<td>ni  ⚫️</td>
<td>animate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>theme</td>
<td>o ⚫️</td>
<td>concrete</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in table 6 above, the verb *kifu suru* follows the basic sentence pattern of trivalent verbs. The noun (1) which has the case marker particle *ga*, acts as an *agent* and is a noun in the form of a living being (animate). The noun (2) which has a particle marking *ni*, acts as a *beneficiary* and is also a noun in the form of a living being (animate). The noun (3) which has the case marking particle *o*, acts as a *theme* and can only be nouns in the form of concrete objects, for example, *okane* 'money', *anko* 'bean paste', *ango fuku* 'clothes (coat) Ango', and *gojuu man doru* '500 thousand dollars'.

The following are examples of sentences that can be found in the data.

(8)  初午の日（二月）に お稲荷さん に 豆こを寄附して。

"first horse day" (February) pada top Inari god dat bean paste acc give-cont

‘On “first horse day” (February), giving bean paste to god Inari (god of harvest)’

Example sentence (8) shows that the noun with semantic role of *agent* was deleted. The semantic role of *beneficiary* which is indicated by particle *ni* is an animate noun, namely *oinarisan* ‘Inari God’. Meanwhile, the noun with the semantic role of *theme* marked with particle case *o* is a concrete noun, namely *ango* ‘bean paste’.

(9)  僕が一つ 安吾服を寄附するよ。

*I will give you one Ango coat.*

Example sentence (9) shows the noun with the semantic role of *agent* is indicated by the particle *ga* together with a singular first-person pronoun, namely *boku* ‘I’. The noun with the semantic role of *beneficiary* has undergone a deletion process. Meanwhile, the noun with the semantic role of *theme* marked by particle case *o* is a concrete noun, namely *Ango coat*.

The verb *kifu suru* has similar meaning component with *kizou suru*. However, the difference is in the thing that has the role of *theme*. While the role of *theme* in *kizou suru* verb cannot be a physical thing such as money, the *kifu suru* can take any kind of physical things including money as its *theme*. Based on the usage found for the verb *kifu suru*, the semantic structure of *kifu suru* can be made as follows.

X-ga Y-ni Z-o kifu suru ('X gives Z to Y')

a) someone X does something to someone else Y

b) before this, something Z [physical thing including money] was X’s
c) X wants other people Y to be able to say about Z, "this is mine"
d) something Z moves from X to Y
e) X wants this to happen.
f) this happens because someone X is thinking about something
g) X is not someone like Y, Y cannot think of anything bad about X

h) X says this way not any other way

V. CONCLUSION

By applying argument structure theory and NSM theory in the analysis of four Japanese synonymous verbs in this study, distinctive meaning components of these four Japanese verbs can be alerted. Although there are some overlapping meaning components, the existence of these distinctive meaning components causes these synonymous verbs not to be able to fully replace each other in all contexts. Therefore, Japanese learners should carefully decide their word of choice to express their intended meaning.

APPENDIX. ABBREVIATION

| abl | ablative (source) |
| acc | accusative case |
| cont | continuative |
| dat | dative case |
| neg | negative |
| nom | nominative case |
| nomi | nominalizer |
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I Gede Oeinada is currently a doctoral student studying at Udayana University, Bali, Indonesia. He accomplished his Magister program in 2009 from Udayana University, majoring in linguistics. His interest is in semantics, translations, and Japanese linguistics.

Ni Luh Sutjiati Beratha is a professor in semantics at Udayana University, Bali, Indonesia. She accomplished her Magister program at the Department of Linguistics, Monash University Melbourne Australia in 1989, and a Ph.D. degree from the Australian National University (ANU) Canberra Australia in 1992. She has published many books, dictionaries, and other publications.

I Nengah Sudipa is a professor in linguistics at Udayana University, Bali, Indonesia. He accomplished his Magister program in Linguistic Department, Monash University Melbourne Australia. He graduated from the doctoral program of Linguistics at Udayana University. His research interest is semantics and psycholinguistics, and he has published many various books.

Made Sri Satyawati is an associate professor at Udayana University, Bali, Indonesia. She accomplished her Magister program in Linguistics from Padjadjaran University, Bandung, Indonesia, in 1999 and obtained her Doctorate Degree in Linguistics from Udayana University in 2010. Her research interest is linguistics, namely syntax, morphology, and semantics.
Possible Selves, Motivation, and Classroom Practices: A Qualitative Enquiry with English Teachers in Dhaka, Bangladesh

Beauty Debnath
Directorate of Secondary and Higher Secondary Education, Dhaka, Bangladesh

Abstract—Studies around the world show that students’ motivation for learning English as a foreign language is usually interconnected with teachers’ motivation. To explore this relationship, this study investigated five Bangladeshi EFL teachers’ early language learning experiences, their visions of possible L2 selves, their motivations for becoming English teachers and the way they connect their visions with their classroom teaching for motivating students. This study employed L2 Motivational Self System (Dorney, 2005, 2009) as the theoretical framework. It was situated in the constructivist paradigm using a qualitative approach taking the form of a narrative enquiry. Data was collected from teachers’ language biographies and in-depth interviews. The thematic analysis of data revealed teachers’ considerable academic and socio-cultural challenges, their improved motivational states and visions of either ‘Ideal L2 Self’ or ‘L2 Learning Experiences’. Teachers with ‘Ideal L2 Selves’ were found more aware of generating students’ L2 vision. The study also found a considerable influence of social, economic, psychological, infrastructural, and cultural factors on teachers’ professional motivation and commitment. Therefore, the study has brought implications for addressing these factors at an institutional and political level to bring about attitudinal change towards teaching as a profession in Bangladesh.

Index Terms—L2 motivation, possible selves, L2 vision, classroom practice, EFL teachers, EFL students

I. INTRODUCTION

Motivation is the paramount driving force for second language learning, and, without adequate motivation, even remarkably able students can fail to obtain desired goal (Dorney, 1990). It is widely observed that students do not appear to have the motivation to learn English in Bangladesh (Ahmad, 2005; Hussain & Masum, 2016; Quadir, 2017). Studies have shown lack of internal motivation to be the cause of deterioration in students’ English proficiency in Bangladesh (Alam 2001; Quadir 2017; Kabir 2015). Winchester’s (2012) study suggests that teachers can play a vital role in the co-construction, communication and legitimation of learners’ identities and motivation in the classrooms differently. In the teacher-centred classroom in Bangladesh, teachers have considerable influence on students’ motivation for learning. If the teacher is positively motivated to teach, she/he might effectively contribute to generating motivation and interest among learners. Learners’ early experiences shape their attitudes and determine their motivation for further investment in the target language (Ushioda’s, 1998). Her study explored the notion that individuals’ patterns of motivation emerged from their language learning experiences, which may include a positive learning history and target language environment. A study on Bangladeshi teachers’ perception of their possible L2 selves and motivation for learning and teaching could therefore provide insight into their professional practices. Thus, it is important to investigate teachers’ motivational backgrounds.

A. The Background Study

1) English language teachers and teaching in Bangladesh: English education in Bangladesh suffers from an acute shortage of competent and trained English teachers. According to Haq (2004), the scarcity of EFL teachers discourages all aspirations. Again, most of the course books produced by the National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB) do not address the English curriculum. Repeated changes in pedagogy and syllabi over the last decade have also been frustrating (Ahmed, 2005). Instead of the traditional Grammar-Translation method (GTM), the Communication Language teaching (CLT) approach is the new expected method of instruction, but lack of infrastructural and technological support, scarcity of trained teachers, inappropriate learning materials and insufficient learning resources cannot support CLT in Bangladesh. Moreover, the assessment system in Bangladesh also adversely affects L2 proficiency. A review by Sultana (2018) found that, English public examination at SSC level has failed to address the objectives of learning and teaching English in Bangladesh.

2) Students’ motivation for English language learning in Bangladesh: Students’ demotivation for L2 learning is a crucial concern for language teachers and educators in Bangladesh (Ahmad, 2005; Hussain & Masum, 2016; Quadir, 2017). According to Dornyei (2001), demotivation is “specific external forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioural intention or an ongoing action” (p.143). Quadir’s (2017) study found that both external and
internal factors impact on learners’ motivation. These include students’ past experiences, access to learning resources, school environment, and socio-economic status of family and teachers’ performance in the classroom. In secondary school context, 95% of the student respondents in Quadir’s (2017) study reported that, demotivating aspects were related to teachers’ practice of EFL teaching. Her study identified three categories of practice: (i) Teachers’ instructional style; (ii) Teachers’ attitude/personality, and (iii) Teachers’ competence. She also identified teachers’ low effort to motivate students, lack of guidance about improving language proficiency, and incompetence in providing organised instructions in class (Quadir, 2017).

B. Research Questions

Researchers in Bangladesh (e.g., Das, 2001; Maniruzzaman & Haque, 2000; Rahman, 2005, 2007; Shahed, 2000; Sultana, 2014; Sil, 2017; Quadir, 2017) have conducted studies on L2 motivational issues. Most of these studies have focused on students’ motivation and teachers’ use of motivational strategies in the classroom. However, there has been no systematic investigation into teachers’ attitudinal and motivational orientations. So, there remains a noticeable niche in the research literature. Therefore, this study aims to explore EFL teachers’ language learning experiences, their perception of possible selves, motivation for learning and teaching English, and how they relate their visions to their classroom practices. To address these issues, this study will explore four research questions:

1. What language learning experiences do Bangladeshi EFL teachers bring to the English classroom?
2. What vision of possible L2 selves do the teachers in the study hold?
3. How are their visions related to their motivations to be English teachers?
4. How do they relate their visions to their classroom practice to motivate students?

C. Rationale of the Study

To address this crisis of demotivation, the teacher can play an essential role by engaging students in their long L2 learning journey. Teachers’ motivation for L2 learning and teaching should have an explicit influence on their efforts in motivating students. Scholarly discussions most often concern students’ motivation and attitudes, but the same areas for EFL/ESL teachers are scarcely touched upon. It would be enlightening to see the other side of the coin as well. Perhaps, all teachers are not equally motivated to learn and teach English. Motivating students to learn English is a mammoth task for teachers in Bangladesh where socio-educational, socio-cultural and socio-economic conditions create considerable impediments. If a teacher has been a demotivated L2 learner or had low motivation for becoming a teacher, she/he cannot be reasonably expected to motivate students in the best possible ways. Teachers’ own English language learning experiences, their L2 visions, and motivations may be projected into their classroom practices. Increased understanding of how EFL teachers perceive their motivational orientations through their stories of their L2 vision and motivation for learning and teaching may provide a lens through which to view English teachers’ motivational realities in Bangladesh.

II. THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT IN L2 MOTIVATION AND REVIEW OF TEACHER MOTIVATION RESEARCH

A. Motivation and L2 Motivation

Motivation is an abstract and complex concept applied to explain human behaviour (Gardner, 2010). It triggers an individual’s action to achieve a desired goal (Cook & Artino, 2016). Motivation is considered to be a fundamental factor in the L2 learning process. Dornyei (1998) defined motivation as an impetus to initiate L2 learning and later it acts as the driving force to sustain the long and tedious process of learning. A resurgence of interest in motivational issues in second language learning appeared during the 1990s and it involved extensive debate and discussions about the nature and dimensions of motivation (Dornyei, 1994a, 1994b; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994; Oxford, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). The lack of consensus about the motivational variables involved in L2 learning has originated different motivational constructs. The variations include the integrative-instrumental dichotomy developed by Gardner and Lambert in 1959; intrinsic and extrinsic orientations in Deci and Ryan’s (1985) Self-determination theory; Gardner’s socio-educational model of L2 motivation and L2MSS by Dornyei (2005, 2009). Similarity can be perceived between all the theories although the robust discussions on this topic have given birth to diverse theoretical frameworks.

B. Possible Selves Theory

The concept of self was previously perceived as a static and unitary accrual of self-knowledge from the individual’s past experiences (Markus & Wurf, 1987, p. 9). However, the perception of self has been applied in diverse fields of teacher education and education in general since Markus and Nurius (1986) developed a multifaceted future-oriented self-concept and termed it ‘possible selves’ (Fletcher, 2000). Possible selves refer to themselves that one believes one might become in the near or distant future. According to Markus and Nurius (1986), Possible self indicates the ideal self that one would like to become, selves that one could become as well as the selves one is afraid of becoming. Possible selves serve as motivators to shape an individual’s action and behaviour to fulfil what one desires to become and stay away from what one is afraid of becoming. The motivators provide “a context of additional meaning for the current behaviour of the individual” (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p. 955). This concerns the fact that possible selves incorporate
C.  L2 Motivational Self-system (L2MSS)

Dornyei (2005, 2009) developed his L2MSS by incorporating ideas from both Markus and Nurius's Possible self and Higgin's Self-discrepancy theory. He drew on the notion that learners' vision of their future selves provides the motivational impetus for L2 learning (Peng, 2015). The three main constructs of L2MSS comprise the ‘Ideal L2 self’, the ‘Ought -to Self’ and the ‘L2 Learning experience’. He suggested that the ‘Ideal self’ is the most significant self-construct in his framework, as the gap between one's desire to be a fluent L2 speaker and one's current self-acts as a self-guide which serves as the motivator to reduce the discrepancy. Success in L2 learning grows proportionately with a learner's motivation to reduce this discrepancy. The three self-constructs can be explained in the following ways:

The Ideal L2 Self: The Ideal L2 self refers to the L2-specific facet of one's ‘Ideal self' (Dornyei, 2009). It indicates what an individual would desire, aspire or like to be. It represents a language learner's ideal image or vision for the future. This kind of image of a future self act as a positive psychological stimulator and accelerates the learning process.

Ought to L2 Self: This self-construct concerns what one is extrinsically motivated to learn from a sense of compulsion or imposition to avoid possible negative consequences.

L2 Learning Experience: This construct concerns learners' attitudes and experiences of teachers' influence, curriculum, peer group and the learning process inside and outside of the classroom (Lamb, 2017). This motivational dimension is related to the learning situation rather than the self-image.

D.  Review on the Empirical Studies on ESL/EFL Teacher Motivation

Second language acquisition (SLA) researchers have demonstrated a consistent interest in motivation (Ushioda, 2009). In the historical hierarchy, L2 motivational research has shifted its attention from macro-level to a micro-level of study. Understanding teachers' roles has become a significant concern for exercising considerable influences on learners' motivation (Han, 2017). Research work on teachers' idea of L2 self, vision, and motivation in ESL teaching context is relatively scarce. Empirical studies by Kubanyiova (2009), White and Ding (2009), Sugino (2010), Kumazawa (2013), Hiver (2013), Wyatt (2013), Thompson and Vasquez (2015), Rahmati, Sadeghi, and Ghaederi (2018) have focused on teachers' motivation in different ESL/EFL contexts.

A qualitative study conducted on EFL teachers in Slovakia by Kubanyiova (2009), used Dornyei's L2MSS as a conceptual framework to explore EFL teachers' development. The study revealed discrepancies between the teachers' vision and the educational reality. Moreover, the study revealed the dissonance between teachers' ideals and educational reality acting as detrimental to teachers' motivation and professional commitment (Kubanyiova, 2009).

Kumazawa (2013) investigated four inexperienced Japanese teachers' motivational status by employing Markus and Nurius's (1986) “Possible selves” theory. The narrative analysis of data from interviews explored the need of teacher training. Kumazawa's research found that the shocking gap between teachers' job expectations and the realities they experienced caused their low motivation for ESL teaching.

White and Ding (2009) shed light on how the concepts of the ideal self and ought-to self influenced and was influenced by the engagement of language teachers in e-learning. This investigation revealed the significant role of possible selves as influential motivators for the language teachers who were trying to execute changes to their teaching methods.

Hiver (2013) conducted a narrative study on in-service EFL teachers' possible selves. Hiver explored how the possible self constructs of ideal, ought-to and feared selves worked as motivators. Three teachers who were low-profiency users of English, demonstrated a high level of feared selves. The other four proficient teachers showed strong ideal selves. The study revealed that the teacher's sense of the discrepancies between their actual selves and ideal selves worked as a motivator to develop.

Rahmati, Sadeghi, and Ghaederi (2018) explored EFL teachers' vision and motivation in Iran drawing on ‘possible selves’ theory and activity theory in their mixed-method study. Applying a semi-structured interview for qualitative and a questionnaire for the quantitative phase, the study revealed a positive relationship between (r =.59) vision and motivation. The study brought implications for teacher education programs to raise teachers' awareness and motivational force of vision.

The methodological implications evolved from the related literature situated this study in a constructivist paradigm using qualitative approach. According to Bada and Olusegun (2015, p. 66) constructivism stands for a process of ‘mental construction’ of ideas. It suggests that we construct meaning and knowledge from our own experiences and encounters in real life as well as our reflections on them (Bereiter, 1994). It is important for educators to be familiar with the concepts of constructivism and their implications for teaching and teachers' professional development (Tam, 2000). This paradigmatic stance will help this study to construct an in-depth understanding about the teachers’ experiences as language learners in Bangladesh.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. The Participants
In qualitative research, the selection of participants is purposeful (Maxwell, 2005; Seidman, 2006; Stake, 2005). To address the study objectives, five participants who teach English at colleges (public or private) in Dhaka for more than two years, received English education in Bangladesh and are Bangladeshi by birth, were selected.

The selected participants are Priam, Mohan, Fima, Shormi, and Neha (pseudonyms). The author went through her personal and professional networks to identify them. The scholarship conditions made a compulsion to rely on online communication media (email and Skype) to contact the participants. For the participants’ busy work-schedules, their availability was quite challenging. However, they took time to write their narratives on language learning and later took part in the in-depth interviews for 40-50 minutes each.

<table>
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<th>Shormi</th>
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</table>

B. Data Collection

The primary source was narrative writing in which the participants reflected their language learning experiences and the other was in-depth interviews. Narrative writing has the potential to elicit participants’ perception of their possible selves (Whitty, 2002). For drawing out teachers’ real-life experiences of their L2 learning journey, L2 vision and motivational factors, the participants were asked to write their language learning history with some prompts provided. An extensive reading of the participants’ narratives was done to identify any gaps in data required to meet the research questions. To complete the gaps in the narratives, each of the participants was interviewed. The interview protocol consisted of fifteen structured open-ended questions.

C. Author’s Position as a Researcher

As a researcher, the author had a responsibility to ensure the transparency and credibility of the study. Building up rapport with the participants in qualitative research is essential, but she was conscious of her familiarity impacting objectivity. During the interview, there were some points where some common teaching experiences in Bangladesh were shared. However, the author was mindful about compromising her position as a researcher and had a concern for the credibility of the interpretation of the data (Kumazawa, 2013). Avoiding distortion and protecting the authenticity, an enabling discussion at a deep level of self-searching was persisted.

D. Data Analysis Method

1). Narrative enquiry: This qualitative study applied narrative enquiry for its personal and compassionate approach to investigating into teachers’ personal experiences. Participants’ revelation of their minds helps researchers to develop a macro and micro-analysis of their stories (Mishler, 1986). Teachers’ self-reflections on their own experiences may enable them to go through a process of stepping back, description, reflection, analysis and above all, a kind of articulation of experiences (Freeman, 1991).

2). Thematic analysis: This study applied ‘thematic analysis’ to focus on the experiences, meaning and realities of research participants. It is an attempt to “theorize the significance of the patterns and their broader meanings and implications” (Braun & Clark, 2006, p. 84). The data was analysed following Braun & Clark’s (2006) six-step framework: i) familiarising with data ii) generating initial codes iii) searching for themes iv) reviewing themes v) defining and naming themes vi) producing the report

3). Theoretical framework of the study: Dornyei’s (2005, 2009) L2 Motivational Self-System is the theoretical framework in this study. To recall, Dornyei’s (2009) proposes that motivation for L2 learning is mostly derived from an individual’s perception of his/her possible selves especially where a discrepancy exists between one’s actual self and ideal L2 self (Lamb, 2011). This theory allows very subtle and situated approach to the multidimensionality and complexities of L2 motivational orientations and diverse learning contexts in today’s globalised world (Kumazawa, 2013).

To address the study aims, the nature of the teachers’ dream for future selves are framed against Dornyei’s conceptualisation of the three self-constructs.
IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A. Answer to the Research Question 1

Thematic analysis of data elicited three major themes regarding the English language learning experiences of the participants. These include:

1. Challenges of learning English: All the participants mentioned several common challenges in their L2 learning journeys: a) Lack of trained teachers and scarcity of learning resources b) Demotivation for learning English c) Socio-cultural limitations.

The participants encountered considerable academic difficulties in learning English. Their memorisation based L2 learning was bound by the curriculum and syllabus. With regard to the academic compulsion, Moham said, “English was just a part of our academic process, not a meaningful way of communication. I had no purpose of communicating in English. I learnt English just as a subject”. (Interview, August 15, 2019)

The school environment and classroom infrastructure were reported to be inappropriate for L2 learning by Priam, Mohan, Neha, and Fima. Noticeably, these three participants received their primary and secondary education in rural areas of Bangladesh. Mohan said:

The poor infrastructure of our classrooms did not provide a congenial environment for learning English. There was no speaking or listening practices in classroom. We were learning reading and writing to attend our school examinations. (Language biography, July 28, 2019)

Demotivation has been identified as another issue adversely impacting participants’ L2 learning process. It often evolved from the teasing of classmates or the discouragement from English teachers at school. Neha said:

I used to try to speak English with my friends. I experienced some negative situations as they used to pull my legs, used to mock at me. I got demotivated to speak in English inside or outside the classroom. (Interview, September 4, 2019)

In Bangladesh, the social and cultural contexts did not appear conducive to L2 learning. Poor socio-economic status, disadvantaged family background, lack of parental care and support hindered Priam’s L2 achievement. He mentioned his challenges both in his language biography and interview:

My rustic area had a little percentage of literacy. My parents were very simple and uneducated. They encouraged me to study English, but they could not show me the way. So, I had to shoulder everything on myself to improve my ability. (Interview, August 15, 2019)

2. Awareness of L2 learning in a globalised world: All the participants demonstrated their motivation for L2 learning having realised its global significance. Moreover, in Bangladesh, fluency in English is considered as a sign of social standing. Priam was found to be persuaded by the demand of English. He wrote:

English has an influence on rapid communications and job market. The demand of English was always higher to compete. Thus, being English language expertise was an ideal fascination to the participant by developing his capacity-building. (Language biography, July 30, 2019)
Fima mentioned the origin of her self-motivation for L2 learning. She reported, “In this age of globalisation, we cannot survive without knowledge in English. It is the gateway to success. So, we learnt it.” (Language biography, August 5)

3). Self motivation: Despite demotivating issues, the awareness of the significance of English prompted the participants’ L2 learning progress significantly. Fima said, “self-motivation stimulated me, and I helped myself.” (Language biography, August 2, 2019). Priam wrote, “I was motivated, and self-motivation was the yardstick behind my success.” (Language biography, July 30, 2019)

B. Answer to the Research Question 2

1). Vision of ‘Ideal L2 Selves’: According to Dornyei (2009), when an individual desires to become a fluent L2 speaker, ‘Ideal L2 Self’ becomes a powerful motivator and their L2 motivation springs from their attempts to reduce the discrepancies between one’s ‘Actual self’ and ‘Ideal L2 self’ (p.29). Priam was found having an elaborate and vivid self-image for his possible L2 self. He dreamt of going to the UK or USA to undertake higher study and to be integrated to that society. He said:

I dreamt to speak fluently like the foreigners. I was amazed hearing the pronunciation of BBC news presenters. One English lady encouraged me to study English. I assumed that the British would be very civilised and good people and it fascinated me. (Interview, August 18, 2019)

In this concern, as Priam’s vision involves his being a proficient L2 speaker and his engagement with UK or USA community, his vision can be identified with the ‘Ideal L2 Self’.

Mohan, like Priam, possessed a clear image of future L2 self. He dreamt of speaking fluent English like the commentators on international cricket events. He could reflect on the discrepancy between his ‘actual self’ and ‘Ideal L2 Self’. The aforementioned desire to speak English as native speaker as well as a dream to go to an L2 country identifies Mohan’s vision as the ‘Ideal L2 Self’.

Neha dreamt of being a fluent L2 speaker as English movie actors and English news presenters on television. She studied English literature and eventually developed an interest to know more about anglophone life and culture. She said:

When there was English news telecasted on television, it inspired me much as I dreamt to be like those news presenters. (Interview, September 4, 2019)

2). L2 learning experience: According to Dornyei (2009, p. 29), L2 Learning Experience concerns learners’ situated, ‘executive’ motives which are related to the impact of the curriculum, the teachers, the peers or the success experiences. Among the participants, Shormi was found to have a desire to be a good L2 speaker being influenced by her schoolteacher and family members. She said:

No, I didn’t have that kind of dream, but one of my teachers used to encourage me a lot. When I was a child, my father and uncle acted as my stimuli for L2 learning. (Interview, August 27, 2019)

Shormi’s experiences did not associate English with any particular self-image of any ideal L2 speaker; rather her motive was related to her immediate learning environment and experiences with family members and teacher. So, her experience can be classified as ‘L2 Learning Experience’.

Fima dreamt of being smarter than others with the ability in English. The rising demand of English for globalisation influenced her to be competent for the job market. She studied English literature and had an interest to know about English life and culture, but there was no clarity of her self-image or future self-guides. Fima’s vision relates to her immediate learning environment and experiences which identify her L2 self-construct as ‘L2 Learning Experience’.

C. Answer to the Research Question 3

1) Visions and motivations: Concerning the relationship, Priam, Fima and Neha’s visions related to their motivations but Mohan’s and Shormi’s visions had no relation to their becoming EFL teachers. Priam was determined to be an English teacher. He declined a banking job, although he qualified for it. He acknowledged:

Yes, I had a vision to be a teacher of English. When I was a student of Grade 11 and 12, I dreamt to be a teacher. I was offered some other banking jobs but declined those jobs. I wanted to be a teacher. (Interview, August 18, 2019)

His vision had clarity and had a connection with his motivation for teaching profession. Unlike Priam, Mohan did not show any relation between his vision and motivation. He had a vivid and clear vision of an ‘Ideal L2 Self’ but this had no link with his motivation for becoming an English teacher. He said, “I never dreamt to be a teacher. It was a coincidence. As a profession, I preferred to be a civil servant.” (Interview, August 15, 2019)

His negative attitude to teaching profession became clear when he reported:

From my perspectives, environment, culture, and surrounding, nothing motivates us to be a proactive English teacher. Even not the salary encourages me. The poor infrastructure, no microphone with 400 students in a small room does not support me. So, nothing encourages me to be a motivated teacher. (Interview, August 15, 2019)

Thus, Mohan’s vision does not relate to his motivation for teaching. In contrast, Fima was desirous of being an English teacher. Her personal hardship of learning English inspired her dream to be a teacher. She was motivated to help students in building their better future. She expressed her contentment with confidence:

Yes, I wanted to be a teacher to help students in building better future. . . . I feel happy. I share my positive experiences with my students, and I enjoy it. (Interview, August 22, 2019)
She demonstrated a strong desire to be a teacher and contribute to students’ English competence. Thus, Fima’s vision relates to her motivation to be an English teacher. Shormi wanted to be a doctor, not an English language teacher. She chose the teaching profession having no other alternative. She said: “No, I did not dream to be a teacher. Actually, I had no other option.” (Interview, August 27, 2019). Shormi’s vision and motivation for teaching had no connection. Neha demonstrated a strong determination to be a teacher of English. Her positive attitude to this language and awareness of its potential motivated her. She said:

I thought if I could be a good teacher, I could help others. There is a scarcity of good teachers of English. I thought I would learn more and teach others well. (Interview, September 4, 2019)

Neha wanted to be a role model for her students in the same way her schoolteacher had been a role model for her. Thus, Neha’s experiences demonstrated a clear relationship between her vision and motivation to be an EFL teacher.

D. Answer to the Research Question 4

1. L2 visions and classroom teaching: Among all, Priam, Mohan, and Neha established a clear link between their L2 visions with their classroom teaching to motivate students. Priam was enthusiastic to generate awareness among his students about constructing an ‘Ideal L2 Self’ image which would act as their future self-guides. Priam reported that he shared his personal stories of L2 vision and learning experiences with his students:

Yes, I try to tell my vision and motivation for learning English among my students. Some students who are self-motivated and committed, accept this positively. I believe that my motivational experiences impacted positively to become successful. I served as their role model. (Interview, August 18, 2019)

In this way, Priam’s own L2 vision and motivation and his endeavour to motivate students in his classroom are explicitly related.

Again, Mohan tried to bridge his L2 vision and his classroom teaching to envision his students. He shared his success story and rewards for L2 learning. Thus, Mohan put effort to connect his vision and his classroom practice, though the lack of feedback was discouraging for him.

Fima shared her L2 learning experiences with her students to motivate them. However, she appeared to establish no link between her own L2 visions and the way of motivating students. Noticeably, she felt discouraged by students’ demotivation. She reported:

I share my language learning story and the positive experiences with students. However, not only the lecture can motivate them, they need practical learning . . . There is no activity, no digital equipment in the class to entertain them. Lack of enjoyment bore them. It is difficult to motivate them. (Interview, August 22, 2019)

Fima demonstrated a concern for motivating students but without any effort to inspire students with any ‘Ideal L2 Self’ that could work as their future self-guide. So, her vision and classroom practices are not explicitly related.

Shormi was not found to make a link between her vision and classroom teaching. She even did not possess any clear Ideal L2 self. She tried to guide students with her positive experiences and create a fear-free learning environment. Shormi appeared to be a confident teacher with her effort to motivate students but her contribution to students’ construction of self-images or L2 vision did not appear.

Neha tried to set example of an Ideal L2 self to help her students’ formation of visions. She believed that she could motivate some of her students to be teachers in future as she explained:

I try to connect them. I teach them if they like the language, love the language. Thus, I try to motivate them…Some students are motivated, and want to be good teachers (Interview, September 4, 2019)

V. Discussion

A. The Early Language Learning Experiences of Bangladeshi EFL Teachers

The findings show considerable difficulties in L2 learning encountered by the teachers. The socio-cultural context of Bangladesh presented an additional barrier to the participants’ L2 learning. English is not used for social communications, and hence language learners have little to no access to practise English in real life situations (Rahman, 2005). Rahman, Rahman, & Begum (2015) study found that students are usually shy about speaking at their initial stage as they are afraid of teachers’ and peers’ criticism.

The geographical location impacted on the participants’ learning experiences. Hossain (2016) study found that the students from poor families in rural areas have scarce access to learning resources compared to the urban students. Uneducated parents and poverty impacted on Priam’s study. Hossain (2016) study also found that low performance of rural students related to their parents’ education and parents’ low expectations influenced students’ decisions to pursue education. Gender issue is a great concern and is even more acute in rural Bangladesh. Dejaeghere and Lee (2011) study in a rural district in Bangladesh, found that the girls and their parents experience insecurity on the way to school, the lack of free movement in communities, sexual harassment, and acid throwing. The underlying reasons for girls’ being victims of violence relate to the attempt to abstain girls from becoming educated and changing social norms. Further empirical research with a larger sample of women would be an important issue to explore if the issues Fima raised, are experienced by others in similar circumstances.

Despite the challenges, all the participants were motivated to continue learning English beyond high school, stating a desire to compete on a larger scale within a more globalised context. In fact, with the rising demand for global and
intercultural communications, English has become the ‘lingua franca’ and also has become an essential skill to create global citizens (Dower & Williams, 2002; Mayo, 2005). Like many other third world countries, Bangladesh has redesigned its education policies with significant amendments to respond to this demand (Akteruzzaman & Islam, 2017). For example, amendment in the national curriculum, in the introduction of English translations of Bengali textbooks, in the late 1990s, the enactment of the Private University Act in 1992, and the establishment of compulsory English courses in all universities in 1994 (Rahman, 2015). These initiatives exercised compelling influence on learners to consider English knowledge as mandatory for their career and survival in the global world (Akteruzzaman & Islam, 2017).

B. Future Visions: Participants' Self-perceptions of Possible Selves

The participants’ visions of possible selves have been investigated against Dornyei’s L2MSS theory. Dornyei (2009) mentioned six conditions required to make the ‘Ideal L2 self’ active: (i) the L2 learner possesses a desired future self-image; (ii) the self-image is vivid and precise; (iii) the self-image is considered as plausible and does not conflict with the learner’s social environment; (iv) it is regularly activated; (v) it is associated with appropriate procedures towards the goal; (vi) it contains information about the adverse outcome of failure to meet the goal.

When a learner’s ideal self involves a person, who is active and proficient in the L2 or his/her engagement with the L2 community, in Gardners’ terminology he/she has an ‘integrative’ disposition (Nicholson, 2013, p. 280). Priam, Mohan, and Neha viewed themselves as native L2 speakers who could speak English fluently. They possessed elaborate and vivid self-images for the future, discovered gaps between their actual and desired L2 selves, strengthened their visions and took action to fill those gaps.

Fima’s and Shormi’s self-perception demonstrated their situated and executive motives and did not have any internally or externally generated self-images. Dornyei suggested that for some L2 learners, the primary motivation does not come from self-image but from successful involvement with the actual learning process and engagement with the learners’ immediate learning environment (2009).

Markus (2006) argued that the dream or image of a desired future is the core content of the ideal self. At the time of their identity construction, adolescents produce diverse possible selves as alternative potential identities to discover and try out (Dunkel et al. 2006). “Individuals’ representations of what is possible for the self, give rise to generalised feeling of efficacy, competence, control, or optimism” (Ruvolo & Markus, 1992, p. 96). When students form their visions of possible selves, they start to consider learning as a way to activate their desires and aspirations and avoid feared possible selves. The participant’s comments emphasised their willingness and commitment to learning English because the learning process and the end result reinforced their self-perceptions and provided a clear route towards their personal goals.

C. Visions and Motivations to be English Teachers

Teachers’ self-perceptions, positive motivation, and professional commitment all combine to enhance their efforts to motivate students. Although this holds true on a general basis, within the context of this study, the teachers saw themselves as L2 learners first and teachers second. Rahmati et al. (2018) study explored the relation between teachers’ visions of themselves and their motivations for teaching. In this study, the teachers’ vision was identified as Ideal L2 teacher self-image. These researchers identified four categories of teacher vision - Visionary, Partially visionary, Vision-comprised, and Non-visionary. Teachers who had clear visions of their Ideal L2 teacher selves, were highly motivated L2 teachers. In my study, teachers have shared their experiences as L2 learners and teachers as well.

In Rahmati et al. (2018) study, it was found that teachers who had clear visions of Ideal L2 teacher selves, were highly motivated L2 teachers. In my study, the teachers’ ‘Ideal L2 Self’ was considerably influential in their L2 motivation. However, it did not influence their decisions to enter the teaching profession. Teachers who had ‘Ideal L2 Selves’ visions, were found more aware of linking their classroom teaching with their visions to help students’ formation of self-images.

It is clear that not all the participating teachers in my study were motivated L2 teachers. The reasons for their demotivation included lack of social recognition, learners’ demotivation, learners’ heterogeneous level of L2 proficiency, infrastructural limitations, and crowded classrooms. In Sugino (2010), Wyatt (2013), and Rahmati et al. (2018) studies, similar factors were found to cause teachers’ demotivation.

D. Teachers’ Visions Influencing Classroom Practice and Student Motivation

Dornyei argued that “it is more effective to raise awareness and guide in selecting from adolescents’ dreams, aspirations and desires which already exist in them” (Dornyei, 2009, p. 33). Within the participant group, Priam, Mohan, and Neha reflected on their individual L2 visions, motivations and connected these visions with their classroom practices, helping their students to create their own visions in turn.

Teachers can ignite students’ visions and contribute to their awareness of their own ideal selves and guide the students towards attaining that desired self-construction (Dornyei, 2009). Teachers’ help in students’ synthesis of potential hypothetical images to strengthen their visions and minimise weaknesses has been emphasised in other L2 motivational studies (e.g. Oyserman et al. 2002). In my study, an alignment of vision and classroom practice was
established and a transfer of motivation from teacher to student was found in Priam’s, Mohan’s, and Neha’s case. They consciously linked their visions and teaching practices.

Although this study did not find a general alignment between teachers’ visions, motivations and classroom practices across the participant group, those who constructed ‘Ideal L2 Selves’ in their own learning stages, could relate their classroom practices to these Ideal Selves and in turn help students’ formation of L2 vision.

VI. IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Theoretically, the findings of this study emphasise the significance of vision construction for L2 achievement. Teachers can contribute to improving learners’ motivational status by helping their formation of L2 visions. Moreover, intervention of ‘language vision programmes’ could be considered. Effective steps need to be initiated by educational authorities, and school administrators on how to provide conducive work environment encouraging for teachers’ professional practices and endeavouring to motivate learners. Methodologically, narrative enquiry helped to uncover the teachers’ in-depth thoughts, motivations and self-perception. Understanding the realities of teachers’ professional motivation and their contribution to the construction of students’ L2 vision could provide a starting point for further investigations. Practically, there was a noted difference between the motivational level of rural and urban students. Further research is required to consider the implications for improving facilities for L2 teaching and learning in Bangladeshi rural schools. The gap between urban and rural L2 access and support could be considered a social justice issue. Reducing that gap needs to be ensured in both rural and urban schools if the motivational level of both teachers and students is to be improved.

VII. CONCLUSION

The study objectives of exploring Bangladeshi EFL teachers’ L2 learning experiences, L2 visions, professional motivations and how these translate into classroom practices involved intensive self-searching for the five teachers in this study. The experience itself may be of value as a “journey into the deepest recesses of one’s self-awareness” (Kagan, 1992, p.164). Self-searching in this way might contribute to increased teachers’ awareness and a willingness to adapt their classroom practices to improving students’ L2 motivation.

The teachers reflected on their experiences as both L2 learners and teachers, focusing on their past and their present and their interconnections. The teachers faced considerable challenges in their L2 learning journeys, but they improved their motivational states and formed their visions either of ‘Ideal L2 Selves’ or ‘L2 Learning Experiences’. None of the participants admitted to the existence of ‘Ought-to L2 Self’ in their self-constructed visions. They did not share the same level of motivation or interest in their teaching and were not equally aware of using visionary tactics to encourage L2 learning in students. Teachers with ‘Ideal L2 Selves’ were more aware of generating their students’ L2 visions. Being aware of their ‘Ideal L2 Self’ appeared to be a strong motivational force for the teachers.

The study also revealed teachers’ lack of motivation for teaching as a profession. Professional motivation and commitment appeared to be based on social, economic, psychological, infrastructural, and cultural issues. Many of these challenges could not be addressed by the teachers themselves. Therefore, this study concludes with some recommendations to address these conditions at an institutional and political level to bring attitudinal change among those teaching English in Bangladesh. That positively motivated English teachers can play a significant role in motivating students by helping the construction of their visions for English learning, is not a hypothesis, rather it is a reality.

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Beauty Debnath was born in Mymensingh, Bangladesh. She received her BA honours and MA degree in English literature from National University of Bangladesh. She was awarded with prestigious ‘Australia Awards Scholarship 2018’ and had completed Master of Educational Studies with TESOL Major from Griffith University, Queensland, Australia.

She joined Bangladesh civil service (Education Cadre) in 2006 and has been working as an Assistant Professor of English in different public colleges. Her current working place is Directorate of Secondary and Higher Secondary Education, Bangladesh, Dhaka. Her research interests include EFL teachers’ agency, professional identity and professional development.

She was awarded with ‘Griffith Academic Excellence Award 2019’ from Griffith University, QLD, Australia and was also awarded with ‘The Chairman’s Award’ in 2010 for obtaining topmost position in Foundation Training Course organised by National Academy for Educational Management, Dhaka, Bangladesh.
The Implementation of Authentic Award-winning Acceptance Speeches to Enhance IELTS Learners’ Motivation in Speaking Skills

Trinh Thi Kieu Dinh
Banking Academy of Vietnam, Hanoi, Vietnam

Abstract—Learners’ motivation in learning English plays an undeniable role in their progress. However, this is where the problem arises when language teachers find it struggling to boost their motivation to absorb the knowledge and produce a product. Learners’ lack of confidence in poor knowledge concerning background and linguistics discourages them from making any noticeable improvements, which is occurring in speaking classes when learners are afraid of voicing their opinions. The implementation of authentic videos to stimulate learners’ performance in speaking skills has been widely investigated, still the questions of what and how they are exploited have remained restrictively answered. The study aims at examining the impact of a specific type of video among numerous sources on the speaking ability of five intermediate-level learners who were preparing for the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) examination. The findings revealed that learners were eager to watch the authentic videos and they could learn a great deal from them, especially background knowledge, new range of vocabulary, native pronunciation and intonation.

Index Terms—authentic speeches, IELTS speaking skills, motivation

I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching Speaking skills has never been easy for language teachers. Albeit various methods proposed and implemented, the real challenge presented to teachers lies in the enhancement of learners’ motivation to make progress. The motivation can be derived from external or internal factors exerting influence on students’ success. While extrinsic motivation is often ascribed to parents’ expectations, friends’ pressure, or learners’ prior learning experiences, intrinsic motivation, according to Harmer (1991), comes from teachers’ teaching methods or physical conditions like the facilities of the class and the learning environment. Among these factors, teachers play an integral part in motivating learners. In other words, their methodology will give students the incentive to stay engaged in the lessons. Thus, all the class activities should be constantly varied to bring in the fresh enjoyment for students. This requires new initiatives to be put in place by making use of authentic materials so that learners’ interest can be stimulated and the aims of the lessons will be achieved.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Speaking is the productive skill in which students must have a good vocabulary range, background and linguistic knowledge to put their thoughts and ideas into words. Yet, students often encounter principal and perennial obstacles like the fear of making pronunciation or grammatical mistakes, the dearth of ideas to express opinions, or the demanding outcomes of the learning program. These difficulties increasingly deter them from speaking confidently in front of the class, which justifies the alternative choices including remaining silent, using the mother tongue, or depending on the dominant speaker in the discussing group or pair. In such situations, teachers must shoulder the responsibility for restoring learners’ confidence by providing them with what is necessary to improve this challenging skill.

Authentic materials

Authentic materials have long been employed in line with the advent of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) since the 1970s. CLT relieves learners of the pressure to produce linguistically correct speeches as long as they can deliver a message to the audience. To put it another way, the authenticity in which the real-world factors are infused will aid students considerably to gradually overcome their own fears. The role of authenticity in CLT classes by virtue of authentic materials has been accentuated in studies by Nunan (1989), Wesche and Skehan (2002). Authentic materials offer a wealth of real-life expressions as well as social knowledge so that learners can find them extremely valuable in their study. The materials are in the form of a brochure, an advertisement, an article or a video. Students will be exposed to the information concerning the current events and language patterns. As such, they can grasp a deeper understanding of how the language actually works in various contexts.

Authentic videos

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The use of authentic videos has been confirmed in previous studies when they enhance learners’ speaking ability tremendously (Rammal, 2006; Yumarnamto and Wirbovo, 2008). Stemplesky (2002) claims that the implementation of videos can bring an original and motivating learning experience for learners. Teachers can design a wide variety of activities around the videos for students to discover the language use, the content as well as facial expressions, stimulating them to practice at their own pace. This advantage can be hardly competed by other methods as learners explicitly interact with the video while listening. They can learn substantially from the linguistic expressions, nonverbal communication and viral information. Moreover, the pronunciation and intonation will be favorably impacted since learners no longer have to struggle in their search of appropriate way of speaking. Instead, they will draw inspiration from the native voices to better their own speaking skills, which language teachers have been struggling.

Apart from the merits of authentic videos, choosing the videos tailored to the objectives of the lessons and the needs of the students is what teachers must consider carefully to make the most out of them. Burt (1999) summarized major criteria to decide whether the video selected satisfies the learning requirements. First and foremost, the content must match the learning goals and learners’ level at the suitable pace. Moreover, the video should be of learners’ interest, which keeps their attention throughout. Likewise, the length of the video is another point worth counting for it should not be too long even though students show deep interest and it will not occupy the time for later analysis and production. In addition, real-life language, which is the target of this teaching technique, may sometimes pose a significant challenge to learners since it is often spoken in different accents and it contains either too formal or too informal expressions.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research aims at finding the answers to the following questions:
- Do authentic award-winning acceptance speeches have influence on language learners’ motivation?
- What are the effects of authentic award-winning acceptance speeches on learners’ motivation?
- How can these authentic videos be employed to engage learners in language hours?

IV. METHODOLOGY

IELTS Speaking module tests candidates’ ability to communicate in English on daily topics. Accordingly, candidates should give their own ideas and justify them with proper examples without the fear of being right or wrong. However, learners often experience the shortage of appropriate expressions as well as background knowledge, so they do not know how to start the performance and how to organize the ideas. Gradually, when the anxiety keeps growing with no better solutions, they tend to develop a barrier discouraging them from making any progress.

The research employed qualitative methodology to evaluate the influence of authentic videos on learners’ motivation to speak English. Five English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners following an IELTS training course were involved in this project. Their English was at intermediate level and they were not confident in speaking. For them, speaking test or practice was equally difficult, so they were not ready to join activities though they had been applying various methods in their self-study. They were introduced to the authentic videos and required to answer the questions based on the content in the video as well as the related topic. After the lessons, learners were invited to join an interview to elicit their perspectives about the chosen speeches.

The research made use of authentic award-winning acceptance speeches to decide if they can enhance IELTS learners’ motivation to improve their speaking skills. Prior researches suggest the use of authentic videos in oral classes after the positive evaluation. Yet, problems as to the type, length or content of the video implemented in language classes stay unconvincingly solved.

Based on one of the five aspects that Scarcella’s (2003) detailed, sociolinguistic competence facilitates the ability to compare and contrast, give explanation or justification, describe or define an issue. This works as a paradigm for teachers to infuse the element of authenticity into the classroom but it also ensures that learners are instructed to make use of the authentic videos in the appropriate way.

Three award-winning acceptance speeches were adopted in accordance with the topic and the level of the Speaking lesson. Students were introduced to a film of the concerned topic and required to watch the moment the actor/actress received the award. While watching, students must work out the organization of the speaker’s speeches and classify the collected information into problem-solution, cause-effect, problem-effect, cause-solution, compare-contrast or opinion giving. The ideas were simultaneously added to provide as proof. Teacher then highlighted the linguistic features in the videos so that learners can use in the practice section.

V. RESULTS

A. Video 1: Leonardo DiCaprio’s 2016 Oscar Acceptance Speech for Best Actor
### The Revenant

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Movie</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Ideas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Revenant</td>
<td>Environment</td>
<td>Problem-Solution</td>
<td>Problem: climate change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Solutions:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- work together, stop procrastinating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- support leaders speaking for indigenous</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>and underprivileged people mostly affected,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>for children’s children</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Linguistic features summarized by the teacher:
- “collectively felt”
- “the hottest year in recorded history”
- “climate change is real”
- “the most urgent threat”
- “work collectively together”
- “stop procrastinating”
- “… not speak for the big polluters”
- “… speak for the indigenous people, … for billions and billions of underprivileged people”
- “for those whose voices have been drowned out by the politics of greed”
- “let’s not take this planet for granted”

### Video 2: Joaquin Phoenix’s 2020 Oscar Acceptance Speech for Best Actor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Movie</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Ideas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Joker</td>
<td>Society</td>
<td>Problem - Solution</td>
<td>Problem: believe that one nation, one people, one race, one gender, one species, has the right to dominate, use and control another with impunity”</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>+ “we’ve become very disconnected from the natural world”</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>+ “Many of us are guilty of an egocentric world view, and we believe that we’re the centre of the universe.”</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>+ “We feel entitled to artificially inseminate a cow and steal her baby, even though her cries of anguish are unmistakeable.”</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>+ “Then we take her milk that’s intended for her calf and we put it in our coffee and our cereal.”</td>
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<td>Solutions:</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- “use the voice for the voiceless”</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- “fight against injustice”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- “human beings at our best are so creative and inventive, and we can create, develop and implement systems of change that are beneficial to all sentient beings and the environment.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- “we’re at our best: when we support each other. Not when we cancel each other out for our past mistakes, but when we help each other to grow. When we educate each other; when we guide each other to redemption.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Linguistic features summarized by the teacher:
- “impunity”
- “disconnected from the natural world”
- “guilty of an egocentric world view”
- “centre of the universe”
- “plunder”
- “feel entitled to”
- “her cries of anguish are unmistakeable”
- “use the voice for the voiceless”
- “implement systems of change”
- “sentient beings”
- “guide each other to redemption”

### Video 3: Oprah Winfrey’s 2018 Golden Globes
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Movie</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Ideas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Cause – Effect</td>
<td>Cause:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Women abuse in the entertainment industry and other working areas alike</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Inequality between men and women when women dare not to tell the truth of being mistreated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Effect:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Women have risen to reveal the truth and a new wave of #metoo has erupted.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Linguistic features summarized by the teacher:
- “… made history”
- “cheap seats”
- “bone-tired”
- “… women who’ve inspired me, who’ve challenged me, who sustained me and made my journey to this stage possible”
- “… who has been the definition of what a friend is”
- “… my rock”
- “… under siege”
- “insatiable dedication”
- “turning a blind eye to corruption and injustice”
- “navigate these complicated times”
- “transcends any culture…”
- “endure years of abuse and assault”
- “the truth … goes marching on”
- “a new day is on the horizon”
- “… leaders who take us to the time when nobody has to say me too again”

D. Discussion Activity

After the linguistic features were highlighted, teacher raised some questions for further discussion in relation to the topic and the video displayed so that learners could apply the provided resource into the immediate practice. This activity worked as the bridge between theory and practice for learners would not have the feeling of anxiety when asked to perform an activity without prior input of either vocabulary or background knowledge.

For Video 1 (Leonardo DiCaprio’s 2016 Oscar Acceptance Speech for Best Actor), teacher required students to discuss in pairs the following questions and encouraged them to refer to the previous lecturing.

Question 1: How serious is climate change?
Student A: Climate change is real and happening at a fast pace. It’s hard to find snow now.
Student B: We are collectively feeling hottest years in the recorded history. For example, ice is melting, so Leonardo DiCaprio and his team must move to the tip of the south to find snow for filming The Revenant.
Student C: Climate change is the most urgent threat human beings are facing. Ice is melting.

Question 2: What can humans do to deal with climate change?
Student D: People should work together without procrastinating or delaying actions.
Student E: People should support leaders to fight against climate change for the sake of indigenous people and our children’s children.

For Video 2 (Joaquin Phoenix’s 2020 Oscar Acceptance Speech for Best Actor), the question and answers were as follows.

Question: What do you think about the relationship between humans and the natural world?
Student A: Humans have been doing things that cause harm to the life of the natural species. They take land for construction. They take the cow for the milk. They take some animals for fur or leather. And this is unacceptable.
Student B: Humans think they are the center of the universe so they can do whatever they like to the natural world. They are doing bad to the Mother Nature and all the species are suffering.
Student C: The relationship between humans and the natural world reflects a bigger picture. Like Joaquin mentioned, in today’s world when one gender, one nation or one species can dominate the world with impunity, this is absolutely unfair and must be changed. No one has the right over the others and humans do not have the right over the natural world.
Student D: I think this relationship is getting worse when humans keep doing harm to the environment. Climate change is becoming an urgent threat and the whole world is suffering. That’s why humans must change their action now before it’s too late.
Student E: The relationship is becoming worse when humans take down trees for wood or take away the animals for their fur or milk or meat. I think the sentient beings must stop thinking they are the dominating species in this world.

For Video 3 (Oprah Winfrey’s 2018 Golden Globes), the questions and answers were as follows.

Question: How has the role of women changed after the #metoo movement?
Student A: #metoo movement is the definition of the power of women in a world where they are abused and assaulted.
Student B: It rocks the world when women refuse to keep secrets and women deserve to have respect.
Student C: It transcends the whole society and makes people rethink the role of women in all aspects like culture, entertainment, labor, etc.
Student D: It has made history with the truth uncovered. Secrets and lies are no longer hidden.
Student E: It signifies a new day on the horizon when people will no longer turn a blind eye to injustice.

From learners’ answers, teacher highly evaluated the expressions created when learners could integrate highlighted phrases in their own production and even infuse the concrete evidence into their reasoning. This shows signs of positive impact of the activity on learners’ temporary performance.

VI. DISCUSSION

After the lessons, five students were invited to join the interview session to analyze whether watching such videos motivates them to be confident in speaking skills or not. The interview questions centered around the dominant issues regarding the perspective of learners about the inclusion of authentic videos in class and the influence of such videos on their motivation to speak English.

Question 1: How did you feel after watching those videos?
Five students shared the same feeling that they found inspired by what they had watched. They were all impressed by the way the prize winners articulated their own story.

Student A put it
I am totally carried away by the way Leonardo speaks because it’s so real and powerful and I can’t take my eyes off him when he is speaking. I totally agree with his view about the effort to save our planet.

Student C claimed that
I have been obsessed with every speech by Oprah Winfrey as she has the ability to awake us by her powerful speech. I love the way she refers to the past and connects it with the present and even the future.

Student D said that
I am absolutely touched by Joaquin’s remarks as he is telling the truth that we are refusing to accept. I agree that with love, humans can change the world for the better.

Question 2: Have you watched the films that the actors or actress received the prize? If yes, do you share the same feeling with them? If not, did you watch the film after the lesson?
All the five students had never watched the three movies. However, they all expressed the desire that they would watch them after the lesson because of the impressions these movies had created.

Student A told that
I have been a fan of Oprah Winfrey for years. I love her powerful voice and her powerful thoughts. I have to confess that my hair stands on end when I heard her voice. It really gives me goosebumps as it is so powerful. I will watch it immediately.

Student B expressed that
Though I haven’t seen the films but I have already known the problems mentioned currently. At first, I didn’t want to see them but it is those speeches that make me think again. I am curious about how people fight for their life in a world where injustice is everywhere.

Student D said that
I have long been a big fan of Leonardo because of his talents. He often puts his true emotions when filming. His thoughts have awakened the whole audience, so I want to see it right away.

Student E shared that
I was really moved by Joaquin’s ideas. His thoughts really motivate me to watch it once to see why he was saying like that.

Question 3: What did you learn from those videos with regard to your knowledge and English Speaking skills?
Each student has drawn different knowledge from the videos presented. However, apart from the background knowledge, they unanimously agreed that their English Speaking were improved when they had the motivation to better this skill. From the answers collected, the biggest lesson they can learn is the confidence in speaking. This confidence stems from the correct pronunciation, the attractive intonation, facial expressions, body language and the language use. The issues in the videos and in the films alike are not new, but the way they shared when receiving the prize was literally shaking the world. That was the spotlight moment which students can learn tremendously.

Teachers often struggle to promote learners’ motivation to speak English as learners are hesitant to deliver even a small talk or speech in the target language. They do not know how to perform well in terms of pronunciation, intonation, gestures as well as language and background knowledge. The language or the expressions that the speaker used in the videos is so real that learners are really eager to adopt and adapt in their own speech. All these factors contribute to the initial success of a speaking class when the dominant barriers hindering learners’ progress are gradually lifted.
VII. CONCLUSION

Though the difficulties in speaking English differ from students to students, the lack of motivation to have a confident performance often deters learners from raising their voices. The root of the problem has been identified in numerous researches including the shortage of background knowledge and vocabulary or the fear of making pronunciation mistakes. Meanwhile, the requirements of IELTS Speaking Skills primarily focus on the learners’ ability to communicate effectively in various situations, which increases the level of difficulty for learners with low confidence. Thus, helping students overcome those problems and build the confidence to speak is a painstaking journey, which involves more than a single teaching method. The implementation of authentic materials in general and authentic videos in particular has long been introduced in EFL classes. Yet, what type of videos are integrated and how the videos are employed have been under tremendous discussion. This means that teacher must take factors like the needs, level and interest of learners into account for an effective class. In this research, the author made use of short videos recapturing the glamorous moments of different actors or actress receiving the prestigious prize. Their stunning speeches left an impression on the learners and they exerted a favorable influence on learners’ motivation to learn from the featured artists and produce short expressions confidently. This paves the way for a succession of follow-up activities designed to enhance learners’ motivation and engage them more in language classes.

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Trinh Thi Kieu Dinh received her bachelor’s degree in English Language Teacher Education in 2013. She received her master in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) in 2015. Her research interests are linguistics and teaching methods.
EAP Learners' Perceptions towards the Use of Tasks in Their Books: Focusing on Needs Analysis

Maryam Cheraghi Shehni
Department of Language Teaching and Translation, Varamin-Pishva Branch, Islamic Azad University, Varamin, Iran

Abstract—The development of English as a universal language led to the emergence of a new field in English language teaching which is called English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Moreover, English is recently considered as an international language, and with advancements in technology, accordingly, there is a widespread growth in demand for English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses fluctuating in teaching length and mode. The present study, thus, attempts to consider the EAP Learners' Perceptions towards the use of tasks taught in universities as EAP courses for students and what English skills and abilities are required from them on the job.

Index Terms—EAP courses, learner's perception, needs analysis, task-based language teaching, tasks

I. INTRODUCTION

With the development of English in academic communications and the growing demand of university students to involve in disciplinary knowledge through English and later to be capable of functioning successfully in employment, English for Academic Purposes (EAP) has proven itself as one of the two main subdivisions of ESP and developed over the past twenty years rapidly (Hyland, 2006). The term English for Academic Purposes (EAP) is an idea first used by the British Council in 1975 and 1976, the British Council Teaching Division Inspectorate has presented a teaching course in EAP for its English Language teaching staff (Alqahtani, 2011).

As stated by Richards (2001), during the 1960s when English for Specific Purposes (ESP) instruction absorbed the attention of experts, needs investigation started to be employed as a part of the language programs. Then, such a practical term has been characterized and realized by several people differently. Today, needs analysis is not restrained to ESP courses; its consideration is observed in different educational program improvement and surveys.

According to Strevens (1980), ESP is derived from communicative language educating, and it is formulated to address specific learners' issues as well as themes and subjects related to the occupations or the study areas. Hence, ESP is arranged to advance the abilities of students to empower them in communicating in the English language (Tarnopolsky, 2009). Alternatively, Amirian and Tavakoli (2009) claimed that the great establishment on which ESP arose was the variety and particularity of students’ aims and needs for learning English. Belcher (2004) stated that ESP is an endeavor for assisting students with achieving their scholastic and occupational requirements and objectives, so students' necessities should be deliberately evaluated by a needs assessment.

Furthermore, it is believed that students in ESP classes often have limited time to learn English, so it is rational to teach them just the pre-specified sections of English in line with their needs. As a result, in terms of syllabus design and course development, it is the responsibility of the ESP course designer to identify and classify the needs of the learners and design the particular course based on these needs (Basturkmen, 2010).

EAP has gained popularity because of the great number of international learners learning in British and American colleges (Hyland, 2006). Accordingly, these colleges intended to set EAP courses to improve the learners’ scholastic abilities in English to arrive at the standards needed for entering universities where English is considered as the educating language. Given the significance of EAP syllabuses in Iran as the principal part of the ELT curriculum with evident instructive and monetary investments, course planners ought to reconsider the necessities of learners to build up their current status.

Having been agreed as the significant advance in planning an EAP course, the significance of needs assessment is featured in research when arranging courses, coordinating reading material, and deciding the type of educating and learning that will continue (Dudley_Evans & St John, 2001; Long, 2005). Needs analysis is considered as a criterion when course design is concerned due to the variety of needs and their distinctive and situation-based nature (Amirian and Tavakoli, 2009).

Conventionally, learners act as the central source of information in needs analysis literature. Learners can be an effective source of information; nevertheless, this is not certainly so, as in many circumstances’ learners do not know what their real language needs are. Numerous researchers such as Robinson (1991), Brown (2009), Seedhouse (1995), Graves (1999), Richards (2001), and Long (2005), approve that in ESP course design, needs analysis plays a significant
role. Therefore, it is a vital trait of ESP and thus the EAP course plan to the extent that Belcher (2009) referenced that needs assessment ought to be considered as something educators can regard as a piece of their instructing.

Moreover, needs analysis is the development of defining the needs for which a learner or number of learners necessitate a language and placing the needs along with significances in language teaching and language program design. Needs assessment makes use of both subjective and objective needs, as a result, needs analysis has become an essential component of the field ESP as the foundation for designing ESP course (Johns and Dudley-Evans, 1991).

On the other hand, Maleki and Zangani (2007) stated that one of the most serious difficulties that EFL students in Iran face in their field of study after graduating from university is their incapability in communicating and handling English. This is as a result of their weaknesses in English, which affect their academic accomplishment. These refer to the importance of EAP courses, which prepare university students to use English for their academic objectives.

While traditional approaches to NA usually integrate linguistic units of analysis, there has appeared as a different approach, using task as the unit of needs analysis. In the same vein, Long (2005) supports task as a possible unit of analysis in NA on some grounds, most basically an SLA-motivated basis which he provides for the implementation of an analytic syllabus generally, and particularly for task-based language teaching.

In fact, tasks in task-based language teaching are regarded as the systematic unit of the syllabus and arrange a course around various types of tasks (Long, 2005). Principles underlying TBLT also put more emphasis on the importance of developing pedagogic tasks based on authentic tasks, which learners must achieve through the target language after or all through the course. Consequently, to improve a TBLT program, conducting a task-based needs analysis for classifying real-world target tasks and developing pedagogic tasks based on them seems to be very required. Task-based needs analysis is supposed to increase the real-world significance of the course and to improve EAP learners’ interest. Indeed, task-based learning in teaching ESP can be extensively applied at the university level (Kavaliauskienë, 2005). However, the area of learners’ preferences in employing tasks remains unexplored. This research attempts to consider the issue, which might help language practitioners, develop their everyday teaching activities based on the learners’ needs.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Historical Background EAP

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), there are several reasons for the existence of English for specific purposes (ESP). First, Ibrahim (2017) stated that after the end of the Second World War, enormous development happened in technology, science, and economics. A foreign language was crucial since such growth was international. Due to the economic states of the United States, the English language ended up being its official language. Another reason was due to the results of linguistic research on language use. It has been proved that peoples’ use of language when speaking and writing are significantly different depending on the situation. The findings have left an impact on English teaching. Moreover, students have varying expertise. Hence, it is common for them to use or require a language that changes from one field to another. The third reason for ESP development is the advancement in educational psychology. When one emphasizes the learner, it is brought to light that learners have different needs that can affect their ambition. “Paramount” is a language course that meets learners’ needs and attends to their concerns.

B. What Is EAP?

English for academic purposes (EAP) has emerged from the widespread field of English for specific purposes (ESP) and is characterized by focusing on instructing English specially to make students’ studying or research in English easier (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001, Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002). EAP is segregated from ESP by focusing on scholarly settings; however, the perspective on EAP as a sub-discipline toward ESP actually endures among the applied linguistics and English language teaching fields. EAP is the linguistic, sociolinguistic, and psycholinguistic portrayal of English when it occurs with regards to scholastic study as well as academic exchange (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002).

C. Definition and Importance of Needs Analysis (NA)

The differences between the two types of needs are reported by Hutchinson and Waters (1987). The first is known as the target needs; in other words, the students’ needs in the target circumstance. Indeed, there are three classifications for target needs: "necessities", which alludes to what students need to have in the target state; "lacks", referring to the difference between the information that students have and what is required in the target state; "wants", alluding to what students believe that they require. Hutchinson and Waters proposed learning needs as the second type of needs. This type of needs considers how learners learn. Moreover, it takes account of information about learners, objectives for learning the language, and the ESP course time and situation (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Needs analysis is an essential stage in course design, so it is widely repeated in the literature (Brown, 1995; Bachman and Palmer, 1996; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Tomlinson, 2016). Needs analysis regards the process in which researchers collect, analyze, and assess different information sources to provide the unique needs of ESP learners (Gea-Valor, Rey-Rocha, and Moreno, 2014; Huhta, Vogt, Johnson, and Tulkki, 2013). At the center of the ESP course development (Serafini, Lake, and Long, 2015), the first stage in the development of the ESP course which is organized to determine the content and methodology of a course is NA (Flowerdew, 2013).
As Basturkmen, (2013) and Long (2015) stated, the importance of NA as a key stage in course design is greatly acknowledged in the literature. For instance, Richards (2001) revealed that NA significantly gave a solid and legitimate reason for defining aims and objectives, improving syllabuses and teaching contents, alongside assessment and redevelopment of projects. Needs analysis is fundamental to an EAP approach in course design. Furthermore, at Iranian universities, there are recently some needs analysis projects which tried to assess the needs of students (Hamp-Lyons, 2001). For example, a needs analysis study is conducted to explore students’ reading challenges as an initial step in designing a suitable reading intervention program for students of first-year sociology (Bookeye and Mai, 2016).

Mackay and Mountford (1978, cited in Muhammad Nadzri, 2004) declared four primary purposes of resuming the roles of needs analysis in language curriculum design. First, lecturers will be more aware of the sponsoring institution and the course requirements. Second, needs assessment recognizes how students will utilize English in their specialized fields. Moreover, it gives the educator fundamental knowledge of the prospective learners’ present level of performance in English. Additionally, it provides the opportunity to collect samples of original texts, both spoken and written, that can be used in the target situation. Ultimately, needs analysis helps instructors translate the language needs into pedagogical and linguistic terms that orderly build a suitable curriculum for courses and proposes practical guidance for instructors teaching the courses. Muhammad Nadzri (2004) proclaimed that the aforementioned four significant justifications produced evidence that needs analysis is without a doubt regarded as a crucial component of the language curriculum development, specifically in EAP.

1. Needs Analysis in EAP

All curriculum design for EAP courses needs to consider the different language needs of the target learners. Indeed, a strong foundation connected to the whole idea of conducting particular language courses is formed by determining the language needs of learners. The entire process of designing the curriculum, from the course objectives construction to the course contents selection and learning activities, is made more accessible by that preliminary knowledge. This might present a guarantee in the quality of the courses, particularly in helping the learners to achieve the expected learning outcomes. A needs analysis must be carried out for starting information collection on the learners' language needs.

All the ESP and EAP researchers and practitioners share a similar notion in simplifying what “needs analysis” is. Needs analysis is a mere tool that evaluates different kinds of English and literacy skills needed by learners. At the same time, it identifies the literacy contexts of the target language and what learners want and need to know in order to execute in those contexts, as well as what they await to attain from the educational program (Duzer & Weddel, 1997). As well as the identification of the linguistic items needs analysis will explore what the learners should do to apply those items and how those items will be used in the predicted context. Needs analysis refers to the activities that take place when gathering data that indicate the basis of curriculum development that achieves the learning necessities of a specific student group (Brown, 1995).

Wei and Flaitz (2005), regarding what should be focused on needs analysis, recognized it as something subjective when learners’ needs can be examined in several skills or only a specific skill. Likewise, they saw that researchers gather information to be comfortable with the assignments that learners will encounter in college classes and furthermore scrutinize the abilities the learners needed to carry out those assignments successfully. The recent focus is involving the student learning styles and strategies, which Kavaliauskiene and Uzpaliene (2003) seen as an essential aspect in needs analysis. Therefore, Mo (2005) viewed needs analysis as the process of establishing what and how of a language course.

Accordingly, since the quality of learning may be questioned, using this short-cut approach for deciding the course syllable poses a threat to both instructors and students. Hence, a little effort needs to be applied to perform needs analysis so all doubts belonging to the quality of the curriculum might be avoided in developing curriculum for any language courses.

2. Approaches to NA

To study needs analysis, numerous approaches can be identified (Ali, 2011; Kaewpet, 2009; Songhori, 2008). Target situation analysis (TSA) and present situation analysis (PSA), which are basic elements in studying students’ language learning needs, are proposed by Ali (2011).

3. Target Situation Analysis (TSA)

According to Songhori (2008), Chambers in 1980 used TSA as he attempted to clarify the terminology confusion. The latter refers to TSA as “communication in the target situation.” Mumbay (1978) applied this model when he introduced his Communicative Needs Processor (CNP) in 1978 (Songhori, 2008; Kaewpet, 2009). The CNP signified the development of ESP (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). The machine required for studying any groups of learners’ needs had been supplied, and course designers needed but to make use of it. TSA refers to the term that includes necessities, lacks, and wants (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). TSA depends on posing inquiries about the target state and the members’ mentalities toward that circumstance. Six primary questions are included in TSA, which are subsequently divided into several different inquiries. The primary questions consider the goals for which the language is required, the way the language is utilized, the content zones, who are associated with the interaction procedure, the circumstance wherein the language will be utilized, and when the language will be utilized (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Robinson (1991) considers TSA as attention on what learners require toward the course’s end. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) and Hyland (2006) express that TSA involves factual, comprehended, and product-oriented necessities.
4. Present Situation Analysis (PSA)

Another NA approach is PSA, which could be viewed as TSA’s supplement (West, 1997). Indeed, TSA intends to recognize what students are capable of doing after the course while PSA plans to start how students are toward the start of the course. In addition, PSA shows the “weakness and strength in language, skills, and learning experience” (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998), and PSA, consequently, gives the beginning stage of the course. As asserted by Songhori (2008), Richterich and Chancerel presented PSA in the 1980s that satisfies numerous purposes by creating information using different sources. For example, it obtains data from students, the professional establishment, and the educational organization. Also, placement tests may be carried out as a source of data to identify the teachers’ current state in the language. However, information about learners’ years of learning English experience and educational level can provide necessary data about their talents and abilities.

As stated by Robinson (1991), needs analysis should be regarded as a combination of both TSA and PSA. Moreover, Hyland (2006) recommends that PSA make both objective and subjective information available. Therefore, PSA alludes to recognizing learners’ current degree of capability including deficiencies whereas TSA attempts to distinguish what learners need to do in the target state.

D. Task-based Language Teaching

TBLT method in language education offers learners chances to be associated with the genuine utilization of the target language through assignments. The assignment is the principle segment in TBLT, which prepares the primary context, which also elevates language utilization like how language is applied outside the class. Ellis (2003) stated that students could learn the language and improve skills when they work into completing the task that motivates them to enhance their available language resources. According to Samuda and Bygate (2008), there are different definitions of a task in the literature as a result of varying perspectives and purposes of researchers and teacher educators studying tasks and TBLT.

The TBLT benefits have been competently explained in the literature as Nunan (2004) emphasized using the language for authentic purposes and believed TBLT is important on the grounds that students can study the language through communicating mutually and taking part in significant tasks. He additionally viewed TBLT as proper for learners’ requirements and interests, as it enhances language learning and the development of important skills for finishing tasks that learners encounter outside the class. Moreover, these advantages are emphasized by referencing that learners utilize self-chosen language during assignments that assist them with focusing on the meaning of their message to finish it (Ellis 2003b, 2009). Specific language items are not introduced for students, so they are free of language control. Students apply the language that they have instead of practicing specified language items.

Task-based language teaching is a student-centered approach to teaching along with being adaptable (Van den Branden, 2012). Students communicate naturally in situations that they experience outside of the classroom with the language, which is highly connected to them. Task-based language teaching considers tasks as the logical unit of the syllabus and arranges a course around different types of tasks (Long, 2005; Long and Crookes, 1992). In addition, the principles of TBLT put more emphasis on the importance of developing academic tasks based on authentic tasks, which learners should perform through the target language after or during the course. Thus, it is essential to manage a task-based NA for recognizing real-world target tasks and improve pedagogic tasks based on them to develop a TBLT program. Task-based NA can increase the real-world purpose of the course and enhance the motivation and interest of learners.

In accordance with Long (2005), task-based needs analysis is more advantageous than other traditional needs analysis approaches, like the learning-centered approach (Hutchinson and Waters, 1994), present situation analysis (Richterich and Chancerel, 1980), and target situation analysis (Munby, 1978) since it can prepare more valid data about the target tasks, it can identify the authentic uses of the language, and its outcomes can be easily used just as input for the content-based or task-based course design.

A few investigations have been completed in this domain. Liu, Chang, Yang, and Sun (2011) investigated English as a foreign language that university learners require in English for General Purposes (EGP) and English for ESP/EAP courses regarding their impression of three subsegments of needs—necessities, wants and lacks. Moreover, there were contrasts between what learners perceived to need and the courses that they actually took, which emphasize the importance of acknowledging needs as a perplexing, numerous, and conflicting notion. The findings of the study propose that participants were in the wake of learning the English language so they could distribute their works and land regular positions as instructors. The educators engaged in expanding oral and listening abilities and utilizing English in the classes they taught.

Bouaballah (2015) has studied the requirements of first-year master’s scholars in biology at the University of Tlemcen, Algeria. The findings of the research affirmed that learners regarded speaking, listening, and translations from English to Arabic as primary abilities. Learners must comprehend lectures that are given in English, study and translate scientific papers, and take an interest in conversations. Also, the participants were inadequate in English. The hardest skills for them to attain appeared to be writing and speaking in particular.

Furthermore, the language needs of tourism management graduates in Iran have been examined (Moattarian & Tahiririan, 2014). According to the study, all four skills were considered significant and tourism students laid
emphasis on them. Students lacked the ability to communicate in English. Even though all the participants confirmed
the importance of English in this field, graduates revealed that they found the previous ESP course ineffective.

III. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

EAP courses are predominantly intended to support non-native students to deal with the demands at English-medium
universities and to improve academic literacy and study skills and nowadays these types of courses aim at assisting
language learners to study, carry out research or teach in English (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001). Furthermore, the
purpose of EAP courses is to help learners to learn some of the linguistic and cultural practices take in studying or
working in such a setting (Gillett, 2011). As a result, EAP is beginning with the learner and the situation and not with
the language itself as in English for General Purposes (Hamp-Lyons, 2001).

As in any other EFL course, the instructor can select an applied methodology for an EAP course consistent with the
teaching philosophy, the specific needs of the students, and the demands or procedures of the particular association.
Nevertheless, as it is apparent from the study of Douglas and Kim (2014), examining EAP classes, task-supported
teaching is widespread and supposed to be highly advantageous.

As EAP has very accurate structures, clearly discriminating it from English for General Purposes, the selected
teaching methodology has to be intended to cover these issues efficiently, chiefly concerning the very partial existing
time in pre-courses. Hence, it has been recommended that the numerous advantages of TBLT, for example, its
comprehensive way to deal with language and its involvement in language, alongside its emphasis on real-life
assignments, can help international students manage the increased requests of an English-medium university, both on a
linguistic and a scholastic level.

The students are provided with opportunities to employ TBLT structures to put emphasis first on making meaning,
and then on usage; nevertheless, not ignoring it. Maybe, the advantage of this approach is the fact that students can have
a priori knowledge by the reliable element of TBLT during the research, transfer this knowledge, and developed skills
to their conventional research.

When planning a TBLT lesson, choosing suitable assignments is of utmost importance. According to Benesch (1996),
when doing so for EAP courses, the particular needs of students must first be recognized and then taken into effective
consideration. These needs depend on their major, level of language proficiency, cognitive level, and cultural
background. As a matter of fact, Gillett (2011) asserted that in order to get involved in the courses, students will be
requiring linguistic assignments constituting both language and practices.

However, the TBLT approach has a few difficulties that need to be overcome. For example, language teachers may
not be familiar with it and may need additional preparation for it. Moreover, it is normally them who have to plan the
assignments or adjust the current teaching material to TBLT, which requires specialized information, thereby being
time-consuming. Furthermore, educators need to discover the harmony between the focus on the significance and on the
structure, which should be achieved when grading learners who are given a task.

Choosing an appropriate task topic is significant as well. As declared by Willis (1996), the topics must be chosen in
such a manner that they motivate students, grasp their attention, provide a suitable level of intellectual and linguistic
challenge, and enhance their language progress. Moreover, TBLT has not been created to help the goals of exam-oriented
courses and to prepare students for specific standardized high-stake types of English language exams. Therefore, it is suggested that TBLT is ideal for an EAP setting, where the last evaluation can be of an alternate sort.

Indeed, even though most researchers have accentuated the significance of EAP’s needs analysis, little has been
mentioned on the needs’ type and quantity. The examinations on the language assignments’ role and significance in
EAP lack in giving proof of the sources of assignments, which can give the vital requirements to EAP in the EFL
setting.

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Maryam Cheraghi Shehni is a Ph.D candidate of Applied Linguistics at Department of Language Teaching and Translation Studies at Islamic Azad University. She is currently an English Language teacher. Her current research interests include Teacher education, Reading, CALL, ESP and Reflective teaching.
Predicting EFL Learners’ Achievement from Their Two Faces—FLE and FLCA

Bo Yang
Xinhua College, Ningxia University, China

Abstract—Foreign Language Enjoyment (FLE) and Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA) are a Janus-faced concept (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). This study adopted a mixed-method approach to investigate how FLE interacts with FLCA to predict and be predicted by Foreign Language (FL) achievement among 589 undergraduate learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) at a key and a non-key university in Northwest China. Participants reported more FLE than FLCA. Significant school differences were found regarding the investigated variables. FLE regulated the debilitating aspect and positively predicted the facilitating aspect of FLCA, whereas facilitating anxiety, in turn, increased FLE via motivation and sense of success. FLE and FLCA significantly predicted FL achievement and vice versa. Qualitative analysis revealed that learner-internal variables were major sources of FLE and FLCA. Facilitating anxiety was reported to significantly and positively connect with FL achievement in both quantitative and qualitative data, although debilitating anxiety exerted a more influential role.

Index Terms—foreign language enjoyment, foreign language classroom anxiety, foreign language achievement

I. INTRODUCTION

Influenced by Positive Psychology movement, there has been an interest in the holistic analysis of both positive and negative emotions in learners’ language journey (Dewaele & Alfawzan, 2018; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; MacIntyre & Mercer, 2014). Studies have found that learners’ positive and negative emotions in the process of language learning are in a complex dynamic system, in which the former helps to undo the lingering effects of negative emotional arousal and thus facilitate personal resiliency in the face of difficulty (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). Among all positive and negative emotions investigated in this new research trend, Foreign Language Enjoyment (FLE) and Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA) have been considered as the most frequently experienced affective variables for learners (Piniel & Albert, 2018).

Findings from Dewaele and MacIntyre’s (2014) study showed that Asian FL learners reported the least FLE and the highest FLCA compared with their international peers. MacIntyre and Vincze (2017) questioned whether positive emotions would form a same pattern in EFL learning in China or Japan. According to statistics, with around 400 million English learners/users (Wei & Su, 2012), China has the largest EFL learning group worldwide (You & Dornyei, 2016). However, this huge English-learning population has not gained extensive attention from the perspective of Positive Psychology. To the researcher’s knowledge, only two Chinese scholars have empirically studied the relationship between FLE and FLCA among Chinese undergraduate EFL learners (Jiang & Dewaele, 2019) and high school students (Li, Dewaele, & Jiang, 2019). Due to different teaching objectives, teaching contents, teaching methods, evaluation methods, and English proficiency, Chinese undergraduate EFL learners distinguish themselves from high school EFL students owing to their higher levels of learning autonomy and learning strategies (Liu, 2010). Nevertheless, no work so far has been carried out to explore the simultaneous roles of FLE and FLCA in predicting Chinese undergraduate EFL learners’ Foreign Language (FL) achievement.

The present study was thus designed to obtain an in-depth understanding of such a relationship. The researcher initially investigated the potential relationship by identifying FLCA with two dimensions: facilitating and debilitating anxiety. It was hypothesised that FLE regulates the debilitating aspect and predicts the facilitating aspect of FLCA and ultimately FLE and FLCA interact with each other to predict and be predicted by FL achievement.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Studies on FLCA and Its Correlation with FL Achievement

Anxiety is probably one of the most pervasive obstructs drawing great attention in language research (Aida, 1994; Dörnyei, 2005; Gardner, 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Horwitz, 2010; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Young, 1991). According to Horwitz and her colleagues (1986, p. 128), FLCA is “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process”.

There is a consensus on the predicting effects of FLCA on FL achievement since any model searching for FL achievement would be underspecified without some considerations of FLCA (Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 2000).
The effects of FLCA on FL achievement are interplayed with learners’ other affective variables. Learners who have a higher level of FLCA are more likely to have negative attitudes towards learning (Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994), be demotivated in classroom activities (Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Hashimoto, 2002), and have negative self-esteem in the learning process (Crookall & Oxford, 1991).

A fair number of researchers have focused their attention on the negative correlation between FLCA and FL achievement (Dörnyei, 2005; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Horwitz, 2001; Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre, 1995). However, FLCA is not always harmful. When FLCA is relatively low, it promotes learning; otherwise, it hinders (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Alpert and Haber (1960) were the first to distinguish facilitating anxiety from debilitating anxiety. While the former promotes the learning process by pushing learners to achieve settled goals, the latter impairs the learning outcomes by frightening learners to give up the task. According to Scovel (1978, p. 138-139), facilitating and debilitating anxiety “serving simultaneously to motivate and to warn, as the individual gropes to learn an ever-changing sequence of new facts in the environment”. In line with this argument, some studies explored the bipartite FLCA (Bailey, 1983; Tran, Baldauf, & Moni, 2013) and demonstrated that facilitating anxiety promoted learning performance in certain situations (Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2006; Young, 1991). In the investigation of Arabic and Spanish-speaking learners’ English learning, Kleinnmann (1977) found that facilitating anxiety helped participants take more risks and use more complex grammatical structures. Many experienced language teachers in Ohata’s (2005) interview confirmed the important role that facilitating anxiety played in students’ learning process.

B. Studies on FLE and Its Correlation with FLCA

Positive Psychology in second language acquisition (SLA) has only experienced a short history (MacIntyre & Mercer, 2014) since more studies have been established to investigate learners’ negative emotions (Arnold & Brown, 1999; Bown & White, 2010). Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014, 2016) emphasised the importance of both emotions in a figurative way: the two faces of Janus or the right and left feet of the language learner. Thus, research on positive emotions is becoming popular, and enjoyment has surfaced as one of the most frequently investigated variables recently.

Enjoyment is achieved when both physical and psychological needs are well aligned (Csikszentmihalyi, 2008). Both Fredrickson’s (2003) Broaden-and-build Theory and Pekrun’s Control-value Theory (2006) have probed into the role of enjoyment and thus have provided theoretical backbone for its application in language research. According to Fredrickson’s (2003) Broaden-and-build Theory, the essential role of positive emotions like enjoyment is to broaden people’s momentary mindset and facilitate their building of enduring personal resources. As a positive activating emotion in the Control-value Theory, enjoyment positively predicts academic achievement via increasing learners’ interest, promoting their motivation, and helping them use more flexible strategies (Pekrun, 2006).

The pioneering research on FLE was carried out by Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014), who developed a 21-item Foreign Language Enjoyment Scale (FLES) with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” to reflect learners’ multifaceted FLE and positive emotions towards the teacher and peers. Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) also extracted eight items from the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) designed by Horwitz et al. (1986) in the survey. A moderate negative correlation was found between FLE and FLCA, indicating that they are essentially independent dimensions and not two sides of the same coin. Further data analysis revealed that the overall participants, more advanced language learners, and female participants experienced significantly more FLE than FLCA. Results obtained from the qualitative instrument showed that positive and novel events, good classroom atmosphere, friendly peers, and particularly humorous and positive teachers attributed to learners’ enjoyment. Dewaele and MacIntyre’s (2016) follow-up research modified the original 21-item version of FLES to a more economical 14-item one and identified two dimensions of FLE: a private dimension concerning the internal pride and satisfaction brought about by the accomplishment of difficult tasks; a social dimension regarding good classroom environment as well as interpersonal relationships with the teacher and peers. Subsequently, Dewaele et al. (2016) developed a third study on the same dataset focusing on gender differences at the item-level. Results indicated that female participants reported more FLE and FLCA than male peers while no gender differences emerged in the items that reflected the paralysing effects of FLCA.

Inspired by Dewaele and MacIntyre’s (2016) studies, other scholars continued to advance the understanding and research methods of FLE. Using a latent growth curve modelling (LGCM) as well as a methodological triangulation of data collection, Elahi Shirvan and Taherian (2018) investigated the growth as well as changing trends of the university students’ FLE and FLCA in the general English course. Results revealed that the growth of FLE and FLCA during the semester was strongly and negatively connected, which could not be predicted by initial levels of FLE and FLCA at the beginning of the semester. Additionally, the growth of FLE and FLCA varied inter-individually and intra-individually.

The first empirical study of FLE in the Chinese EFL context was carried out by Li and her associates (2018) among more than 2000 s-year high school students at different academic levels from three schools. Based on Dewaele and MacIntyre’s (2016) 14-item FLES, the authors developed an 11-item Chinese Version of the Foreign Language Enjoyment Scale (CFLES) and examined its psychometric properties. Participants scored highest FLE-teacher, followed by FLE-private and FLE-atmosphere. Qualitative data obtained from an open question attached in the questionnaire showed that besides the effects of teachers and peers, FLE was influenced by a large range of learners’ internal and external variables.

Subsequently, Jiang and Dewaele (2019) continued to explore the relationship between FLE and FLCA among 564
Chinese undergraduate EFL learners. The quantitative instrument was supported with ten items extracted from Dewaele and MacIntyre’s (2014) FLES and eight items selected from FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1986). Participants scored significantly more FLE than FLCA. Different from previous research, no significant gender differences were found in either FLE or FLCA. Teacher-related variables were more significantly connected with FLE, while learner-internal variables were more remarkably related to FLCA. Data collected from the qualitative study further confirmed previous research conducted by Dewaele et al. (2018) and Dewaele et al. (2019) that FLCA was more shaped by learners, while FLE was more influenced by behaviours of the teacher and peers and the interplay between all.

C. Studies on the Relationship between FLE, FLCA, and FL Achievement

The association between FLE and FLCA and their simultaneous effects on FL achievement have just started to be investigated with initial research developed by Dewaele and Alfawzan (2018). Both FLE and FLCA were verified as significant predictors of FL achievement, with the former slightly outweighing the latter. In addition, Dewaele and Alfawzan (2018) suggested that future research could be carried out to explore the effects of specific target language on FLE, FLCA, and FL achievement.

In their follow-up study focusing on the Chinese EFL context, Li et al. (2019) adopted a mixed-method approach to explore the correlation between Chinese high school students’ FLE, FLCA, and FL achievement. Findings supported the assumption that FLE and FLCA were significant predictors of self-perceived English proficiency and actual English achievement. Qualitative data analysis indicated that whereas good test results, great progress, promotion in relative FL standing, and teacher praise were the main sources of FLE, bad performance, little progress, and fear of teacher criticism were frequently mentioned as the sources of FLCA.

Fredrickson’s (2003) Broaden-and-build Theory emphasised the “broaden” and “build” effects of positive emotions on negative emotions. Previous research regarding the relationship between FLE and FLCA failed to identify different dimensions of FLCA as what had been done on FLE and ignored how FLE specifically exerts its “broaden” and “build” impact on FLCA by exploring the micro variables. Regarding FLE, although different dimensions have been identified in either the quantitative (e.g. FLE-private, FLE-teacher, and FLE-atmosphere from Li et al., 2018) or qualitative survey (e.g. FLE-self, FLE-teacher, and FLE-peer from Jiang and Dewaele, 2019), no work so far has been conducted to explore the effects of the micro FLE variables on FLCA and FL achievement for identifying the best micro predictor. In a similar vein, no corresponding research has been performed to investigate the predicting effects of the micro FLCA variables on FL achievement. Further, it is unclear whether the predicting effects of the micro variables could achieve consistent results in both quantitative and qualitative research. Therefore, it is one of the originalities of this study to explore the relationship between FLE, FLCA, and FL achievement by taking both macro and micro levels into consideration.

III. Research Questions

This study will explore answers to the following questions:

1. What are the levels of FLE, FLCA, and FL achievement of Chinese undergraduate EFL learners and are there any gender and/or school differences involved?
2. How does FLE interact with FLCA to predict FL achievement at both macro and micro levels?
3. What are the effects of FL achievement on FLE and FLCA?
4. What are the sources of participants’ FLE and FLCA?

IV. Method

Creswell and Clark (2011, p. 81) argued that qualitative data could “validate, enrich and embellish the quantitative results with emergent and interesting themes”. Therefore, the current study adopted different quantitative and qualitative methods to collect data.

A. Participants

Initiated in 1995 by China’s Ministry of Education, Project 211 is a project aiming at strengthening approximately 100 national key universities and colleges for the 21st century. To enhance the generalisability of the research findings via participants’ broad diversity, participants in the quantitative study were 589 (254 males, 335 females) sophomore undergraduate students from a key university (N=364) and a non-key university (N=225) in Northwest China. They took the College English course four periods per week and 45 minutes per period. All 26 participants (13 males, 13 females) involved in the qualitative study were randomly and equally recruited from the quantitative sample at two designated universities who informed the researcher of their willingness to take part in further investigation via researchers’ contact information attached in the questionnaire.

B. Instruments

1. Questionnaire

   The WeChat questionnaire started with a section asking about participants’ demographic information (i.e. gender, school, and the existing CET-4 score). As the largest English examination in China or a world record (You & Dornyei,
2016), the CET-4 has attracted millions of test-takers since its first administration in 1987. Students at most universities are not permitted to take part in the CET-4 until the first semester of the second college year. In this study, participants’ existing CET-4 scores were collected to measure their FL achievement for the reliability and predictability of the test (Jin & Yang, 2006). Following this sociobiographical information, participants were asked to respond to the 19 items regarding their FLE and FLCA on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”.

The 11-item CFLES developed by Li et al. (2018) was introduced into the questionnaire. The Cronbach’s Alpha for the whole CFLES, subdimensions of FLE-private, FLE-teacher, and FLE-atmosphere were .826, .792, .896, and .778 respectively, suggesting that the scale has high internal reliability. Adopting confirmatory factor analysis, three subdimensions were constructed (χ²(41) =72.975; CFI=.975; TLI=.967; SRMR=.034; RMSEA=.041), reflecting that the three-factor model is at an acceptable level. In this study, the Cronbach’s Alpha for FLE, FLE-private, FLE-teacher, and FLE-atmosphere were .888, .886, .898, and .839 respectively, indicating high internal consistency. Further, the 11-item FLE model had a very good fit (χ²(41) =123.902; χ²/df=3.022; GFI=.963; CFI=.978; TLI=.971; NFI=.968; SRMR=.040; RMSEA=.059).

To investigate the regulating and predicting effects of FLE on FLCA as well as the positive-negative effects of FLCA on FL achievement, the author constructed four items regarding facilitating anxiety and another four concerning debilitating anxiety. Items regarding facilitating anxiety were reverse-coded so that both facilitating and debilitating anxiety are in the same direction and participants’ high score could reflect a high level of FLCA. The Cronbach’s Alpha for FLCA, facilitating anxiety, and debilitating anxiety were .782, .815, and .867 respectively, indicating that the scale was sufficiently reliable. Further, the eight-item two-factor FLCA model had a very good fit (χ²(19) =74.644; χ²/df=3.929; GFI=.969; CFI=.972; TLI=.959; NFI=.964; SRMR=.054; RMSEA=.071). Overall, the whole 19-item questionnaire revealed an acceptable reliability (Cronbach’s Alpha=.897).

2. Semi-structured interviews

Glesne (2006) believed that interviews could provide the opportunity to know what people cannot see directly and to further explore what people do see. The three-question semi-structured interviews were performed among 26 participants at two designated universities each 13 to seek sources of FLE and FLCA and enrich the quantitative findings.

C. Data Collection

Permission for participation in this research was first sought from presidents and potential participants at two designated universities. The WeChat questionnaire was distributed to eight randomly selected classes at the key university and another eight at the non-key university at the end of the second semester in June, ensuring that participants had already had the CET-4 scores. Upon completion, the questionnaire was anonymously and automatically submitted. After the questionnaire survey, semi-structured interviews were conducted in interviewees’ native Chinese on days and times that were favourable for participants and permission was sought to record the audio interviews.

D. Data Analysis

SPSS 25.0 and Amos 24.0 were adopted to do the data analysis of the questionnaire. NVivo 12 was employed to analyse the qualitative data through thematic discussion.

V. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

A. Levels of FLE, FLCA, and FL Achievement

Average scores on the 5-point scale were calculated for FLE (Mean=3.35, SD=.69) and FLCA (Mean=2.93, SD=.70). Further, a paired t-test verified that all participants experienced a significantly higher level of FLE than FLCA (df=588, t=8.22, p<.001, Cohen’s d=.60). According to Plonsky and Oswald (2014), it is a large effect size. In addition, the average CET-4 score reflecting FL achievement in this study was 432.64, surpassing the 425-cut-off score required for getting the certificate.

B. Differences in Gender and School

As it can be seen from Table 1, gender had no significant effects on FLE (df (1, 587), F=.148, p=.701), FLCA (df (1, 587), F=2.925, p=.088), and FL achievement (df (1, 587), F=1.377, p=.241). In contrast, One-way ANOVA results showed that school differences significantly influenced participants’ different levels of FLE (df (1, 587), F=35.518, p<.001), FLCA (df (1, 587), F=8.750, p<.01), and FL achievement (df (1, 587), F=140.828, p<.001). Results suggested that the high-achieving participants experienced a significantly higher level of FLE but a remarkably lower level of FLCA than the less advanced peers.
E. The Co-predicting Effects of FLE and FLCA on FL Achievement

C. Correlation Analysis

A Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to preliminarily answer the second research question. As displayed in Table 2, FLE, FLE-private, FLE-teacher, and FLE-atmosphere were significantly and positively correlated to facilitating anxiety and FL achievement. In contrast, FLCA and debilitating anxiety were significantly and negatively linked to FL achievement and FLE at both macro and micro levels, while facilitating anxiety was significantly and positively connected with FL achievement.

D. The Regulating and Predicting Effects of FLE on FLCA

Three regression models were constructed to further verify the relationship between FLE and FLCA at both macro and micro levels. Given that school differences made significant effects on FLE, FLCA, and FL achievement, all regression models were conducted by taking the school factor as a control variable. None of the regression models constructed here had the problem of multicollinearity (all VIF<3). According to Table 3, at the macro level, FLE (β=.38, p<.001) and FLE-atmosphere (β=.21, p<.001) were robust predictors of facilitating anxiety, while FLE-private (β=-.44, p<.001) was a significant predictor of debilitating anxiety.

E. The Co-predicting Effects of FLE and FLCA on FL Achievement
Considering the significant correlation results between FLE, FLCA, and FL achievement, it was crucial to examine the co-predicting effects of FLE and FLCA on FL achievement via multiple regression analyses. No clear problem of multicollinearity was found in all regression models in this section (all VIF<3). According to the regression model summarised in Table 4, FLE and FLCA together explained 24% of the variance. Although these two emotions were robust predictors of FL achievement, FLE \( (\beta=.35, \ p<.001) \) had significant and positive effects on FL achievement, compared with FLCA \( (\beta=-.20, \ p<.001) \) that played significant and negative roles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>Adjusted R²</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Std. E</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>.240</td>
<td>386.22</td>
<td>18.95</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLE</td>
<td>27.43</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLCA</td>
<td>-15.50</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>-.20</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To identify the best micro predictors regarding FLE and FLCA respectively, multiple simultaneous regression analyses were performed. Results in Table 5 indicated that FLE-private \( (\beta=.34, \ p<.001) \) produced the strongest significant effects on FL achievement, followed by FLE-atmosphere \( (\beta=.16, \ p<.001) \) and FLE-teacher \( (\beta=.08, \ p<.05) \).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>Adjusted R²</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Std. E</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>.226</td>
<td>318.96</td>
<td>11.24</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLE-private</td>
<td>20.19</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLE-teacher</td>
<td>6.12</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLE-atmosphere</td>
<td>8.75</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For FLCA, as shown in Table 6, debilitating anxiety \( (\beta=-.39, \ p<.001) \) produced relatively greater and negative effects on FL achievement than facilitating anxiety \( (\beta=.12, \ p<.01) \) that exerted slightly less and positive effects. Results here indicated that participants who experienced a higher level of debilitating anxiety were less likely to perform well in their English learning, while those who had a higher level of facilitating anxiety were more likely to achieve high language proficiency.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>Adjusted R²</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Std. E</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>.177</td>
<td>469.69</td>
<td>10.64</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitating FLCA</td>
<td>7.93</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Debilitating FLCA</td>
<td>-20.79</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>-.39</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VI. Qualitative Results

The semi-structured interviews were conducted to explore sources and effects of the participants’ FLE and FLCA, and the relationship between FLE and FLCA from a qualitative perspective.

A. Sources of FLE and FLCA

Three tree codes including FLE-private, FLE-teacher, and FLE-atmosphere as well as nine partial free nodes were identified as sources of FLE, while another three tree codes comprising FLCA-private, FLCA-teacher, and FLCA-peer together with eight partial free nodes were distinguished as sources of FLCA. The number of references in Table 7 showed that participants’ FLE was mostly connected with FLE-private, followed by FLE-teacher and FLE-atmosphere. Among all partial free nodes of FLE-private, good language performance (references=10) was the most mentioned source of participants’ enjoyable experience in learning English. The good language performance mentioned by participants was mainly linked to high marks, as one participant from the key university shared his views:

“In my class, I could often get the highest mark in exams, so my English proficiency is at the highest level and I am so proud of myself. Obtaining high English achievement is a kind of recognition of my ability in learning English.”
Among the partial free nodes of FLE-private, good language performance (references=10) were reported to be the most influential factors for FLE. One participant commented:

“Our English teacher encouraged us to learn harder in many possible ways and asked us to make presentations in groups by using PPT, plays or other forms we like to share our understanding of the lesson. More importantly, she gave us valuable comments and feedback after each presentation, which made us have advanced understanding and knowledge.”

Among the partial free nodes of FLE-atmosphere, harmonious classroom atmosphere (references=3) was more likely to increase participants’ FLE. One participant described the importance of a harmonious classroom atmosphere in his English learning:

“...the classroom atmosphere in our English class is very active and harmonious, which stimulates me to learn more and faster, increases my learning interest, and largely reduces my anxiety of making mistakes when answer teacher’s questions.”

When it comes to sources of FLCA, FLCA-private was mostly mentioned, followed by FLCA-teacher and FLCA-peer (see Table 8). Among the partial free nodes of FLCA-private, exams and quizzes (references=17) were reported to be the most important sources. Participants at both key and non-key university all suffered great pressure of passing the CET-4, as one participant described:

“I have a high level of anxiety in passing the CET-4, which made me feel very nervous during and after class and it even made me fail to sleep well, especially before the exam.”

Regarding the partial free nodes of FLCA-teacher, teacher questioning (references=3) made participants feel nervous. Peer discouragement (references=2) was mentioned as the source of FLCA-peer. One participant described her FLCA caused by teacher questioning and peer discouragement at the same time:

“I felt too nervous to have eye-contact with my English teacher when she asked me to answer questions. Meanwhile, I worried that my classmates would laugh at my poor pronunciation and thus I would lose face before the whole class.”

### B. Effects of FLE and FLCA, and Their Relationship

As shown in Table 9, regarding the effects of FLE, four categories including increasing new experience of FLE via confidence, interest, and motivation in subsequent study (references=24), reducing debilitating anxiety (references=12), promoting FL achievement (references=5), increasing classroom engagement (references=3) were identified. In contrast, the effects of FLCA were mostly mentioned in four aspects: reducing FLE (references=11), reducing FL achievement (references=11), promoting facilitating anxiety (references=10), and reducing classroom engagement (references=5). Apart from the verification in the quantitative study that FLE regulated the debilitating aspect and positively predicted the facilitating aspect of FLCA, it is noteworthy to see that facilitating anxiety was a robust factor for increasing participants’ FLE via motivation to learn harder and sense of accomplishment. One participant commented:

“I had a high level of anxiety in doing listening practice especially in the CET-4; however, it stimulated me to learn harder and find more efficient learning methods to achieve my settled goals. Whenever I look back on this experience, I could feel a sense of success and enjoyment.”
C. Effects of FL achievement on FLE and FLCA

Results in Table 10 indicated that good language achievement had important roles in increasing FLE (references=29) via many factors (e.g. interest, confidence, sense of success, and motivation), reducing debilitating anxiety (references=7), and increasing classroom engagement (references=3). Regarding the effects of bad language achievement, four categories including increasing debilitating anxiety (references=17), reducing FLE (references=14) via interest and confidence, stimulating facilitating anxiety (references=11), and reducing classroom engagement (references=4) were reported. Obviously, high language achievement is a strong predictor of FLE while low language achievement has an influential predicting effect on FLCA. Notably, the role of low language achievement in stimulating facilitating anxiety was mentioned by almost half of the participants. One participant shared her views on the effects of FL achievement on FLE and FLCA:

“Good learning achievement is a kind of recognition of my great effort in learning English, which would increase my confidence and learning interest. In contrast, bad learning achievement would exert opposite effects. For me, learning achievement, enjoyment, and anxiety are in a close relationship.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Good achievement (references)</th>
<th>Bad achievement (references)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increasing FLE 29</td>
<td>Increasing debilitating FLCA 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reducing debilitating FLCA 7</td>
<td>Reducing FLE 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing classroom engagement 3</td>
<td>Stimulating facilitating FLCA 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reducing classroom engagement 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VII. DISCUSSION

The first research question dealt with levels of the participants’ FLE, FLCA, and FL achievement and whether gender and school differences have significant effects on the investigated variables. Participants reported significantly more FLE than FLCA, which is in line with previous surveys (Dewaele et al., 2018; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Jiang & Dewaele, 2019). Contrary to the research conducted by Deawele et al. (2018) among foreign language learners outside China and in line with the study of Jiang and Dewaele (2019) focusing on Chinese EFL learners, no obvious gender differences regarding the investigated variables were found. School differences proved to have significant effects on FLE and FLCA, indicating that FL achievement exerted remarkable effects on FLE and FLCA. This is closely related to the fact that on average Chinese students at key universities have higher levels of entry requirement (Davey, Lian, & Higgins, 2007) and CET-4 scores (Jin & Yang, 2006) than their counterparts at non-key universities.

Regarding the second research question, a significant negative correlation between FLE and FLCA was found in the quantitative analysis, confirming previous research (Dewaele et al., 2018; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). Both quantitative and qualitative results verified the coexistence of facilitating and debilitating anxiety (Tran et al., 2013). It is noteworthy to see that FLE, facilitating anxiety, and FL achievement formed a significant positive relationship whereas FLE and FL achievement are significantly and negatively connected with debilitating anxiety. Participants who had a higher level of FLE and its micro indices were less likely to be troubled with FLCA and debilitating anxiety but were more likely to be stimulated by facilitating anxiety, reflecting the regulating and predicting effects of FLE on FLCA. FLE-private was revealed as a significant predictor of both facilitating and debilitating anxiety, confirming that FLCA can be either helpful or detrimental, depending on EFL learners (Ohata, 2005). It is important to see from the qualitative results that facilitating anxiety could increase the experience of FLE via motivation to learn harder and sense of success, which advanced the general understanding of the negative correlation between FLE and FLCA.

The interactive relationship between FLE and FLCA was further explored by testing their simultaneous effects on FL achievement. Consistent with Li et al. (2019), FLE and FLCA were prominent co-predictors of FL achievement, with the former outweighing the latter (Dewaele & Alfawzan, 2018). Compared with Chinese high school student participants in the study of Li et al. (2019), participants in this study were more likely to have a higher level of learning autonomy, which partially attributed to the consistent results in both quantitative and qualitative study that the participants’ FLE-private had the strongest predicting effects on FL achievement. Debilitating anxiety outweighed facilitating anxiety in predicting FL achievement, reflecting that participants were mainly susceptible to debilitating anxiety (Tran et al., 2013).

Regarding the third research question, findings in the qualitative analysis provided evidence to see that FL achievement, in turn, was a robust predictor of FLE and FLCA (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Li et al., 2019).
Influenced by the exam-oriented learning context, participants’ bad FL achievement significantly stimulated their facilitating anxiety to get higher marks and increase the experience of FLE and FLE-private in particular, confirming that FLE, FLCA, and FL achievement form a close relationship (Gardner, 2001).

The final research question addressed sources of FLE and FLCA from the qualitative data. Interestingly, three categories constructed in CFLES (Li et al., 2018) including FLE-private, FL-teacher, and FLE-atmosphere were mentioned by participants as major sources of FLE, confirming the high validity of the scale. In contrast, FLE-private, FLCA-peer, and FLCA-teacher were mentioned as important sources of FLCA. Notably, both FLE and FLCA were mostly triggered by participants’ internal variables focusing on getting high marks in exams and quizzes, which is opposite with previous studies where FLE was more connected with teacher-related variables (Dewaele et al., 2018; Jiang & Dewaele, 2019) and is consistent with surveys of Dewaele and his associates (2018, 2019), Jiang and Dewaele (2019) where FLCA was more predicted by learner-internal variables. This confirms that Chinese EFL learners are more atomically motivated (Wang, 2010; Yu, 2009) and particularly more exam-oriented than FL learners in other continents (Jiang & Dewaele, 2019). Participants’ average CET 4 score in this study was 432.64 just surpassing the passing line 425, indicating that the FL achievement level of these participants was intermediate or low. Thus, it is understandable that participants attributed sources of both their FLE and FLCA to themselves. Apart from participants’ internal variables, it should be noted that from a dynamic perspective, familiarity with teachers’ manner of giving feedback (verbal/non-verbal) as well as peers contributed to the degree or type (either facilitating or debilitating) of participants’ FLCA (Elahi Shirvan & Talebzadeh, 2017).

VIII. CONCLUSION

The present study explored the complex and interactive correlation between Chinese undergraduate EFL learners’ FLE, FLCA, and FL achievement. FLE played an important role in regulating debilitating anxiety and positively predicting facilitating anxiety. Interestingly, facilitating anxiety was mentioned as an impetus for increasing participants’ new experience of FLE in subsequent study. Both FLE and FLCA remarkably predicted FL achievement at macro and micro levels and vice versa. It is thus concluded that FLE and FLCA significantly interact with each other to form a dynamic relationship with FL achievement.

However, this research is not without limitations. Compared with participants in the quantitative survey, only 26 participants were recruited to take part in the qualitative study. Interview transcripts from these participants may not comprehensively represent the whole sample in this study. Future studies might need to explore sources of FLE and FLCA as well as effects of FL achievement on FLE and FLCA with a larger sample size.

Despite the shortcoming, the research findings have important pedagogical implications. Given that participants’ internal variables particularly their language performance in exams are important sources for both FLE and FLCA, it is crucial to change the traditional exam-oriented teaching pattern and pay more attention to learners’ positive and negative emotions in learning English. FLCA does not merely lead to negative effects, as facilitating anxiety was reported to significantly and positively correlate with FL achievement and to increase participants’ FLE via motivation to learn harder and find efficient learning methods as well as sense of accomplishment. However, because of the “self-exacerbating syndrome” (Jussim & Eccles, 1995) referring to the fact that the experience of anxiety may tend to produce more anxiety, it is not wise to deliberately increase the amount of FLCA (Horwitz, 2017). For both EFL teachers and EFL learners, it is significant to maximise the “broaden” and “build” effects of FLE for reducing FLCA and promoting FL achievement.

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REFERENCES


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Bo Yang holds a Master’s Degree in English Language and Literature from Ningxia University in China and she is a lecturer in Xinhua College of Ningxia University. She is now doing her PhD degree in Applied Linguistics at the University of Newcastle, Australia. Her research interest includes EFL learning and teaching, student emotion, and teacher emotion.
On The Retranslation of the Igbo Missal

Chidoo Ezika

Department of Linguistics, Igbo & Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria

Abstract—This study looks at the translation and the retranslation of the Igbo missal in line with Newmark’s (2001) semantic and communicative theory of translation. The aim is to highlight the factors that necessitated the retranslation, looking at the loopholes of the first translation in comparison with the Latin and English source texts. This study adopts the Newmark’s translation theory which sees translation from language and equivalence perspectives. The data were gathered from both old and new Igbo missals, the Latin missal and from the old English missal. Some persons were also interviewed to see the level of acceptability of the new translation. The study finds out that the first translation of the missal, hinges on communicative translation which focuses on the target language users. The retranslated version, hinges on the semantic translation which focuses on the source text language as requested by the Church authority. The study shows that many have accepted the translation while few are of the opinion that the new translation is not suitable. The paper concludes that the retranslated version is faithful to the source text and that the dangers of loss of meaning and possible incomprehensibility are not visible.

Index Terms—translation, retranslation, Igbo Missal, communicative translation, semantic translation

I. INTRODUCTION

Language remains a vital tool for human communication and integration. It is of such importance that it, like an animate object, is being nurtured and it also responds to ‘stimulus’. Therefore, it is sensitive to man’s positive or negative activities towards it (See Batido, 2005; Skutnabb-Kangas, 2018). Consequently, there is the need to have a positive attitude towards any language to ensure its viability. One of the ways of promoting a language is its usage in every activity of the users and being able to study it at any level of academics, what Kaschula & Nkomo (2019) refer to as language intellectualisation. In religion, language is very essential. In the Christian and African traditional religions, language plays a key role. Through it, communication takes place – the vertical (divine) and horizontal (human) patterns of participation (Davidson, 1992).

In the Catholic Church, the Masses were before the Second Vatican council (Henceforth Vatican II) said in Latin. The Latin language before then was seen as a sacred language (lingua sacra) (Liddicoat, 1993). The Church fathers during the Vatican II affirms that celebrating the Mass and other activities using the vernacular is beneficial to the people (Vatican II). The usage of vernacular was debated and approved during the Vatican II. The usage as O’Collins & Wilkins (2017) note began before Vatican II in some areas in Europe but it was, of course, not official. On approving the use of vernacular, there is the need to translate the Missal into various languages of the world with a final approval from Rome; what Oyali (2017) sees as a reflection of power relation.

The barriers in any communication exercise defeat the intention of the giver of the information towards the receiver. This was what triggered the Catholic Church to allow the usage of vernaculars in liturgical celebrations globally in 1964. Liddicoat (1993) notes that Pope Paul V as far back as 1615 allowed the clerics in China to say Masses in vernacular using the Chinese Missal. As beautiful as this gesture is, it was resisted from many quarters. The intentions of the critics were not out of hatred for the Church authority and their decisions. It was their ‘love’ for the Church and ‘fight’ against the seeming ‘watering down’ of the Church (Chupungco, 2010; Maye, 2015 & Harris, 2017). The Church authorities, however, maintained their position which was born out of the quest for active participation of the people during liturgical celebration (Congregation for divine worship and the discipline of the sacraments, 1964). Before the adoption of the vernacular, Gy (2003) notes that it was a case of “thinking as a community, where the majority in the community truly listens to the minority and resists the temptation to polarization” (p.13). The prayer of the faithful was the only section of the Mass said with the vernacular. Thus, in 1964, the Vatican II ended. The Church authority produced a document known as Comme le prévoit “for those who are called to prepare, to approve, or to confirm liturgical translations” (Comme le prévoit, 1969, p.1). The official use of vernacular in liturgy globally as Gy (2003) records was on the first Sunday of Lent, 1964.

The first Igbo Missal produced by Catholic Bishops of the Igbo speaking areas came into existence in 1973. It was translated following the guideline stipulated in Comme le prévoit. In 2018, under the guidance of Liturgiam authenticam, the second was published. Scholars like Storsor (2018) and Muonwe (2019) see the 1963 Comme le prévoit and the 2011 Liturgiam authenticam as the major guides for the translatorial teams. It is on this premise that this study connects both of them to the translation principles of Newmark- communicative and semantic translation. Due to the dearth of works on the retranslation of the Igbo missal, this study is a continuity of Muonwe (2019) who studied the concepts of mmuo (spirit) and umunne (brothers and sisters) with regards to the Igbo worldview and liturgy in the new translation. This study seeks to provide the answers to the reason why the Catholic Church in Igbo speaking areas had to
embark on retranslation. It highlights some of the core differences between the two translations. This was done by looking at the structure and syntax of the two Igbo translations in relation to the old English missals which was partly, as observed, the source texts of the old Igbo missal and the Latin text which was solely, the source text of the new Igbo translation.

II. THE CONCEPT OF RETRANSLATION

A translation, most times is time bound. Its acceptance changes with time due to certain societal and linguistic factors. When it is no longer acceptable due to its perceived incompleteness and unsuitability to the audience it is meant for at a particular time, a retranslation is done to maintain the information link and/or improve on the language (See Susam-Sarajeva, 2003; Oyali, 2018 & Ezika, 2020). The unsuitability of a translation may be linguistic or cultural because language and culture evolve. Retranslation is as an act of translating again, what has earlier been translated into the same language by the same or other translator(s). Sometimes, the aim is to improve or correct the earlier translation. Tahir Gürçağlar (2009) and Koskinen & Paloposki (2010) refer to it as a process and also as a product. It can also be seen as an attempt for a retranslator, in the case of literary translation or other translations like the religious translation which have the attributes of literary translation (Delabastita, 2011) to change the translation style -sense for sense or word for word (domestication and foreignisation) for instance. Cadera & Walsh (2017, p.1) present a summary that, each new translation must represent a socio-historical change and that, although the decision to retranslate a work may undoubtedly be due to a commercial decision on the part of the publisher, it must also be linked to external changes in the historical, cultural and social context of the target culture or to changes in the poetic and aesthetic considerations of the translations themselves.

From another perspective, it could be an aim to thwart communication for political reasons (See Tymoczko & Gentzler, 2002; Rubel & Rosman, 2003). Since information can be hidden in the process of translation, such can also take place in retranslation. This connects to the concept of institutional translation where an institution determines what the translator does. A process that appears to place the translator on the level of a slave or a traitor. Oyali (2018) while discussing the translation of the different Bible versions into the Igbo language, noted that the Igbo Bibles for the Catholics, Jehovah’s Witness and the Protestants were done “for ideological reasons” (p.98). The translation and the retranslation of the Missal, like the Bible, is determined by the institution and in this case, the Catholic Church (See Venuti, 2013). Mossop (2014) notes that “the institution does not act on behalf of an entire culture; rather it serves specific groups by producing translation that address specific readerships” (p.3). Koskinem (2014) in affirmation reveals that language use in institutions is controlled and translation is not owned by an individual.

The notion of retranslation hypothesis of Berman (1990) which was inspired by Von Goethe’s (1992) claims that the subsequent translations are better than the first translation. For Berman, a translation is an “incomplete act that can only strive for completion through retranslation” (Berman, 1990, p.1). This hypothesis, however, is not generally applicable in translation and therefore, not enough to explicate retranslation (See Koskinen & Paloposki, 2010). They (Koskinen & Paloposki, 2010) argue that, though there are cases where the first translations are not close to the original and the subsequent translations are, there are also cases where it is the other way round. It is important to note that the retranslation hypothesis did not capture the retranslation route. That is, what Pym (1998) refers to as passive and active types of retranslation. Passive retranslation occurs when the retranslator is not aware of an initial translation while in active retranslation, there is a clear disagreement between the initial retranslation over the translation strategies applied. It is in attempting to arrive at a better strategy in the subsequent retranslation that the closeness to the source becomes possible. As it concerns the retranslation of the Missal, the Liturgiam authenticam disagrees with the Comme le prévoit.

III. NEWMARK’S TRANSLATION THEORIES

Newmark’s (2001) communicative and semantic translation theories are one of the linguistic theories of translation. The double-edged component makes it appropriate in accommodating the two translation paths mostly seen in literary translations and other texts that share the same characteristics with it such as religious texts (Delabastita, 2011). The literary translation paths of foreignisation and domestication where the translator either follows the author or goes with the reader (See Venuti, 2012) are closely related to semantic translation and communicative translation. Newmark’s (1988 & 2001) aim was to replace Nida’s dynamic and formal equivalence which he argued against because of his (Nida’s) perception of full equivalence. Nida (2000) notes that a “translation of dynamic equivalence aims at complete naturalness of expression, and tries to relate the receptor to modes of behaviour relevant within the context of his own culture” (p.129). Not comfortable with the ‘complete naturalness of expression’, Newmark came up with communicative translation which “is intended primarily to achieve a certain effect on its reader’s mind, which effect could only be verified by a survey of their mental and or physical reactions” (Newmark, 2001, p.42). Communicative translation, as Newmark (2001, p.39) states;

- attempts to produce on its readers an effect as close as possible to that obtained on the readers of the original… it addresses itself solely to the second reader, who does not anticipate difficulties or obscurities, and would expect a generous transfer of foreign elements into his own culture as well as his language where necessary.
As its name indicates, communicative translation simply communicates. It passes the content of the source text to the reader of the translation in his own language and worldview with the central message of the original information intact. The reader therefore, because of the familiarity of the expressions feels at home.

On the other hand, semantic translation "attempts to render, as closely as the semantic and syntactic structures of the second language allow, the contextual meaning of the original" (Newmark, 2001, p. 39). It is as Newmark (1996) posits, "author centred; semantic and syntactic oriented. Length of sentences, position and integrity of clauses, words position, etc. preserved where possible" (p.11). Munday (2016) observes that it is accurate in the communication of the source text message in the target text. Semantic translation, unlike communicative translation has no room for the translator to improve on logic in the source text or replace clumsy expressions. It brings the text closer to the "formal elements of the original, including where possible, its sound effect" (Newmark, 2001, p.44). For Newmark, “all translations must be in some degree both communicative and semantic” (Newmark, 2001, p. 62). However, the degree of emphasis shows where the translator’s loyalty lies. In semantic translation, while the translator’s loyalty is to the author, in communicative translation, the translator is loyal to the source text language norms.

IV. PREVIOUS STUDIES

Muonwe (2019) in his study analysed two changes that occurred in the new Igbo translation. They are the translations of *Et cum spiritu tuo* and *Fratres*. Their translation in the new Igbo Missal – Nonyekwara mmuọ gi and Umụnna as against Nonyekwara gi and Umụnna are built not just on the surface structure, but also on the Igbo world view. The old Igbo Missal omitted the *mmuọ* just like that of the English which omitted ‘spirit’. This could be as earlier mentioned, the usage of the old English Missal as a source text or the misconception of *mmuọ* by the translators as Muonwe (2019) reveals. St John Chrystoton as Stravinskas (2010) reveals, teaches that when the people respond ‘… with your spirit’, they recognise the sacramental transformation of the priest at ordination to enable him transform the bread and wine into the body and blood of Christ. Aside this theological view, the English language and the Latin language are placed high in Nigeria and in the Catholic Church respectively. As such, English Masses are often said in many parts of Igbo land and the Latin Language is sometimes employed. These two languages have ‘… and with your spirit’ and ‘… et cum spiritu tuo’ respectively. One wonders why it is omitted in the Igbo missal used by people who also use the English and the Latin Missals. This is similar to the deficiencies seen in the translation of liturgical texts of the Efiks as presented by Naseri (2018). The Efik translators of the southern Nigeria because of “fear of confusion and offending the sensitivity of the people” retains English terms like ‘spirit’ in their local translations (Naseri, 2018, p.73). He punctures the argument and maintains that the insistence in using English terms is simply a neglect to the development of the indigenous language. An opportunity they would have keyed in to expand and multiply their lexicon (See Akwanya, 2014 & Oyali, 2018). Naseri insists that since the Efik people acknowledge the existence of good and evil spirit. Nothing should have hindered the translation of Holy Spirit as *Edisana Ekpo* – Holy Spirit.

On the translation of *Fratres*, a Latin word for ‘brothers’, the old English translation has ‘Brothers and sisters’ and the old Igbo Missal has *Umụnna, Umụnna* in the Igbo worldview entails the bond between males of a family. It excludes the sisters known as the *unuada* and even those not under the two umbrellas. Muonwe (2019) argues that the translation of *umụnna* did not reflect the meaning of ‘brothers’ in the scripture. He further affirms the new translation of *umụnne* which reflects the biblical spirit of communisation. He further notes that *nwaene*, singular form of *umụnne*, can be used to refer “to any beyond one’s family who shows love to someone or who extends hands of fellowship or assistance to someone in time of trouble.”

V. THE RETRANSLATION OF THE IGBO MISSAL

The first Igbo translation which has the Latin and the English Missals as the source text was *ad interim* between 1971 to 2017 (46 years) when the second translation came into existence. It, however, was available to the people in 2019. Like in other languages, the Igbo Catholics are not left out in these translation challenges because it came with many changes (See Muonwe, 2019).

The *Liturgiam authenticam* directs that the names of the translators and their qualifications be stipulated before the final approval from Rome, the new Igbo Missal was translated by the following persons with Bishop Dennis Isizor as the liason Bishop (See Isizor, 2019).

a. Anyanwu, Rev. Fr Gerald (Ph.D. Christian and Classical Literature)
b. Chinagorom, Rev. Fr Longinus (Ph.D in Linguistics/Igbo, M.A. Igbo, B.A Linguistics/Igbo)
c. Ezenduka, Msgr Cyril (Masters in Sacred Music)
d. Ezeomeke, Mr Simon Odili (M.A. Igbo, B.A. Igbo)
e. Madubuko, Msgr Lawrence (Laurea in Sacred Liturgy)
f. Madueke, Msgr Jerome (Laurea in Dogmatic Theology)
g. Ngoesi, Mr. Michael (Masters in Igbo Language)
h. Odajiri, Rev. Fr. Samuel (HND Mass Communication, M.A Education and Administration)
i. Ogudo, Msgr Donatus Emeka (Laurea in Sacred Liturgy)
j. Uba, Rev. Fr. Bartholomew (Masters in Christian and Classical Literature)
In addition to these qualifications, the priests in the committee have at least a Diploma and/or a working knowledge of the Latin Language. This confirms the assertion that the translation of the Missals, according to Arceño (2010) from the Latin Language is a “reversal of the death of the importance of the Latin language” (p.12-13). This is because, according to him;

Latin has always remained important to the identity of the Church, as official statements, phrases within the Church, the original Missal, and the like are all presented in Latin, before being retranslated. The fact that the English Mass must now be retranslated to keep close to the original Latin form is thus an important focal point in the discussion of where the non-English languages stand. Moreover, the fact that many of the non-English languages were originally translated from the Latin, rather than the English form, suggests there must have indeed been translators proficient in both the non-English languages, as well as Latin, in order to spread the Word at the vernacular level.

Benneth (2018) in affirmation to the above assertion notes that, to say that the Latin language is dead is not right. He preferred that the language is said to be preserved and fixed due to the fact that they are alive in sacred texts.

VI. COMME LE PRÉVOIT VS LITURGIAM AUTHENTICAM

The Comme le prévoit issued in 1969 guided the teams of translators handling the translation of the Missal into various languages of the world. It adopted the Nida’s dynamic equivalence which is similar to Newmark’s communication translation (Munday, 2016). This concise document informed the translators of the Missal that a good translation should not be a word for word translation. It further tells them to adopt the nearest in meaning of such words where exact replacements cannot be seen. Comme le prévoit goes on to say in article 6 that the aim of translating a liturgical text “is to proclaim the message of salvation to believers and to express the prayer of the church to the Lord”. It notes that;

to achieve this end, it is not sufficient that a liturgical translation merely reproduces the expressions and ideas of the original text. Rather, it must faithfully communicate to a given people, and in their own language, that which the Church by means of this given text originally intended to communicate to another people in another time. A faithful translation, therefore, cannot be judged on the basis of individual words: the total context of this specific act of communication must be kept in mind, as well as the literary form proper to the respective language.

The Comme le prévoit directed the translators, that the unit of meaning is not the word itself but the entire passage. It warns them not to attach any importance to a particular phrase which may weaken the entire meaning.

Interestingly, one of the opposing voices to this translation method, Cardinal Arinze says that the use of the translations does not make the prayers of the Church invalid (Arinze, 2006). He, however, criticised the liberal approach of the translation. He argued that language spoken by many people today have many shades. He noted that there is a difference in English used in a country’s Constitution, that spoken by the President, the language of conversation of dock workers or students and that between parents and children. Though all are using English, the expression cannot be the same. He states that the major characteristics of the source text should be maintained in the translations. Using the triple repetition characteristics, like the "mea culpa, mea culpa, mea maxima culpa"; Kyrie eleison"; "Agnus Dei qui tollis...” as examples, the translations, for him, “should neither kill nor flatten out such a characteristic”. Arinze’s argument aligned with Crystal’s (1964), Liddicoat’s (1993) and Sawyer’s (1999) assertions that a religious language must be a language different from the everyday language which may among others may be a variety of the users’ language. On the dual usage of a language, Benneth (2018) talks about the concept of diglossia. A situation where a language has two varieties and are seen as high variety (H) and low variety (L). The H variety of such a language is used in literature, liturgy and also in formal education while the L variety is used in informal settings like the living room, parks and shops (See also Beards, 1992). From the above argument, Arinze (2006) supports the Comme le prévoit’s direction that “after sufficient experiment and passage of time, all translations will need review” and hence, the establishment of Liturgiam authenticam. Pope John Paul II in the year 2000, promulgated that the English Missal be retranslated. As at that time, the young Fr. Ratzinger who among others complained of the poor English translation in 1963 was then a Cardinal and the Prefect of the Congregation for the doctrine of faith. His duty, therefore, was to defend the doctrine of faith. To say that he engineered the retranslation order may not be out of place because he “never forgot” (O’Connor & Wilkson, 2015, p.6). He had wanted a translation that is very close to the syntax of the original to preserve the antiquity and beauty of the Latin Missal.

The Liturgiam authenticam, following the pattern of Newmark’s semantic translation is after the fidelity of the translator towards the source text structure while at the same time, retaining the meaning. It is important to quickly note that semantic translation is different from literal translation. While literal translation does not respect context, semantic translation respects context (Newmark, 2001). Semantic translation “attempts to render, as closely as the semantic and syntactic structures of the second language allow, the contextual meaning of the original” (Newmark,2001, p.39). The above positions are what translators under the guidance of the Liturgiam authenticam are expected to take. Liturgiam authenticam in article 20, states that;

while it is permissible to arrange the wording, the syntax and the style in such a way as to prepare a flowing vernacular text suitable to the rhythm of popular prayer, the original text, insofar as possible,
must be translated integrally and in the most exact manner, without omissions or additions in terms of their content, and without paraphrases or glosses.

Where the biblical or the liturgical text retains words of other ancient languages, like – *Alleluia* and *Amen* (Aramaic words), the *Liturgiam authenticam* says that they should be preserved in the vernacular translations. Also, to be retained are the capitalisation “for honorific or otherwise theologically significant reasons”. Pope John Paul II (1993) as cited by Arinze (2006) states that “the arduous task of translation must guard the full doctrinal integrity and, according to the genius of each language, the beauty of the original texts”.

VII. THE *LITURGIAM AUTHENTICAM* AND THE IGBO RETRANSLATION

The *Comme le prévoit* which earlier guided the translators of liturgical texts and even the recent *Liturgiam authenticam* provided rooms for retranslation of the whole or part of the Missal if the need arises. The *Comme le prévoit* empowers the translators to work “from the original, or, at least from the best available text.” This confirms that the old English Missal was part of source text for the old Igbo Missal. The *Liturgiam authenticam* on the other hand, insists that only the source text must be used. The *Comme le prévoit* which produced the English Missal in 1970 and the first Igbo Missal in 1971 specifically notes in article 39 that before a translation is formally accepted, “sufficient opportunity should be allowed for experiment by selected congregations in different places. An *ad interim* translation should be properly approved by the liturgical commission of the conference of bishops.” *Ad interim or ad experimentum* translation refers to a translation being used in the meantime and on experiment.

In the present study, eight excerpts of the liturgical translations are selected for analysis. An attention is paid to the structures of the four texts – The Latin Missal, the old English Missal, the old Igbo Missal and the new Igbo Missal.

VIII. DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

In the analysis, the selected excerpts in the source texts were translated to see how they were reflected in the old English and Igbo versions. As observed, the Latin and the English texts were the source texts for the old Igbo version. These selected excerpts in the new Igbo translation, following the guideline given by the *Liturgiam authenticam* were given as seen below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin version</th>
<th>Old English version</th>
<th>Old Igbo version</th>
<th>New Igbo version</th>
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A look at the table above shows that the Latin terms – *Gratia* and *communicatio* were not properly handled with the principle of semantic translation. *Gratia* – ‘Grace’ is seen as *Ngozi* in the old Igbo version but was retranslated in the new version as ‘Amara’. On the other hand, *communicatio* – ‘communion’ was explicated as *idikọ n'ọtụ* which *Liturgiam authenticam* abhors. Thus, *mmekọrịta*, the direct translation was given in the new translation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Old Igbo version</th>
<th>New Igbo version</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Et cum spiritu tuo</td>
<td>And also with you.</td>
<td>Nonyekwara ụjọ</td>
<td>Dirikwara mmụọ ụjọ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Spiritu tuo* – ‘Your spirit’, did not reflect in old English and Igbo versions. The new Igbo version has it as *mmụọ ụjọ* so as to be very close to the source text.

<table>
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<th>New Igbo version</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3. Gloria in excelsis Deo et in terrā pax hominibus bonae voluntatis. Laudamus te, benedicimus te, adoramus te…</td>
<td>Glory be to God on high, and on earth peace to men who are God’s friends. We praise you. We bless you. We adore you. We glorify you…</td>
<td>Otito diịri Chineke nelu kachi elu; N’ụwa, udo diịri ndị mmadụ ndị iche ha na-asọ Chukwu. Anịa eto ụjọ Gi. Anị ekwupụta oru ọma Gi. Anị Ọsọkpa ọma Gi…</td>
<td>Otito diịri Chineke nelu kachi elu; N’ụwa, udo diịri ndị mmadụ ndị iche ha na-asọ Chukwu. Anịa eto ụjọ Gi. Anị Ọsọkpa ọma Gi…</td>
</tr>
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The Latin …*pax hominibus bonae voluntatis* - …peace to men of goodwill, has ‘…peace to men who are God’s friends’ in the old English version. The old Igbo translation has it as …*ndị iche ha na-asọ Chukwu*. The new translation brought out the direct translation for ‘goodwill’ and therefore has, *udo diịri ndị mmadụ ndị iche ha na-asọ Chukwu*. *Laudamus te, benedicimus te, adoramus te* - ‘We praise you, we bless you, we adore you’ were respectively captured strictly.
<table>
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<th>Old Igbo version</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. Mysterium Fidei:</td>
<td>Let us proclaim the mystery of faith:</td>
<td>Ka an'yi kwuputanu ihem gaokwakwe an'yi na-eme ugbu a:</td>
<td>Ihe omimi nke okwukwe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Mortem tuam annunciamus, Domine, et resurrectionem confitemur, donec veniam.</td>
<td>Christ has died, Christ is risen, Christ will come again.</td>
<td>Anyi na-ekwuputan ọnwụ Gi, na-egosikwa n'ụmụtụ Gị, O Kristi, we nọ mgbe ọ ga-ahịa ozọ.</td>
<td>Anyi na-ekwuputan ọnwụ Gi, na-ekwupataka mbiten'ọnụọ Gị, O Dnwmụ, we nọ mgbe ọ ga-ahịa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Piaeceptis salutaribus monti, et divina institutione formati, audemus dicere:</td>
<td>Let us pray with confidence to the Father in the words our saviour gave us.</td>
<td>Umunna ka anyi were ekpere n'ụnye Nwoputa anyi kuziri anyi were kpokuwa Chukwu Nna.</td>
<td>Ebe e nwerele anyi iwu na-enye ndu, anyi abụkụka ndi e ji ikuzi nke Chineke were zọpụ, ka anyi were n'ụkwụ kpe.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The *Liturgiam authenticam* advised the translators of the texts to maintain the capitalisation in the source names “for honorific or otherwise theologically significant reason”. The Latin *Calix* – Chalice, a drinking cup used in religious ceremonies was referred to as just a cup and *iko* (Igbo term for cup) in the old English and Igbo versions respectively. A strict translation of *pro multis* – ‘for many’ is seen as *n’ihi ime* *ime* *mmadụ* in the retranslation. Again, *peccatorum* – ‘sins’, did not reflect in the old Igbo version in plural form. Isizor (2019) reveals that the Congregation for the Doctrine of Faith noticed that the translators of the new Igbo Missal did not pluralise *njo*. The attention of the translation committee was called, and it was corrected. Hence, the new Igbo version has *ikons* (holy cup) for chalice and *njo ga* for sins.

The *Liturgiam authenticam* notes that the Latin Missal has “straightforward, concise and compact manner of expression” and insists that the translators of the Missals into various languages maintain it. The old English and Igbo versions have many additions to the source text information. Instead of ‘The Mystery of faith’, the old English added an invitation – ‘Let us proclaim...’’. The Igbo version in addition, added an adverb of time – *ugbu a* (now). Translating the old Igbo response to English gives – ‘Let us proclaim the mystery of faith we are observing now’. The new Igbo version, in maintaining the source text structure, has *ihe omimi nke okwukwe*.

The acclamation - *Mortem tuam annunciamus, Domine, et resurrectionem confitemur, donec veniam* – ‘We proclaim your death, O Lord and profess your resurrection until you come again. The Old English translation deviated largely from the source text. It can be referred to what Elliott (2007) sees as “stretching the principle of dynamic equivalence beyond the limits”. Ryan (2019) confirms in his paper, *Liturgiam fidei! The memorial acclamation and its reception in French, English and Polish missals*, that the English translation is explicitly very far from the Latin acclamation. The old Igbo expression is closer to the Latin. However, the clauses- *Annuntiamus* ‘We announce/proclaim’ and *confitemur* ‘we confess/profess’ were not strictly translated. The old Igbo version has ‘We announce/proclaim...’ and ‘we confess/profess...’ as *Anyi na-ekwuputan...* and *na-egosikwa...* - ‘and also show’ respectively instead of *Anyi na-ekwusa...* and *na-ekwupatka...*.

The Latin version has the English translation: ‘Prompted by saving precepts, and formed by Divine teachings, we dare to say’. The old Igbo version has a modulated translation of the old English version. Both the old Igbo and English versions did not in any way come close to the Latin. The new Igbo translators provided a good translation in line with the spirit of the *Liturgiam authenticam*. 

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Here, both the old English and the Igbo versions are close to the source text except at their last sentences. The old Igbo version, in translating ‘… et sanabitur anima mea’, has a loose translation – ‘… na mkprü m ga-adìri’ – ‘… and my soul shall survive’. Sanabitur (third person singular future passive indicative) in a strict sense is ‘shall be healed’. The new Igbo version has a translation that reflected it.

IX. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In translation, the source text and the target text cannot be exactly the same. There are always significant differences either in the form (syntax) or in the content (semantics). The level of the correspondence shows how close the target text is to the original. As Nida (2000) observes, the factors responsible for the difference in translation are (a) the nature of the message to be passed across, (b) the aim (skopos) of the author or the translator and (c) the type of the target text readers. The translators of the old Missal who translated under the principle of Comme le prévoir did not do a bad work. They were simply guided by what the client (The Church) needed at that time – an experiment. The new translation, guided by Liturgiam authenticam is closest to the original in terms of the structure of the source language without hindrance to meaning (Stravinskas, 2010; Nulley, 2015; Muonwe, 2019). The two translations in this study were analysed in line with Newmark’s communicative and semantic translation. Newmark (2001)’s translation theory, an amplification of Nida’s dynamic and formal equivalence sees a text from two perspectives – the author’s perspective and the reader’s perspective (See Newmark, 2001 & Venuti, 2012). While communicative translation corresponds to word for word translation (not strictly literal translation), semantic translation corresponds to sense for sense translation - ancient dichotomies dated back to Cicero and Horace, St Jerome and St Augustine (Jerome, 2012 & Venuti, 2012). Till today, these translation paths created by these ancient translators remain useful in discussing the translation methods for literary and religious translations. While Comme le prévoir falls within the scope of sense for sense translation, Liturgiam authenticam falls under word for word translation. Stravinskas (2010) and Nulley (2015) maintain that translation under the Comme le prévoir is not a translation but a paraphrase while Liturgiam authenticam is the actual reflection of the original.

Today, majority of the Igbo Catholics have accepted the new Igbo Missal. Some are yet to grasp it fully because they are yet to loosen the attachment to the old missal and or be catechised on why the translation came out the way it is. Longenecker (2016), on the ‘headache’ caused by the new English translation notes that the translators of the Missal did not inform the people on the principles and the objectives of the translation. It is necessary to note that it is near impossible to have a translation that would be accepted by all speakers of a language (See Toury, 2012 & Brand, 2015). Brand (2015) further avers that it is a “reality of the last fifty years of experimentation with vernacular liturgical language that viewpoints are many and fractured” (p.139). The new English Missal on its part has many critics which may be connected to the many countries where it is in use unlike the Igbo language which has very few speakers in comparison to the English language (See Goodstein, 2011; O’Connel & Wilksin, 2015). There are always room for amendment and revisions of translations. It is necessary to note here that Pope Francis has called for a revisit to the English translation (O’Collins & Wilkins, 2017). The big question is: When the revision is done, will it be accepted by his predecessor? It is therefore, appropriate to have a time frame for each translation to avoid having two translations in a decade. A liturgist, Klein (2019) calls on the Pope and his collaborators to shelve the idea of translating the Missal now for the sake of stability. He analysed a situation where people responded with different responses from the old Missal and the new Missal respectively. One imagines the outcome if the third is produced now. He advised that if the intended retranslation is inevitable, it should be produced towards the end of our generation. By then, the number of those that are used to the first translation must drastically reduced.

This study analysed eight excerpts from four Missals – The Latin source text, the old English Missal, the old Igbo Missal and the new Igbo Missals. From the observation, the old Igbo Missal had the Latin and the old English Missals as its source text. This is evident due to varying and similar contents of the old Igbo Missal towards the Latin text. Although this may appear to be a minor change, Nuella (2015, p.126) notes that it shows the “Church’s attention to detail and consistency in making sacred the experience of the faithful in order for them to participate effectively” at Masses. This study did not move into the Igbo language grammar and spellings in the two translations and therefore, recommends that for further research. It also recommends that other Igbo prayers earlier translated, be intralinguistically retranslated to shed off the dominant dialects. It is obvious that most of them are wrongly said and sang because of the unintelligibility created by the dialect.

REFERENCES


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Chidoo Ezika hails from Alor, Idemili South L.G.A of Anambra State. He is a lecturer at Department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka. He specialises in translation and interpreting studies. Among his publications is the translation of Charles Dicken’s Oliver Twist into the Igbo language and culture. He has also translated for local and international organisations like the Federal Ministry of Health, Nigeria; Chatham House; WHO and Columbia University, USA etc.
Research on Pre-service English Teachers' Professional Ability Development Preference Based on MALL *

Junshui Li
School of Foreign Languages, Chongqing Normal University, Chongqing, China

Miaomiao Gao
School of Foreign Languages, Chongqing Normal University, Chongqing, China

Xifang Tu
School of Foreign Languages, Chongqing Normal University, Chongqing, China

Abstract—Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL) provides a new method and view for pre-service English teachers to improve their professional ability. Through the questionnaire survey of 105 students majoring in English in colleges and universities, using SPSS20.0 to carry out descriptive statistics on the effective data collected, analyzing the data of their maximum value, mean value and single sample t test, this paper discusses the preference of different pre-service English teachers to improve their different professional abilities by using mobile devices. It is found that pre-service English teachers pay more attention to the improvement of English professional knowledge with the support of mobile devices, followed by teaching skills, and the lowest attention to the use of mobile devices to improve their teacher professional quality. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to find out the lack of pre-service English teachers' preference to improve their ability through mobile technology, which provides a new learning idea and inspiration for the future English teachers to polish their own professional skills.

Index Terms—MALL, pre-service English teacher, professional ability

I. INTRODUCTION

The way of education under the background of Internet Plus has changed greatly, and mobile learning has emerged with its preference. There is no definite concept of mobile learning. Integrating the views of domestic and foreign scholars (Clark Quinn, 2011; Chabra & Figueiredo, 2001; Paul Harris, 2001; Cui Guangzuo, 2001; Ye Chenglin et al., 2004; Chen Zhenzhen, 2019), we can regard it as a new form of learning to access educational information, educational resources, educational services by using wireless mobile communication network technology and wireless mobile communication devices (smart phones, Ipad, smart watches, etc.). It benefits both students and teachers. The teachers of the 21st century grew up with the development of modern information technology. They are immersed in the digital educational environment and have a basic understanding of information technology. They deeply understand the close relationship between information technology and education, which has led to great changes in thinking, cognition, learning attitudes and habits among the new generation of teachers. Pre-service English teachers, in their professional pre-service training stage, play the dual status of the final stage of their students' career and the initial stage of teachers' entry. They are more proficient in the use of information technology, especially mobile devices such as smart phones and tablets, to assist learning. However, the different using preference affects their professional development to some extent and Ajzen (1991: 192) has put forward the theory of planned behavior, pointing out that the will of the individual will directly affect the behavior of the individual, and other factors take the intention of behavior as the medium to influence the actual behavior. Therefore, this study tries to analyze their preference to improve their professional ability development in the following three aspects: professional knowledge, professional skills and professional quality, referred from the Iceberg Model (McClelland, 1973; Spencer & Spencer, 1993; Zhong Weihe, Wang Weiwei, 2016). Through the investigation of the use of mobile devices by pre-service English teachers in universities, the study aims to put forward targeted professional development suggestions for pre-service English teachers.

In recent years, Studies of Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL) have been heated topic (Comac, 2008; Kukulasa, 2009; Golonka, 2014; Jiang Yinjian, 2016; Lisso, etc, 2016; Zhang Chunyan, 2018; Lexie, 2019). But only few scholars pay attention to the professional development of pre-service teachers supported by mobile devices. Abroad university such as Kinston and Sheffield Hallam University applied SMS (Simple Message Service) to the practice of

* Project: Supported by Postgraduate Research Innovation Project in Chongqing
education and teaching, and proved that it is effective to improve professional development through experiments. The Frohberg and Schwabe (2009) of Helge New University have also applied short message service to the training of pre-service teachers and obtained positive experimental results, which further proves the effectiveness of mobile learning in language. In China, the study of foreign language teaching models based on mobile learning terminals has been written by Lu Yingbo and Yang Ping (2013). They put forward constructive ideas for the development of mobile language learning based on the constructivism teaching theory and created a new direction for pre-service English teachers to develop their professional abilities from the following dimensions: Mobile Learning Pattern Design, Mobile Language Learning Content Design, Mobile Learning Foreign Language Teaching Pattern Architecture. Yu Lingyan (2014) constructed a mobile and interactive virtual learning environment for the professional development of pre-service teachers by setting up a mobile learning system. Under this system, the biggest characteristic and advantage of teachers' mobile learning is to realize the sharing of resources and the convenience of communication. Although the system still has some problems in hardware equipment and resource integration, it is a good strategy for professional development of pre-service teachers. Li Gang et al. (2019) found that through the investigation and statistics of the six important abilities of the 2015 students who majored in English teaching of Hunan University of Arts and Sciences in their educational practice, they generally use mobile learning in teaching design and teaching practice to improve and develop their professional ability. The research also points out that under the background of Internet Plus, the professional development of pre-service teachers assisted by mobile technology is bound to be effective.

II. ICEBERG MODEL

In 1973, American psychologist McClellan proposed the Iceberg Model, which divides the different forms of individual quality into Above Iceberg and Below Iceberg. After that, American scholars Lyle Spencer and Signe Spencer(1993) put forward the Quality Iceberg Model. The Quality Iceberg Model vividly describes the individual quality as an iceberg floating on the ocean surface, in which knowledge and skills belong to the surface part exposed to the water surface, which is also called the benchmark quality. Internal drive, social motivation, personality, self-image, attitude and so on belong to the deep part hidden in the water, this part is called discriminative quality. This model is widely used in the evaluation of human ability development. In 2016, Zhong Weihe and Wang Weiwei combined the National Standard of English Teachers to construct the Iceberg Model of the professional development structure of pre-service English teachers (seen in Figure 1): the professional knowledge and professional skills above the surface of the iceberg are the external representation of teachers' ability, and the professional skills are the application of professional knowledge. The professional quality of the part below the surface of the iceberg is the core of the development of teachers' professional ability and plays an overall role in the performance of professional knowledge and skills.

![Figure 1. Iceberg Model of Professional Development Structure of English Teachers](image)

A. Professional Knowledge

In addition to language and culture knowledge, professional knowledge, second language acquisition theory knowledge and education theory knowledge, English teachers should also have knowledge of classroom organization, evaluation and supervision, educational technology, industry development and so on. In other words, English teachers only have a solid basic language skills is not enough, but also need to continue to learn new teaching methods including information technology knowledge, so as to understand the learning effect and progress of students, communicate with each other in a timely and multi-channel way, organically combine language knowledge and language use, so as to create a learning environment suitable for students' needs and promote students' understanding of English. The cognition of language and culture can cultivate students' global vision, values and other humanistic qualities.

In terms of language culture and subject knowledge, English teachers should pay attention to both the instrumental and humanistic nature of the English language. Through foreign language teaching, students can not only use English as a tool to study, work and communicate, but also as a bridge to broaden their international cultural horizon and enhance the humanistic spiritual quality. This requires that the knowledge structure of teachers should not only include the pure language level and relevant knowledge of foreign language subjects, but also emphasize the integration and
interconnection of language and culture based on the concept of "language diversity". According to the viewpoint of "linguistic diversity", every language learning and every experience of learning a language promotes the construction of communicative competence. Based on this idea, English teaching is not a single, independent language teaching activity, but to initiate the interrelation and interaction of multiple languages.

In terms of relevant knowledge of educational theory, professional development of English teachers includes language acquisition theory, pedagogical knowledge and other contents. The "National standard" also proposes that English teachers should master pedagogy, foreign language teaching and learning and other relevant theoretical knowledge, so as to effectively carry out classroom teaching, assessment, student learning stage tracking and other teaching activities, and master students' needs and learning development rules.

B. Professional Skills

Professional skills directly reflect the professional development level of teachers.

First, teaching instruction ability. Teachers can design teaching procedure and organize class according to the requirements of teaching quality, and integrate teaching standards into teaching planning, design and teaching practice. For example, foreign language teachers should be able to carry out teaching design according to curriculum standards, combined with the cultural characteristics of target language and students' actual situation. Second, teaching strategy ability. Teachers can understand and use different teaching strategies to help English learners develop comprehensive language ability and cultivate their language and cultural literacy and critical thinking ability. Foreign language teachers should fully understand foreign language learning strategies to help learners master and develop specific strategies and methods such as time management, progress monitoring and learning assessment. In addition, new teachers should master and apply a variety of teaching strategies to help learners improve their language skills, understand the target language culture, and develop critical thinking skills. Third, technology application ability. Under the background of the Internet era, the wide application of multimedia and network technology has led to the reform of English teaching mode. Therefore, in addition to using modern educational technology to carry out classroom teaching, English teachers should also use multiple Internet resources to guide students to learn independently. Of course, teaching should avoid excessive dependence on information technology, because information technology itself has its limitations, and clear teaching objectives and teaching design is the basis of teaching. Fourth, teaching reflection and reform ability. Teaching reflection is the key factor of teachers' development. English teachers should have the ability of teaching reflection, constantly examine teaching and learning in teaching practice, actively adjust teaching strategies, and carry out teaching reform according to the actual situation and students' needs. Teachers can record, evaluate and improve teaching by means of teaching log, observation and listening. Fifthly, teaching and scientific research ability. The role of English teacher in the new era has changed from teacher to researcher. The combination of scientific research and teaching is helpful for teachers to find and solve problems consciously in teaching practice, which promotes the development of students and teachers' self-development. For example, as an important way of teaching and research, action research can help foreign language teachers reduce intuitive teaching behavior and find a theoretical framework to solve problems through practical exploration. The sixth point is practical ability. In English major, translation major and English Teaching major belong to practical major. Taking English Teaching majors as an example, "National Standard" requires teachers to master international knowledge and cultures, ELF teaching theory, pedagogical knowledge. Therefore, English teachers need more experience and practical skills. Lastly, assessment and Test Ability. This ability requirement is not only suitable for English teachers to adopt reasonable and effective evaluation methods to improve teaching quality for different types of courses and teaching objectives, but also for English teachers to achieve professional development through self-evaluation in all stages. Therefore, foreign language teachers should adopt multiple evaluation methods, such as evaluating students' foreign language communication ability through communicative activities, and adjusting teaching according to evaluation results. Besides, tracking teaching effect and diagnosing students' learning progress through formative evaluation are also significant to make an excellent assessment.

C. Professional Quality

Professional quality is an indispensable part of the professional standard of English teachers, which mainly refers to the ideological beliefs and ways that teachers should possess in their work. Ethic devotion, personality and other value orientation and self-professional development pursuit are included.

First of all, teachers should fulfill the relevant obligations and abide by professional ethics. English teachers should be able to understand the main significance of language cultures in the context of globalization and help students to establish correct values. Secondly, teachers should establish the concept of lifelong development, through on-the-job further education, teaching practice and other ways to continuously improve the subject knowledge literacy and comprehensive professional skills and teaching cooperative ability. Third, teachers should carry out their own professional development and enhance their comprehensive ability. At the same time, they should carry out extensive cooperation and communication with other advanced teachers to enhance their professional influence, and make positive contributions to the construction of education in his own field.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN
A. Research Problems

What is the preference of pre-service English teachers to use mobile devices to improve their professional ability?

B. Research Object

In this study, 105 (male 15, female 90) English normal major students in a university were taken as the research objects. These students had received systematic training in normal education during their academic study, including basic foreign language skills, foreign language teaching skills, micro-teaching, educational practice and educational technology training. Among the pre-service English teachers surveyed, 83.33% had educational practice or teaching experience.

C. Research Methods and Tools

This study adopts the questionnaire method and data analysis method, and takes the Questionnaire on Mobile Learning Tendency of Pre-service English Teachers as the research tool. This questionnaire focuses on the three dimensions of professional knowledge, professional skills and professional quality. The questionnaire used Likert scale to set "very consistent", "consistent", "relatively consistent", "not consistent", "very inconsistent" five kinds of answers for each question, and some questions were calculated by digital visualization.

D. Data Collection and Analysis

First of all, the researchers distributed 105 electronic questionnaires on WeChat and QQ platforms, and collected 105 valid questionnaires, with the recovery efficiency of 100%. First, the answers from three different dimensions were recorded as 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1, and the total score of each respondent was the sum of his answers to each question.

Then, the researcher calculated the mean value and standard deviation of the following three dimensions of professional ability through SPSS20.0, which were most worthy of the macro tendency of pre-service English teachers to use mobile devices to improve their professional competence.

Finally, the researchers counted the mean values of the contents in each dimension, conducted a one-sample T-test, and conducted significance analysis. Through significance analysis, the researchers found that the statistical results were significant. Through mean value analysis, the tendency of specific content under three dimensions is obtained.

E. Reliability and Validity Verification

To test the structural validity of the scale, principal component analysis and maximum variation (Varimax) were used to analyze the validity of the questionnaire, and the suitability of the sample was indicated by factor analysis (KMO =0.83, 2= 1039.944, P <.001). Cronbach's coefficient measured by the scale was 0.886, indicating high validity and reliability of the questionnaire, which could be used for measurement.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULT DISCUSSION

Data Analysis

The following table shows the variable of preference of different pre-service English teachers to improve their professional competence through descriptive statistical analysis. It presents the maximum value, mean value and standard deviation of the three dimensions (see Table 1). In terms of the overall distribution, the maximum value of professional knowledge is slightly higher than that of teaching skills and professional quality, and it is evenly distributed around the value 4, among which the average value of professional knowledge is the highest (M = 4.242). Thus, it can be seen that pre-service foreign language teachers tend to improve their ability in professional knowledge when using mobile devices, while they pay the least attention to professional quality.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Sample size</th>
<th>minimum value</th>
<th>Maximum value</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional knowledge</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>4.800</td>
<td>4.242</td>
<td>0.584</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional skills</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>4.300</td>
<td>4.081</td>
<td>0.660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional quality</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>3.900</td>
<td>3.824</td>
<td>0.585</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Micro preference analysis of professional knowledge

Zhong Weihe, Wang Weiwei (2016) based on the iceberg model framework construct English teachers' professional ability. Professional knowledge survey content is mainly divided into the following four categories: subject knowledge, culture and discipline knowledge, second language acquisition theory, pedagogical knowledge, and for each type of the contents of the single sample t test, it can be concluded as the following data:
that the current English teaching design form has been diversified enough, like PPT, which combines video, audio, mobile technology design software resources can improve their teaching design and implementation ability, and think the learning level of the subjects, and help to improve their ability to evaluate and test. However, they do not agree that technology and considered that this approach was not only time-saving, but can be more timely and quickly to reflect technology-assisted assessment tests were more likely to be non-paper tests organized using mobile technology mobile technology application ability, practical confidence in the future are lower. Most respondents agreed that mobile assessment and testing ability tend to be higher, teaching design and implementation ability, modern educational using mobile technology. Among them, teaching and scientific research ability, teaching reflection and reform ability, teaching strategy ability, teaching design and implementation ability, application of modern educational technology knowledge related to pedagogical theory with mobile devices is the lowest. Therefore, it indicates that pre-service English teachers are more inclined to improve their subject knowledge when they use mobile devices to improve their professional knowledge.

2. Micro-orientation analysis of professional skills

The contents of the pre-service English teachers' professional skills mainly consist of the following categories: teaching strategy ability, teaching design and implementation ability, application of modern educational technology ability, teaching reflection and reform ability, teaching and scientific research ability, practical ability, evaluation and testing ability. The specific analysis is shown in Table 3.

### Table 2. MEANS OF PROFESSIONAL KNOWLEDGE PREFERENCE AND SINGLE-SAMPLE T TEST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional knowledge</th>
<th>Contents</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>subject knowledge</td>
<td>Use mobile devices to improve your English listening ability</td>
<td>4.231</td>
<td>17.997</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Read English on your mobile device</td>
<td>4.367</td>
<td>19.743</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use mobile devices to improve your spoken English</td>
<td>4.013</td>
<td>2.062</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use mobile devices to learn English writing skills</td>
<td>3.631</td>
<td>-7.450</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use mobile devices to expand English vocabulary</td>
<td>4.667</td>
<td>27.166</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use mobile devices to learn English grammar</td>
<td>3.931</td>
<td>-3.011</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language and cultural knowledge</td>
<td>Actively use mobile devices to learn relevant language and cultural knowledge</td>
<td>3.763</td>
<td>-6.112</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogical theory</td>
<td>Pedagogical, psychological theories through mobile devices</td>
<td>3.483</td>
<td>-13.067</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLA theory</td>
<td>Use mobile devices to consult and learn relevant theoretical knowledge of SLA</td>
<td>3.793</td>
<td>-1.153</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ** indicates significant correlation at 0.01 level (double-tailed)

As can be seen from Table 2, P<0.01 indicates that the statistical results are of high significance. The distribution of the mean values of each category is 3.5-4.5 and the overall mean value is 4.242, indicating that pre-service English teachers are highly inclined to improve their professional knowledge by using mobile technology. After analyzing the specific aspects of pre-service English teachers improving their professional knowledge with mobile technology, it is found that the mean value of pre-service English teachers learning subject knowledge with mobile devices is 4.14, which is higher than the other three micro dimensions. Among them, the mean value of “improving their own knowledge related to pedagogical theory with mobile devices” is the lowest. Therefore, it indicates that pre-service English teachers are more inclined to improve their subject knowledge when they use mobile devices to improve their professional knowledge.

2. Micro-orientation analysis of professional skills

The contents of the pre-service English teachers’ professional skills mainly consist of the following categories: teaching strategy ability, teaching design and implementation ability, application of modern educational technology ability, teaching reflection and reform ability, teaching and scientific research ability, practical ability, evaluation and testing ability. The specific analysis is shown in Table 3.

### Table 3. MEANS OF PROFESSIONAL SKILLS PREFERENCE AND SINGLE-SAMPLE T TEST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional skills</th>
<th>Contents</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching strategy ability</td>
<td>Monitor your learning process using mobile devices</td>
<td>4.022</td>
<td>2.298</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Instruction ability</td>
<td>Design Software Resources for Mobile Learning</td>
<td>3.214</td>
<td>-19.494</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology application ability</td>
<td>Improve technical literacy in education</td>
<td>3.969</td>
<td>-2.744</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching reflection and reform ability</td>
<td>Create personal e-file/reflective blog/memorandum, upload records, photos, videos</td>
<td>4.500</td>
<td>25.332</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching and scientific research ability</td>
<td>Improve your research capabilities through mobile technology</td>
<td>4.441</td>
<td>24.139</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical ability</td>
<td>Use mobile technology to assist teaching in educational practice</td>
<td>4.011</td>
<td>1.477</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Guide students to learn autonomously by using mobile devices</td>
<td>4.265</td>
<td>18.003</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use mobile technology to assist teaching in future</td>
<td>3.750</td>
<td>-4.245</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment and test ability</td>
<td>Use mobile technology to conduct Non-paper testing</td>
<td>4.559</td>
<td>25.635</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ** indicates significant correlation at 0.01 level (double-tailed)

As can be seen from Table 3, P<0.01 shows that the statistical results are significant, and the overall average value is 4.081, which indicates that pre-service English teachers have a certain tendency to improve their professional skills by using mobile technology. Among them, teaching and scientific research ability, teaching reflection and reform ability, assessment and testing ability tend to be higher, teaching design and implementation ability, modern educational technology application ability, practical confidence in the future are lower. Most respondents agreed that mobile technology-assisted assessment tests were more likely to be non-paper tests organized using mobile technology mobile technology and considered that this approach was not only time-saving, but can be more timely and quickly to reflect the learning level of the subjects, and help to improve their ability to evaluate and test. However, they do not agree that mobile technology design software resources can improve their teaching design and implementation ability, and think that the current English teaching design form has been diversified enough, like PPT, which combines video, audio, pictures and text that can also meet the needs of students in the process of foreign language learning.
3. Micro tendency analysis of professional quality

Table 1 shows that in the use of mobile devices, compared with professional knowledge and teaching skills, pre-service English teachers have a lower tendency to improve their professional quality, with an average of 3.824. According to the division, professional quality has three micro dimensions: professional ethics and norms, lifelong learning and professional development, and professional community. The numerical analysis of the corresponding questionnaire is shown in Table 4.

### Table 4.
**MEANS OF PROFESSIONAL QUALITY PREFERENCE AND SINGLE-SAMPLE T TEST**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional quality</th>
<th>Contents</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional ethics</td>
<td>Improve teachers' professional ethics through mobile devices</td>
<td>3.876</td>
<td>-3.634</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lifelong learning and professional development</td>
<td>Mobile devices will contribute to lifelong learning</td>
<td>4.333</td>
<td>21.459</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learn interdisciplinary knowledge by using mobile devices</td>
<td>3.667</td>
<td>-7.833</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional community</td>
<td>Join the teacher learning team cooperation and communication through mobile device to achieve resource sharing</td>
<td>4.012</td>
<td>1.478</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Focus on and discuss educational heats through mobile devices</td>
<td>3.232</td>
<td>-19.433</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ** indicates significant correlation at 0.01 level (double-tailed)

Table 4 shows that in the mean value and the sample t of professional quality tendency, the mean value of lifelong learning and professional development is the highest (M=4.000), while the average value of professional community is only 3.622. This shows that in professional quality, people tend to use mobile devices to improve their lifelong learning and professional development ability. At the same time, pay attention to educational hot spots through mobile devices, participate in discussion, the lowest average of all dimensions, indicating that pre-service English teachers tend to pay less attention to the use of mobile devices and discuss educational heats, which may be due to the low frequency of the presentation about educational heats in the form of mobile devices.

**V. CONCLUSION**

Through the data statistics and analysis, it can be found that pre-service English teachers tend to develop professional knowledge ability than professional skills and professional qualities when using mobile devices to assist learning. At the micro level, it also has its own emphasis, especially in the use of mobile devices to expand English vocabulary, pre-service teachers have the highest tendency. Therefore, pre-service English teachers should pay attention to several aspects when using mobile technology to improve their professional ability:

1. Use the mobile technology rationally and balance the development of professional competences. The diversity of mobile phone applications is destined to provide more options for pre-service teachers. No matter the word learning applications such as word chopping "," scallop word ",or other listening and speaking applications, like TED speech , BBC News English or other applications like Sina Weibo, Baidu Tieba, by which we can participate in educational hot discussion. They all provide a variety of platform options for teachers' professional ability. However, many pre-service English teachers tend to give priority to the application of improving professional knowledge when using a series of APP, and often ignore the existence of APP in improving professional quality. Therefore, teachers should carefully choose mobile device applications, not only focus on their development, but also pay attention to the neglected aspects.

2. Improve information technology literacy, and focus on both of the internet and mobile. To some extent, mobile technology can improve the professional ability of pre-service English teachers, but teachers should also know that mobile technology online learning is not the only channel, or even an important channel. Teachers should fully mobilize the positive aspects of online learning and adopt all effective means to improve their own information technology literacy so as to be able to develop their own professional ability in combination with multiple online learning methods.

3. Assist language teaching effectively and improve the quality of education and teaching. The professional development of pre-service teachers supported by mobile technology, whose direct benefit group is teachers, indirect benefit group is students. In the process of using mobile technology to learn, pre-service teachers should fully explore and understand the advantages and disadvantages of mobile learning, learn from each other and integrate applications in order to make more efficient use of English teaching and help students develop better.

In a word, the development of pre-service English teachers is bound to be related to the development of students in the future. Only on the premise of correctly making good use of the application of mobile technology and reasonably treating the tendency of professional development under mobile assistance, can teachers' own professional ability be improved as a whole, thus contributing to the education and teaching in the future to a certain extent.
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Junshui Li was born in Fujian, China in 1995. He is currently a postgraduate student in the School of Foreign Languages, Chongqing Normal University, Chongqing, China. His research interests include Cognitive linguistic and Mobile-Assisted language learning.

Mr. Li is a member of the Postgraduate Research Innovation Project in Chongqing.

Miaomiao Gao was born in Shanxi, China in 1996. She is currently a postgraduate student in the School of Foreign Languages, Chongqing Normal University, Chongqing, China. Her research interests include English education and text book analysis.

Ms. Gao is a member of the Postgraduate Research Innovation Project in Chongqing.

Xifang Tu was born in Jiangxi, China in 1996. She is currently a postgraduate student in the School of Foreign Languages, Chongqing Normal University, Chongqing, China. Her research interests include English education and second language acquisition.

Ms. Tu is a member of the Postgraduate Research Innovation Project in Chongqing.
Exploration of Teacher Agency in the Implementation of the ESP Language Education Policy in a Chinese University

Shiping Deng
Shanghai International Studies University, Shanghai, China

Abstract—This case study investigates language teacher agency in the context of ESP curriculum reform in a Chinese university. Data collected from classroom observations and semi-structured interviews with both teachers and students from five ESP classes are analyzed by conducting a thorough thematic analysis. It is revealed that instead of following the national curriculum and institutional requirements, language teachers as policy arbiters make their own implicit policies which are creating spaces for their own discourses, and in this sense, they are “adjusting” the curriculum policy rather than “implementing” it. Teachers’ academic background, their views on the nature of language learning, their profound distrust of the efficacy of ESP courses, and students’ explicit performance are the main causes of teachers’ actual resistance to the policy. Unlike previous studies of teacher agency, an analysis of students’ needs and implicit discourses indicates that teachers’ agency excised through their hidden agenda may turn out to be a defense of their unwillingness to change, to the detriment of students’ academic performance. This study then suggests that policymakers should notice the negative side of teacher agency and stresses the necessity of a bottom-up survey on teachers’ ideologies in the implementation of a language education policy, and argues that creating spaces for negotiating and adjusting the policy at the instructional level, and offering effective teacher education programs are the key to the enactment of the national curriculum.

Index Terms—teacher agency, negative side, ideologies, ESP as a language education policy, negotiation, enactment

I. INTRODUCTION

College English has received much criticism in China for its incapacity to effectively improve students’ English proficiency and deviation from students’ practical and occupational needs. There are even studies from the academia that regard the tertiary English education in the past forty years in China as a total failure (Cai, 2017a). The overarching suggestion proposed to optimize the college English curriculum is to switch from general English to English for specific purposes (ESP), which has been experimented and practiced in many universities before the final establishment in the official document — College English Teaching Guidelines published in October, 2020. This paper is therefore to explore the institutional ESP reform at a science and engineering university in China in the context of the national language education policy and reveal how and why language teachers’ exerted teacher agency to adjust or resist the national curriculum. Implications for administers and teacher educators to address the teacher agency issue for effective ESP policy enactment are made by conducting a holistic analysis of the challenges in front of the teachers and the hidden discourses of the students.

II. METHODOLOGY

To investigate how teacher agency mediates policy change within the context of ESP reform, this research collected data from two sources. Observations were made by the researcher mainly to obtain field data on teachers’ actions in policy implementation and students’ actual performances; in-depth interviews with teachers and students were conducted to elicit more information about teachers’ covert ideologies and students’ hidden discourses.

A. Research Setting: the Current National Policy of College English Teaching and the Institutional ESP Reform

Although College English Teaching Guidelines was just published officially in 2020, there has been an appeal for ESP courses for a long time in The People’s Republic of China, from both the academia and the official discourses. Therefore it should be noted that ESP reforms have been initiated in many universities, among which universities featuring science and engineering were those where ESP caused much attention as it is believed that students there need English to be an instrument to enhance the learning of specific disciplines rather than be just part of the general education. The university where this research was conducted belongs to this category. Decision makers there, mainly including the dean of the college of foreign studies, directors of the two departments of college English teaching, have long been discussing how college English can contribute to the development of the university and how the college can maintain its status at a science and engineering university. They reached an agreement by following the ESP reform tide...
and aimed at an integration of language learning and the contents of certain disciplines. Several ESP courses were provided soon afterwards by some English teachers, who had been teaching general English. At the beginning there were no ESP textbooks available, so teachers needed to develop materials by themselves. After about two years, the dean launched a program of editing and publishing ESP textbooks based on the characteristics of the university. ESP courses are defined by decision makers in the university as one part of college English and a bridge between professional English and general English. Before the COVID-19 pandemic, decisions had already been made to develop online ESP courses and several courses were successfully created first as SPOCs and later as MOOCs. The traditional offline courses were shifted into online courses, which fulfilled the urgent needs in the pandemic and later served as important resources of the blended learning that is advocated after class-resumption.

B. Participants

Participants in this research were recruited by purpose sampling. Five teachers were chosen according to the following criteria: Firstly, they must have been teaching ESP courses for at least 3 years so that they have enough experiences and awareness. Secondly, teachers in administrative positions (who had some power in the decision making process, e.g. as a department director) must be included. As is indicated by (Johnson, 2013, p. 102) compared with people in the same context, actors who hold administrative responsibilities can exert a stronger influence on the creation, interpretation and appropriation of language education policy. Thirdly, each of them must have taught a different ESP course so that the representativeness of the sampling can be ensured.

Among the participants, P5 was one of the two department directors (as is mentioned, there are two departments of college English teaching in the college of foreign studies in the university) when the research was conducted. Others are teachers with no administrative responsibilities. They had been teaching general English for many years, but none of the five teachers had ESP teaching experiences before the reform was initiated. They are addressed by codes created for ethic consideration. The participants’ profiles are presented in Table I.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Teaching experiences</th>
<th>Administrative responsibilities</th>
<th>teaching experiences of ESP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P1</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>associate professor</td>
<td>13 years</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P2</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>lecturer</td>
<td>16 years</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>4 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P3</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>associate professor</td>
<td>20 years</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P4</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>lecturer</td>
<td>20 years</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>4 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P5</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>lecturer</td>
<td>16 years</td>
<td>department director</td>
<td>5 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. Data Collection

To reveal teacher agency in the ESP policy reform, all participants were invited in in-depth interviews in which questions concerning their teaching practice, their interpretation and appropriation of the educational policy, their ideologies of the ESP reform, their evaluations on students’ academic performances after the policy change were asked. Every participant was interviewed respectively for about 30 minutes during which teachers were encouraged to share the teaching activities they designed to adjust to the new policy context, give an account of their mentality changes, and make free comments on the policy change according to their understanding of ESP education. With the five participants’ permission, the researcher then joined the ESP classes (both online and offline) and observed the interactions in the teaching and learning practice. Students were also invited to share their understandings of the teachers’ teaching performances and their self-evaluation on academic progress they made in the ESP classes. Data collected from classroom observation and informal interviews with students were transcribed as field notes.

D. Data Analysis

Interview data and field notes are analyzed by conducting thematic analysis. The researcher coded the collected data word by word to identify important themes pertinent to teacher agency. A second round of coding was conducted days later. Themes emerging from the two rounds of coding were compared and treated as complementary resources. The researcher then synthesized all the themes, trying to make a comprehensive “theory”. The themes fall into the following groups: (1) teachers’ actual reactions to the ESP reform, (2) teachers’ implicit discourses on the policy change, (3) teachers’ understanding of students’ explicit performance in and after the ESP courses, (4) students’ real needs and the implicit discourses of their ESP learning outcomes. A further and closer examination of the themes highlighted the causes of teacher agency (in real sense, resistance to the policy change) in the ESP curriculum policy: (1) teachers’ academic background, (2) their views on the nature of language learning, (3) their profound distrust of the efficacy of ESP courses, and (4) students’ unsatisfactory explicit performance.

III. RESULTS
A. Teachers’ Overt and Covert Reactions to the Top-down Policy

Research results show that for ESP teachers there is a dilemma of whether or not to follow the national and institutional discourses and they chose to exercise their agency to adjust the teaching practice based on their understanding of the top-down policies. They overtly were teaching ESP courses by following the principles set by the institutional arbiters, but on the other hand, their covert practice revealed a rather different ideology as the institutional requirements were not met in their teaching. As P3 said:

The ESP syllabus requires us to integrate disciplinary contents into the teaching and learning of English, but I found it hard to do so. I need to make the class manageable so that I can get into my “comfortable zone”, which I believe really important for successful teaching. You know, a teacher can never teach well if he or she feels out of place in class. So I found my ESP class as “liangzhangpi” (a Chinese colloquial expression meaning that two related matters or aspects become disjointed and uncoordinated). I mean, I may translate the text literally, but I seldom explain the meaning, which is what I cannot manage. The focus in my ESP class is still the same as that in the general English courses: language skills such as listening, reading, translating, etc., of which reading is what I pay much attention to.

Similar expressions are also found in the interview with other teachers. It seems to be the usual case that teachers would claim their classes as ESP classes overtly but regard the classes another form of general English, in which only the materials in the textbooks are different.

B. Students’ Explicit Performance After Taking the ESP Courses and Their Real Needs and Implicit Discourses

Research results also reveal the inconsistency in students’ explicit performances and hidden discourses. Explicitly they showed indifference to what was taught in the ESP classes and it seemed credits were all that they cared. They were not active in class, and some of them even fell asleep. Those who were asked to respond to the teachers often stood still, without giving any valuable remarks or ideas. But interview data from students brought researchers a picture which is rather different from what happened in the classroom. The following excerpt represents most students’ hidden ideology:

I really want to learn something in ESP classes, but when I found there is no big difference between ESP and general English classes, I chose to be quiet. I need the credits, so I attended each class, but I knew my performance was not good. Actually, after class I usually searched for similar courses in icourse (a Chinese MOOC platform) for self-study. I really need ESP courses, as I believe they are more useful for my study and my future career.

The seemingly contradictory discourses from the excerpt above prove that ESP reform is a correct decision from the students’ perspective. If the agency exerted by teachers is aimed at enacting the real ESP curriculum, it is conducive; otherwise, if the agency changes the direction of the national and institutional direction and deviates from students’ expectations and needs, then it has to be considered as negative. What should be made clear is that teacher agency should be analyzed and evaluated based on a thorough and rigorous consideration and investigation of students’ real needs.

C. The Causes of Teacher Agency in the ESP Curriculum Policy

1. Teachers’ academic background

This section reveals that teachers’ academic background, as an important part of one’s life experience, has a notably effect on their responses to the policy change in the context of ESP reform. This confirms Kayi-Aydar’s finding that agency is constructed by individual’s life experience (Kayi-Aydar, 2015). However, it shows that academic background confines teachers’ vision and is one of the major stumbling blocks to any positive attempt to make some change. P1 insisted that as a teacher, she has the freedom of interpreting the policy in her own way:

As a language teacher, I cannot imagine that there is no literary elements in my class. I majored in English literature, and literature is all that I am good at. Now I am asked to teach something pertinent to civil engineering, it is really hard to believe. Can you imagine a teacher who has never learned anything about engineering can teach this course well? Each time I went to my class, I felt I am a fraud and I still feel the same. I do not even understand the basic concepts; you know, one need to learn something in a new field for a period of time, say, a few years, before disciplinary knowledge can be really understood.

The above excerpt shows that P1 was defending herself by highlighting her academic background in literature and the long time needed to become expert in a new disciplinary. P2 also mentioned her little knowledge in the discipline, but she presented the cause of her unwillingness to change directly and unreservedly:

I know little about that discipline. I came from a poor family in the northern part of this province and my family never offer me an opportunity to learn anything about it. You know, to step into that field may cost a family a lot of money. My little knowledge in that discipline makes me unconfident in the ESP course. Any question from the students can make me foxed. Sometimes I even feel that the students have contempt for me. Maybe it is not true, but I just feel that way. English literature is all that I know, which makes me very depressed in ESP classes. So I just explain some terminologies and translate the text sentence by sentence. That’s all that I can do.

A close examination of P1’s and P2’s stance can bring a clearer picture: teachers’ learning experiences in literature is one important source of teacher’s agency in the process of implementing the national and institutional language education policy, either as an excuse for teachers’ illegitimacy, or as an indicator of their incompetence.

2. Teachers’ views on the nature of language learning

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Another cause of teachers’ agency in the ESP context is their ideology on the nature of language learning. In China, there is a protracted debate over the property of English learning: some believe foreign language is “instrumental”, so it is important to implement ESP reform to help students acquire disciplinary knowledge via English (Cai, 2017b); others insist the learning of a language be essentially “humanistic” because one language is the representation of one specific culture, so cultivating humanistic competence is the kernel of English courses (Feng, 2019). The two different voices permeate both college English (basically for non-English majors) and English as a major. Interview data in this research indicates that most teachers hold a “humanistic” view of foreign language learning, partly because their own learning experiences as an English major were “humanistic”. It is hard for them to accept instrumental rationality as the purpose or essence of language learning, P4 directly pointed out:

Language is part of culture. You cannot believe that ESP courses may help students master the cultural value of the language. For me, language learning without a command or an awareness of culture is of no “soul”. It is pathetic if all students learn English in this way. So in my ESP class I still went to the cultural part when I explained a new word, though it may cost a lot of time and it is not so relevant to the contents in the ESP textbooks.

The above remarks show that teachers’ views on the nature of language learning cannot be simply changed just because of the reform context or administrative requirements. Their views permeate all their teaching practice and are reflected in the students’ learning experiences. One student in P4’s class said:

It was rather strange, you know, you were attending an ESP class, but you got a lot of information on English culture. Sometimes I wondered if I went into a general English class.

3. Teachers’ profound distrust of the efficacy of ESP courses

Teachers showed profound distrust of the effectiveness of ESP courses, which is another reason why they exercised agency. According to the interview data, many teachers expressed their worries of ESP students’ language competence. P3 problematized the rationale of ESP courses by focusing on students’ language proficiency when they first went into the ESP class:

I have to say, on average, students’ language skills were poor. I gave them a comprehensive test in the first ESP class; basically it was a test of general English as there were just a few terminologies included. To my surprise, most of them gave a bad performance in the test, although they all passed CET 4 (College English Test Band 4, one national English test for non-English majors in Chinese colleges or universities). My question was then, would they be able to learn ESP courses since their general English competence was not good enough?

Teachers believed it would be really difficult for students to join the ESP courses if their language skills do not meet the requirements. Basically disciplinary materials in English are more difficult to understand as there are more complex sentence structures, more terminologies, and embedded disciplinary principles or knowledge. With a consideration of the actual circumstance, P1, P3 and P5 mentioned that they usually started ESP courses with several classes which were more like general English. But they also admitted that it was impossible to improve students’ language skills in a short time. As for the students, teachers’ appropriation of the ESP policy was more like “escape”:

Since it was an ESP course, why did they start with general English? I think they did not get prepared (for the ESP class).

Teacher agency exercised in this way might cause students’ misunderstanding or misinterpretation (which is also revealed in the previous section) and affect the teacher-student relationship in the context of ESP curriculum reform.

4. Teachers’ perception of students’ unsatisfactory explicit performance

Teachers’ “good” intention of starting an ESP course with general English or injecting culture of English-speaking countries into the course has another consequence: students refused to cooperate or behave actively in class, which in turn, misled the teachers. From teachers’ perspective, the students’ unsatisfactory explicit performance just proved again that it was necessary to make some changes or adjustments to the top-down ESP policy. P3 believed that her choice was right:

According to my observation, the students were unable to express their understandings on disciplinary knowledge. Sometimes I just asked them a simple question, but there was no response. I knew that their lack of English proficiency is an obstacle to their expressions. And I also knew I needed to adjust my expectations and the contents I would teach in class.

P3 assured herself in her appropriation of the ESP policy from her on-the-spot perspective. The message she got was that the students were silent in class, but she misinterpreted the message as students’ inability to express. The gap between what she saw and what the facts really were cannot be filled because she exerted her agency directly by making adjustments to the ESP curriculum without conducting a survey to fully understand the students’ real needs.

P3’s perception was only based on her observations in the classroom, but the interviews with students in this research unveiled something different. As is mentioned, students’ explicit performances in class were just representation of their silent resistance against their teachers’ agency (i.e., the teachers’ adjustments and appropriation of the national and institutional ESP policy).

One more thing that needs to mention is that P5, as a director of the college English teaching department, once got students’ feedback from a teacher-student informal meeting in a mid-term teaching inspection. In that meeting, one student told her true feelings of the ESP classes and several others chimed in. In an interview, a student who attended that meeting told the researcher that he remembered the director (P5) made the following remarks — “yes, we need
make some changes”, and took some notes in his notebook. However, it seemed that the “change” did not happen, even in P5’s ESP classes.

IV. DISCUSSION

Teacher agency is usually understood as a means by which teachers can negotiate with power and mediate the policy and teaching practice. It can help policy actors “promote further action and lead to higher and more successful levels of interaction” (van Lier, 2004, p. 95). In other words, agency is perceived as a factor that plays a positive role in language teaching. The negative side of teacher agency in the language education policy change has not been fully explored and elaborated. From results of the current research, one can easily notice that teacher agency in the context of educational reform may turn out to be a defense of teachers’ unwillingness to change, which is caused by their confined academic background, their constrained understanding of language education, their bias against the so-called instrumental rationality of ESP courses and their inaccurate perception of students’ academic performance. It should be noted that teacher agency exercised in the implementation of the ESP policy needs to be evaluated based on students’ needs. The analysis of students’ discourses reveals that most of the students show very strong needs for “real” ESP courses, but their voices cannot be heard by the teachers because they chose to remain silent. In this sense, teacher agency exerted in the context of ESP reform cannot be regarded as positive resistance to power or hierarchy; instead, it should be perceived as an evasion of responsibilities and accountabilities, the manifestation of human obstinacy, and the unwillingness or inability to understand students’ hidden agenda.

As is noted, the negative side of teacher agency is largely unexplored in previous literature, and it is the lacuna that the current study seeks to address. Xu and Long (2020) indicate that further explorations need to be made to ascertain the factors pertinent to agency. The current study explores this issue by conducting a detailed analysis of the causes of teacher agency in the context of ESP reform and focusing on the negative effects of agency. However, it should be admitted that the causes of the teacher agency may be diverse and changeable as the contexts of other language education policy changes can be rather different from that of this study. Therefore, follow-up studies may confirm the factors revealed in this research, or it is probable to discover more factors in other specific contexts.

V. IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This research shows that teachers’ views on the nature of language learning and their profound distrust of the efficacy of ESP courses are part of the reason why they interpret the new ESP policy rather differently from the institution. Therefore, it is a necessity to create spaces for negotiating and adjusting the national policy at the instructional level to “empower and facilitate teachers to claim and exercise their agency”(Liu, Wang, & Zhao, 2020). Claiming or exercising agency does not mean renunciation of the reform initiative; rather it gives teachers opportunities to express their stance and concern, which actually creates a space for the explanation and interpretation of the policy. It is rather important to respond to teachers’ worries before implementation by offering convincing and feasible plans. Debates in that space can reveal the difficulties in implementing the policy and ideas to make the reform possible might emerge by a rigorous and cautious design of the implementation steps. Teachers’ views might not be changed completely; however, a process of negotiation can at least provide a clearer picture of the course of action and be seen as a symbol of future adjustments if the policy is encountered with difficulties.

The negative side of the exerted teacher agency identified in this research is also the result of teachers’ lack of competence in certain disciplines and their failure to know students’ real needs in the context of ESP reform. It is then argued that offering effective ESP teacher education programs as affordances to elevate the teachers’ competency and pedagogy might be a way conducive to the mediation of their agency. On the other hand, instead of making teachers perceive or analyze their students’ needs, which possibly turns out to be untrustworthy (as is proved above), the college of foreign studies, or the English teaching department can help teachers make need analysis by collecting data from surveys conducted anonymously at the institutional level. Students’ real needs then are more likely to serve both as pressure and impetus for teachers to undertake their responsibility, and hence, bring positive changes in their agency.

A conclusion can be made that efforts at the institutional level are indispensable in the context of a language education policy and important to the mitigation of the negative effects of teacher agency. The efforts can either be creating a space for negotiation, debate, interpretation or appropriation of the policy, or be providing affordances for teachers to meliorate their competency and pedagogy in the reform context. An institution, instead of being an authoritative entity or an “administrator” that holds power, can also act simply as a helper which for instance may conduct surveys for teachers, or as a bridge between teachers and students. Teacher agency is a complex issue, which has a positive side and a negative side in the context of educational reform. Institutions are an undeniable factor to the shift of teacher agency (from negative to positive) and hence the enactment of a new language education policy.

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Shiping Deng was born in Qingdao, Shandong Province in 1986. He received his master degree in Nanjing Forestry University, China in 2011.

He is currently a lecturer, and a Ph. D candidate in the Institute of Linguistics at Shanghai International Studies University, China. His research Interest: applied linguistics, language policy and language planning.
The Cognitive Bases of Conversion in Modern English

Laila Sahib Gadimova
Azerbaijan University of Languages, Azerbaijan

Abstract—As known, the end of the 20th - the beginning of the 21st centuries in linguistics is characterized by language learning and studying the language processes from the perspective of anthropocentric paradigm. Moreover, at the age of globalization and innovative technologies, it was the English language that became the working language throughout the world which could not but affect its system. With spread of internet in virtual communication people tend to use the tools to save language. Despite the fact that in the scientific literature there is a great deal of works devoted to the study of different aspects of conversion, there is not a single study in which conversion would be considered as a mechanism of the principle of language saving. The relevance of our study is also explained by the fact that, unlike our predecessors, we consider conversion not as a word-building tool or one of the types of transposition, but as a universal language tool that needs a more detailed and complete description in the language. It is conditioned with the need to consider the factors of cognitive nature that determine the appearance and choice of particular conversion, both as reflection of the needs of the language itself and the communicative tasks of the speaker.

Index Terms—conversion, word formation, metaphorical, homonyms, transfer

I. INTRODUCTION

The problem of studying conversion is not new in the English language. The history of the study of the current issue includes an extensive literature examining this problem from different aspects - empirical, syntactical, structuralistic. The consideration of cognitive aspect of conversion in the English language was conducted within the framework of elaborating the cognitive theory of metaphor proposed by G. Lakoff and M. Johnson. Later, this position was reflected by works of R. Mendoza, O. Velasko, I. Balteyro, S. Martsa, etc. The study of conversion in Russian linguistics is contained in the classical works by E. S. Kubryakova, V. A. Gureeva, E. M. Pozdnakova, O. G. Ilyinskaya, etc. In Russian linguistics, conversion was considered as a structural means of word formation of the English language in works by M. Mammadov, H. Gadjiyev, S. Orudjev, R. Guseynov, Q. Babanli, R. Nasirov, etc.

The main goal of our research is to study the cognitive basis of conversion in modern English language.

To achieve the main goal, the following tasks have been put:
- to trace the history of study of conversion in the English language presented in foreign and Azerbaijani linguistics;
- to determine the aspects of studying conversion in modern English language;
- to consider conversion as one of the mechanisms of the language saving principle;
- to study conversion at the different levels of the language;
- to highlight the kinds and types of conversion;
- to reveal the structural models of conversion;
- to define the semantic component of conversion;
- to identify the types of semantic transfers on the basis of which the conversion is based;
- to identify the distinctive features of conversion as a semantic phenomenon of the language;
- to determine the effect of conversion on the development in terms of the language phenomena of polysemy, homonymy, synonymy, antonymy;
- to determine the cognitive nature of conversion;
- to reveal the connection between the effect of conversion and the development of language categories;
- to set the cognitive-communicative goal of conversion;
- to determine the effect of conversion in actualization of the various concepts;
- to identify the role of conversion in verbalization of the various concepts.

II. RESEARCH METHODS

Based on the tasks set during the analysis, the research used complementary methods, including the methods of semantic interpretation, cognitive and contextual analysis. In particular, the following methods have been also used: synchronous method, descriptive method, observation method, method of linguistic analysis.

Scientific novelty of the research lies in the fact that for the first time in linguistics, conversion has been examined as a mechanism of the principle of language saving. As a result of such approach, the structural models and the semantic component of conversion have been defined. The classification of its structural models is carried out and the
semantic transfer is discovered, based on which the conversion is built. Also, the cognitive principle of the conversion is
discovered, which influences on the units at the different levels of the language.

**Theoretical significance of the research** is determined by the fact that the study of conversion from the cognitive
point of view has fostered defining conversion as a universal phenomenon of the language, structuring the language
units in a systematic order.

**Practical significance of the research** is determined by the fact that the materials examined in the research can be
used at the classes on general linguistics, at the special courses on cognitive linguistics, as well as disciplines related to
the study of theory and practice of the English language at the faculties of philology.

### III. DISCUSSION

The problem of studying conversion is not new in the English language. The history of the study of the current issue
includes extensive literature. Considering this fact and modern achievements of linguistic science, all scientific research
related to the features of the functioning of the conversion can be classified into two groups: 1) study of conversion
from the point of view of traditional grammar; 2) studies of the cognitive characteristics of the functioning of
conversion (Smirnitsky 1954, p.54).

The following stages of determining this grammatical phenomenon are distinguished in the history of the study of
conversion.

1) Conversion refers to the transition of one part of speech to another (the end of the 17th and the beginning of the
18th centuries). During the compilation of English grammars, researchers such as Lane, Greenwood, Ward, Hazel, etc.
focused not on the structural, but on the conceptual description of the conversion.

2) Conversion means the use of the same word in the functions of different parts of speech, or the functional
transition from one part of speech to another (the end of the 19th century). This understanding of conversion is associated
with the development of syntax theory in English grammar: words related to the different parts of speech are not
considered in isolation, but within the framework of the sentence structure. This provision of polyfunctionalism is
reflected in the works of Morris, Sweet, Crazing, Bradley.

3) Conversion as a way of word formation using zero morphemes (the end of the 19th and the mid of the 20th
centuries): structuralistic approach.

One of the first researchers who considered conversion as a word-building phenomenon was L. Bloomfield, who
spoke about the formation of zero words with the help of the zero element, and called the conversational units
"secondary conversed words." L. Bloomfield's ideas about conversion as a zero derivation in the second half of the 20th
century were developed (Bloomfield 1933, p.64).

The presence of zero affix in the word during conversion was also noted by Russian linguists, who began to pay close
attention to English word formation from the 60-80s of the 20th century. Classic works in this direction are the works of
E. S. Kubryakova, O. D. Meshkov, P. V. Tsarev, P. M. Karashuk, etc. in which conversion was considered as a
morphological-syntactic type of word formation.

In Azerbaijani linguistics, conversion in the English language as an object of research has attracted the attention of
scientists over the last 20 years. Here refer “About conversion” by Mammadov M. (Mammadov 2006, p.87 ), “The role
and importance of neologisms in the development of conversion phenomena and techniques in linguistics” by Hadiyev
words creation in English by means of conversion and the methods of its expression in Azerbaijani” by Huseynova R.
of morphological methods in multi-system languages” by Nasirova R. (Nasirova 2017, p.13), etc. As can be seen from
the titles of these studies, the conversion is considered by them as a structural means of word formation in the English
language both in the comparative historical and comparative typology aspects.

Summarizing what is mentioned above, it becomes clear that conversion was considered both as semantic and
grammatical (taking into consideration either syntactic or morphological features) means of word formation. From the
mid of the 20th century, with the emerging of cognitive linguistics, the nature of conversion has been studied from a
cognitive point of view.

In English linguistics, the consideration of conversion in the cognitive aspect was part of the development of the
cognitive theory of metaphor and metonymy, proposed by G. Lakoff and M. Johnson (Lakoff 1988, p.102; Lakoff,

In Russian linguistics, conversion in the cognitive aspect was studied in the framework of the theory of conceptual
analysis proposed by E.S. Kubryakova in the 70th of the 20th century (Kubryakova 1991, p.4-11). Further, this
linguistic phenomenon was considered by E. M. Pozdnyakova, O.G. Ilyinskaya and others.

With regard to the cognitive approach to the study of conversion in Azerbaijan, despite the active development of
cognitive linguistics by such scientists as F. Veysalli, A. Mammadov, M. Mammadov, there are no works devoted to
this issue. Our work in Azerbaijan is the first work in which the conversion is considered from the point of
view of cognitive linguistics.

One of the principles of the organization and existence of the language is the principle of saving the language, when
the language seeks to achieve the greatest result using less means.
S. O. Kartsevsky believed that this phenomenon is possible due to the asymmetric dualism of the sign, when the external sign (its shape) and the internal sign (its meaning) are manifested in the fact that the form of the sign is constantly transferred to other things, and one form starts to have several meanings: the new is included in the old frames (Kaptsevskiy 1965, p.85).

This is observed due to the fact that there are a limited number of signs in the sign system, while there are an infinite number of individual objects, phenomena, qualities, signs, properties, that is, all the expression of which can be found in the language. As a result, the same signs, by analogy, begin to name different concepts. Conversion in this case is a mechanism that includes the new in the old framework and changes the internal content of the sign qualitatively. This can be seen on the example of the sign /ə/ of the modern English language, which manifests itself differently at the different language levels. So, at the phonetic level, the sign /ə/ in written form is denoted by the letter /a/, the acoustic image of which is transmitted by different sounds.

Under stress in an open syllable /a/ sounds like [ei] (take, place, make), in a closed syllable – like [æ] (glad, bad, map).

In combination with other signs, it may indicate other sounds:
- [a:] (park, car, mark) (park, işars)
- a + r [ə] (care, pare) (qayğı, cüt)
- a (similar)
- a + y day, may, way
- [ei]
- a + i (rain, pain) (yağış, ağrı)
- a + i + r [ə]
- a + ll [ɔ:] (wall) (divar)
- a + l + consonant always
- e + a [i:] (tea, meat) (çay, at)
- e + a + r [iə] (hear) (eşitmək)
- o + a [ou] (coat) (paltə)

At the same time, conversion shows itself in two ways. On the one hand, under the influence of conversion, one sign (in this case "a") can denote different sounds (see examples above), on the other hand, the same sound can be indicated by different signs. For example:
- [i:] [iə]
- e ee ea er eer ear
- (be) (meet) (tea) (here) (deer) (hear) (olmaq, görüşmək, çay, bura, maral, eşitmək)

Thus, in the English language, the sign /a/ is expressed in different sounds depending on the position in the word and on compatibility with other speech sounds. Some of these sounds under the influence of conversion begin to coincide with the sounds of other signs, which, in turn, under the influence of conversion, can also be indicated by other signs. Graphically, this can be described in the following way.

Graphically, this can be described in the following way.

- [ei] (gate) (darvaza)
- A [i:] (tea) [ou] (no)
- E [ə] O
- (letter, doctor) (məktub, hakim)

As seen from the scheme, in the English language, sounds and letters are in constant interchangeability, that is, a sign denoting a certain sound in speech under the influence of conversion begins to expand its potential: either new sounds begin to be perceived under this sign, or a sound that is indicated by other signs. This relationship can be traced both at the linguistic and speech levels, and provides the English language with a limited number of letters and sounds to create new letter and sound combinations, and therefore new word-formation elements and words.

It is an interesting fact that conversion can transfer a unit of one language level into another. For example, the sound that is transmitted in the graphic system of the English language by a combination of the signs "a and r", at the word-formation level loses its priority position: the spelling "ar," which is perceived as a suffix, comes to the forefront, participating in the formation of new words, particularly, nouns: beggar, liar, scholar, etc.

At the word-formation level, the sign "a" can act as the prefix a-, which in the English language is polysemantic: a-1 /ə/ prefix
1) in a particular condition or way: alive (= living)/ Read it aloud, please (= in a voice that others can hear);
2) literary or old-fashioned, used to show that someone or something is in or on something, or at a place: abed (= in bed) | afar (= far away) | atop (= on top of something) a-2 /ei, æ/ prefix showing the opposite or the absence of something; not, without: atypically (= not typically) | amoral (= not moral) (Longman 2001, p. 1).

The negative meaning of prefix a- forms new words, which related to the same part of speech, as an original. For example:
apolitical (Adj.) ← political (Adj.) (siyasi)
amoral (Adj.) ← moral (Adj.) (mənəvi)
avry (Adj.) ← wry (Adj.) (yılmış)
Adjectives formed in this way are one of the manifestations of the negation category in English. It means that coinciding in meaning with a negative particle "not", these prefixes can replace them in a sentence. The effect of conversion is that the negation in the English sentence can be expressed both with negative words or particles, and prefixes, which are syntactic synonyms in words: apolitical = not political, amoral = not moral.

In the meaning of finding a state or place the prefix a- forms a new word, which is related to the different part of speech, than original one:

1) Nouns are transferred to adjectives or adverbs: ablaze (Adj.) ← blaze (N.); abed (Adj.) ← bed (N.); afoot (Adj.) ← foot (N.);
2) Adjectives are transferred to adverbs: afar (Adv.) ← far (Adj.); aloud (Adv.) ← loud (Adj.); alow (Adv.) ← low (Adj.).

In modern English, under the influence of conversion, the studied prefix has also begun to replace prepositions "off, from" and provide the words with sense of movement: akin, afresh, anew.

As mentioned before, conversion reveals the inner potential of linguistic units. However, concretization of the language mark may occur as a result of the conversion, that is, narrowing of either its meaning or the function it performs. This narrowing is also required by the law of the language saving principle.

IV. ANALYSES

As already noted, conversion is an extension of the functional component of the sign. Under the influence of conversion, while maintaining its shape, a new sign can be transformed into:

A) a sign of another level of the English language system;
B) a sign of the same level of the English language system.

In the first case, conversion is heterogeneous signs, in the second, homogeneous signs. In turn, dissimilar signs serve to link the levels of the English language as a system, while homogeneous signs expand the potential of each level of the language. Moreover, both types of conversion are characterized by certain semantic transfers.

When forming conversion, three types of transfers are distinguished:

1) metaphorical;
2) homonymous;
3) transfer by function.

These three types of semantic transfer in English can be observed both in pure and mixed forms. Metaphorical transfer is based on the similarity of material characteristics: color, shape, character of movement. Relatedly, three types of metaphors are distinguished: motivated, synthetic and associative, which are observed during conversion.

1. Motivated linguistic metaphor: the semantic element explicitly links the metaphorical meaning with the original one. The metaphor in these cases is transparent. For example:

   The police are looking for a man aged between 30 and 35. - My aged parents.

   In both examples, "aged" is an adjective that differs functionally and semantically. In the first sentence, it acts as a participle II and is part of the participial construction, and also denotes a sign - indicates the age. In the second example, "aged" is a definition that conveys the semantics of the degree of the attribute - "very old" (parents). Consequently, under the influence of the conversion in the word "aged", an expansion of the syntactic function is observed, which entails the development of meaning, namely, a gradual meaning: a feature indicating age may also indicate the degree of this feature. In other words, conversion, thanks to a motivated metaphor, forms conversions-synonyms.

2. A syncretic linguistic metaphor based on sensations:

   Aw shucks, you're making me blush! - He's filled with aw shucks niceness.

   As an adjective, "aw shucks" means "shy". As an interjection, it also expresses this emotion. Consequently, a specific emotion by metaphorical transference becomes a sensual exclamation of embarrassment, timidity, and bashfulness. In this case, not only the shade of the meaning changes, but also the function. If "aw shucks" defines a noun as an adjective, then as an interjection this word becomes a direct, uncontrollable expression of emotion.

3. An associative linguistic metaphor is based on the ability of consciousness to find analogies between any objects of reality. Such a linguistic metaphor is based on the association of signs or psychological parallelism. For example:

   an Afro-American - Afro (a hair style popular with African Americans)

   In the first case, "Afro" is a prefix that denotes everything related to Africa, or people from Africa, and conveys the semantics of the feature. In the second case, "Afro" is a noun. Metaphorical transfer is observed here in the switching of a certain attribute to a specific concept. The transparency of the metaphor lies in the fact that the sign of people or things is transferred to the style, hairstyle that distinguishes these people in society. Therefore, in this case, we observe an associative metaphorical transfer based on a feature.

   When converting between signs of the English language, cases of homonymous semantic transfer can also be observed. At the same time, the homonymy that arose under the influence of conversion differs from homonymy - a linguistic universal. Let's compare the two types of situations.

The heart of Indonesia, Java Islands, is an incredible destination to witness the complex Indonesian culture (www.traveltriangle.com, 10 March 2019). - Java is powering the innovation behind our digital world
There has been a revolution in coffee making over the past decade, with one’s choice and style of java becoming about as personalized as his or her fingerprints (Outdoor Life, 8 January 2020).

As you can see from the examples, in English, “Java” is the name of one of the Indonesian islands, the unofficial name of coffee and the programming language. According to the etymological dictionary, the unofficial name of coffee comes from the name of the island of Java: originally a kind of coffee grown on Java.

Consequently, two concepts - the name of the island and the designation of coffee - were formed on the basis of a motivated metaphor. In the twentieth century, namely in 1995, the unconventional name for coffee gave its name to the new software language Java.

However, despite the fact that etymologically all three words are interconnected, in modern English they are semantically different from each other, and, therefore, are homonyms.

In contrast to linguistic homonyms, homonyms that arise during conversion, despite their graphic coincidence, differ a) semantically, b) in part of speech, and, as a consequence, c) functionally. It is this homonymy that we observe, for example, in the word "acting".

In English, “acting” can be an adjective and a noun:

- The lack of acting (Adj.) Nominations could also spell doom for its chances (only 11 other films have ever won best picture without receiving nominations in any acting categories) (Washington Post, 3 February 2020).
- Tensions have grown between Hong Kong’s ethnic minorities and protesters, who accuse South Asian gangs of acting (N) as thugs for hire, paid by Triad criminal organizations and other shady groups to intimidates and beat up protesters (Time, 20 October 2019).

The sign "acting" was formed from the verb "act" by the suffixing method: "act + -ing". There is also a semantic difference. The noun "acting" has developed its meaning on the basis of functional transference, while the adjective "acting" on the basis of a motivated metaphor. At the same time, the meaning of a noun and an adjective is so different that in modern English they are perceived as homonyms.

Thus, the semantic component of conversion is three types of transfer of values: metaphorical, homonymous, and transfer by function. At the same time, the development of these meanings can be observed both in homogeneous units and heterogeneous ones, since all types of hyphenations we noted above are most often found in English in a mixed form.

V. CONCLUSION

Considering conversion from the point of view of cognitive linguistics in modern English provided the following results:

1. One of the principles of organization and existence of language is the principle of economy, when the language strives to achieve the greatest result using fewer means. This phenomenon is possible due to the asymmetric dualism of the sign.

Conversion in this case is a mechanism that incorporates the new into the old framework and qualitatively changes the internal content of the sign. In this case, the conversion:

1) associates a sign with an object;
2) connects the sign with other signs;
3) combines the signs as the means of reflecting thoughts.

In other words, conversion as a mechanism of the principle of linguistic economy under one form unites different semantic concepts, and also transfers linguistic units of one level to another.

2. Depending on the mode of action, the conversion is built according to certain structural models that characterize the most significant connections and conversion properties. These connections and properties are revealed as a result of the functioning of the components of the conversion model.

3. In modern English, conversion operates at all linguistic levels: phonetic, derivational, morphological, lexical and syntactic. It expands the potential capabilities not only of units of the same language level (i.e., it is homogeneous), but also of units of different levels of the language (i.e., it is heterogeneous). In other words, conversion is an extension of the functional component of the sign.

4. In modern English, the cases of conversion actions are associated with the development of certain categories, for example: the category of negation, the category of quantity, the category of self, the category of gender, etc.

5. Conversion is based on 3 types of semantic hyphenation:
1) metaphorical;
2) homonymous;
3) transfer by function.

Arising on the basis of these semantic transfers, the conversion serves the development between conversions of such universal phenomena of language as polysemy, homonymy, synonymy and antonymy.

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Laila Sahib Gadimova was born in 1980 in Baku, Azerbaijan. She graduated from the Baku Slavic University in 2001, and she got her Master Degree of Region Studies. She had some training and courses such as Regional Centre of the International Educational programs (2001-2002), Durham Technical Community College (USA, Durham NC) (2004-2005), etc.

She has been teaching at the Azerbaijan University of Languages from 2013 till present. She speaks English and Russian fluently.
Study on Lin Shu’s Translation Style and Its Formation*

Lihua Yang
Foreign Languages College, Jiangxi Normal University, Nanchang, China

Abstract—Lin Shu brought the style of elegance and succinctness of the ancient Chinese prose into his translation, but he also tried his best to convey the style of the original to readers. When rendering various original styles, he naturally brought the “inelegant” and “insuccinct” elements into the translation, thus weakening elegance and succinctness to some extent. Nevertheless, the “elegant and succinct” elements in his translation was maintained at a relatively high proportion as a whole, so his translation style could still be categorized as that of “elegance and succinctness”. In terms of its dynamic formation, it was closely related to the translator, target readers and translation cultural strategy. To be specific, Lin Shu’s command of classical Chinese prose, the stylistic preference of traditional literati and scholar bureaucrats, as well as the translation cultural strategy of assimilating the foreign languages with Chinese style, all contributed to the formation of Lin’s translation style.

Index Terms—Lin Shu, translation style, elegance and succinctness, humor, translator, target text readers, translation culture strategy

I. INTRODUCTION

Lin Shu was a master of ancient Chinese prose, but he translated more than 150 novels and became “the first person engaged in introducing Western modern literature.” It was through his translation that Chinese people began to know many world-renowned writers and their works and realized that Western literature is as brilliant as that of China. Attracting the attention of scholars in different domains, his translation style was often mentioned by scholars but never got studied deeply. In view of this, this paper tried to make a static and dynamic analysis of Lin’s translation style.

II. THE STATIC ANALYSIS OF LIN SHU’S TRANSLATION STYLE

This part will discuss how Lin’s translation conveyed both the style of the translator and that of the original text. The former will analyze how Lin’s translation conveyed the “elegant and succinct” style, and the latter will use the humorous style as an example.

1) Elegance and Succinctness in Lin’s Translated Novels

To some extent, there will be connections between a writer’s different writing styles. The language used in Lin Shu’s novel translation was often mistaken for “ancient Chinese prose” by many contemporaries and later generations. Lin Shu himself often makes an analogy between novels and ancient Chinese prose, so when it comes to the style of his translated novels, his creation of ancient Chinese prose should be paid close attention to, which inevitably had a close connection with Tongcheng School of Literature at that time. An author’s creation is related not only to his or her personal qualifications but also to the times. What are the stylistic similarities between Lin Shu and Tongcheng School? It is the style of “elegance and succinctness”, which is the essence of Tongcheng School.

Lin Shu had in-depth thinking about the style of “elegance”, and most of the translations are simple and elegant. Whether scenery description or narration, the texts are generally elegant and concise, adhering to the style of “elegance and succinctness”.

In order to achieve the effect of “elegance”, Lin Shu adopted the method of imitating the lexicon and syntax in pre-Qin Dynasty, which conformed to the usual practice of Tongcheng School. Tongcheng School laid emphasis on “seeking the roots in the traditional thought literature” (Tian, 2003, p.4). They thought highly of the articles from the Warring States Period to the Han Dynasty. Therefore, books like The Analects of Confucius, Shijing were what they advocated. It is complementary to imitate the morphology and syntax in pre-Qin Period and adhere to the style of Tongcheng School. In the process of translating, Lin Shu used content words, modal particles, judgment sentences, passive sentences, and inverted sentences with pre-Qin characteristics, which made the target language tend to be pure and standardized with a simple and elegant temperament.

As far as the style of “succinctness” is concerned, the translator doesn’t have too much freedom. However, in his translation, if Lin Shu thought that the original text was not concise, he would sometimes replace the original author and delete the wordy parts. For example, the book Uncle Tom’s Cabin describes the appearance of the human trafficker.

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Haley. Excerpts of the original and translation are as follows:

原文：One of the parties, however, when critically examined, did not seem, strictly speaking, to come under the species. He was a short, thick-set man, with coarse, commonplace features, and that swaggering air of pretension which marks a low man who is trying to elbow his way upward in the world. He was much over-dressed, in a gaudy vest of many colors, a blue neckerchief, bedecked gayly with yellow spots, and arranged with a flaunting tie, quite in keeping with the general air of the man. His hands, large and coarse, were plentifully bedecked with rings; and he wore a heavy gold watch-chain, with a bundle of seals of portentous size, and a great variety of colors, attached to it,—which, in the ardor of conversation, he was in the habit of flourishing and jingling with evident satisfaction. His conversation was in free and easy defiance of Murray's Grammar, and was garnished at convenient intervals with various profane expressions, which not even the desire to be graphic in our account shall induce us to transcribe. (Stowe, 1853, p.1)

林译：其一人狞丑，名曰海留，衣服华好，御金戒指一，镶以精钻，又佩一金表。状似素封，而谈吐鄙秽，近于伧荒。(Lin & Wei, 1981a, p.3)

The description of Haley, with 175 words in the original, is extremely specific, while Lin’s translation is only 40 words, less than a quarter of the original. The translation here is a generalization after the translator has an overall grasp of the vulgar image of human traffickers portrayed in the original text. Although many details are omitted in the translation, the overall spirit is retained in the translation. The translated text is short, concise and readable, conforming to the style of ancient prose.

2) The Reproduction of the Original Style

Lin Shu’s translation not only embodies his typical style of “elegance and succinctness”, but also conveys the style of the original text. Lin Shu was a person with high appreciation of literature and art. His long-term translation practice had enabled him to recognize different styles of foreign writers.

Relying on the tacit cooperation with interpreters and his good command of ancient Chinese, Lin Shu conveyed the styles of the original texts well. Tom’s tragedy and the slave owner’s cruelty in Uncle Tom’s Cabin, the knight’s romance and mystery in Ivanhoe, the various characters in David Copperfield—for all of these, Lin Shu had a very thorough analysis and a good reproduction.

For these styles, it is impossible to analyze each separately. Humorous style will be exemplified with details. There are few funny flavors in ancient literature, but Lin Shu “has a deep understanding of the humor of the original books, so he tends to pay more attention to describe these contents, which got very wonderful results.” (Hu, 1998, p. 215). Of so many novels translated by Lin Shu, Dickens’s novels are particularly humorously wonderful. Dickens was one of Britain’s most outstanding novelists in the 19th century. He was good at detecting fun in daily life and seeing profound ideological connotations through these comical phenomena. Lin Shu vividly rendered the humor of Dickens’ novels to readers. Take a fragment from Chapter 7 of David Copperfield by Dickens as an example. The original text is as follows:

Here I sit at the desk again, on a drowsy summer afternoon. A buzz and hum go up around me, as if the boys were so many bluebottles. A cloggy sensation of the lukewarm fat of meat is upon me (we dined an hour or two ago), and my head is as heavy as so much lead. I would give the world to go to sleep. I sit with my eye on Mr. Creakle, blinking at him like a young owl; when sleep overpowers me for a minute, he still looms through my slumber, ruling those ciphering-books, until he softly comes behind me and wakes me to plainer perception of him, with a red ridge across my back. (Dickens, 1981, p.83-84)

The original narrates a small fragment of life in which little David just dozed off, and immediately ate a whip from the principal’s back in a summer afternoon class. Dickens narrates a pure, innocent but frightened boy from the perspective of a child. This style seems relaxed and humorous, but in fact it is “tears in laughter”, which leaves a very deep impression.

The following excerpts are the translations of Lin Shu and Dong Qiusi (1950):

林译：尤有一日，似夏午后，众声嘈嘈如虫鸣，余脑重如铅，嗜睡至酷，即以全世界易此片晌之寐，余亦甘

董译：现时仿佛我又坐在书桌旁了，那是一个令人昏睡的夏天的下午。我四周起了一片营营声和嗡嗡声，仿佛学生们是那么多的青蝇。我身上有一种微温的肥肉的油腻感觉(我们在一两个钟头前吃过饭)，我的头像那么大块铅一样重。我愿牺牲一切来睡。我坐在那里，眼盯着克里古尔先生那里，像一头小猫头鹰一般对他眨着眼；当睡魔一下子征服了我时，他依旧隐隐地从我的昏睡中出现，他正指着那写算术簿，轻轻地走到我后面，用横过我背上的一道红岭子唤醒我，使我把他看得更清楚一点。(Lin & Wei, 1981b, p.51)

Dong: After the comparison of Lin’s and Dong’s translation, it can be found that the latter’s translation rendered nearly all the details in the original, while the former’s translation had frequent omissions. But as for the expressive effect, Dong’s translation seemed to repeat the story mechanically, revealing a mature and calm tone peculiar to adults. Therefore, little David’s innocence and loveliness were totally lost in Dong’s translation. Though Lin Shu had to cooperate with his oral translator and be confronted with the constraints of classical Chinese form, but he could convey Dickens’ humorous style and the charm of tears in laughter on the whole. For instance, Dong translated “I would give the world to go to sleep” into “我愿牺牲一切来睡”，which was emotionally plain. In contrast, Lin translated it into “即以全世界易此片
There are countless examples of conveying the original humorous style in Lin Shu’s translation. No wonder Zheng Zhenduo (1981, p.15) said, “Sometimes even the ‘humor’ which is the most difficult to express in the translation can be well conveyed in Mr. Lin’s translation”.

III. DYNAMIC ANALYSIS OF LIN SHU’S TRANSLATION STYLE

Popular in the late Qing Dynasty, the style of “elegance and succinctness” was the most prominent style in Lin Shu’s own creation. In his translation, this style came into his translation, making the translated texts simple and elegant. The style in Lin’s translation was formed due to the translator himself, the target text readers and the translation culture strategy.

1) Translator

As the main subject of the translation process, translators play a leading role in the generation of translation style. Although Lin Shu’s translation was the crystallization of the oral narration by his co-workers and the written record by himself, the translation style was virtually under his entire control. His literary accomplishment was related to the formation of the stylistic features of the translation to a great extent. During his entire life, Lin Shu had a deep feeling toward classical Chinese. Therefore, sorting out the relationship between Lin and the ancient Chinese would be conducive to the comprehension of the reasons why Lin translated western novels in classical Chinese.

First of all, it is necessary to know his experience of learning ancient Chinese prose. Since he was a child, he began to read ancient Chinese prose. At the age of 11 to 12, he studied under the guidance Xue Zeke, his abecedarian who boasted enlightened insights in teaching young children. During his instruction, Xue Zeke imparted the prose of Ouyang Xiu, a famous litterateur in ancient China, to Lin, instead of Baguwen, a stereotyped writing for examination-oriented education. Since then, Lin had a strong aversion to Baguwen and a deep inclination to the traditional classical Chinese prose.

Secondly, his creation of the ancient Chinese prose is also helpful to our understanding of his translation style. While learning the ancient Chinese prose, Lin Shu also wrote classical prose. In 1910, the Commercial Press published his first collection of ancient essays, *Wei Lu Anthology*. Later, *Wei Lu Anthology Sequel and The Third Wei Lu Anthology* were respectively published in 1916 and in 1924 by the same press. In view of the fact that the modern literary works were created under the context of the coexistence of old and new literature, Lin Shu’s ancient prose belonged to old literature, which still possessed a very high position in the literary circle during the late Qing Dynasty.

Furthermore, it is also necessary to know something about Lin Shu’s compilation and comment on ancient Chinese prose. While studying ancient Chinese prose all his life, he kept making compilation and comment related to ancient Chinese prose, thus making unique contribution to the field. His representative works included *High School Chinese Reading Book, Chun Jue-zhai, and The Collection of Lin Shu’s Comments on Works*. Among them, *Chun Jue-zhai* occupied an important position in the whole ancient literary theory. At that time, the literati and officialsdom boasted modeling themselves after Lin Shu.

Next, Lin Shu had close relationship with the Tongcheng School. Since Lin Shu had studied the literary theories of Zuo Qiuming, Sima Qian, Ban Gu and Han Yu for decades, the origin of his literary theory was objectively consistent with the Tongcheng School. Although he had repeatedly declared his position that he was not a disciple of the Tongcheng School, it was deniable that there was similarity between the style of Lin’s ancient Chinese prose and that of the Tongcheng School. What’s more, his critical theory of ancient prose has a very close relationship with the ancient prose criticism theory of the Tongcheng School. Therefore, he could be regarded as an important member of the Tongcheng School.

Ultimately, it came to his instruction of the ancient Chinese prose. Lin Shu, free from obtaining a post in the government, managed to teach as a teacher in his lifetime. Since he started to teach in the old-style private school in his hometown at the age of 21, he had never left the teaching rostrum until he passed away at the age of 73. In order to promote the ancient Chinese prose, he tried his best to recruit and teach young students.

Lin Shu cherished classical Chinese, and he couldn’t live without it. As a master in the ancient Chinese prose, Lin Shu had used all his energy to develop the prose, hoping to prolong the life expectancy of classical Chinese. Moreover, his translations in ancient Chinese could not only showcased his conversancy in it, but also could expand its application and lengthen its vitality. Such choice could fulfill many things at one stroke, so why not? There were facts which proved that Lin did achieve some fruits: with his efforts, the translation of novels in the style of “ancient Chinese prose” came into a fashion at that time, which extended the life span of the declining ancient Chinese prose by more than 10 years.

2) Target Text Readers

As the object of the translation process, the target text reader is another factor influencing the generation of the style of target text, which should be taken into consideration in the process of translating. Therefore, who were the target readers of Lin Shu’s translation? What stylistic preferences did they have?

Liang Qichao, a leader of Hundred Days’ Reform, had learnt from its failure and been aware that the only way to achieve the success of the reform was to renew the people. In Liang’s view, the people here were referred to those of the lower class. Influenced by Liang, Lin also regarded the common people as his target readers. However, Liang Qichao’s rapid failure in novel translation also taught Lin Shu an important lesson. From then on, Lin firmly believed that the
target readers of western novels were not the poorly-educated lower class, but the educated people who had a good command of classical Chinese.

Modern Chinese enlightenment thinkers all believed that there was no necessity for literati and scholar-bureaucrats to read the Chinese translation of foreign novels, because they were able to acquire new ideas directly by reading a large number of western learning works introduced into China at that time. The implication of it was: the Chinese versions of foreign novels were ready for the people from the lower class. But in fact, it was these literati and scholar-bureaucrats who read the translated foreign novels. This was one of the reasons why Liang Qichao’s translated novels, just like a flash in the pan, failed to have a profound impact on readers. On the contrary, Lin Shu took the traditional literati and scholar-bureaucrats as the target readers, so the real readers were his supposed readers. His translated versions were able to live up to the expectations of the target readers in the aspect of the style, hence gaining a favorable reception from the readers.

The literati and scholar-bureaucrats had been immersed in *Four Books* and *Five Classics* for a long time. Therefore, although they had purchased the translated foreign novels for reading, they had already formed a fixed pattern in thinking modes, reading habits and language expressions, without making any corresponding changes. Meanwhile, they had been in a closed and stable literary circle for a long time. As a consequence, they were almost instinctively against heterogeneous cultures. The traditional literary concepts and norms were deeply rooted in their minds, especially those related to the language. At that time, there was a tradition that the orthodox literature had always been characterized by the classical Chinese occupying the center of literature palace. It was difficult for the literati and scholar-bureaucrats to change this literary criterion in short time.

In the past centuries, Chinese literati paid great attention to the comments on the style of writing in an effort to pursue the elegance and purity of language. The cultural background, language habits and the criticism perspective on novels of the literati and scholar-bureaucrats all made it an excellent choice to translate the foreign books into classical Chinese, just like the translation style of Lin Shu.

### 3) Translation Culture strategy

Translation culture strategy is another important factor affecting the generation of translation style, which directly shaped the basic features of translation style. Lin Shu’s translation culture strategy could be summarized as the domestication strategy, that is, the assimilation of foreign languages with ancient Chinese style.

In the light of the discrepancies between the two languages and their cultures, domestication and foreignization can be roughly regarded as two different translation strategies adopted by translators who takes into consideration the differences in text types, translation purposes, author’s intentions and target language readers and whose purpose is to guide the selection and application of specific translation methods and techniques. The domestication strategy adopts the language and cultural norms in line with the target language culture, making the translation fluent and smooth, so as to be more readable for the target language readers. On the contrary, in order to make the target language readers have access to the “original flavors” of the text, the foreignization strategy tends to choose the language and cultural norms which do not conform to the target language.

Domestication and foreignization are dynamic, so they are closely related to the historical and cultural context at that time. Domestication was substantially prevailing in the translation history of modern China. Lin chose to translate the western novels in the style of classical Chinese with high elegance and succinctness. Though his translations had missions and were sometimes unfaithfulness to the original works, it was greatly conducive to the smooth dissemination and acceptance of the translated versions in the target language.

Lin Shu’s domestication strategy in translation style was widely adopted by other translators in the late Qing Dynasty. Featured by the combination of classical Chinese and vernacular Chinese, Liang Qichao’s translated works were very readable, exquisite and elegant. He also often rewrote the original ballads and poems according to Chinese poems and songs. Lu Xun, a distinguished Chinese litterateur, did go even further than Liao Qichao in the application of the domestication strategy. In all of his early translated works, such as *Ghost of Sparta, An Unscientific Story,* and *Origine de Fantine,* he adopted the classical Chinese to translate and sometimes even used the words and phrases of the pre-Qin.

Translation facts at that time showed that if the translator did not follow the trend of domestication, his or her translation was doomed to fail. *The Collection of Translated Foreign Novels,* co-rendered and co-published by Lu Xun and Zhou Zuoren, the latter being an outstanding modern Chinese essayist, was a very typical example. Their translation was seldom bought by readers at that time. Lu Xun later talked about its sale, “I heard that only 20 copies have been sold, and the rest of them will just stay on bookshelves forever.” (Lu, 1997, p. 202)

Tan Xiaolan divided the translators in the late Qing Dynasty into two generations, with Lin Shu and Liang Qichao as the first generation, Hu Shi and Lu Xun as the second one (Tan, 2004, p. 197). There were obvious differences between the two generations of translators in their choice of literary styles. The former held on the principle of assimilating foreign novels with Chinese literary style, while the latter tended to accept the stylistic forms of foreign novels. This difference was closely linked to the cultural mentality of Chinese people. For the first generation of translators such as Lin Shu, their cultural stand was centered on the Chinese culture, so they tended to adopt the domestication strategy to deal with the style of foreign novels. However, since then, Chinese people possessed a more open mind to foreign culture, and translators were more likely to accept the westernized style of translated foreign novels.
IV. CONCLUSION

The paper made a static and dynamic analysis of Lin Shu’s translation. Popular in the late Qing Dynasty, the style of “elegance and succinctness” was the most prominent style in Lin Shu’s own creation. In his translation, this style came into his translation, making the translated texts simple and elegant. Because translation is not a creation, a responsible translator should convey the original style to the target readers. Lin Shu had done a good job in this regard. Although his translation could not be superficially compared with the original text, the overall artistic style of the original was well conveyed to the target readers. When rendering various original styles, he naturally brought the “inelegant” and “insuccinct” elements into the translation, thus weakening elegance and succinctness to some extent. Nevertheless, the “elegant and succinct” elements in his translation were maintained at a relatively high proportion as a whole, so his translation style could still be categorized as that of “elegance and succinctness”.

Being elegant and succinct, Lin’s translation was to some extent disloyal to the original work. In terms of its dynamic formation, it was closely related to the translator, target readers and translation culture strategy. To be specific, Lin Shu’s good command of classical Chinese prose, the stylistic preference of traditional literati and scholar bureaucrats, as well as the translation cultural strategy of assimilating the foreign languages with Chinese style, all contributed to the formation of Lin’s translation style. Of course, in the evolution of literary style, the classical Chinese style such as Lin’s translation could serve as a historical intermediary. Lin Shu’s translation style would lose its value and application in the wake of the disappearance of traditional literati and scholar-bureaucrats and the establishment of scientific translation standards. But it played an important transitional role in the late Qing Dynasty and the early period of the Republic of China.

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Lihua Yang obtained her Ph. D. in English and Literature from Hunan Normal University in China in 2012 and she is now an associate professor in Jiangxi Normal University. She has been working as an English teacher for 13 years. Her areas of interest include translation teaching and research.
A Study of Consumption Alienation in Updike’s Works

Qingzheng Liu
College of International Studies, Southwest University, Chongqing, China

Abstract—Updike’s works reflect the characteristics of contemporary American society. There are many descriptions of consumerism in his works. The purpose of this paper is to present the consumption alienation in Updike’s works, to explore the survival predicament of people under the consumption alienation, and to point out its damage to the ecological environment.

Index Terms—consumption alienation, false needs, media, survival predicament

I. INTRODUCTION

After World War II, the economic center of western developed countries began to shift from the production field to the consumption field, and consumption became the goal and driving force of people’s life. In the 1950s and 1960s, mass consumption society and consumerism culture began to take shape. At that time, politicians and ordinary people generally believed that consumption was the way to lead the country to prosperity, and that it was the embodiment of the rationality and superiority of the western democratic political system. In “Rabbit Tetralogy”, Rabbit spends most of his life in sales promotion, first in Kroll’s department store, and then selling Kitchenware and cars. Moreover, most of his relatives, colleagues and friends are engaged in the work related to sales promotion. For example, his father-in-law has been engaged in car sales all his life. His wife Janice once becomes a car saleswoman. Later, she studies the evening course in a University and hopes to become a real estate agent. Although his son Nelson was opposed by him before, he finally becomes a car salesman and replaces him as the head of the car shop, while Charlie is a car salesman all the time. Ronnie Harrison works in insurance marketing all his life, and so on. Some Chinese theorists believe that: “The consumer society is a social form that appeared in the middle and late western modern industrial society. It emerged together with the modern large-scale industrial production mode represented by Fordism.”(Ta Dongfeng, 2013, p. 93) As for consumerism culture, Jameson points out: “New types of consumption; planned obsolescence; an ever more rapid rhythm of fashion and styling changes; the penetration of advertising, television and the media generally to a hitherto unparalleled degree throughout society……these are some of the features which would seem to mark a radical break with that older pre-war society in which high modernism was still an underground force.” (1998, pp. 19-20)

Western countries entered the consumer society after World War II, and industrial mass production contributed to the emergence of consumerism to some extent. According to Marx, labor should be a free and conscious activity of human beings. Since the beginning of the 20th century, the industrial production represented by Fordism has greatly improved the labor productivity, but people have lost their free time in their work and they become workers who carry out simple and repetitive operations on the assembly line. This kind of labor seriously suppresses people’s personality and freedom, hinders people’s creativity, curiosity and independent thinking. Therefore, people hope to obtain freedom and happiness in leisure time to make up for the feeling of unfreedom, monotony and boredom suffered in alienated labor, which provides the soil for alienated consumption. On the one hand, consuming behavior can satisfy the pursuit of profit of production enterprises, and at the same time, it can partly compensate people’s sense of loss and lack of creativity under alienated labor. The concept of “Consumption Alienation” originated from the Frankfurt School. Influenced by Marx’s theory of labor alienation and György Lukács’ theory of materialization, combined with the situation of contemporary capitalist society, this school put forward the theory of consumption alienation. On the basis of inheriting this concept, later ecological Marxism studied the impact of alienated consumption on the ecological environment. Ben Agger defines consumption alienation as: “Consumption alienation refers to the phenomenon that people strive to obtain goods in order to compensate for their monotonous, non-creative and often underpaid labor.” (1991, p. 494) Agger believes that "alienated consumption" is the logical counterpart of "alienated labor", "the lack of freedom and intention of self-expression in labor will make people gradually become more and more weak and dependent on consumption behavior. (ibid, pp. 492-493) With the further development of industrial society, people’s consumption is alienated, which seriously deviates from people’s all-round development. The development of science and technology has brought abundant material products, but they also stimulated the expansion of people’s desires. It makes people driven by desire, and they constantly ask for more material goods. Schiller says: “Necessity, however, is now ruling, and subduing the sinking human race to its tyrannical yoke. Practicality is the great idol of this era. All forces should serve it and all talents should respect it.” (2012, p. 3) People who used to pursue spiritual freedom and integrity of personality have...
become "one-dimensional man" who only pursue abundant material consumption and endless material benefits. The ubiquitous existence of commodity economy has corroded people’s psychology and led to the deviation of human nature. After getting rid of the plight of material scarcity, people fell into the bondage of spiritual crisis.

Suffering from alienation at work, people seek to find satisfaction in the realm of consumption. But modern people’s leisure time is often used for consumption controlled and guided by advertisement, which has almost become the main significance of leisure time. Therefore, people put the accumulated money into the field of consumption, trying to make up for the loss of freedom in labor through the free choice in consumption, so as to achieve freedom in a way, and satisfy their desire for creation. In this way, the relationship between people and goods is completely reversed, and goods control people in turn. This has become one of the four stipulations of Marx’s alienation: the alienation between the workers and the product of labor, that is, the product of labor, though created by the laborer, is not owned by the laborer, but becomes an alien power that governs the laborer. In this regard, William Morris also says: “Commerce was made for man, but that man was made for Commerce.” (1973, p. 93) It is only in consumption that people experience temporary happiness, and soon they will be trapped in unfree labor again. And the lack of freedom at work is hard to compensate for with momentary pleasure.

Marx puts forward the concept of commodity fetishism in Das Kapital. In the world of commodity fetishism, people indulge in excessive consumption and fashion. In such a state of existence, the world of human being is replaced by the world of things. People realize their affirmation with the help of commodities and fashion, rather than through their self-initiative and conscious creativity. Similar to the alienation in production, people suffer from alienation in the world of commodity, resulting in the loss of human autonomy, subjectivity and self-reliance.

II. Ubiquitous Consumption

After World War II, the rapid development of American economy was based on the development of consumer society. In Rabbit, Run, Updike describes a contemporary American society in which consumerism culture is ubiquitous. The author juxtaposes Rabbit’s dissatisfaction with his job, his discordant marriage life and the rampant consumption. The need for hard work on the one hand, and the need for seemingly worthless consumption on the other, is the cause of the cultural contradictions of capitalism, and is the cause of the breakdown of Rabbit’s family. From the beginning, Rabbit has shown a kind of ominous anxiety (such as his name: Angst(fear)+Strom(Stream)=Angstrom, or “Stream of Fear”. (Beckoff, 1974. p. 13)) which indicates the role and existence of material consumption.

In the novel, the influence of consumerism culture is reflected in many places. When Rabbit marries Janice, who comes from a middle-class family, his father-in-law, Mr. Springer, insists that he buy a Ford for 1000 dollars to replace his 1939 Nash, which Mr. Springer regards as a shame to his middle-class status, even though Rabbit is strapped for cash at the time. The change from Nash to Ford is an important symbol of the shift to consumerism. This makes Rabbit affected by the mainstream consumerism culture from the beginning of his marriage. Furthermore, Rabbit’s job is selling peelers in retail stores, which is the embodiment of consumerism.

After returning home from work, Rabbit finds Janice watching TV commercials (interestingly, she turns it off when the news comes on). She is obviously drunk and smelled of alcohol while watching the TV commercial, and then she asks Rabbit for a cigarette. This shows different kinds of consumption, as well as the irrepressible impulse to consume. During the day, she goes shopping with her mother at the Kroll mall and buys a scarf at a sale. Even though it is March, she also buys a bathing suit. Rabbit is surprised and says: “A bathing suit! Chh. In March!” (Updike, 2003. p. 6) All these consumption activities by Janice exacerbates Rabbit’s aversion. What is shown here is a disharmonious scene, which connects various consumption situations to explain why Rabbit runs away from home. Another profound fact is that the last thing Janice tells him before he leaves and abandons her is to buy cigarettes. This is the last straw that crushes Rabbit. Later, when Eccles asked why Rabbit had left his family, he replied frankly: “She asked me to buy her a pack of cigarettes.” (ibid, 2003. p. 104) This provides a new clue to explain Rabbit’s unharmonious marriage, and helps to understand Updike’s other social views. What’s significant is that Rabbit met Janice and married her while they were working at the Kroll mall. At that time, she worked as a saleswoman selling candy and cashews while he worked upstairs, moving furniture and dismantling packing cases. None of the employees liked their work at the Kroll mall. After work from the mall, Rabbit and Janice often met to have sex in their friends’ apartment, so as to get rid of the boredom at work. Rabbit, run is shrouded in the contradiction between the alienation of the nature of work and the expanding role of consumption in American life, and these contradictions appear in the capitalist society during the period of industrial production. Yoav Fromer comments on this: “What Daniel Bell would label ‘The Cultural Contradictions of Capitalism’ nearly two decades later, begins to take shape and breakup the American family on the pages of Rabbit, Run.” (2014, p. 179)

In addition, a large number of advertisements appearing in the novel constantly arouse the consumption desire of the characters in the novel, make people form a new concept of consumption, and make consumerism continue to affect people’s daily life. During Rabbit’s initial escape, the car drives far away. The radio in the car is still a variety of advertisements, and various billboards are erected on both sides of the highway. These advertisements concern all aspects of life. They constantly invade into Rabbit’s life, so he is stimulated by advertisements all the time. No matter where he goes, all he can see are advertisements, which disappoint him a lot. This shows that even if Rabbit runs away from home, there are certain things - such as consumption - that he can’t escape. It seems that he can’t escape this huge
net of consumption in any case. The only thing he feels comfortable on that journey is when he notices that there are no commercials on the radio and the music is soothing and lyrical. Alienated consumption causes people’s souls to be corroded, leads to the deviation of human nature, and makes people suffer from “material abundance and spiritual pain”.

Later, when her father calls and asks “Did Rabbit run again?” Janice does not admit the truth, but makes up a lie that Rabbit had gone to work “to sell cars.” Not only did Rabbit not go to work in the morning - which might have prevented his daughter’s death - but to make matters worse, he actually went shopping. The novel clearly tells us that Rabbit spent the day, “going in and out of department stores with music piping from the walls and eating a hot dog at the five and dime and hesitating outside a movie house.” Although “he has a sense of ominous feeling that things are wrong”, he chooses to walk along the gate of the cinema, walking between the perfume underwear cabinet, small jewelry and salt nut cabinet. And his initial reaction to the tragic news is also related to the fact of consumption: He doesn’t know what he says to Eccles; all he is conscious of is the stacks of merchandise in jangling packages he can see through the windows of the phone-booth door. (Updike, 2003, pp. 271-273) Throughout the novel, Rabbit reveals a consumer-centric culture, which replaces Protestant professional ethics. For a long time, he and Janice have immersed in consuming a large number of goods and services brought by the industrial society, rather than engaging in work that is personally meaningful. The progress of science and technology and the development of production have brought a large number of material products to the society, but people’s desire is also expanding constantly, and they try to possess more and more consumer goods. In that case, the person who originally pursues the spiritual freedom and integrity of personality will degenerate into a “one-dimensional man” who only pursues endless material interests. Although there are many reasons for the breakdown of Rabbit’s family, the consumerism culture of post-war capitalism is also one of them.

In recent years, research by American historians have enriched the historical outline described by Updike in Rabbit, Run. Economic factors infiltrate into political field, especially the field of culture, and they have a profound impact on family and social structure. The most striking description of this phenomenon is Alan Brinkley, who has described the postwar era as “a world in which both the idea and the reality of mass consumption were becoming central to American culture and to the American economy, gradually supplanting production as the principal focus of popular hopes and commitment.” (1995, p. 4) He concludes that “In an economy driven by consumer spending, it is not surprising that political thought began to reflect consumer-oriented assumptions as well.” (ibid, p. 10) Lizabeth Cohen has similarly argued that “a Consumer’s Republic” was forged during these years in which “mass consumption had become a central defining engine, not simply of the American economy but of its politics and culture as well.” (2003, pp. 7-11) Brinkley and Cohen lament the political significance of economic transformation and the decline of Republican virtue, which is crucial to American liberalism in the following decades. In Rabbit, Run, Updike uses his literary imagination to raise similar concerns and warn of the potential danger they pose to families. People are immersed in the ocean of consumption and affected by alienated consumption, resulting in the loss of their own autonomy, subjectivity and self-reliance.

III. THE INFLUENCE OF ALIENATED CONSUMPTION

The problem of consumption alienation that Updike describes in Rabbit, Run will continue to run through his other works. Before he makes consumption alienation one of the themes of Rabbit is Rich, Updike evaluates the impact of material consumption on American society and individuals in some early and important short stories and essays, including A & P, Farewell to the Middle Class, Domestic Life in America, and The Bankrupt Man.

A & P was written in the 1960s, when the American society was in the period of economic rise and consumerism was rising in the whole society, and all kinds of consumption places and behaviors were influenced by consumerism culture. The world’s first supermarket was born in the United States in the 1930s, and it became a symbol of the consumer society. In the 1950s and 1960s, supermarkets around the world developed rapidly. In this short story, Updike sets the scene in the A & P supermarket. A & P, the Great Atlantic and Pacific Tea Company, is a chain supermarket and liquor store in the United States. It is one of the most popular and dominant supermarkets in American history, and it is headquartered in Montville, New Jersey. The Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company owns a chain of supermarkets in several states: Connecticut, Delaware, Maryland, New Jersey, New York and Pennsylvania. A & P began operations in 1859 and had about 200 stores selling tea, coffee, and selected groceries by 1900. (Blackford, 2003, p. 65) By 1929, A & P operated 15,418 stores, and operated 14,926 grocery stores in 1935. In 1951, the company boasted sales of nearly $3.2 billion and profit of $32 million. (ibid, pp. 108-110)

The variety of commodities in supermarkets, the monotonous work of cashiers and the numbness and tameness of customers described in A & P are the typical living conditions of American consumer society in the 1960s, which is an aspect of people’s daily life at that time. Updike chooses A & P supermarket as the scene of the story, which has his own unique features. The name “Atlantic and Pacific” stands for the whole of the United States, which stretches from the Atlantic to the Pacific, so it is the symbol of the whole United States. A & P is a supermarket, which is used by the author to illustrate that the background of the story is the American society where consumerism is rising. This reflects his view of the world held by the author in his other works, that is, using a small shopping mall or a small poorhouse to describe a big society. His first novel, The Poorhouse Fair, condenses the world into a small courtyard and turns it into
Daniel Bell has a similar argument about needs and real needs. He mentions the classical distinction between needs and with the advertisements, to love and hate what others love and hate, belong to this category of false needs. needs of consumers. He says:

"needs, which are non-essential needs imposed on individuals from the outside. For false need, Marcuse defines it as surprised. He does not know what these idle people are doing with so much pineapple juice. These are all false"

At the same time, in the process of consumption, the customer’s status is related to shopping. Queenie buys canned herring, from which Sammy speculative their family’s financial situation and guesses that they should belong to the upper class. After being scolded by the manager for wearing bathing-suit, the first girl argues: “We weren’t doing any shopping. We just came in for the one thing.” The dialogue between that girl and the manager shows a phenomenon that pervades the consumer society, that is, customers’ consumption behavior becomes orderly, and customers’ “dignity” is reflected in the price and quantity of the goods they buy or whether they buy the goods. They live in a society where consumerism prevails, where consumers are measured by what they buy. In fact, people tend to lose themselves in the pursuit of material satisfaction, thus losing their independence and autonomy. That is because people in the pursuit of material satisfaction are within the scope of social management system, and they accept the social constraints imposed on them. In this case, the more material satisfaction people get, the more constraints they will be subject to.

At the same time, customers in A & P supermarket regard many items with little practical value as their real needs. In front of the cash register, an old man in baggy grey pants buys four huge cans of pineapple juice, for which Sammy is very surprised. He doesn’t know what these idle people are doing with so much pineapple juice. These are all false needs, which are non-essential needs imposed on individuals from the outside. For false need, Marcuse defines it as follows: “False’ are those which are superimposed upon the individual by particular social interests in his repression: the needs which perpetuate toil, aggressiveness, misery, and injustice.” According to Marcuse, false needs are created by the society and transmitted to consumers by external public opinion, but these needs are not the real needs of consumers. He says: “Most of the prevailing needs to relax, to have fun, to behave and consume in accordance with the advertisements, to love and hate what others love and hate, belong to this category of false needs.” Daniel Bell has a similar argument about needs and real needs. He mentions the classical distinction between needs and
wants: “Needs are what all individuals have as members of the ‘species’. Wants are the varied desires of individuals in accordance with their own tastes and idiosyncrasies. I believe that the first obligation of a society is to meet those essential needs; otherwise, individuals cannot be full ‘citizens’ of the society.” (1978, p. xiii) Therefore, it can be said that the false need is not generated by the real needs of individuals, but is instilled into the members by the consumer society, and individuals living in such a society can only be passively affected by it. Perhaps the old man’s purchase of four cans of pineapple juice has a real use for it, but Sammy’s comment on the whole illustrates that sometimes customers buy products not for their real needs, but may be the result of the influence of consumerism. This has made the individual increasingly dependent on material things, and they are completely dominated by material consumption. In this process, people lose their own subjectivity, fall into the ocean of material consumption, and their spirit becomes more and more single and painful. This is a new type of control over people by consumption in the late capitalism, so people are reduced to one-dimensional man. Thus, such consumption can not make people realize their self-worth, let alone realize their own freedom and liberation.

IV. THE ROLE OF MEDIA IN CONSUMPTION ALIENATION

The story of Rabbit is rich happened in the late 1970s and early 1980s, when consumerism flourished in western developed countries. With the help of advertising and other media, enterprises constantly instill consumerism culture into people’s mind, which makes people’s consumption of goods become an important feature of consumer society. This culture eventually makes consumerism become the mainstream of people consumption life, and it penetrates into all fields of social life. This novel describes a variety of commodities, media and consumption behavior, showing a strong feature of consumerism. In contemporary society, media has become an important factor of consumerism culture, or in other words, consumerism culture is based on media. The media in Rabbit is rich exists in many forms, such as visual, auditory and video. Rabbit’s consciousness and views are greatly influenced by newspaper news and commercial advertisements on TV. He often reads Consumer Reports in his spare time, regards it as a new Bible, and buys things according to the information on it. From the perspective of social culture, Rabbit’s consumption behavior is of great significance, that is, the prevailing consumption culture in contemporary American society. As a person living in society, Rabbit cannot get rid of the influence of social culture. What Nelson says to Rabbit may be a typical example: “What you don’t realize about a consumer society, Dad, is it’s all fads in a way. People don’t buy things because they need’em. You actually need very little. You buy something because it’s beyond what you need, it’s something that will enhance your life, not just keep it plugging along.” (Updike, 1990, pp. 456-457) In this regard, Agger has a similar view: “The good life is defined in terms of present levels and styles of attainability, not in terms of qualitatively different criteria of maximal social justice as well as a benign relationship to nature.” (1992, p. 144) This is because the contemporary capitalist society instills consumerism values into people’s mind, which makes people’s values change.

Due to the long-term influence of various types of media, Rabbit accepts the consumerism culture advocated by the consumer society. Especially after he becomes rich, he begins to pursue material goods and pleasure. In the novel, TV programs are full of advertisements that encourage consumption, which gives Rabbit an impulse to eat out and consume, so as to become a real consumer like anyone else in American society. Toyota Motor Company has a lot of advertisements on TV, roadside and other places, which constantly stimulate people. Under the influence of advertising and other factors, the sales volume of Toyota in Springer Motors has increased greatly, and the operators of auto companies like Rabbit are also using advertising to attract people’s attention and attract customers. Rabbit himself is a salesman, and he also spreads consumerism culture to customers at work. He asks the client: “Who in this day and age keeps a car much longer than four years?” (Updike, 1996, p. 8) All these show the strong color of consumerism in the novel and reveal the influence of consumerism on Rabbit himself.

As a member of the consumer society, Rabbit reads Consumer Reports regularly, so he can cater to new cultural tastes. Rabbit communicates with his middle-class friends based on the information provided by Consumer Reports, which becomes a symbol of his status. In Consumer Society, Jean Baudrillard says: “Just as medieval society established balance through God and devil, our society established balance through consumption and revelation.” (2000, p. 231) This is because modern enterprises use a variety of methods to arouse people’s desire for consumption, one of which is to promote “equal consumption”, that is to say, in the purchase of a certain commodity, all consumers are equal, no matter what kind of identity consumers are, and they can equally consume goods. People believe that equal consumption is a new form of democracy. Through the consumption of goods, capitalist societies create an illusion for consumers that everyone is equal before consumption. In such an illusion, the real development of human beings can not be realized, and the initiative of human beings is also covered by the complacency in consumption. Rabbit and his middle-class friends often exchange different kinds of economic information, play golf, talk about kinds of consumer topics. For this kind of things, Daniel Bell has such a discussion: “Getting ahead is no longer a matter of rising up a social ladder, as it was in the late nineteenth century, but of adopting a specific style of life—country club, artiness, travel, hobbies—which marks one as a member of a consumption community.” (1978, p. 68) Rabbit is fascinated by the performance of various types of electric can openers, air conditioners and fans in Consumer Reports. It’s all as Daniel Bell says: “In effect, culture, as it came to be conceived in the mass middle-class magazines, was not a discussion of serious works of art but a style of life that was organized and ‘consumed.’” (ibid, p. 44)

In Rabbit is Rich, the main function of food and diet is to highlight the destructive potential of consumption. Rabbit’s
wealth enables him to consume large amounts of resources, such as food and gasoline. At the beginning of the novel, Updike takes food as the symbol of all natural resources. When Rabbit and Charlie discuss the oil shortage, he says: "These kids coming up, they’ll be living on table scraps. We had the meal." (Updike, 1996, p. 5) Later, in the novel, all kinds of unconscious eating behaviors represent the consumers’ indifference to the impact of consumption on environment. Consumption alienation leads to the exhaustion of natural resources and the destruction of ecological environment, because the prosperity of consumer society is at the cost of exhausting resources, which leads to the deterioration of the relationship between man and nature.

Rabbit’s soul is empty. He is attracted by all kinds of better and newer goods. He always wants to own more goods, so he keeps buying more and more things. Only by continuous consumption can he temporarily leave the feeling of emptiness and powerlessness, and get the value of existence. There is an alienated relationship between Rabbit and commodities: Although labor products are created by laborers, they are not owned by laborers, but becomes an alien power that controls the laborer. Rabbit inherits the old Springer and becomes the owner of the Springer Motors. He has his own property and could run the car shop in his own way, realizing independence and autonomy in his work. At the same time, in the traditional sales mode, he can play his own initiative and creativity. However, he is still restricted by consumption alienation. His consumption still maintains and consolidates the alienation in the whole production field. The field of consumption has become a source of crisis in modern capitalism. Agger believes that: “Marx’s theory of alienated labor can no longer be used alone to analyze the crisis trend of modern capitalism.” (1991, p. 486) And “In particular, they don’t pay attention to the possibility of transforming the consumption field, and mistakenly believe that once the alienation in the production field is eliminated, people’s needs can be freely expressed and satisfied.” (ibid, p. 499) André Gorz says that the reduction in working hours alone cannot lead to liberation: “If free time is to become a condition for emancipating and realizing people’s all-round development and socialism, there must be collective facilities that can provide a space for people’s communication and autonomous activity, and there must be a non-market, voluntary and cooperative exchange and production system.” (1985, p. 103) Thus it can be seen that Rabbit’s selling Toyota cars in the car shop still belongs to “paid labor”. Sales is a part of the social division of labor. Rabbit’s leisure time is also controlled by economic rationality, as he goes shopping, and buys gold and silver. Therefore, Rabbit has not been able to escape the influence of consumption alienation.

V. Conclusion

The rise of consumerism comes at the cost of the deteriorating ecological environment and the exhaustion of natural resources. It endlessly meets people’s needs and uses more consumer goods to ease their emptiness. However, this vicious circle has led to more rapid depletion of resources and serious damage to the environment. On the one hand, the scale of production is expanding day by day, the human need for energy is increasing, and there is more and more exploitation of natural resources. So it’s an unsustainable mode. As Alan Thein Durning says: "The furnishings of our consumer life-style—things like automobiles, throwaway goods and packaging, a high-fat diet, and air conditioning—can only be provided at great environmental cost. Our way of life depends on enormous and continuous inputs of the very commodities that are most damaging to the earth to produce: energy, chemicals, metals, and paper." (1992, p. 52) On the other hand, capitalists use advertising media, commodity display and other marketing means to stimulate people’s consumption need, guide consumers to further expand their demand, so that human demand for goods far exceeds their real needs. In addition, alienated consumption makes people ignore the alienation in labor to a certain extent, and alienates the relationship between human and nature, which makes human essence lose an important dimension and deviate from the "whole man". According to Agger, the ecological crisis based on consumption crisis has turned into the main crisis of post-war Western capitalism. As Marcuse says: “what is at stake in the socialist revolution is not merely the extension of satisfaction within the existing universe of needs, nor the shift of satisfaction from one (lower) level to a higher one, but the rupture with this universe, the qualitative leap. The revolution involves a radical transformation of the needs and aspirations themselves, cultural as well as material; of consciousness and sensibility; of the work process as well as leisure.” (1972, pp. 16-17)

Under the influence of consumerism, people are restricted by the laws of commodity economy, and the alienation of production process is repeated in consumption. People lose their autonomy, subjectivity and self-reliance, and become animals without their own thoughts and personalities. Meanwhile, consumption alienation leads to the continuous deterioration of the ecological environment and the estrangement between man and nature. The direct cause of ecological crisis is consumption alienation, which requires to change this consumption mode. However, because the alienation of labor is the social cause of consumption alienation, the most fundamental solution is to reform the production process, and then replaces the capitalist economic model of “producing more and consuming more”.

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Qingzheng Liu was born in Chongzuo, China in 1980. He received his Master degree in English Language and Literature from Guangxi Normal University, China in 2008. He is currently a Ph.D. candidate in English Language and Literature at College of International Studies, Southwest University, Chongqing. And he is currently a lecturer in School of Foreign Studies (School of International Education), Hezhou University, Hezhou. His research interests are American literature and English literature.
Punctuation Relevance in Subtitle: The Foreign Audience Example

Christopher Chinedu Nwike
Department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria

Abstract—This study looked at punctuation mark and their relevance in written information although; the objective of the study is to discover the relevance of punctuation mark in subtitle: The Foreign audience example and to re-echo the need to have a well punctuated write-up in literary genres. The study sees language as a system of human communication. The problem of the study sets in from lots of poor and wrongly applied punctuations, as various forms of signs are seen to be used in some of the movies of the entertainment industry – Nollywood, which in turn, gives rise to wrong interpretation to the foreign audience of that language, and as such, the foreign learner of a particular language, the Igbo example will not enjoy the supposed information. The study adopted the framework of Vinay and Darbelnet principles and strategies as a guide to solving the problem as one of its principles – equivalence was used to relate the movie wrong punctuated subtitles to their supposed target language. The methodology of explication is equally adopted while the study concludes that punctuation errors are involved with wrong application of punctuation mark to written discourses on where it is not supposed to be since punctuation occurs only in written discourses and not spoken.

Index Terms—language, punctuation, subtitle

I. INTRODUCTION

Language as a means of human communication is an act which can be done either by spoken or written, while consisting of the use of words in a structured and conventional way. According to Julie and Deborah (2010), it can as well be any method of expression or communication which can be called a body language. Due to its divers use, it can be the system of communication used by a particular community or country as well as the phraseology and vocabulary of a particular group. In other words, it can be the manner or style of a piece of writing or speech which can be crude, bad or offensive language as well as foul or a strong language. For Julie and Deborah (2010), language is a form of interaction that exists in the human environment, and this is why people who go into active communication understand the language use of a particular society.

Languages play an important role in the human environment. However, before communication is properly used, correct language use must have been taken place especially in the areas of spoken or written languages. Based on this study, focus is not on the spoken language but written language of the movie that is used for this study titled Onye Bi Nna M. The study is set to look at the re-expression of the spoken utterances of the source information in the written form and re-echoing the need to have a well punctuated write-ups in literary genres of this kind in order to arouse the interest of the foreign audience who may be a foreign language learner of a particular language, or hard of hearing patients or people who their hearing faculty is impaired to properly understand the message of the source movie. In line with this, it can be announced that punctuation plays a vital role in any written language as it guides the reader on how to go about reading the subtitled information on the screen. However, punctuation can be defined as the signs and symbols that are used to give more meaning to written information. It can said to be used in writing in order to separate sentences and their elements as well as to clarify meanings. Punctuation mark is made up of different signs and symbols for writing. Categorically, punctuation is involved with imputing the supposed signs and symbols used in writing things in order to put a clear distinction between different meanings in a sentence(s) (Challay and Jones, 2019). Punctuation helps to bring the meaning of a particular message down to the target audience because, each sign or symbol has what it represents. Punctuation errors are involved with wrong application of punctuation marks to written discourses. However, punctuation occurs only in written discourses and not spoken. So, in this study, there is need to point out the few possible wrong applications as it goes against the rules of the use of punctuation mark. Based on this, there are some common mistakes in the use of punctuation. For instance, avoid using exclamation marks (!) in academic writing as well as never to combine a question mark and an exclamation mark (!?!) or use multiple signs (!!!! ????). Again, avoid using ellipses (…) at the end of your sentences but only use it to indicate omission in quoting. More so, don’t use apostrophes to make plurals, for instance, the 1990’s. Watch out for misplaced commas and then, if you are uncertain, read your sentence loud and see if there is a natural pause. In line with the following, it can be seen that the previous assertions are the common errors in punctuation that leads to wrong use of punctuation in a written statements. The symbols or signs can be full stop, comma, brackets, colon, apostrophe etc. On the other hand, according to Raimes and Ann (2004), they believed that comma’s can be used before a conjunction such as and, but, or, nor, so, far, yet in order to connect independent clauses. For instance Emeka was upset, but Onyinye did not understand why he was worried.
Commas indicate a separation of ideas or elements within the structure of a sentence. Also, a comma is used to separate three or more words, phrases, or clauses (sentence parts) in a series. Again, a comma indicates the beginning of a phrase or word which moved from the end of the sentence and also, it is used between independent clauses by a coordinating conjunction of the English language. For example, for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so. Again, it can be applied before and after extra thus, nonrestrictive information included in a sentence like extra commas for extra information. For instance, after the quarrels, the neighbours complained. Furthermore, comma’s can be applied in different contexts and due to the vast nature of its function; it can be used around transitional expressions. For instance, my mother, a groundnut seller, works late at night. Again, it separates three or more items in a sentence and this can be exemplified thus, the beginning, however, is discouraging. In the sentence of the English language according to Raimes and Ann (2004), punctuation occurs between coordinate evaluative adjectives. For instance, they ordered red oil, potatoes and yam. Then, it is also used after a verb that introduces a quotation. For instance, she ate a less expensive, delicious and well prepared meal at Ikenga hotel, Nsukka.

In line with the above, information, Challay and Jones (2019) state that there are functions of the other different punctuation mark in a language, and one of them is quotation mark. It shows title of a short work as well as the end and beginning of a quotation. Quotation marks “ ” enclose the exact words of a person. More so, on the part of parentheses for instance, it tries to let go of the units within a sentence that are related to the sentence with no meaning which in other words, it can be said that it removes unnecessary words from a sentence. So, when parentheses are used to enclose an independent sentence, the end punctuation belongs to inside the parentheses.

Additionally, Challay and Jones (2019) said that apostrophe is one of the punctuation that exists. Apostrophes show possession and also indicate where a letter has been omitted to form a contraction. However, an apostrophe is only added for plural possessive nouns ending in s. Also, an apostrophe can come into a word or phrase when noun is more than one, for instance, - student’s bag (a student), students’ books (more than a student). In the English language, hyphen is used when a compound word is formed or when one wants to join word elements or units as well as letters to words, prefixes and suffixes. In a sentence, colons mostly follow an independent clause as it draws it raises concern to the data or information that comes follows after it. So, it can be said that one can see a colon after the independent clause or complete sentence. More so, dashes try to link group of words to other groups in order to make emphasis. Again, semicolon is one of the punctuation ‘;’. However, semicolons separate clauses or phrases that are related, and that receive equal emphasis.

In connection with the above, irrespective of the different applications of punctuation in a sentence of a particular language, the English example, there are still rules that govern where and where not punctuation can be applied. For instance, as punctuation tries to give clarity or sense to what that is written in particular language, an example of comma is not used to separate a verb from its subject. For instance, she gasped, “We haven’t a moment to lose!” Again, the non application of comma extends within a compound structure when the second part of the compound is not an independent clause. For instance, interviewing so many students in Linguistics department, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, helped the researcher understand the “student’s dream” More so, after a coordinating conjunction that connects two sentences, comma goes only before conjunction and this can be exemplified thus, Oluwamedu has written novels, and adapted them for the screen play. Additionally, in order to connect two independent clauses when no coordinating conjunction is present, comma is used. For instance, Unigwe Chidalu’s show is supposed to be good, but, I missed it when it came to my local theater. However, this example can be related to the other forms of punctuations as it will help writers or people who subtitle to give clarity to their messages towards their target audience, especially in the areas of translation where the translator who adopts a dynamic equivalence decides most of the things for the target audience while not following the conformities of the literal translation. For Nida (1964), a free or dynamic equivalence suggests that such translations enable people to better understand the original text, therefore, it is better. Gentzler (1993) added that Nida’s dynamic equivalence carries the target audience along not minding the culture of the source text and ideas of discourse.

Due to the need and the essence of punctuation in a written information which on the other hand touches the areas of media translation or audiovisual translation, there is need to bring their relevance to limelight as poor punctuated information in subtitles misleads or throws the target audience who may not actually understand the source language off balance. However, subtitle exercise did not just emerge rather; it came into use in order to solve problems. The problem touches the reasons why subtitles are done which in other words; one can say that it helps a foreign language learner of a particular language to study a particular language. It equally helps people who have hearing impairment to read up the information on the screen and still appreciate the information like every other person, and also for the people who suffer hard of hearing. However, one may actually subtitle for fun as to make the same information available to a particular community whose language falls among the minority languages for documentation sake. Looking at these motives, it is discovered that the subtitles of the translation house of the entertainment industry in Nigeria, there are lots of poor and wrongly applied punctuation and as such, gives wrong interpretation to the foreign audience of that language. Various forms of signs are seen to be used in some of the movies of the entertainment industry – Nollywood and as such, the foreign learner of a particular language, the Igbo example will not enjoy the supposed information, and this is a problem. Due to this, the study sets to work on punctuation and its relevance in subtitles: The Foreign audience example as its signification will enlighten people who do subtitles to focus more on the proper use of subtitles. Also, on the part of the
people who do publications or translations, it will conscientise them on its relevance, reminding them of the negative effect that possible poor punctuation may cause their patronage and also the target audience. Categorically, all the ills pointed out in this study comes together to form the problems of the study.

II. THEORETICAL STUDIES

Translation is involved with information exchange from one language to the other where the information that owns the original message is referred as the source language and the target language for the language that is used to accept the information. For Lecercle (2019), translation involves a transfer of meaning from the source to the target language, thus translating only what makes sense – etymological translation. The work of Nwike (2019) sees translation as one that involves dissemination of information from one language to another which brings about the cross fertilization of culture amongst people.

In trying to reveal what a translation is; Battistón (2019) came up with what he called a standard translation where it is seen from the part of the unidirectional and bipartite hence, from a single ST in one language. According to Battistón (2019), it is a single target text that is produced in another language. Battistón equally introduces what multistandard translations are. However, it involves the translations which produce multiple target texts from a single source text. For instance, a work titled a tour de force is what Nicholas Moore renders as Baudelaire’s single poem “Spleen” into more than thirty different poems in English. On the other hand, Battistón (2019) introduces multisource translations. On this, it can be called a translation that produces a single target text from more than one source text although, there are methods or strategies translators or the people who subtitle movies adopt in transferring a particular information, either on textual basis or paratextual grounds. Herein, textual translation involves book translation while paratextual is a non book transfer such as media or audio visual translation. This audiovisual translation touches the areas of dubbing and subtitles. However, the punctuation this study will look at will be based on the ones made in a movie titled Onye bu Nna m. In order to see exactness in the translated information on the screen or text, Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) came up with translation principles and strategies one can use during the transfer. The principles are as follows,

A. Adaptation

This can be called a method devised by the translator to represent the information of the source text that has no equivalence in the target text. However, the basic goal of the translator in this type of principle is to have a similar effect on the TL readers, by domesticating it with the cultural terms. For instance, in the Igbo example,

1a. When he came back, he kissed the wife
   b. Mgbe o lotara, o biri nwanye ya omaha / Mgbe o lotara e maka nwanye ya.

In (1a) the Europeans kiss as a sign of welcome but in the Igbo culture as in (1b) hug and embrace are used to welcome one.

B. Borrowing

This is involved with the situation where encountered information of the source text has no form of equivalence or resemblance in the target language and the translator picked directly a word of the source language and document it in the target (Nwike, 2019). The procedure is normally used when a term does not exist in the TC, or when the translator tries to get some stylistic effects. It can be pure, if there is no change of any kind in the foreign term. Again, if the word has some changes in the spelling, and perhaps some morphological or phonetic adaptation, the pronunciation pattern of the words could be formed in domesticating the word.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>German</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Diskette</td>
<td>Disquette</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Format</td>
<td>Formatear</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. Calque

Calque is a form of literal translation which can occur either as lexical or structural of a foreign word or phrase imitates the morphological structure of the source word, but not its pronunciation. For instance,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Igbo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Bread</td>
<td>Bùréèdì</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Phonology</td>
<td>Fònólójì</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Football</td>
<td>fùtùbôòlù</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the case of football, using the same term in Spanish would be a pure borrowing; the word fútbol would be a naturalised borrowing, and balompié a calque.

D. Equivalence

Equivalence is a method that is used by the translators to represent same information of the source text in the target. (Vinay and Darbelnet 1995). For instance,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Igbo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. He is cunning as a fox</td>
<td>Ô na-aghọ aghughọ dikà mbe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. A stitch in time saves nine</td>
<td>E mee ngwa, e meghara ọdachi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
E. Literal translation

This is a type of translation that is done in order to win the syntactic effect of the original text without first considering the meaning. For instance,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>French</th>
<th>Igbo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John loves Mary</td>
<td>Juan ama a Maria</td>
<td>John hụrụ Mary n'anya</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the forgoing, the preposition ‘a’ in French is used because; it is a requirement for direct objects denoting a person in French language.

F. Modulation

For Vinay and Darbelnet (1995), modulation involves the use of different terms and phrases of the target language to represent the message of the source language while still maintaining the meaning of the original. Example,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>French</th>
<th>Igbo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Neither head nor tail</td>
<td>Ni pies ni cabeza</td>
<td>Isi ma ọ bụ ọdụ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

So, it is similar to transposition and, sometimes, necessary in order to avoid lack of fluency or exoticism in the translation.

G. Transposition

This principle is involved with a change in the different parts of speech of a sentence during information transfer. However, in this type of translation, the part of the sentence which seems to be a subject in the source language will change to be at the place of the object or the complement of the sentence. Example,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>French</th>
<th>Igbo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. This computer is out of order</td>
<td>Cet ordinateur est hors service</td>
<td>Ígwè komputa a adighị mma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. I knocked him down</td>
<td>Le derribé de un golpe</td>
<td>Agbatụrụ m ya n'ala</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Aside from the above information, Chesterman (1997) believes that in translation strategies, there is considerable terminological confusion in the sense that it involves the following:

1. must be goal oriented,
2. involves text manipulation,
3. must be problem centered,
4. must be applied to the process
5. must be applied in a conscious way
6. must be empirical and understandable for the readers not the person who used them.

From the above highlights, Chesterman (1997) means that at first, one who translates shall read and comprehend a text. Second, he shall analyse the differences between the source and the target texts, and one shall decide on the kind of strategies to use. And finally, one shall produce the equivalent text in the target language. Moreover, according to Chesterman (1997), there are local translation strategies and they are categorized into:

1. Semantics,
2. Syntactic, and
3. Pragmatic changes.

So, in translating allusion, Richards (1985:68) states that proper names (PNs) are names of persons, place or thing, which in a literary work, it plays essential role and are spelt with an initial capital letter. However, there are some models for rendering PNs in translations. According to Harvey and Higgins (1989), they are as follows:

1. The name can be taken over, unchanged from the ST to the TT
2. It can be adopted to conform to the phonetic/graphic conventions of the TL.

From the above information, Harvey and Higgins (1989) believe that the former is exotics, which is more like a literal translation and involves no cultural transposition and while the later, a transliteration.

III. METHODOLOGY

The methodology of explication is adopted since the study is qualitatively based as well as emergent design approach. The yardstick for this adoption of this emergent design approach is because of the nature of the work. However, the emergent design approach adapts to the new ideas that comes up in the course of carrying out a qualitative research especially when focus is on a particular thing as the study focuses on the movie titled *Onye Bụ N'na M.*

IV. DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

This part shows the wrong punctuation in the subtitles of the movie entitled *Onye Bụ N'na M.* These errors may be as a result of style or the way the subtitle was made and so, it then pose a challenge in the rendering of the correct subtitles of the Igbo movie used for the study correctly in a way that the foreign audience will understand the intended message of the movie. However, the data analysis of this study is strictly presented and discussed below based on the objectives of the study hence, to discover the relevance of punctuation mark in subtitle: The Foreign audience example and to re-
echo the need to have a well punctuated write-up in literary genres. However, the punctuation errors are as follows below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Igbo Language</th>
<th>Movie English Subtitle</th>
<th>Correct Punctuations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Keduzi nke ije abal[a] ?</td>
<td>Why this night journey §</td>
<td>Why this night journey?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chere, I mean he a [ na-okw[a]wa</td>
<td>Wait do you mean what you’re saying §</td>
<td>Wait, do you mean what you are saying?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chere Neka, [ d]kw[a]ra serious n’ihe a [ na-ekwu?</td>
<td>Wait Nneka so you’re actually serious about what you’re are saying §</td>
<td>Wait Nneka, so you’re actually serious about what you’re saying?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kee xdo xhe bx xhe a?</td>
<td>What type of thing is this §</td>
<td>What type of thing is this?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okw[a] [ hrxr na obodo any] a?</td>
<td>You see this very community §</td>
<td>You see this very community?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D[k]a g[n]?l</td>
<td>Like what §</td>
<td>Like what?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kee ihe [ na-akq][e ihe a]</td>
<td>What are you even saying §</td>
<td>What are you even saying?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ na-eg[e m nt]?</td>
<td>Are you listening §</td>
<td>Are you listening?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okw[a] [ mara nwata nwny] a d] qh xa na-ag[a ach[q]ta m toro ogologo?</td>
<td>Do you know that very young girl that do visit me?</td>
<td>Do you know that young girl that visits me?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A na-ekwu ka a na-ekwu, nwata nwny] nqapia n’elu bed g[wa phone</td>
<td>Just in same time the girl started browsing through phine in bed</td>
<td>Just in same time, the girl started browsing through phone in bed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maka a [gl] wakwara xhe a, uche ha apxq</td>
<td>Once they start that chatting they lose concentration</td>
<td>Once they start that chatting they lose concentration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q g[n] me?</td>
<td>What happened §</td>
<td>What happened?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kee etu m mee</td>
<td>How are you §</td>
<td>How are you?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sam, ya otecla l mweere?</td>
<td>Sam its long you’ve been doing§</td>
<td>Sam, its long you’ve been doing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nwanne g[le] nwoke as[sg] gl, [ s] ya</td>
<td>If your does not say to you you’ll say to him</td>
<td>If your brother did not say to you, you will say to him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kee ka m ga-esi mara nke m ga-ekew k?[ta]?</td>
<td>How will I know which one to believe right now §</td>
<td>How will I know which one to believe right now?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nggwan xiko ka any] mee sq sq out or ka any] mee half, sq sq half</td>
<td>Ok then. Please, just once Or lets do half, Just half.</td>
<td>Ok then. Please, just once Or lets do half. Just half.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kee xhe [ x] sq] na q bx ya na-emg e]?</td>
<td>What did say is wrong with you§</td>
<td>What did say is wrong with you?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ohe m na-akqgh[et]t bx ad[m] mfc. Q kwa xhe m na-awga g] na mx aahqgh] xka mee</td>
<td>The rubbish am talking is that am pregnant. Same thing I was warning you I wouldn’t like to happen.</td>
<td>The rubbish am talking is that am pregnant. Same thing I was warning you I won’t like to happen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Onye?</td>
<td>Who §</td>
<td>Who?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kedu ka l siri chqta ebe a?</td>
<td>How did you locate this place §</td>
<td>How did you locate this place?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q bx etu a ka mma?</td>
<td>Is this the best way §</td>
<td>Is this the best way?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ihe nke a pxara bx na mx aghqtagh] awga g] nke ikpe axx a</td>
<td>What this means, is that I don’t understand your behavior this lastly</td>
<td>What this means is that I don’t understand your behavior this lastly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esissiem mri, b[a] ka [ b[a] rie mri</td>
<td>I’m done cooking. Come have dinner</td>
<td>I’m done cooking. Come have dinner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Onweqghi ihe m mere. O nwegghi ihe m maram x mee g]</td>
<td>I don’t know what I did. I don’t know if I did anything to you</td>
<td>I don’t know what I did. I don’t know if I did anything to you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Akhkwara m g] n’anya, q bxgh] ring ga-ebutere mx na g] esemokwu</td>
<td>I love you, its not ring that should bring us quarrel</td>
<td>I love you, its not ring that should bring us quarrel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q bvxrnx ring ka [ chqrx, ring juro n’ie ah[a] m jee ah[a] m kpto ring nkใหญ่ g]</td>
<td>If it is ring you want there are uncountable of it in the market when go to market I’ll get you enough of it.</td>
<td>If it is ring you want, there are uncountable of it in the market. when go to market, I’ll get you enough of it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nnem kee ka q ga-esi d] mma</td>
<td>My dear, how will it be well</td>
<td>My dear, how will it be well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aqjxla m g] mmadx abxq nwere tempe problem, ba a na-aq[n’o][t] qx?</td>
<td>Does two people that with temper problem stay in one house §</td>
<td>Does two people that with temper problem stay in one house?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ihe m chqrq k[taa bx etu mx na nwam nwany] ga-ej ma-ad] na mma</td>
<td>The only thing I want right now is how be in good terms with my daughter</td>
<td>The only thing I want right now is how be in good terms with my daughter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kee ka [ ga-esesi ise tiri bata b[a] na-aq[n] anye ga-syue g] g] ugw?</td>
<td>How can you just from wherever barge in looking for who will give you respect §</td>
<td>How can you just from wherever, barge in here, looking for who will give you respect?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mx na ezinxlq m na nd[ be any] na-ad] g] na nd ara</td>
<td>I and my family all seem to you like crazy ones</td>
<td>I and my family all seem to you like crazy ones.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q gaxqgh g] ege g] nt?] maka na qika ahxix</td>
<td>She wont listen to you. she’s suffered a lot</td>
<td>She won’t listen to you, she’s suffered a lot.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Papa biko eunxan m iwe</td>
<td>Papa please don’t be angry with me ok §</td>
<td>Papa, please don’t be angry with me ok?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M ka ga ab[a] bx g] g] q kwaxn qrx, qrx kar] m axh, biko evela iwe</td>
<td>I will still come and see you its just work I am very much occupied with work please do not be angry</td>
<td>I will still come and see you, its just work, I am very much occupied with work, please do not be angry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Etu m si were bx ya bx nwa, o nwekwara nwata na xd akwa o bhe ebe a…</td>
<td>The way am looking at that man he’s deeply pained cos the way he cried here today…</td>
<td>The way am looking at that man, he’s deeply pained cos, the way he cried here today…</td>
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**SEASON TWO**

| Okwaxn qtuu afqraq ka m sin a mahahum pxta | Is it not just one year left and I will graduate from the university § | Is it not just one year left and I will graduate from the university |
| O bqxgh Nneka? | Is it not Nneka § | Is it not Nneka? |
From the above information under the correct punctuation, words that come before any correct punctuation are put in slant. Correct punctuation passes across the right information to the target audience. When the essence of the information is defeated due to wrong punctuation, it then implies that there is information lose. However, the researcher adopted the principle of equivalence in the proposition of Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) that emphasizes on sameness of the information that are of the same source. The relevance of punctuation is very paramount in every written languages especially in screen plays in the sense that it is what that will give guide to the understanding of the written information. When an utterance is verbalized, the tonality of the speaker punctuates every dick and harry of the statement which seem understandable to the listener but when that same information is written down, there is lose of tonality in the real sense. In punctuation, the marks that appear in it are what that are used in different situations and they represent different things and equally serve different functions. Taking an instance from the above information in the table, the utterance says ‘Ọ bugh[ Nneka?’ in the movie “Onye by nna m” Imagine when or where a non speaker of Igbo or a foreigner is watching the movie and gets across the subtitle that lacks the actual punctuation, you will see that the person will see it as plain statement thus, ‘Is it not Nneka’ which is not actually a statement with question tag, and the supposed message will be lost. In other words, such statements are wrong because, they are not the intended messages. But in a situation where the right punctuation mark are used to pass across the right information, a foreign language learner of Igbo language and a non speaker of Igbo will understand that the actor is asking about Nneka hence, ‘Is it not Nneka? So, in order to have the right information to be passed across, the idea of Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) under equivalence was used while the correct punctuation is substituted against the former and additions were made. The sameness came into scene where the intended message in Igbo was rightly rendered into English, still maintain the flavour of the original information thus ‘Is it not Nnekaṣ’ for ‘Is it not Nneka?’

V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In discovering the relevance of punctuation: The Foreign audience example, punctuation helps to bring clarity to any written information. Any information that lacks good punctuation tends to mislead or give false message as well as wrong interpretation to the reader or the target audience. However, this study finds out that punctuated information gives clarity on the follow up of written information. Again, the study finds out that punctuation helps to bring the meaning of a particular message down to the target audience because; each sign or symbol in punctuation has what it represents. On the contrary, it is discovered that punctuation errors are involved with wrong application of punctuation marks to written discourses on where it is not supposed to be since punctuation occurs only in written discourses and not spoken. In other words, the study finds out that punctuation is the practice of imputing the right signs and symbols in written matter in order to make explicit the meaning and separate structural units. On the target audience, the study discovered that there are rules that guide the use of punctuation mark which leads to common mistakes when it is inappropriately used. The study then reveals that exclamation marks (!) are not used in academic writing except in special cases. It equally finds out that question mark and an exclamation mark (?!). are never combined and finally inappropriately used. The study then reveals that exclamation marks (!) are not used in academic writing except in special cases. It equally finds out that question mark and an exclamation mark (?!). are never combined and finally inappropriately used.

REFERENCES

Christopher C. Nwike is a native of Onitsha, Onitsha North Local Government Area of Anambra State. He was born in Ogidi, Anambra State on the 3rd of May. Christopher C. Nwike obtained a Bachelor of Arts degree in Linguistics/Igbo in the department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka Enugu State in 2015. Also, he obtained a Master of Arts degree in Translation and Interpretation in the department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka Enugu State in 2019. Currently, Christopher C. Nwike undergoes a doctoral study (PhD) in Translation in the department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka.

He engages in translation jobs – textual translation and subtitles. He is an Igbo language teacher in Royal Crown Academy Orba Road Nsukka, Enugu State.

Mr. Nwike is a member of the Association of Translation Studies in Nigeria. He also obtained an academic merit award – The Ife-Ogbonna Prize in Honour of Aknu-ibiam As the Best Graduating Student Who Produced the Best Long Easy in Igbo Language in the 2014/2015 Academic Session.
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