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Large Classes in the Context of Teaching English as a Foreign Language

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Abstract—The purpose of this study is to explore the techniques used by teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) in teaching the four language skills to students in large classes in Madinah, Saudi Arabia. This study also seeks to determine the most effective technique to teaching large classes by examining teachers' experiences. Additionally, this study investigates the teachers' use of language techniques for language classes with respect to gender, qualification, years of experience, and level of teaching. The subjects of the study were 307 EFL teachers from Saudi schools. This study used descriptive statistical methods to examine the teachers' preferred techniques in teaching the four central English skills in a large class setting. The results show that EFL teachers use a variety of language techniques in teaching graphic skills rather than aural ones. Further, gender and level of teaching shape their preferences for using certain techniques when teaching language skills in large classes. The study raised some questions for further research.

Index Terms—language skills, teaching techniques, large classes, English language teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

English as a foreign language (EFL) is introduced in the fourth grade at primary schools in Saudi Arabia by the Ministry of Education, and it has become a compulsory subject in Saudi schools. It is common for classes in Saudi public schools to have more than 35 students. The nature of the impact of large class sizes depends on many factors, such as the quality of the school, the level of discipline, and even the character of the class (Mulryan-Kyne, 2010). That class size has a significant impact on learning makes good intuitive sense: smaller classes offer the potential for more individual attention, more time per pupil for feedback and differentiation, fewer classroom management issues, and closer interpersonal relationships. However, such a commonsense idea has rarely been investigated by high quality research on any scale, although issues of teacher workload and wellbeing provide reasons for reducing class sizes. While Filges et al.'s (2018) review included a wide range of studies, which were all demonstrated to be of high quality, with the scope of the review being limited to intervention studies using experimental designs and the generation of quantitative data. This approach is clearly suited to a large-scale systematic review that is narrowly focused on the impact of class size on student attainment, but it neglects the lived experience of teaching and learning in a large class. This is neatly summed up by Devi (2016), who points out that there are particular challenges when teaching aural skills, giving individual feedback, and developing rapport with students. However, Devi's own research is limited by an overly simplistic interview approach and data analysis that does not explore the issue in sufficient detail. A more comprehensive and rigorous study found that many of these challenges could be overcome through social approaches to learning (Yang et al., 2018). However, the conclusions of the study came with the caveat that they applied to older students who had sufficient access to technology and to teachers proficient in designing tasks for virtual learning environments.

Other studies similarly suggest that the pedagogical norms of EFL mean that class size may be a particular issue. The effects of class size may be evident in these contexts in ways that are not sufficiently captured in quantitative measures of language development. For instance, a study in Iran focused on the impact of class size on students' willingness to communicate, arguing that large classes limit a teacher's ability to use communicative language teaching pedagogies (Khazaei et al., 2012). In this case, classroom observation data revealed a quantifiable impact of class size on the time that students spent using the target language. A similar study with a group of students learning Arabic demonstrated that willingness to communicate has a direct impact on language acquisition (Mahmoodi & Moazam, 2014). Despite a willingness to communicate being commonly cited as an important factor in successful second language acquisition, a recent systematic review by Zhang et al. (2018) found that class size had been considered as a variable of interest in only one study—the aforementioned study by Khazaei et al. (2012). The implication is, therefore, that if a willingness to communicate is important for language development, and if students are more willing to communicate when in smaller classes, then class size does, indeed, have an impact on language learning. It also appears that class size has a bigger impact on the motivation and interactions of younger EFL learners than on older, self-motivated students (Carpenter, 2006; Yang et al., 2018).

In addition to those studies that have examined features of EFL classes such as willingness to communicate, other studies have focused solely on teacher perceptions. The logic is that if teachers find it easier to do something that they think is beneficial for their learners in a smaller class, then class sizes should be reduced to help teachers carry out their

work. Although her work has so far been published only as a master's dissertation, Garcia found, after interviewing EFL teachers, that the pace of learning and the level of attention paid to individual students were both improved in smaller classes (Garcia, 2016). There are other examples in the literature of teachers being able to take more creative approaches to teaching because of reduced class sizes, one example being an EFL teacher in Indonesia who was more easily able to facilitate educational games and outdoor learning (Hadi & Arante, 2015). However, the same limitations apply to the studies by Hadi and Arante (2015) and Garcia (2016): student outcomes were not measured, the studies have not been subject to rigorous peer review, and the link between these more interesting teacher activities and gains in student learning can only be implied, rather than demonstrated objectively. Contradicting the view that smaller classes are always better, there are examples of large classes enabling teachers to benefit from economies of scale. For example, a larger class can make it worthwhile for a teacher to invest time in designing effective online learning tasks (Yang et al., 2018). In addition, small classes may result in a greater reliance on teacher-centered learning, while examples in both Devi (2006) and Yang et al. (2018) point to some benefits when teachers can draw upon large groups of students to engage in tasks like formative peer feedback.

Hattie (2005) offers one way of interpreting what seems to be a contradiction in the literature by arguing that class size has an impact only when it changes teaching and learning strategies. This may seem to be an obvious point but is one that is often overlooked because most teachers have been found not to vary their teaching methods between smaller and larger classes. Coupled with this is the challenge of comparing teacher groups of differing quality. The results of studies using teacher groups of different levels of skill appear to lead to different conclusions. A questionnaire and observation study in Kenya, for instance, found that teachers reported that teaching large classes was a problem (Ndethiu et al., 2017). However, the study also found that the principals of the schools studied were unaware of the specific techniques that teachers used when teaching large classes. The researchers discovered that the majority of teachers were simply lecturing and "spent little lesson time on demonstration, question and answer time, pair or group work, or class discussion" (p. 76). In their study, Hunt et al. (2003) found that team-learning methods resulted in positive learning outcomes. Carpenter (2006) suggested that "faculty teaching large classes should attempt to include constructive, active teaching methods in their courses whenever possible. Structured, controlled collaboration (e.g., jigsaw, case study) would probably be most comfortable to students as opposed to uncontrolled, unstructured experiences (i.e., team projects)" (p.19).

A. *Purposes of the Study*

The purpose of this study is to explore the techniques used by teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) in teaching the four language skills to students in large classes in Madinah, Saudi Arabia. This study also seeks to determine the most effective technique to teaching large classes by examining teachers' experiences.

B. *Research Questions*

In harmony with the above stated purposes, the following research questions were addressed:

1. To what extent do EFL teachers use teaching techniques for large classes?
2. What are the dominant teaching techniques used by EFL teachers for large classes?

C. *Research Hypotheses*

Based on the aforementioned research questions, these four null hypotheses were formatted:

H.1

There were no statistically significant differences in means between EFL teachers at ($\alpha < 0.05$) in their use of language teaching techniques for large classes with respect to gender.

H.2

There were no statistically significant differences in the mean between EFL teachers ($\alpha < 0.05$) in their use of language teaching techniques for large classes with respect to their qualification.

H. 3

There were no statistically significant differences in means between EFL teachers at ($\alpha < 0.05$) in their use of language teaching techniques for large classes with

H. 4

There were no statistically significant differences in means between EFL teachers at ($\alpha < 0.05$) in their use of language teaching techniques for large classes with respect to the level of teaching,

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. *Participants*

In this study, 307 EFL teachers from Saudi schools in Madinah participated. As seen in Table 1, the distribution of participating EFL teachers according to gender was 28.66% male, while female EFL teachers accounted for 71.34% of respondents. The majority of the respondents, 86.97%, hold a bachelor's degree while 13.03% hold a master's degree. Of the EFL teachers, 36.48% had more than 15 years of experience in teaching, 28.35% had 5-10 years of experience,

26.38% had 10-15 years of experience, and 8.79% had less than five years of experience. Almost 60% of the EFL teachers teach in secondary school, and the rest in intermediate school.

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS

Gender				Qualification				Teaching Experience								Level of Teaching			
M		F		BA		MA		Less than 5 years		5-10 years		10-15 years		More than 15 years		Intermediate		Secondary	
n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
88	28.66	219	71.34	267	86.97	40	13.03	27	8.79	87	28.35	81	26.38	112	36.48	124	40.39	183	59.61

B. Research Instrument

A list was made of teaching techniques used in teaching English language skills for intermediate and secondary classes. It consisted of 22 teaching techniques that were grouped into four sections, each dealing with a particular language skill. The compiled list was given to a panel of experts in the domain of teaching English as a second language and applied linguistics, which consisted of five teachers and two lecturers. They were instructed to point out the teaching techniques that could be used for intermediate and secondary schools in the Saudi language learning context. The addition and deletion of some techniques were recommended. Teaching techniques such as chorus methods, total physical responses, and instructional games were considered not to be appropriate tools in the teaching of language skills at intermediate and secondary schools in the Saudi educational context. This is because learners were reluctant to participate and actively engage in language learning due to their age factors and peer influence.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Results of Research Questionnaire

The results from Table 2 clearly indicate that the overwhelming majority of EFL teachers tend to always use listening to conversation (94.78%), reading aloud (92.83%), and listening to the discussions (90.88%) as language techniques when teaching listening to their large classes. They ranked these techniques in their uses as 1, 2, and 3 respectively. In regard to the least/most rarely used techniques in teaching listening, it is found that only around 24% of teachers used dictation and storytelling and 18% used interview, auditory memory, and video types. These results imply that listening skills were de-emphasised in teaching. Little attention was paid to these skills in language examinations. It is also found that in the prescribed language materials, there exist no classroom activities on listening skills.

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES ABOUT THE USE OF TEACHING TECHNIQUES IN LISTENING

Teaching Techniques in Listening	Rating Scale								All Cases			
	Always		Sometimes		Rarely		Never		Always and Sometimes		Never and Rarely	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
(Listening to) Conversation	161	52.44	130	42.35	11	3.58	5	1.63	291	94.78	16	5.22
(Listening to) Discussion	148	48.21	131	42.67	27	8.79	1	0.33	279	90.88	28	9.12
(Listening to) Interview	87	28.34	165	53.75	48	15.64	7	2.28	252	82.08	55	17.92
Dictation	81	26.38	140	45.60	61	19.87	25	8.14	221	71.99	86	28.01
Reading Aloud	203	66.12	82	26.71	21	6.84	1	0.33	285	92.83	22	7.17
Auditory Memory	74	24.10	178	57.98	45	14.66	10	3.26	252	82.08	55	17.92
Telling Stories	56	18.24	162	52.77	70	22.80	19	6.19	218	71.01	89	28.99
Video Tapes	142	46.25	111	36.15	34	11.08	20	6.52	253	82.41	54	17.59
Recorded Materials (play, speech)	158	51.46	103	33.55	33	10.75	13	4.23	261	85.02	46	14.98

As is evident in Table 3, the vast majority of the EFL teachers preferred to use conversation (91.53%), presentation (88.93%), and description (88.60%) in teaching speaking to language students in large classes. These techniques are highly ranked 1, 2, and 3 respectively. However, the participating teachers claim that they rarely used chain stories (41.69%), miming (37.13%), lecturing (32.57%), problem solving (24.43%), or interviewing (22.80%) when teaching speaking. These results imply that the majority of teachers spent their lesson time lecturing and spent little time using language communication teaching techniques.

TABLE 3
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES ABOUT THE USE OF TEACHING TECHNIQUES IN SPEAKING

Teaching Techniques in Speaking	Rating Scale								All Cases			
	Always		Sometimes		Rarely		Never		Always and Sometimes		Never and Rarely	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Presentation	181	58.96	92	29.97	23	7.49	11	3.58	273	88.93	34	11.07
Role-Playing	124	40.39	140	45.60	26	8.47	17	5.54	264	85.99	43	14.01
Interview	67	21.82	170	55.37	52	16.99	18	5.86	237	77.20	70	22.80
Conversation	166	54.07	115	37.46	19	6.19	7	2.28	281	91.53	26	8.47
Description	135	43.97	137	44.63	23	7.49	12	3.91	272	88.60	35	11.40
Chain Story	37	12.05	142	46.25	84	27.36	44	14.33	179	58.30	128	41.69
Mime	66	21.50	127	41.37	72	23.45	42	13.68	193	62.87	114	37.13
Problem Solving	91	29.64	141	45.93	57	18.57	18	5.86	232	75.57	75	24.43
Lecturing	60	19.54	147	47.88	74	24.10	26	8.47	207	67.43	100	32.57

The data detailed in Table 4 show that the majority of the subjects (about 80%) indicated that they always used a variety of techniques in teaching reading to their language classes. These techniques included scanning (85.02%), skimming (84.04%), intensive reading (82.08%), and extensive reading (80.45%). However, approximately (35.50%) of EFL teachers rarely used diaries and (23.45%) rarely used book reviews. These results imply that they used numerous teaching techniques to enhance their presentation of the reading texts. Reading skills were considered to be the most important skills in the teaching of language in large classes.

TABLE 4
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES ABOUT THE USE OF TEACHING TECHNIQUES IN READING

Teaching Techniques in Reading	Rating Scale								All Cases			
	Always		Sometimes		Rarely		Never		Always and Sometimes		Never and Rarely	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Book Reviews/Summaries	124	40.39	111	36.16	52	16.94	20	6.51	235	76.55	72	23.45
Diaries	54	17.59	144	46.91	75	24.42	34	11.07	198	64.50	109	35.50
Intensive Reading	107	34.85	145	47.23	41	13.36	14	4.56	252	82.08	55	17.92
Extensive Reading	81	26.38	166	54.07	45	14.66	15	4.89	247	80.45	60	19.55
Scanning	170	55.37	91	29.64	35	11.40	11	3.58	261	85.02	46	14.98
Skimming	141	45.93	117	38.11	38	12.38	11	3.58	258	84.04	49	15.96

It was found from the data presented in Table 5 that the vast majority of EFL teachers placed great emphasis on the use of teaching techniques in their writing classes. These language techniques encompassed making up questions (89.25%), description (86.97%) and composition (85.34%). The results also indicated that nearly 79% of participating teachers always used dictation, note taking, and letter writing. However, the lowest-rated techniques in use for large classes were essays (54.40%) and emails (49.84%). These results imply that writing is given a high priority in language teaching and examination.

TABLE 5
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES ABOUT THE USE OF TEACHING TECHNIQUES IN WRITING

Teaching Techniques in Writing	Rating Scale								All Cases			
	Always		Sometimes		Rarely		Never		Always and Sometimes		Never and Rarely	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Dictation	107	34.85	135	43.97	36	11.73	29	9.45	242	78.82	65	21.18
Email	47	15.31	107	34.85	71	23.13	82	26.71	154	50.16	153	49.84
Note Taking	106	34.53	133	43.32	43	14.01	25	8.14	239	77.85	68	22.15
Letter Writing	94	30.62	144	46.91	48	15.63	21	6.84	238	77.52	69	22.48
Making up Questions	165	53.75	109	35.50	26	8.47	7	2.28	274	89.25	33	10.75
Description	139	45.28	128	41.69	28	9.12	12	3.91	267	86.97	40	13.03
Composition	113	36.81	149	48.53	33	10.75	12	3.91	262	85.34	45	14.66
Essay	42	13.9	98	31.8	67	21.8	100	32.5	140	45.60	167	54.40

B. Results of Research Hypotheses

H.1

To check the hypothesis postulating that there were no statistically significant differences in means between EFL teachers at ($\alpha < 0.05$) in their use of language teaching techniques for large classes with respect to gender, the mean

scores and standard deviations were calculated. Two independent samples (t-test) were used, and the results are shown in Table 6.

TABLE 6
DISTRIBUTION OF GENDER MEAN SCORES

Gender	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Male	88	91.3409	17.44343	1.85948
Female	219	101.2100	11.72317	.79218

The mean score of male EFL teachers in their use of language teaching techniques for large classes was 91.3409 with a standard deviation of 17.44343. For female EFL teachers, the mean score was 101.2100, with a standard deviation of 11.72317. Evidently, the female teachers' mean score was higher than that of the male teachers.

Table 7 shows that the calculated value of T reached -5.749 at the degree of freedom (305), and the value of significance (.000) was less than 0.05, indicating that the difference is statistically significant.

TABLE 7
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

Variables	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	18.939	.000	-5.749	305	.000	-9.86914	1.71680	-13.24740	-6.49087
Equal variances not assumed			-4.883	119.870	.000	-9.86914	2.02119	-13.87099	-5.86728

H.2

To verify the hypothesis assuming there were no statistically significant differences in the mean between EFL teachers ($\alpha < 0.05$) in their use of language teaching techniques for large classes with respect to their qualification, the mean scores and standard deviations were calculated. Two independent samples (t-test) were used, and the results are shown in Tables 8 and 9.

TABLE 8
RESULTS OF QUALIFICATION MEAN SCORES

Qualification	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Bachelor's	267	98.9588	14.13237	.86489
Master's	40	94.5250	14.96661	2.36643

The mean score of EFL teachers with a bachelor's degree was 98.9588 with a standard deviation of 14.13237, while the mean score of EFL teachers with a master's degree was 94.5250 with a standard deviation of 14.96661. Evidently, EFL teachers with a bachelor's degree mean score was higher than EFL teachers with a master's degree.

TABLE 9
RESULTS OF THE T-TEST

Variables	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.433	.511	1.836	305	.067	4.43380	2.41461	-31761	9.18521
Equal variances not assumed			1.760	49.984	.085	4.43380	2.51953	-62686	9.49446

It is obvious from Table 9 that the level of significance is 0.067, which is higher than 0.05, indicating that there are no statistically significant differences between the average scores in the qualification of sample research.

H. 3

To test the third hypothesis, which postulated that there were no statistically significant differences in means between EFL teachers at ($\alpha < 0.05$) in their use of language teaching techniques for large classes with respect to years of experience, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed. The means and standard deviation for the years of experience are presented in Table 10.

TABLE 10
RESULTS OF MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION FOR YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

Years of Experience	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
< 5	27	98.5926	11.54676	2.22217	94.0248	103.1603	76.00	124.00
5-10	87	96.4368	11.81023	1.26619	93.9197	98.9539	48.00	121.00
10-15	81	97.6914	17.39946	1.93327	93.8440	101.5387	48.00	123.00
>15	112	100.3393	14.09974	1.33230	97.6992	102.9793	47.00	128.00
Total	307	98.3811	14.29685	.81596	96.7755	99.9867	47.00	128.00

The results of ANOVA show that there were no statistically significant differences in means between EFL teachers at ($\alpha < 0.05$) in their use of language teaching techniques for large classes with respect to years of experience ($F = 1.305$, $df = 3$, $p < 0.05$). The level of significance is .273, which is bigger than 0.05. Accordingly, this hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE 11
RESULTS OF ANOVA

Variables	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	798.099	3	266.033	1.305	.273
Within Groups	61748.312	303	203.790		
Total	62546.410	306			

H. 4

To investigate the fourth hypothesis, which assumed there were no statistically significant differences in means between EFL teachers at ($\alpha < 0.05$) in their use of language teaching techniques for large classes with respect to the level of teaching, the means and standard deviations of the study were calculated. A T-test was also used to measure the significance of the differences. Table 12 shows the mean and standard deviations for the teaching variable.

It appears from Table 12 that the mean of the intermediate variable was reached (98.8065) with a standard deviation (14.62689), while the mean for the secondary variable scores was 98.0929 with a standard deviation (14.10195).

TABLE 12
GROUP STATISTICS

Level of Teaching	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Intermediate	124	98.8065	14.62689	1.31353
Secondary	183	98.0929	14.10195	1.04245

The data detailed in Table 13 reveal that the level of significance is 0.669, which is higher than 0.05, indicating no statistically significant differences between the average scores with respect to the teaching variable. Accordingly, this hypothesis was accepted.

TABLE 13
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

Variables	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.229	.632	.429	305	.669	.71356	1.66515	-2.56308	3.99019
Equal variances not assumed			.426	257.656	.671	.71356	1.67692	-2.58866	4.01577

IV. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the results of this research, the following conclusions can be drawn. Firstly, EFL teachers prefer to use listening to conversations, reading aloud, and listening to discussions when teaching listening skills to their large classes. However, they rarely use dictation, telling stories, auditory memory, or video tapes in teaching listening skills. These results imply that listening techniques are not emphasized in large classes, which depend mainly on forum language teaching techniques. Secondly, EFL teachers tend to use conversation, presentation, and description extensively in teaching speaking to their large classes. However, they seldom use chain story, mime, lecturing, problem solving, or interview language techniques. These results denote that they place little emphasis on oral communication. In sum, aural language skills, that is, listening and speaking, are not adequately emphasized in large classes. Thirdly, EFL teachers use scanning, skimming, and interviewing when teaching language students. However, they rarely use diaries or book reviews. These results connote that reading skills are highly emphasized in large classes. Fourthly, when

teaching writing, EFL teachers emphasize the use of making up questions, composition, dictation, note taking, and letter writing. However, they infrequently use essays or emails. These results imply that there is a great priority placed on using a variety of teaching techniques in writing classes. This study generally concludes that graphic language skills, that is, reading and writing, are greatly emphasized in large language classes. Fifthly, the results of the research hypotheses indicate that there were statistically significant differences in the mean between EFL teachers in their use of language teaching techniques in large classes with respect to their gender and level of teaching. However, there were no differences in the teachers' use of teaching techniques with regard to their qualifications and years of experience. The results imply that gender and level of teaching shape their preferences in the use of teaching techniques to their language students in large classes.

The current study has raised some questions for further research, for instance: Will the same results be obtained by repeating this study at other institutions or other grade levels? To what extent will language specialists contribute and incorporate the results of teaching techniques into the language pedagogy syllabus? To what extent will university language instructors enhance and motivate pre-service teachers to adopt a variety of teaching techniques in their classes, particularly the neglected ones? What are the negative consequences for the limited use of some language techniques in large classes? What causes language teachers to neglect certain techniques when teaching language skills in large classes? These and other questions may constitute topics of interest for researchers in the future.

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An Analysis of the English Language Needs of Customer Contact and Secretarial Operation Coordination Trainees: Some Selected Technical and Vocational Colleges in Ethiopia

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Abstract—This study is mainly conducted to find out the English language needs of Customer Contact and Secretarial Operation Coordination Level IV trainees. To achieve this objective, purposive sampling technique was used to select content area teachers while comprehensive sampling technique was used to include trainees and English language teachers. A survey research was the design of this study. To this end, questionnaire and interview were employed to collect data. Both quantitative and qualitative methods of data analysis were used in the study. The findings of the study showed that writing, speaking, reading and listening skills are prioritized by trainees according to their order. In the area of micro skills, listening to lectures to take notes and listening to class discussions were showed as highly needed micro-skills. With regard to speaking activities, asking and answering questions and participating in whole class discussion were highly needed speaking micro-skills. Reading reference books and reading lecture notes, writing different project works like term papers, assignments and sample personal and business letters were identified as the most important speaking and writing micro-skills. Vocabulary was found more important than grammar. Most trainees reported that they find asking and answering questions and writing different project works like term papers and assignments, sample personal and business letters difficult. The reason for this might be because the courses offered are inefficient to help them develop these skills. Disparity was also found between their language problems and the courses they take. Finally, based on these findings, recommendations were also forwarded.

Index Terms—English language needs, macro- and micro-skills, reading, writing, speaking, listening

I. INTRODUCTION

Biniam et al (2015) state, “English for Specific Purpose (ESP) has witnessed substantial growth over the past five decades” which shows its long history all over the world (p.1). The reason for this considerable development as Serkan (2003) states is the effort and motivations of people to learn English language for their either professional or educational purposes which create a great opportunity for educational institutions like universities and vocational colleges to understand the concept of specialization and professionalism. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Kumar (2020) and Dudley-Evans & St. John, (1998), the need to train students in different vocations and subject specific fields pushed ESP to the fore front.

Similarly in Ethiopia, there are necessities, practices and developments of ESP in teaching English as a foreign language because of the expansion of field specific Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) colleges. Regarding this, Biniam et al (2015), Tadele and Haileleul (2015) suggest currently ESP is one of the most important areas of English language teaching in Ethiopia. But nowadays, ESP is not given enough emphasis for all programs in Ethiopian TVET institutions. As Ahmed et al (2017) indicate, in the current Ethiopian vocational trainings where the trainees are expected to be skillful and knowledgeable in their specific field of study, English language skills based on trainees needs are given little emphasis contrary to what is expected to be achieved by meticulous trainees. That is, English language course materials are not designed to meet the trainees’ particular English language needs. Due to this absence of any particular English language course designed, a gap is created between trainees’ English language needs and English language courses being offered to them. This negatively affects trainees’ capabilities to learn based on their needs and waste time on courses that do not meet their needs. Having observed the adverse effect of this gap, the researchers argue that learning English language can be effective when the actual English language needs of trainees are analyzed.

A. Statements of the Problem

As it is indicated earlier, by using English language as a medium of instruction, Ethiopia is running TVET programs

in both private and governmental institutions to produce competent and skilled man power. Newman and Dima Technology Colleges are among Ethiopian TVET intuitions found in Debre Markos Town. Even though, English language is a medium of instruction and given as a course to such colleges, the courses are not designed based on the trainees' needs. Specifically, based on the researchers' experience and observation, the problem is serious in Newman and Dima Technology Colleges because based on the direction given from Ethiopian TVET model curriculum, these colleges are using commonly given English language courses for all trainees without considering trainees' particular English language needs. That is, English language courses are not designed properly based on trainees' particular needs. This makes the course material incapable to meet trainees' English language needs. As a result, currently enrolled trainees have difficulties to learn English and other courses. Particularly, trainees have difficulties to make oral presentation and writing different documents like memorandum, minutes and different types of letters.

In spite of all these problems, as far as the researchers' knowledge is concerned, there is no special attention on the side of TVET syllabus designers to prepare appropriate English language course to meet the needs of the trainees. This problem was observed by one of the researchers in different organizations and TVET colleges of Debre Markos town when he was working as an English teacher, cooperative training facilitator and dean. Thus, the present study tried to analyze the English language needs of Customer Contact and Secretarial Operation Coordination Level IV Trainees in the two colleges found in Debre Markos town.

B. Objectives of the Study

This study has both general and specific objectives.

1. General Objective

The general objective of this research was to analyze the English language needs of Customer Contact and Secretarial Operation Coordination Level IV trainees of Newman and Dima Technology colleges.

2. Specific Objectives

In addition to the above general objective, this study specifically attempts to:

1. identify the specific English language micro-skills Customer Contact and Secretarial Operation Coordination Level IV trainees need to have
2. identify trainees' current difficulties in learning the English language skills
3. investigate trainees' attitude towards learning English language

C. Research Questions

On the bases of the above general and specific objectives, an attempt was made to answer the following research questions:

1. Which English language skills do Customer Contact and Secretarial Operation Coordination Level IV trainees need to have?
2. What English language skills difficulties do Customer Contact and Secretarial Operation Coordination Level IV trainees have?
3. What is trainees' attitude towards learning English language?

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

The researchers used a survey research design for this study. This study adopted a mixed-methods research. The researchers collected and analyzed quantitative data that were obtained from the questionnaire and qualitative data obtained from interview.

B. Population of the Study

There were three groups of participants in this study: all Customer Contact and Secretarial Operation Coordination level IV trainees of 2019 academic year, content area teachers, and English language teachers.

C. Samples and Sampling Techniques

Colleges were selected by using purposive sampling techniques for this study. Since they are easy to manage, the researchers used all English language teachers and all the seventy eight (78) trainees enrolled in the 2019 academic year by using comprehensive sampling technique. Similarly, based on seniority, the researchers selected 2 content area teachers from each college.

D. Data gathering Instruments

Questionnaire and semi-structured interview have been used as a data gathering too.

1. Questionnaire

A questionnaire was the main data gathering instrument in this research because as Krathwohl (1998) notes the advantages of using questionnaires is to collect data quickly and economically from a large sample. Thus, questionnaire was used in this study in order to get the information that cannot be obtained through direct observation and interview. Contents of the item of the questionnaire mainly focused on identifying the specific English language skills needed by

trainees, the problems trainees faced and the attitudes of trainees towards learning English language in their academic study. During designing the questionnaire, effort has been made to make the questionnaire as comprehensive and representative as possible.

2. Interview

In this study, semi-structured interview was used to get first hand and genuine information from the respondents. The researchers adapted semi-structured interview questions for English language and content area teachers. Contents of the items of the interview questions mainly focused on identifying English language skills and activities trainees need and the problems they face in learning the language.

3. Validity and Reliability of Data Gathering Instruments

To ascertain the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, before the researchers distributed questionnaires for actual data collection, they piloted on the trainees that were found at the similar level with selected informants or target respondents. Furthermore, in order to insure the contents and face validity of the questionnaire, the researchers showed the questionnaire to different English language instructors and their close friends who had some background knowledge about the issue. Besides, the researchers used Cronbach Alpha (SPSS-Version 20.00 to check the internal consistency of the questionnaire. Accordingly, 0.83 value of r shows good reliability. Additionally, in terms of interview questions, similar explanation, extension question and equal waiting time have been given for all participants.

4. Data Collection Procedure

Questionnaire was employed before using interview to triangulate data.

5. Methods of Data Analysis

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative methods of data analysis were used. To analyze quantitative data collected from questionnaires, the researchers used SPSS version 20.0. In order to identify trainees' English language needs, difficulties and attitudes toward the English language learning. The following scale was used to analyze the means of the questionnaire: < 1.49 =not (never) needed, $1.5-2.49$ =rarely needed, $2.5-3.49$ = sometimes needed, $3.5-4.49$ = frequently needed and >4.5 = very greatly (very frequently) needed. The data gathered through interview was analyzed qualitatively.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Trainees' Needs of Macro Skills

The first research question was formulated to elicit the trainees' needs of English language macro- skills. The following table gives this.

TABLE 1
TRAINEES' NEEDS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE MACRO-SKILLS

Macro-Skills	VFN		FN		SN		RN		NN		Mean		Ranks
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	f	%			
1.Listening	27	36.5	21	28	16	21.62	10	13.51	0	0	3.88		4
2.Speaking	43	58	13	17.56	9	12.16	6	8.10	3	4.05	4.18		2
3.Reading	39	52	15	20.27	12	16.21	8	10.81	0	0	4.15		3
4.Writing	55	74	9	12	7	9.46	3	4.05	0	0	4.57		1
Grand mean											4.20		

NB: VFN= Very Frequently Needed, FN= Frequently Needed, SN= Sometimes Needed, RN= rarely needed and NN= Never Needed

As indicated from table 1 above, the mean score of each macro-skill was calculated. As the results show, almost all respondents prioritized writing skill for their academic purpose with the mean value 4.57. Next to writing skill, speaking skill was the second needed skill with the mean value of 4.18. According to their mean score, reading skill ($M=4.15$) and listening skill ($M=3.88$) were ranked as the third and fourth prioritized skills respectively. According to the information in the above table, trainees confirmed that all four English language macro-skills are frequently needed for their academic study because the grand mean is 4.20. Similarly, the results of teachers' interviews were concurrent to the results obtained from trainees' questionnaire.

B. Trainees' Needs of Micro Skills

Trainees were asked about their micro-skill needs under each macro skill, shown in following section.

TABLE 2
TRAINEES' NEEDS OF LISTENING MICRO-SKILLS

Micro-skills of listening	VFN		FN		SN		RN		NN		Mean	Ranks
	F	%	F	%	F	%	f	%	F	%		
Listening the content of in-class activities	38	51.2	21	28.2	9	12.2	2	2.7	4	5.4	4.18	3
Listening to instructors' questions	21	28.2	20	27	19	25.7	5	6.8	9	12.2	3.53	6
Listening to class discussions	44	59.5	19	25.7	3	4.1	7	9.5	1	1.4	4.32	2
Listening lectures to take notes	52	70.3	9	12.2	7	9.5	6	8	0	0	4.45	1
Listening students' oral presentation	31	41.9	23	31.1	20	27	0	0	0	0	4.15	4
Listening lectures' oral instructions	25	33.8	11	14.9	31	41.9	7	9.5	0	0	3.73	5
Grand mean											3.70	

NB: VFN= Very Frequently Needed, FN= Frequently Needed, SN= Sometimes Needed, RN= rarely needed and NN= Never Needed

As depicted on the above table, listening to lectures to take notes is the first frequently needed listening micro-skill with mean score of 4.45, followed by listening to class discussions (M=4.32). Listening to the content of in-class activities and listening to students' oral presentation were the third and fourth needed activities with mean score of 4.18 and 4.15 respectively. Next to these, listening to lecturers' oral instructions and listening to instructors' questions are the fifth and sixth listening activities with mean score of 3.73 and 3.53 respectively. As indicated in the above table, the grand mean score of the above listening activities inclines to the scale 'frequently needed'. In support of this finding, most of English language and content area teachers in their response to the interview forwarded similar results.

TABLE 3
TRAINEES' NEEDS OF SPEAKING MICRO-SKILLS

Speaking micro-skills	VFN		FN		SN		RN		NN		Mean	Rank
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
Asking and answering questions	56	75.7	6	8	6	8	4	5.4	2	2.7	4.49	1
Participating in whole class discussion	40	54.1	9	12.2	10	13.5	15	20.3	0	0	4.00	2
Making Conversations with classmates and instructors	39	52.7	10	13.5	8	10.8	16	21.6	1	1.4	3.95	3
Asking and answering questions orally in job-related trainings	35	47.3	14	18.9	11	14.9	8	10.8	6	8	3.86	4
Presenting assignments and project works	28	37.8	17	23	12	16	16	21.6	1	1.4	3.74	5
Grand mean	3.82											

NB: VFN= Very Frequently Needed, FN= Frequently Needed, SN= Sometimes Needed, RN= rarely needed and NN= Never Needed

According to the table above, asking and answering questions (in classroom, lab and fields) was the first prioritized micro-skill with mean value of 4.49. Trainees rated participating in whole class discussion (in classroom, field practice) second with mean score of 4.00, followed by making conversations with classmates and instructors with mean value of 3.96. Asking and answering questions orally in job related trainings and presenting assignments were the fourth and fifth needed micro-skills of speaking with mean value of 3.86 and 3.74 respectively. The data obtained from the majority of English language and content teachers' interview ascertains the finding obtained from trainees.

TABLE 4
TRAINEES' NEEDS OF READING MICRO-SKILLS

Reading activities /sub-skill	VFN		FN		SN		RN		NN		Mean	Rank
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
Reading reference books (English for secretaries)	50	67.6	11	14.9	8	10.8	5	6.8	0	0	4.43	1
Reading handouts/ materials/ relating to your courses	48	64.9	14	18.9	6	8	6	8	0	0	4.41	3
Reading lecture notes	49	66	12	16	8	10.8	5	6.8	0	0	4.42	2
Reading test and exam questions	41	55	22	29.7	10	13.5	1	1.4	0	0	4.39	4
Reading secretarial and customer relation rules	40	54.1	15	20.3	10	13.5	8	10.8	1	1.4	4.15	5
Grand mean	3.64											

NB: VFN= Very Frequently Needed, FN= Frequently Needed, SN= Sometimes Needed, RN= rarely needed and NN= Never Needed

The data gained from trainees' questionnaire in table 4 above revealed that reading reference books (English for secretary, customer relationship and effective secretary) is indicated the most important reading activity for trainees' academic achievement with mean score of 4.43. Similarly, reading lecture notes and reading handouts (course materials) are the second and third frequently needed reading activities with mean values of 4.42 and 4.41 respectively. While reading test and exam questions with mean value of 4.39 is the fourth needed sub-skill, reading secretarial and customer relation rules (M=4.15) stood last. Similarly, supporting this finding most English and content area teachers also articulated reading reference books (English for secretary and customer relationship as well as effective secretary) were the most important reading activities for trainees' academic achievement.

TABLE 5
TRAINEES' NEEDS OF WRITING MICRO-SKILLS

writing sub-skill	VFN		FN		SN		RN		NN		Mean	Rank
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
Writing notes from lecture notes (note taking)	26	35	18	24	16	21.6	12	16	2	2.7	3.73	4
Using correct punctuation and spelling	18	24	21	28.4	31	41.9	4	5	0	0	3.72	5
Writing lab and field reports	41	55	12	16	10	13.5	9	12.2	2	2.7	4.09	3
Writing different project works (term papers and assignments)	59	79.7	7	9.5	4	5	3	4.1	1	1.4	4.62	1
Writing sample personal and business letters	57	77	8	10.8	3	4.1	3	4.1	3	4.1	4.53	2
Grand mean											3.74	

NB: VFN= Very Frequently Needed, FN= Frequently Needed, SN= Sometimes Needed, RN= rarely needed and NN= Never Needed

As the above table shows, trainees indicated that the most frequently needed sub-skill is writing different project works (term papers & assignments) with mean score of 4.62, followed by writing personal and business letters (M=4.53). These means fall with the scale of 'very frequently needed'. Writing lab and field reports, writing notes from lecture notes, using correct punctuation and spelling are sometimes needed activities with mean score of 4.09, 3.73 and 3.72 respectively. As it is clearly shown, these score are inclined to the scale 'frequently needed'. The data gained from content area teachers' interview was concurrent to the data obtained from trainees' questionnaire.

TABLE 6
TRAINEES RESPONSES ON THE NEEDS OF ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE (GRAMMAR AND VOCABULARY)

General statement	SA		A		UD		D		SD		Mean	Rank
	F	%	F	%	f	%	f	%	F	%		
Having good English language knowledge in grammar is important for my academic study.	24	32	46	62.2	3	4.1	1	1.4	0	0	4.26	2
Having good knowledge in technical vocabularies	41	55	32	43	1	1.4	0	0	0	0	4.54	1

Keys: SA= Strongly Agree, A= Agree, UD= Undecided; D= Disagree and SD=Strongly Disagree,

As indicated in the above table, trainees were asked to what extent they agree to the idea that a good knowledge of grammar and technical vocabularies for their academic study are needed. As it is depicted clearly, both grammar knowledge and technical vocabularies are important for trainees' academic purpose. But, when we compare the two language areas, having a good knowledge in technical vocabulary items (M=4.54) is more important than having good grammar (M= 4.26).

C. Trainees' Difficulty Levels of English Language Macro and Micro-skills

TABLE 7
TRAINEES' DIFFICULTY LEVEL OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE MACRO-SKILLS

Macro skills	VMD		MD		SD		LD		ND		Mean	Rank
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	f	%		
Listening	24	32	17	23	14	18.9	8	10.8	11	14.9	3.47	4
Speaking	58	78.4	11	14.9	3	4.1	2	2.7	0	0	4.69	1
Reading	41	55.4	18	24.3	5	6.8	4	5.4	6	8.1	4.14	3
Writing	55	74	9	12.2	9	12.2	1	1.4	0	0	4.60	2

NB: VMD= Very Much Difficult, MD= Much Difficult, SD= Somewhat Difficult, LD= Little Difficult and ND= Not Difficult.

As it is clearly indicated in the above table, speaking and writing skills with mean score of 4.69 and 4.60 respectively are very much difficult skills. These are followed by reading and listening skills with mean score of 4.14 and 3.49 respectively. Similarly, the data gained from both English language teachers' and content area teachers' interviews were concurrent to the findings obtained from trainees' questionnaire.

TABLE 8
TRAINEES' DIFFICULTY LEVEL OF LISTENING MICRO-SKILLS

Listening micro-skills	VMD		MD		SD		LD		ND		mean	Rank
	F	%	F	%	f	%	F	%	F	%		
Listening the content of in-class activities	46	62.2	11	14.9	5	6.8	8	10.8	4	5	4.18	2
Listening to instructors' questions	33	44.6	19	25.7	15	20.3	5	6.8	2	2.7	4.03	3
Listening to class discussions	18	24	24	32	16	21.6	8	10.8	8	10.8	3.49	5
Listening lectures to take notes (in classroom & lab)	52	70.3	11	14.9	6	8	2	2.7	3	4.1	4.45	1
Listening lectures' oral instructions	34	45.9	15	20.3	13	17.6	10	13.5	2	2.7	3.93	4

NB: VMD= Very Much Difficult, MD= Much Difficult, SD= Somewhat Difficult, LD= Little Difficult and ND= Not Difficult.

As indicated in the above table, trainees reported their level of difficulties beginning from 'very much difficult up to not difficult. As clearly shown, listening to lectures to take notes (in classroom and lab) is the first difficult activity with mean score of 4.45, followed by listening to the content of in-class activities with mean score of 4.18. Listening to instructors' questions, listening to lecturers' oral instructions and listening to class discussions are the 3rd, 4th and 5th difficult listening activities with mean score of 4.03, 3.93 and 3.49. Supporting the above findings most English language and content area teachers' interview results confirmed that listening to lectures to take notes and listening to the contents of in-class activities were the most difficult listening activities in the classroom.

TABLE 9
TRAINEES' DIFFICULTY LEVEL OF SPEAKING SUB-SKILLS

Speaking sub-skills	VMD		MD		SD		LD		ND		Mean	Rank
	F	%	f	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
Presenting assignments and project works	63	85	6	8	5	6.8	0	0	0	0	4.78	1
Participating in whole class discussion	51	68.9	9	12.2	7	9.5	5	6.8	2	2.7	4.38	5
Making Conversations with classmates and instructors	62	83.8	6	8	4	5	1	1.4	1	1.4	4.72	3
Asking and answering questions orally in job-related	61	82	9	12.2	4	5	0	0	0	0	4.77	2
Asking and answering questions	57	77	6	8	5	6.8	4	5	2	2.7	4.51	4

NB: VMD= Very Much Difficult, MD= Much Difficult, SD= Somewhat Difficult, LD= Little Difficult and ND= Not Difficult.

The information in table 9 above showed that the most difficult speaking sub-skill to trainees is presenting assignments and project works in the class with mean score of 4.78. Asking and answering questions orally in job related trainings (M=4.77), making conversations with classmates and instructors (M=4.72) and asking and answering questions (in classroom) (M= 4.51) are presented the 2nd, 3rd and 4th difficult speaking micro-skills for trainees'. Additionally, participating in whole class discussion (in classroom, field practice) is the 5th difficult speaking sub-skill with mean score of 4.38. From the results shown in table 10, one can deduce that trainees have very great difficulties on speaking micro skills. The finding obtained from teachers' interview was parallel to this result.

TABLE 7
TRAINEES' DIFFICULTY LEVELS OF READING SUB-SKILLS

Reading sub-skills	VMD		MD		SD		LD		ND		Mean	Rank
	F	%	F	%	f	%	f	%	F	%		
Reading lecture notes	16	21.6	31	41.9	16	21.6	8	10.8	3	4.1	3.66	5
Reading test and exam questions	37	50	9	12.2	7	9.5	12	16	9	12.2	3.72	4
Reading technical secretarial manuals and guides	60	81.1	5	6.8	3	4.1	4	5	2	2.7	4.58	1
Reading secretarial and customer relation rules	39	52.7	13	17.6	5	6.8	11	14.9	6	8	3.92	3
Reading Rules of writing different types of letters	49	66	10	13.5	5	6.8	8	10.8	2	2.7	4.30	2

NB: VMD= Very much Difficult, MD= Much Difficult, SD= Somewhat Difficult, LD= Little Difficult and ND= Not Difficult.

As indicated on the above table, trainees responded their level of difficulties beginning from very much difficult up to not difficult. As shown in the table, reading technical secretarial manuals and guides is the first difficult sub-skill for trainees (M= 4.58), followed by reading rules of writing different types of letters and reading secretarial and customer relation rules with mean score of 4.30 and 3.92 respectively. Reading test and exam questions and reading lecture notes are the next most difficult sub-skills with mean score of 3.72 and 3.66 respectively.

TABLE 11
TRAINEES' DIFFICULTY LEVELS OF WRITING SUB-SKILLS

Writing Sub-Skill	VMD		MD		SD		LD		ND		Mean	rank
	F	%	F	%	f	%	F	%	F	%		
Expressing ideas appropriately	58	78.4	7	9.5	5	6.8	3	4.1	1	1.4	4.59	2
Writing project works	49	66	13	17.6	5	6.8	7	9.5	0	0	4.41	4
Writing lab and field reports	55	74	9	12.2	6	8	4	5	0	0	4.55	3
Writing summaries	48	64.9	11	14.9	8	10.8	6	8	1	1.4	4.34	5
Writing sample job-application letters& CV	54	73	15	20.3	3	4.1	2	2.7	0	0	4.64	1

NB: VMD= Very Much Difficult, MD= Much Difficult, SD= Somewhat Difficult, LD= Little Difficult and ND= Not Difficult.

As it is depicted on the table above, trainees' writing sub-skill difficulties varied from 'very much difficult' to 'not difficult'. As the mean values of the trainees' response showed writing sample job-application letters and CV's, expressing ideas appropriately and writing lab and field reports (with mean value 4.64, 4.59 and 4.55) were very much difficult writing sub-skills. Additionally, writing project works/ term papers and writing summaries were indicated as much difficult activities with mean score 4.41 and 4.34 respectively. From the result indicated, one can conclude that trainees had great difficulty on the above writing activities because most of the mean scores were above 3.5.

D. Trainees Attitudes towards Learning English Language

TABLE 12
TRAINEES ATTITUDES TOWARDS LEARNING THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Trainees' attitude	SA		A		UD		D		SD		Mean
	F	%	F	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	
Learning English is very important.	60	81.1	8	10.8	5	6.8	1	1.4	0	0	4.72
I really like learning English.	59	79.7	6	8	7	9.5	1	1.4	1	1.4	4.64
English language is an important part of the TVET program.	48	64.9	15	20.3	11	14.9	0	0	0	0	4.50
I will try to learn English as much as possible because I am interested	32	43	38	51.4	4	5	0	0	0	0	4.38
Gran mean											4.56

NB: SA= Strongly Agree, A=Agree, UD= Undecided, D= Disagree, SD= Strongly Disagree,

As it can be seen from table 12, the trainees response to the statements which express positive attitude towards learning English show their agreement with mean score between 4.72 and 4.38. In other words, the grand mean 4.56 of positively stated statements indicates above the scale given for 'strongly agree'. The mean scores and grand mean of the result imply that trainees have positive attitude towards English language learning. That is, trainees' attitude towards learning the language is good.

IV. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The first research question was formulated to elicit the particular English language skills/areas of knowledge trainees need to have. As the questionnaire revealed that even if all English language skills are very important, trainees gave high priority to writing skill. This finding is in line with the finding of Kummar (2020). Next trainees put speaking, reading and listening 2nd, 3rd and 4th important skills for their academic study. In addition, vocabulary was needed more than grammar. The data obtained from English language and most content area teachers' interview also confirmed the data gained from trainees' questionnaire. While Shibeshi's (2016) study on nursing students found writing skill the first important skill followed by reading skills, Elleni (2010) found listening and speaking skills the most important skills. Habtamu's (2008) study also pointed out that speaking and writing skills were the most important skills for students followed by listening and reading skills. Similarly, Tadele and Haileleul's (2015) study revealed that writing and reading skills were the most important skills for business students in Adama Science and Technology University followed by speaking and listening skills. Therefore the finding of this study was not in line with what has been suggested by Elleni(2010), Shibesi(2016), Tadele and Haileleul(2015) and Habtamu(2008).

Concerning trainees' needs of English language sub-skills, listening to lecturers to take notes and listening to class discussions were given high priority by students. The data obtained from both English language and content area teachers supported trainees' response. The findings of Elleni (2010), Tadele (2007), Belachew (2008), Tadele and Haileleul (2015) and Gashaw (2007) were concurrent with the present study because all the results indicated that listening to lecture to take notes and teachers' instruction were the first important listening activities for trainees'. But Habtamu's (2008) study on Fine Arts students was not concurrent with the present study because his finding portrayed listening at the conference and meeting was one of the most important listening sub-skill for students. The reason for this might be the nature of the course and the teaching system that Fine Arts students use.

Regarding speaking activities, the data obtained from trainees' questionnaire and teachers' interview, asking and answering questions (in classroom, lab and fields), participating in whole class discussion (in classroom, field practice) and presenting assignments and project works in the classroom were highly needed speaking activities. Regarding this Brown (1994) stated that since speaking skill is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving and processing information, its' sub-skills like asking and answering questions and participating in the class discussion are very important for students' learning success. The finding of Tadele (2007), Elleni (2010) and Gashaw (2007) are concurrent with the present study. But, the findings of Tadele and Haileleul's (2015) as well as Habtamu's (2008) study were not concurrent with the present study.

The questionnaire also revealed that reading different reference books and handouts as well as lecture notes were indicated as more important reading sub-skills for trainees' academic study. Both English language and content area teachers during interview said reading reference books and handouts are the most important reading activity. Generally, this result is similar to Gashaw's (2007), Belachew's (2008) and Tadele's (2007) study. Elleni (2010) also indicated that reading reference books and passages should be relevant to the area of learners because reading generates learners' motivation to read more for their academic achievement.

The data also indicated that writing different project works, sample business and personal letters and lab and field reports were the 1st, 2nd and 3rd most important writing sub-skills for trainees. Content area teachers' interview results were similar to the data obtained from trainees' questionnaire. For example, English language teacher 2 said trainees need to write different sample personal and business letters, CV and lab & field reports. But the data gained from the two English language teachers' interview had some disparities with the data obtained from the above respondents. That is, during interview both English language teachers said writing sample business and personal letters including CV formats was the 1st important writing activity for trainees' academic study. The disparity may come from the course which they were teaching.

The second research question was designed to find out the difficulty level of skills to trainees. Trainees identified speaking skill as the most difficult skill followed by writing, reading and listening skills respectively. The interview questions conducted with English language and content area teachers revealed the same result. For instance, English language teacher 1 reported that speaking and writing skills are more difficult for trainees than non-productive skills. And content area teacher 2 claimed speaking writing, reading and listening skills are relatively difficult activities for trainees in their academic setting.

In line with this finding, there are many research works which showed speaking as very difficult skill for trainees at the university and college levels. For example, Gan (2012), Myles (2009) cited in Chatsгноen (2015) and Belachew (2008) revealed that speaking skill is a great problem for trainees' academic success. Additionally, Gashaw's (2007) result is in line with the present study. But, Elenni's (2010) study was only partially concurrent to the present study because her study depicted that speaking is the first difficult skill followed by listening, writing and reading skills.

Furthermore, trainees' questionnaire depicted listening to lecturers to take notes (in classroom & lab), listening the content of in-class activities and listening to instructors' oral presentation were the most difficult listening activities for trainees academic study. In support of this, most of English language and content area teachers' interview results confirmed the finding obtained from trainees' questionnaire. There are studies which have similar result with the present study. For example, Taddele and Haillelul (2015), Belachew (2008), Javis et al. (2020) and Tagele (2007) revealed that listening to lecturers to take note is the most difficult listening activity for trainees'. But Gashaw's (2007) finding is not in line with the finding of this study because his finding revealed that listening to the workshop is the first difficult listening activity for trainees.

Concerning speaking activities, trainees' questionnaire identified presenting assignments and project works, asking and answering question in job related training and making oral conversation with classmates and instructors were identified the most difficult speaking activities. The data obtained from English language and content area teachers' interview assured these difficulties. The result of this study supports the work of Tavi (2010) cited in Chatsгноen (2015). The finding is also consistent with other similar studies. For example, Gashaw's (2007) and Belachew's (2008) findings are in line with the finding of this study because they stated that students have a great problem to give oral presentation standing in front of their classmates and teachers.

Concerning reading activities, the result obtained from trainees' questionnaire, English language and content area teachers' interviews revealed that reading technical secretarial manuals and reference books as well as guides and reading rules of writing different types of letters were the most difficult reading activities for trainees'. In line with this finding, some researchers have revealed that reading skill, especially reading manuals, handouts and reference books were the most difficult activities for students' academic success. For example, studies show that electricity students have difficulties in reading handouts and reference materials (Tagele, 2007) and Tank Machine Trainees have difficulties in reading different manuals (Gahaw, 2007).

Writing sample job application letters and CVs, expressing ideas appropriately, writing lab and field reports and writing project works as well as term papers were the most difficult writing activities as trainees' questionnaire depicted. The data obtained from some teachers' interview to some extent assured trainees' response. Two content area teachers in their part reported that trainees encountered great difficulties in organizing grammatically correct sentences and writing lab and field reports. From the two English teachers, teacher 1 said expressing ideas in written form and writing different reports by organizing well-constructed paragraph are the most difficult writing activities for trainees' academic study. But teacher 2 said writing different term papers and project works by organizing readable texts is trainees' writing difficulty. This is the only difference on the English teachers' response. Thus, the present study revealed that writing sample job-application letters and CVs, expressing ideas appropriately and writing different projects works, assignments, term papers and class works using grammatical correct sentences are the most difficult activities.

The third research question of this study was formulated to elicit the general attitude of customer contact and secretarial operation coordination trainees. As the trainees' questionnaire indicated, most of trainees had positive attitudes towards learning the English language because the average mean values were above 4.5. Generally, the study depicted that trainees have positive attitude towards learning the English language.

V. CONCLUSIONS

According to the findings, the following conclusions were drawn about trainees' English language needs, difficulties, and attitudes towards learning the English language.

- All English language skills are important for trainees' academic success. But to give priority, writing skill was found the 1st highly needed skill followed by speaking, reading and listening skills. This could imply that there is high need for learning the English language skills.
- With regard to the needs of micro-skills, listening to lecturers to take notes (in classroom and lab), listening to class discussions, participating in whole class discussion (in classroom, field practice), reading reference books (English for secretary, customer relationship and effective secretary), reading lecture notes, writing different project works like term papers & assignments and writing sample personal and business letters are the most important micro-skills trainees need to have for their academic study. Similarly, it was found that the knowledge of vocabulary is more important than grammar.

- The finding of the study also demonstrated that speaking, writing, reading and listening skills were reported as difficult English language macro-skills according to their order. Specifically, listening to lectures to take notes (in classroom and lab), listening the content of in-class activities, presenting assignments and project works in the class, asking and answering questions orally in job-related trainings, reading technical secretarial manuals and guides and reading rules of writing different types of letters, writing sample job-application letters & CV, expressing ideas appropriately by using English language and writing different projects works, assignments, term papers and class works were shown as the most difficult activities. In addition to this, there is evidence that the skills seemed to be de-emphasized in their courses.
- Finally, the finding of the study showed that trainees have positive attitude towards learning English language.

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS

In the view of the findings and their implication, the following recommendations are made.

1. Since there is no specifically designed English language teaching materials, an appropriate English language syllabus should be designed for Customer Contact and Secretarial Operation Coordination TVET trainees by considering trainees' English language needs and difficulties.
2. In order to design appropriate teaching material which is pertinent for trainees academic purpose, syllabus designers ought to consider trainees English language skills and sub-skills.
3. English language skills like Speaking and writing skills including their micro skills should be considered and emphasized during syllabus designing.
4. Since customer contact and secretarial operation trainees have great problem on speaking and writing skills including their respective activities, teachers should encourage trainees to speak and write by providing appropriate tasks and activities in the classroom.
5. With regard to the learning and teaching processes in TVET institutions, English language and content area instructors should give more emphasis to those English language skills.

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Retranslation: A Comparative Study of Two English Translations of *Vimalakīrti Sutra*

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Abstract—Retranslation is a widespread phenomenon which has been discussed and studied by translators and Translation Studies scholars for years. The meaning of retranslation lies in its difference (not necessarily improvement) from the previous ones, which means retranslation would provide something new both to readers and translators. Through the prism of the theory of retranslation, the study examines two English translations of *Vimalakīrti Sutra*, showcasing that although Burton Watson's rendition is recognized as one in high quality, John McRae's retranslation still helps us to contemplate on how to keep balance between literary interest and religious interest during the process of translating sacred texts.

Index Terms—retranslation, *Vimalakīrti Sutra*, Burton Watson, John McRae

I. INTRODUCTION

Retranslation is a widespread phenomenon which has been discussed and studied by translators and Translation Studies scholars for years (Feng, 2014). Generally speaking, “retranslation” usually has three denotations: the first connotation refers to a “second-hand” translation, which means the translation is based on a third language edition, a language other than either the source language or the target language; the second denotation could be concluded as a “back translation” which means a target-language text that is translated back into the language of the source text when the original text is lost (Feng, 2014). The phenomenon of “back translation” does not only happen in the literary world but also in the religious world where the situation is much more complicated. A good example of this in the religious world might be the famous *Heart Sutra* (Nattier, 1992). The most relevant and important denotation of retranslation to this study is “either the act of translating a work that has previously been translated into the same language, or the result of such an act.” (Gürçağlar, 2009)

II. GENERAL REMARKS ON THE THEORIES OF RETRANSLATION

The “retranslation hypothesis” was first proposed by Antoine Berman in 1990. He claimed that the translation of literary works is an “incomplete act”, and only through retranslations can it strive for completion (Feng, 2014). The most frequently retranslated works are sacred texts and literary works (Brownlie, 2006). Some great literary works, such as Tu Fu's (712-770) or Su Shi's (1037-1101) poems, are translated again and again, and the purposes of those repetitive renditions might be improvement or correction. However, when it comes to religious works, the intentions turn to be more complex. For example, confronting the flood of numbered lists of categories, ideas and so forth (of which Indian thinkers were so much enamoured) that came to China in the wake of Buddhism, some earliest Buddhist missionaries used the method of “categorizing concepts” (geyi 格義) to translate Buddhist sutra (Mair, 2012), which was criticized by the later translators for the misuse of the Taoist terms and concepts in Buddhist translations. Therefore, a large number of new translations emerged during the Sui and Tang Dynasties (581-906) due to this reason. In other cases, retranslation emerged when more “authentic” editions of original texts were discovered or transmitted to China (Fang, 2007). In this section, I intend to introduce some theories of retranslation from the following three perspectives: 1) the necessity, 2) motives, and 3) the relationship between the early translation (not necessarily the first one) and later translations.

A. Necessity

Although retranslation has long been criticized as being “wasteful,” some scholars and literary critics believe that a retranslation is necessary even if a good translation of the same work already exists, as the re-translator could benefit from the old translation and try to achieve “perfection” (Feng, 2014). Despite the fact that the meaning of “perfection” is still needed to be further discussed, it vividly shows that the necessity of retranslation lies in its difference (not necessarily improvement) from the previous ones, which means retranslation would provide something new both to readers and translators.

B. Motives

Retranslation is completed by the translator, the publisher or the scholar. Most of time, when later translators are not satisfied with the pre-existing renditions, they embark on their own versions. The reasons of this “discontent” might be

divergent personal appreciation, translation strategies, even the different foci.

C. Relationship between the Early Translation and Later Translations

Venuti (2003) declared that retranslations “justify themselves by establishing their difference from one or more previous versions.” He also argued that the differences are guided more by social or ideological premises than by linguistic or literary lack in the previous translations, which is especially the case for the translations of Buddhist texts (Venuti, 2003).

Another noteworthy difference is that early translations might be more domesticated or target-oriented, while the later translations tend to maintain a cultural distance between the translation and its source because of their reflection on the previous ones (Feng, 2014).

III. THE COMPARATIVE STUDY OF TWO ENGLISH TRANSLATIONS OF *VIMALAKĪRTI SUTRA*

Two English translations of *Vimalakīrti Sutra* will be investigated to verify the foregoing theories of retranslation. Due to the great length and extensiveness of *Vimalakīrti Sutra*, I select Chapter 6 as the center of my discussion because of its dramatic plot and the tension within the conversations among four main characters.

A. *Vimalakīrti Sutra* and Its Translations

Vimalakīrti Sutra (Weimojie jing 維摩詰經) is one of the most important sutras of Chinese Buddhism, which exerts profound influence on literature and art of East Asia. It was composed conceivably by around 100 CE, certainly by the early 3rd century (Silk, 2015). Doctrinally, the nuclear of *Vimalakīrti Sutra* derived from the Perfection of Wisdom (Prajñāpāramitā) literature. Spiritually, the demonstrative quality of Vimalakīrti's silence, and the vivid interaction between him and other great disciples and Bodhisattva, hinted at a deep contact with the later development of the Chinese Chan school (McRae, 2004). However, like many other Indian Mahayana sutras, the Indic language edition of this scripture had been lost for centuries (Nattier, 2000). In addition, there is no evidence that a single Indian commentary on the text ever existed. As Nattier concluded, it might not be a popular text in India and it is also hard to gauge the degree of influence exerted by this text in India, which is in sharp contrast to the situation of East Asia (Nattier, 1992).

It is said that *Vimalakīrti Sutra* has been translated into Chinese no fewer than eight times, of which three versions are extant: those completed by Zhiqian 支謙(?-?), Kumārajīva (344-413), and Xuanzang 玄奘(602-644). Kumārajīva's version is widely acknowledged to be the best one, both as a Buddhist sutra and a literary work. Thus, it is not surprising that three of the six published English translations (one from Sanskrit version, two from Tibetan version, and three from Chinese version) are renditions of Kumārajīva's version. In this study, I am going to discuss two of these three renditions which are translated from the Chinese text—Burton Watson's version and John McRae's rendition.

B. Motives for Retranslation and Relation between the Two Translations

Watson's version is not the first English translation, but it is the most popular and influential one (Nattier, 1992). Nevertheless, as Watson pointed out in the preface, like his translation of Lotus Sutra, this translation was intended primarily for readers who have no special background in Buddhist studies. Carrying such intension, he deliberately omitted detailed information about the Sanskrit terminology and the thought and background of the sutra (Watson, 1997), which, in McRae's eyes, eliminated a great deal of its intrinsic religious interest (2004). In other words, the “discontent” with the previous rendition (Watson's version as to say) motivated McRae to start his own translation.

The main difference between these two renditions is guided by ideological premise. As simplified as Watson's translation, his targeted audiences are ordinary people or readers who have no special background in Buddhist studies. Other than a scholarly artifact, his translation is more of a literary work. By contrast, McRae paid most attention to the religious interest within translation. His targeted audiences are scholars or at least people who possess knowledge in Buddhist studies—his translation is a serious academic work.

Another difference lies in the extent of readability. As an early translation, Watson's version is motivated by a concern for higher levels of readability (1997), which makes his usage of language more domesticated. On the contrary, reflecting on Watson's work, McRae emphasized the role of Buddhist terms and thoughts in his rendition, maintaining a cultural distance between the translation and its source (Chinese text).

IV. A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE TWO TRANSLATIONS

In this section, I will first introduce the basic content of Chapter 6 of *Vimalakīrti Sutra*. Then I am going to analyze the two translations of this chapter by comparing different titles, different images of the main figures, and different translations of some key concepts.

A. Basic Content

Chapter 6 talks about wisdom and expedient means possessed by the Bodhisattvas who dwell in the emancipation Beyond Comprehension (Inconceivable emancipation). The plot is unfolded dramatically. I summarize the chapter in

the “Five-act Structure”(Freytag, 2014):

TABLE 1
FIVE-ACT STRUCTURE OF CHAPTER 6

Six stages	Plots
Initial incident (Exposition 1)	At that time Shariputra, observing that there were no seats in Vimalakirti's room, thought to himself: All these bodhisattvas and major disciples—where are they going to sit?
Preliminary event (Exposition 2)	Conversations about how to be a seeker of the Law.
Rising action	Vimalakirti then exercised his transcendental powers to bring thirty-two thousand lion seats, tall, broad, adorned, and pure into his room.
(Theatrical Conflict)	There were none who could climb up into the seats.
Climax	After making obeisance to the Thus Come One Sumeru Lamp King, they were able to seat themselves in the lion seats.
Falling action	A brief description of the powers possessed by this bodhisattva of the emancipation Beyond Comprehension.
Denouement	The compliment on the wisdom and expedient means possessed by the bodhisattvas who dwell in the emancipation Beyond Comprehension.

B. Title

The original title of Chapter 6 is “不思議品” (busiyi ping), which could be divided into two parts: “不思議” and “品.” Following the English convention, both of the two versions translated “品” into “chapter” and moved it to front of “不思議.” With regard to “不思議,” Watson’s translation is “beyond comprehension,” while McRae translated it into “inconceivable.” Charles Muller(2007) made a very detailed definition of “不思議”:

Non-conceptual; inscrutable. That which is beyond contemplation or conceptualization. Beyond linguistic expression. Beyond thought and words, beyond conception, baffling description, amazing (Skt. Acintya) Transliterated as 阿軫帝也. Usually said in reference to some quality of the Buddha’s teaching, especially something that defies ordinary comparison. Also commonly written as 不可思議.

That is to say, “不思議” actually contains two layers of meanings:1) beyond conceptualization, 2) beyond and against linguistic expression. From this perspective, although Watson’s “beyond comprehension” is more directly translated (beyond for “不,” and comprehension for “思議”) and more readable, it only touches on one layer of the meanings. By contrast, in spite of McRae’s attempt to avoid superficial translation and keep the religious interest, he provided a very stiff and awkward word here.

The format of the title is another issue should be emphasized. The chapter titles (品目 pingmu) of Chinese Buddhist texts usually have very uniform format—they follow the format of “A + 品.” “A” here could be an adjective, noun, and phrase, and the “A + 品” as a whole constitutes a noun-phrase. Therefore, compared to “inconceivable,” “beyond comprehension” is more faithful to such a format.

C. Images of Main Figures

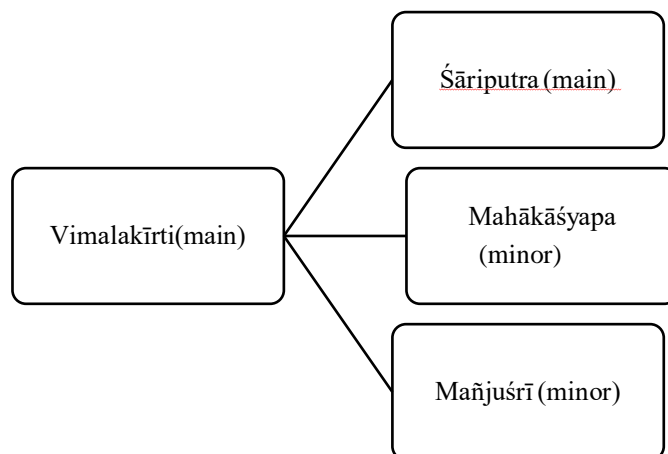


Chart 1. Main and minor figures of Chapter 6

Vimalakīrti: Vimalakīrti is the protagonist of the narrative of the whole sutra and also leads all conversations in Chapter 6. Generally speaking, his persona has two sides: on the one hand, he is a devout lay Buddhist and shows his respect to Buddha, Bodhisattvas, and great disciples; on the other hand, because his spiritual attainment and transcendental powers are far greater than these of most Bodhisattvas and great disciples, in order to enlighten these Bodhisattvas and great disciples, he criticizes and even plays tricks on them. Judging from the two translations, we can see that McRae insisted on keeping balance between the two sides, while Watson intended to depict Vimalakīrti as a cynical man. There are two examples:

Example 1.

Chinese version: 長者維摩詰知其意，語舍利弗言：雲何仁者為法來耶？求床座耶？舍利弗言：我為法來，非為床座。(Zhonghua dian zi fo dian xie hui[FDXH],2010)

Watson (1997): The rich man Vimalakirti, knowing what was in his mind, said to Shariputra, "Did you come here for the sake of the Law, or are you just looking for a place to sit?"

"I came for the Law, not for a seat!" said Shariputra.

McRae (2004): The Elder Vimalakīrti knew what he was thinking and said to Śāriputra, "Which is it, sir—did you come for the Dharma or come seeking a seat?" Śāriputra said, "I came for the Dharma, not for a seat."

First, Watson translated “長者” into “the rich man,” but McRae used “the Elder” to call Vimalakīrti. Apparently, “the Elder” is an honorific title to call someone who is widely venerated, while “the rich man” seems to hint at a persona of a wealthy but impolite overnight millionaire.

Next, in regards to the word “仁者,” McRae translated it into “sir”; Watson’s version is “you” (or he just omitted this word). “You” is of course informal and a little impolite, considering the interlocutor is one of the most honored disciples of Buddha. However, the persona that Watson intended to depict is clearer.

Example 2.

Chinese version: 爾時，長者維摩詰，問文殊師利：仁者游於無量千萬億阿僧祇國，何等佛土有好上妙功德成就師子之座？

文殊師利言：居士！東方度三十六恒河沙國，有世界名須彌相，其佛號須彌燈王，今現在。彼佛身長八萬四千由旬，其師子座高八萬四千由旬，嚴飾第一。(FDXH, 2010)

Watson (1997): At that time the rich man Vimalakirti said to Manjushri, "You have visited countless thousands, ten thousands, billions of asamkhyas of countries. What Buddha lands have the finest and most beautiful lion seats, those endowed with the best qualities?"

Manjushri replied, "Layman, to the east, beyond countries numerous as the sands of thirty-six Ganges, lies a world called Sumeru Shape. Its Buddha is named Sumeru Lamp King, and he is there now. This Buddha's body is eighty-four thousand yojanas in height and the lion seat [he sits on] is eighty-four thousand yojanas high and adorned in the finest fashion."

McRae (2004): At this time the Elder Vimalakīrti asked Mañjuśrī, "Sir, in your wanderings throughout the immeasurable ten million koṭis of incalculable numbers of [buddha] countries, which buddha land has lion seats made with the best and most wondrous qualities?"

Mañjuśrī said, "Retired scholar, in the east, as many countries away as there are grains of sand in thirty-six Ganges Rivers, there is a world-system called Characteristic of Sumeru. Its buddha is called Sumeru Lamp King, who is manifest [in that world] at present. That buddha's body is eighty-four thousand yojanas tall. His lion seat is eighty-four thousand yojanas high and paramount in ornamentation."

Mañjuśrī is one of the most honored Bodhisattvas who personifies supreme wisdom. Even Buddha himself shows respect to Mañjuśrī and praises his wisdom. In previous chapters, he acted as the envoy of Buddha to inquire about Vimalakīrti's illness. In Watson's rendition, Vimalakīrti maintains the image of a wealthy but arrogant man and uses "you" to call the great Bodhisattva, Mañjuśrī. In return, Mañjuśrī calls him "layman." "Layman" is a direct translation of "居士"—a neutral, at least not a very respectful title.

One minor point. McRae's use of "retired scholar" is also a little weird. It is understandable to translate "士" into "scholar." But "retired" might not be an appropriate English counterpart of "居."

Śāriputra: Śāriputra is also a two-sided character in this chapter. For one thing, he is the chief and earliest disciple of Buddha. He is also a leader of the Buddhist community and a loyal follower and practitioner of Buddhist teachings; For another, confronting the great layman Vimalakīrti, Śāriputra shows his limited spiritual attainment and transcendental powers—he is just like a not so smart student who always makes mistakes and is then criticized by the "teacher" Vimalakīrti. Again, different translation strategies are shown through the depiction of Śāriputra: one (McRae's) keeps balance and is faithful to the historical and "real" Śāriputra, instead of basing his translation entirely on the text itself; the other one (Watson's) inclines to provide a vivid literary image of Śāriputra.

Example 3.

Chinese version: 爾時，維摩詰語舍利弗：就師子座。舍利弗言：居士！此座高廣，吾不能升。

維摩詰言：唯，舍利弗！為須彌燈王如來作禮，乃可得坐。

舍利弗言：居士！未曾有也，如是小室，乃容受此高廣之座，於毗耶離城，無所妨礙，又于閻浮提聚落城邑，及四天下諸天龍王鬼神宮殿，亦不迫迮。(FDXH, 2010)

Watson (1997): At that time Vimalakīrti said to Shariputra, "Sit down in a lion seat!" But Shariputra said, "Layman, these seats are too tall and wide—we can't climb up in them!"

Vimalakīrti said, "Ah, Shariputra, if you will make obeisance to the Thus Come One Sumeru Lamp King, then you will be able to take a seat."

Shariputra said, "Layman, I have never seen such a thing! A little room like this and still it can hold seats as tall and broad as these! And the city of Vaishali is in no way crowded or obstructed, nor are any of the towns or villages of Jambudvīpa or of the other of the four continents cramped or inconvenienced, or the palaces of the heavenly beings, dragon kings and spirits!"

McRae (2004): At that time Vimalakīrti said to Śāriputra, "Take a lion seat." Śāriputra said, "Retired scholar, this seat is [so] huge I am unable to ascend it." Vimalakīrti said, "O Śāriputra, after you have worshiped Sumeru Lamp King Tathāgata you will be able to sit there."

Śāriputra said, "Retired scholar, this is unprecedented! Such a small room has accommodated these huge seats, and there is no hindrance in the city of Vaiśālī, nor is there any distortion in the villages and towns of Jambudvīpa, nor in all the worlds of four continents, nor in the palaces of the gods, dragon kings, and demonic spirits."

The difference between "can't climb up in them" and "unable to ascend it" is very subtle: the former one seems to describe a mortal man or an ordinary people who possesses wishful thinking of trespassing the immortals' land; the latter one refers to a great being (an immortal) who tries to achieve something that is beyond his ability.

In addition, translating "未曾有也" into "this is unprecedented" is just a sort of compliment and still objective, but the phrase of "I have never seen such a thing" seems to be quite subjective, admitting one's being provincial and ignorant.

D. Key Concepts

As mentioned before, early translations might be more domesticated or target-oriented, while the later translations (retranslations as to say) tend to maintain a cultural distance between the translation and its source, which is especially true in the case of the translations of some key concepts of Chapter 6.

法: The Chinese character "法" frequently appears in Chapter 6. According to Charles Muller, "法" in the Buddhist context has a wide range of meanings: sometimes it refers to the teaching delivered by the Buddha; in other circumstances, it is used in the sense of all things (一切 yiqie), or anything small or great, visible or invisible, real or unreal, affairs, truth, principle, method, concrete things, abstract ideas, etc. (Muller, 2007). The use of "法" in our text should belong to the first category.

Watson translated it into "law," a very old-fashioned but easily understood word—people might well catch on its literal meaning by just a glimpse of it. McRae's expression is more complicated and foreignized—he chose the Classical Sanskrit noun "dharma" as the counterpart of "法," one term that people without knowledge of Indian religions could neither understand nor pronounce, which exactly proves that as McRae indicated in his preface, the main purpose of his translation is to add more religious interest.

不思議解脫: it is the theme of this chapter and also related to the above-mentioned chapter title. Although both of the two renditions translated “解脫” into “emancipation,” due to the different translations of “不思議,” Watson’s version is “emancipation Beyond Comprehension,” and McRae’s version is “inconceivable emancipation.” The reason why Watson reversed the word order is unknown (the right order based on his vocabulary should be “Beyond Comprehension emancipation”), yet it is clear that he translated literally. Interestingly, despite that “inconceivable” is a stiff translation of “不思議,” McRae’s “inconceivable emancipation” is much more appropriate than Watson’s version.

阿耨多羅三藐三菩提: A transliteration of the Sanskrit anuttara-samyak-sambodhi, which means supreme correct enlightenment. Anuttarā means unsurpassed; samyak means correct, and sambodhi means enlightenment (Muller, 2007).

Since it is a specific Buddhist term, the two translators chose to keep it in the form of Romanized Sanskrit, anuttara-samyak-sambodhi. The only difference is that McRae directly put it there, while Watson used the phrase of “the attainment of anuttara-samyak-sambodhi,” reminding readers that the term “anuttara-samyak-sambodhi” is a kind of spiritual attainment. In this way, the readers of Watson’s rendition might not need to refer to a Buddhist dictionary.

V. CONCLUSION

Retranslation is a widespread phenomenon which has been discussed and studied by translators and Translation Studies scholars for years. The meaning of retranslation lies in its difference (not necessarily improvement) from the previous ones, which means retranslation would provide something new both to readers and translators. In our case, although Watson’s rendition is recognized as one in high quality, McRae’s work still helps us to contemplate on how to keep balance between literary interest and religious interest during the process of translating sacred texts.

In general, when later translators are not satisfied with the pre-existing renditions, they embark on their own versions. As clearly stated in the preface, the reason why McRae started his own rendition is that he was discontent with Watson’s translation strategies and attempted to focus on religious interest in his work.

Driven by various concerns, early translations might be more domesticated or target-oriented, while retranslation tends to maintain a cultural distance between the translation and its source. Thus, we tend to regard Watson’s work as a more faithful translation, but see McRae’s rendition as a scholarly artifact.

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Capitalization Roles in Subtitled Igbo Movies: The Translator's Aid

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Abstract—The study revolves around capitalization roles in subtitled Igbo movies: The translator's aid by focusing on the relevance of the translator in making sure that the right information is appropriated. The study shows that capitalization is the writing of a word of a particular language with its first letter in uppercase or big letters while the remaining letters in lowercase or small letters. However, capitalization error is involved with wrong use or application of capitalization in written utterances of a particular language. In other to have the right message in the movie used for the study, this research adopted the methodology of description in its design in order to account for the movie used for the study. In doing this, the researcher played and replayed the movie in order to describe the information correctly and also, recognizing the different places capitalizations are used or should set in. The study finds out that there is need to avoid capitalization errors in any written information and concludes by recommending the translators services or aid, as it will help to make available the supposed and worth having information in the target language.

Index Terms—capitalization, grammar and subtitle

I. INTRODUCTION

Capitalization is an essential element in every written information of a particular language, as it brings about discrepancy between plain words and proper name allusions or where possibly should start a written information in a sentence. One can say that capitalization is taken to be the writing of a word of a particular language with its first letter in uppercase or big letters while the remaining letters in lowercase or small letters. According to Young and Young and Fry (2008), writing is involved with one of the main skills that second language learners of a particular language find difficulty in. However, one of the areas that they find difficult in the process of writing compositions or anything is the correct use of the capital letters or upper case. So, capitalization error is involved with wrong use or application of capitalization in written utterances of a particular language. In this study, let's say that capitalization is a practice that can be done in textual and audio visual or media translations or screen translations. Translation is an exercise that is involved with information transfer. In the field of translation, it is very important to note that one does not translate or transfer in a language that he is not competent in, or language that he barely understands as faithful translation according to Nida (1964) states that translation involves having the equivalence of the source information in the target language while maintaining its meaning. As capitalization is one of the elements of the things that will make the transferred information to seem as the original information, it is very pertinent that a translator of the source information should understand the different places capitalization is applied. Transferred information which seem original to the target audience is what this study sees as a faithful and true translation because translation involves enough skill in order to perform well in the information transfer. So, being an exercise that involves transposition of data, Nwike (2019) believes that it involves transfer of the original meaning of the source information in the target language. So, while translating any information thus textual (book transfer) or paratextual (non book transfer), the translator should understand the different techniques of capitalization application as to avoid confusing the target language audience who may want to learn the language from differentiating between proper name allusions and other places where capitalization should originally set in. This is to say that when capitalization is not being applied well in a language, there may be a clear lose of information.

According to Young and Fry (2008), there are rules that govern the use of capitalization in the English language as well as some other languages of the world. Upon this, the rules show that capitalization is done on the first word of a quoted or written sentence(s). For instance, '*Nkechi, treat him as you would your own son.*' Again, while writing in any language, it is clear to state that a proper noun should be capitalized hence, *River Niger*. More so, one can capitalized a person's title especially when it preceded the name. However, one is not supposed to capitalize when the title functions as a description that follows the name. For instance, *Chairlady Ihechinyere Ndubuisi* and *Sir. Chinedu Nwike*, or *the*

chairlady of the congress, will address us in the morning. Again, Young and Fry (2008) states that one can capitalize the person's title when it follows the name on the address or signature line – *Prof. Chris, Chairwoman* as well as capitalizing the titles of the high-ranking government officials. This is done when it is used before their names, but not to capitalize the civil title if it is used instead of the name. For instance, according to Young and Fry (2008), the special task forces are; The governors, lieutenant governors, and attorney generals – *Governor Unigwe, Lieutenant Governor Unigwe, Attorney General Unigwe, and Senators Stella and Juliet* will travel. However, one can capitalize allusions or any title when used as a direct address such as *Will you pray for me, Reverend?* Additionally, Young and Fry (2008) states that one can capitalize the points of a compass only when they refer to specific regions like *I have had three doctors visit from the Northern Nigeria.* Again, the first and last words of titles of publications are capitalized irrespective of their parts of speeches. Other words within titles are capitalized, including the short verb forms “Is, Are, and Be.” In other words, Young and Fry (2008) states that there is an exception to this previously related information as you do not capitalize little words within titles such as “a, an, the, but, as, if, and, or, nor, or prepositions,” not minding their length. For instance, *The Day of Settlement*

In connection with the above, Young and Fry (2008) state that when ‘federal or state’ is used as part of an official agency name or in government documents where these terms represent an official name. Again, Young and Fry (2008) are of the view that one can capitalize if they are being used as general terms hence, you may use lowercase letters. For instance, *The National Ministry of Account collects taxes/ I visited three states during the ASUU strike.* Again, capitalization can be done on words such as “department, bureau, and office” – *The Department of Linguistics has role to play in the faculty programs. The Bureau is finding its administrative role to be challenging.* Capitalize the first word of a salutation and the first word of a complimentary salutation in a language – *My dear Mr. Timothy/Very truly yours.* In other words, capitalize words derived from proper nouns such as *I must take English and maths.* According to Young and Fry (2008), ‘English’ is capitalized because it comes from the proper noun ‘England’, but math does not come from ‘Mathland.’ Furthermore, after a sentence ending with a colon, Young and Fry (2008) are of the view that one does not capitalize the first word if it begins with a list – *These are my favourite foods: okpa, ayaraya okpa, and akpu mmiri.* Do not capitalize when only one sentence follows a sentence ending with a colon – *I love Prof. Agbedo's writing: his book, Multilingualism and National Development in Nigeria was beautiful.*

Based on the above information, having known what capitalization is all about and some of the things that revolves around it including the rules that govern it although, not an end to capitalization information, this study hinges on the role of capitalization in the subtitled Igbo home movies: The translator's aid in order to practically address the wrong capitalization seen in the movie titled *Onye bu nna m*. In doing this, the objective of the study hinges on shedding light on the role of capitalization in the subtitled Igbo home movie used for the study as its signification will help in cubing off much errors concerning wrong capitalized subtitles in the media houses and any written information in order to enable a foreign language learner of the language to learn better.

II. THEORETICAL STUDIES

In an era where cross fertilization of ideas and culture are important, it is good to be transferring information in a supposed form as it tells a lot about the original information. Knowing fully well that information transfer involves the transference of the most accurate information into another language as it involves written and not intersemiotic, all the necessary ingredients that will accentuate the relevance of good production should be taking into consideration, capitalization involved. Based on this premise, a good translator should understand capitalization application well since translation deals with involvement of another culture. Translation has helped in different ways in documenting many works into other languages, while retaining the semantic properties of the original information in the target language. In lieu of this, the theory of Jakobson (1959) believes on the intersemiotic way of approaching translation which on this ground, the theory pointed out that anyone who engages in translation study should first try as much as possible to grab the information of the source text and renders it the same by having the equivalent version in the target text and culture. This is because, according to Jakobson (1959), translation involves having same information in two or more languages. Although, due to the differences in language formations, one who translates may be faced with not having the equivalence of the source information in the target language and as such, it gives rise to what one can rightly call a situational equivalence. Herein, a grammatical or cultural device is formed to replace the encountered term, word or phrases of the source text which from that point, forms part of the vocabulary of the target language and culture as it will replace an information of the source text in the target text. But for Jakobson (1959), when the situation of not having a replica or equivalence of the source information in the target language arises, the words of the original should be replaced with loan translation or loan words, semantic shifts or neologisms and circumlocution. More so, he added that in a situation where there is no form of literal replacement or equivalence for words of the original information, the translator is opportune to adopt any convenient and most suitable way or form of rendering the text information into the target language in order to have same information documented in the target text and culture.

Additionally, the work of Venuti (2000) sees translation as the way of relating a foreign text through establishment of relationship of identity. From this point, he came up with two forms of equivalence thus, pragmatic equivalence and formal equivalence in translation which in the process tries to bring to the fore the discrepancy between the two. However, according to Venuti (2000) the pragmatic equivalence is the type of equivalence that is strongly hinged on the

individual who receives the information of the original text. On the other hand, the main focus of the formal equivalence is to make up foreign text through approximation of the linguistic and cultural features. On this ground, the pragmatic equivalence respects the culture of the target language while the formal equivalence pays much attention to the source text by respecting its linguistic and cultural values without considering its effect on the target audience that will receive the translated information.

On the part of Catford (1965), translation equivalence takes place where the information of the source text and the target language are of a great resemblance thus having a replica of the original in the target text and culture. From this point, Catford forms a concept called a 'shift' which can be called a departure or movement from the source language to the target language. This shift is what he divided into two thus, level shift and category shift. A level shift involves the situation where the linguistic or grammatical unit of the source information is available in the target language while the category shift is divided into types in order to suit different situations. According to Catford (1965), the four types are class-shifts, structure-shifts, intra-system shifts and unit-shifts. Categorically, Catford posits that these shifts are very important in establishing a good and working equivalence of the original information and received information, hence, translated text. In maintaining the exactness of the source information in the target text as pointed out by Catford and Venuti, translations of allusions are to be taken seriously. So, since the allusions deal on proper names, Richards (1985) then proposes that a proper name is a name of a particular person, place or thing. And so, they are spelled with a capital letter while playing essential roles in written information. So, during the information transfer, personal names PNs should be giving enough attention as it can be seen as the setting, social status and nationality of characters which on a great extent demands attention during rendition into a foreign language – target language. While capitalizing proper names in translation, Hervey and Higgins (1986) state that it can take shape in the following forms thus:

- i. Either the name is taken over unchanged from the source text to the target text
- ii. It can be adopted to conform to the phonic/graphic conventions of the target language.

Based on the above highlights, Hervey and Higgins (1986) called the first one *exotism* which is equivalent to a literal translation that involves no cultural transposition, while the second one is called *transliteration*. Essentially, aside from the above information, they came up with another procedure a translator can use as bedrock during rendition of movie or book hence, cultural transplantation. Cultural transplantation is what Hervey and Higgins (1986) see as replacing the source language names with the indigenous target language names that shares no same literal equivalents but, with a similar cultural meanings or flavour. In line with the following, Newmark (1988) came up with his own idea of translating PNs. People's first and surnames are transferred, and it helps to preserve nationality while assuming that their names have no connotations in the text (Newmark, 1988). However, the procedure of the transference cannot be ascertained to be effective where the implying meaning and connotations are significant. For Newmark, in a situation where there are names that bear connotations, it implies that they require a specific strategy for being translated. This is to say that the procedure for such problem is to first translate the word that underlies the source language proper name into the target language and then naturalize the translated word back into a new source language proper name (Newmark, 1988). However, in connection with the previous belief, it is discovered that there is always a limitation to this and it is evident in the sense that it is only useful for personal names PNs. This is because, the Newmark ideas did not allow the target audience to have a taste or feel the aesthetics of the source text. According to Newmark (1988) this can be done only on the condition where the character's name is not yet current in the target audience's readership. In other words, in trying to strike a clear balance and bringing solution to this, it is discovered that there are possible strategies that translators can adopt in situations under discourse - proper name allusions. According to Leppihalme (1997), they are:

- i. Replacement of the name by another:
 - a. replacing the name by another SL name.
 - b. replacing the name by a TL name
- ii. Omission of the name:
 - a. omitting the name, but transferring the sense by other means, for instance by a common noun
 - b. omitting the name and the allusion together.
- iii. Retention of the name
 - a. using the name as such.
 - b. using the name, adding some guidance.
 - c. using the name, adding a detailed explanation, for instance, a footnote.

Aside from the above strategies of Leppihalme (1997) towards effective translation of proper name allusions, the translators needed a guide towards translating key-phrase allusions, and to avoid such problems anytime they come in translation, Leppihalme (1997) came up with a nine strategy for the effective translation of the key-phrase allusions. According to Leppihalme (1997), they are:

- i. Use of a standard translation
- ii. Minimum change, that is, a literal translation, without regard to connotative or contextual meaning,
- iii. Extra allusive guidance added in the text,
- iv. The use of footnotes, endnotes, translator's notes and other explicit explanations not supplied in the text but explicitly given as additional information,

- v. Stimulated familiarity or internal marking, that is, the addition of intraallusive allusion,
- vi. Replacement by a TL item,
- vii. Reduction of the allusion to sense by rephrasing,
- viii. Re-creation, using a fusion of techniques: creative construction of a passage which hints at the connotations of the allusion or other special effects created by it,
- ix. Omission of the allusion.

In continuance with the above information, it can now be said that the problem of translating the key-phrase allusions anytime translators encounter it during any form of information transfer is solved. However, due to the other form of problems inherent in translational exercises as regards to textual translation, in order to bring an end to the possible impeding translation challenges, there are goals that are put up on this regard that the translator will look up to. On this, Chesterman (1997) states the following thus:

1. It involves text manipulation
2. It must be applied to the process
3. it must be goal oriented
4. It must be problem centered
5. It must be applied consciously
6. It must be inter-subjective - must be empirical and understandable for the readers not the person who used them.

Based on the above outlines, Chesterman (1997) implies that at first, one shall read and comprehend a text. Second, one shall analyse the discrepancy 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. Again, there are other forms of strategies that the translators can adopt while trying to have the equivalent original information in the target language. According to Chesterman (1997), they are:

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

Conclusively, when a translator tries to use the above strategies when he or she encounters problems during information transfers, it is very clear that the problems are solved because it will help in the transfer which will lead to an explicit and accurate understanding of culture specific concepts during translation as well as translating as supposed of the proper name allusions. Aside from all the above discussed views of translator's aid, there are basis that are mapped out to follow or to apply in any situation of the translational exercise, and it is the translation theory.

Toury's Descriptive Translation Study

The work of Toury (1984) supports perspective systematic descriptive analysis of any work to be translated. This is to say that theories of translation can only be developed on the basis of descriptive study of translation. For Toury (1984), it arises in the literary polysystem of the culture in which they exist. However, polysystem according to Even-Zohar (1979) is an aggregate of literary systems and a means to account for the way in which literature revolves a given culture. On the assumed belief of Toury (1984), he avoids taking a prescriptive approach to his descriptive analysis of translation.

In connection with the review above, this study shall focus on the work of Toury (1984) as well as Young and Fry (2008) as a yardstick or frameworks of the study as their focus are exactly what that will bring out the aesthetics of this study of the movie titled *Onye bu nna m*.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

From the study, it is discovered that the most suitable methodology to adopt is use of description in its design in order to account for the movie used for the study. In doing this, the researcher shall play and replay the movie in order to describe the information correctly and also, recognizing the different places capitalization are used or should set in.

IV. DATA PRESENTATION

This part of the study presents the capitalization errors in the subtitled Igbo movie. The main essence of the study is to shed light on the role of capitalization in the subtitled Igbo home movie used for the study. These errors are gotten from the subtitled Igbo movies used for the study. The errors are presented in the table below thus:

Asụsụ Igbo/Igbo language	Movie subtitled capitalization errors
Mụ siri gi butuo	I said Calm down
Mụ butuo ma mezie gini?	I should Calm down and wait to do whar then \$
Amaka biko ewela iwe o, ezi enyi m	amaka please don't get annoyed over what I just said
...hja o, mmadu a gaghi egwusakwu gi egwu ozo	...So one cannot joke with you again

A. Data Analysis

This section of the study is involved with the data analysis of the study. It shows the wrong capitalization and its correct subtitles. So, the data analysis of this study is strictly presented and discussed below in the table below based on the objectives of the study – to shed light on the role of capitalization in the subtitled Igbo home movie used for the study.

B. Discussion of Capitalization Errors

This part discusses the information in the table below as they are related or used in the study. They are as follows:

Igbo language	Movie subtitled capitalization errors	Correct capitalization
Mụ siri gi butuo	I said Calm down	I said <i>calm</i> down
Mụ butuo ma mezie gini?	I should Calm down and wait to do whar then §	I should <i>calm</i> down and wait to do what then?
Amaka biko ewela iwe o, ezi enyi m	amaka please don't get annoyed over what I just said	<i>Amaka</i> please do not be angry, my good friend
...hia o, mmadu a gaghi egwusakwu gi egwu ozu...	...So one cannot joke with you again...	...oh, one cannot joke with you again...

Based on the information in the table above, the translator was able to come up with the correct capitalization by the use of the rules propounded by Young and Fry (2008) and the systemic description of Toury (1984) in translation. The thoughts of Toury (1984) helped the translator to retell the exactness of the story line of the original information of actors in the movie used for the study as well as applying capitalization where they are required in a statement with the supposed capitalization. This helped to create a good sense of sameness in the rendition. The sense of capitalization in written information performs several functions which when it's no longer performing the role of capitalization in the sentence or word where it occurred, it will show that something is wrong and the right message will not be rightly presented. Upon this backdrops, an example shall be taking from the above table used to present the different wrong capitalization as well as their correct equivalence in the movie used for the study. For instance, *Amaka biko ewela iwe o, ezi enyi m* and it was wrongly capitalized with 'amaka please don't get annoyed over what I just said' while the translator rendered it to be *Amaka please do not be angry, my good friend*. Another example is *I said Calm down*. Based on this, it is clear that rule of capitalization made available by Young and Fry (2008) is violated and as such, a wrong capitalization is applied in the movie used for the study. In order to combat this problem, the translator subtitled it to be 'I said *calm* down' and same change occurred in the other data presented in the above table under movie subtitled capitalization errors. However, it is to be said that the translator used thoughts of Young and Fry (2008) and the systemic description of Toury (1984) to retain sameness in the information transfer of the frames - subtitles on the screen in order to be faithful with the information. So, it can be said categorically that the above table have achieved the objective of the study by providing accuracy and shedding light on the role of capitalization in the subtitled Igbo home movie used for the study which helped to avoid meaning lose through the translator's aid.

V. FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

The study discovered that there is need to avoid capitalization errors in any written information as it will help a foreign language learner of the target language to be able to understand every part of available information presented. As one of the reasons why subtitles are done, the study discovered that when talking about proper name allusions, that initial capital starts the name and as such, it makes PN to be different from the other plain words of a particular language in the function it performs in a sentence.

Conclusively herein, this study suggests that people who work in the media houses should engage the translators services or aid as it will help to make available the supposed and worth having information in the secular society in order to avoid capitalization blemishes in a subtitled information of a translated message.

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Teachers' Perception about English as a Medium of Instructions: Evidence from the Government Higher Secondary Schools of Sindh, Pakistan

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Abstract—This case study inquires the perceptions and experiences of teachers about the English as a medium of instructions at government higher secondary schools of Warah city of Sindh, Pakistan. It witnesses that a large chunk of the population is diversified to use their provincial or regional languages as destined by socio-political heritage. Because English was remained a paramount part of educational context in Pakistan during British rule. In Sindh, students learn English from their teachers at their schools, who by no means really acquire the required proficiency in the English language. The research design undertaken was qualitative in nature and revolved around the semi structured interviews. English as a medium of instruction has a daunting and remarkable role to set to be set up across the globe. The mother tongue has the supreme role to play in the organized system of social institutions, which has massive resources of linguistics pouring down to the common people in the forms of superb streams of dialects with definite code of syntax, semantics and pragmatism. The extra reading materials with the support of technology, the English lessons can play a pivotal role to give internalization and adaptation of English language as a medium of instruction.

Index Terms—perception, English as a medium of instruction, Lingua Franca, and globalization

I. INTRODUCTION

A. General Background

English, in Pakistan after its advent in 1947, has arguably remained as subject-matter of debate in its education system generally and at a higher secondary level particularly. Educational policy due to trichotomical nature at national plan with regard to languages as medium of instruction (MoI) has been divided into three languages i.e. English as lingua franca; Urdu as national language; and other third language(s) is recognized by each province. In Sindh province, either the English or the local language i.e. Sindhi have been ascertained (Canagarajah & Ashraf, 2013; Mahboob & Jain, 2016). Contextually, this study is undertaken and researched at government higher secondary schools; the MoI has been partially English and Sindhi; especially in subjects i.e. arts, humanities and social sciences. The usage of Sindhi as mentioned has been the focus of academicians to propagate the instructions just in theoretical subjects. On the contrary, the content subjects' i.e. general science, biology, chemistry, physics and mathematics can be taught in better way in English language as explored by Solangi, Sahito and Abbasi (2010) that majority of students were feeling easy and learned quickly the mathematics terminology in English. Furthermore, the mathematics teacher of Hong Kong brought strategic use of English and mother tongue in her class to shift the medium of instruction for better understanding (Tavares, 2015), which was also explored by Sahito (2007) that students of experimental study were suggested to conduct classes in mixed languages i.e. English and mother tongue.

B. Purpose, Limitations and Research Questions of the Study

The purpose of this case study research is to inquire the perceptions and experiences of teachers about the English as a MoI at government higher secondary schools through a semi-structured interview protocol, which was developed and validated by researcher(s) with the help of coauthors and some field experts. It is necessary and essential to understand about English as MoI in detail, as many researchers explored its importance to learn easily in it (Solangi et.al, 2010) in order to prepare youngsters to deal with the challenges of globalization (Wijayatunga, 2018), which can be done through the improvement of English language skills (Sahito, Siddiqui, Khawaja, Shaheen, Saeed & Laghari, 2017). Because it serves just like a body in which ideas are to be infused to make the process of instructions alive, which further explains that it is like a stuff carrier of subjects with well-designed procedure of communication. The limitation of this study was the risk management about teachers pertaining to their audio interviews especially conducted from

females because locality of the study was the remote area of Sindh province where the cultural environment was far more conservative in nature. Therefore, the situations were dealt with much sensibility and precaution in order to avoid any misconception and misinformation. Furthermore, the important timely managed statements were focused and later on detailed description was sketched. The present study was confined to only single city schools about English as MoI, which were addressed and attained; and the remedy of emerging issues was not in the scope of this research due to its delimitations. In this regard three research questions were designed to explore the answers from the collected primary data from teachers. The research questions were: (a). What are the perceptions of teachers about English as a MoI; (b). How teachers perceive English as MoI in higher secondary schools; (c). How English as MoI supports the teaching of science and mathematics subjects; and (d). How teachers experience English as a MoI to improve the quality of education at their schools?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review for this study has been done extensively by using research papers, reports, books, etc., which has been divided into two main categories i.e. English as a MoI in global perspectives and English as a MoI in Pakistani perspectives in order to understand the existing phenomenon properly.

A. *English in Global Perspectives*

English language occupies a major position among other languages of the world and known as the 'lingua franca', because of today's globalized perspective, where the world is considered and counted as a global village. Where the global village extends its areas and relations of teaching and learning from internal to external connections i.e. the support of father, mother, teachers, friends, classmates, public and media to support and appreciate learners' willingness to communicate in English (Kalsoom, Soomro & Pathan, 2020) to increase and enhance the motivation and confidence (Fallah, 2014). The importance of English language cannot be ignored due to someone's physical, personal, psychological and sociological status and contribution (Varela, Polo, Garcia & Mertinez, 2010) towards the growth and development of the world and humanity to maintain peace and prosperity, which is considered as sociopolitical demand (Mansoor, 2003). Nowadays, the demand of learning English is increasing but the proficiency of learners (students) is decreasing at all levels (Awan & Shafi, 2016) that majority of learners' proficiency is not up to the mark (Waseem, Naveed & Aziz, 2015). This condition is very much disappointing that students can't write an error free simple paragraph in their own words and even can't communicate orally, fluently and confidently (Nath, 2016). Majority of them lack in all four language skills (Dar & Khan, 2015), despite that they spend thousands of rupees monthly to learn English (Waseem, Naveed & Aziz, 2015), which make them failure to enter in to world class national and international universities to study. Because lacking proficiency in English affects deficiently on students' knowledge, understanding and grades in other academic subjects, whose MoI is English.

The usage of English language has been in an unsettled position where the majority of the population of the country has first another language (Dearden, 2014), which is debated by Allami and Naeimi (2011) that pertaining to globalization and English language have paved the way for nations to enhance their commitment and dedication. It has been clearly described in Pakistani National Education Policies (NEP) that the English language as a medium of instruction in government schools must be implemented (NEP, 2009; NEP, 1998-2010). The country utilizes English as a MoI for the school curriculum, teaching and assessment because of the great need for its people to be connected to the rest of the world (Mohamed, 2013), which can be confirmed from the Pakistani diversifications in terms of linguistics with the rate 0.802 on Greenberg Index. This diversification on the Greenberg Index can be calculated from the population of every language as a proportion to their aggregate population. It witnesses that a large chunk of population is diversified to use their provincial or regional language as destined by socio-political heritage. English has remained paramount part of educational context in Pakistan, which has been described by the Education Ministry of Pakistan (Education, 2009) that 68.3% of public sector schools have Urdu as the MoI; and 15.5% institutions in Sindh use Sindhi as MoI; while 10.4% educational institutions use English as a MoI and the rest 9.5% use other languages as MoI. It is crystal clear from the above statistics that teaching or instructing in English (foreign language) can be ambiguous and impedes students' comprehension; and on the other hand it ends the level of language of teachers directly casts impressions upon the quality of education (Lei & Hu, 2014).

Mathematical, scientific and technological subject discourses are mainly based on research journals and magazines (Halliday, 1998; 1993), which replete their own mode of communication (Crandall, 1987). They propagate some other things than the needs as Halliday and Martin (1993) explored that the students learn words of different languages but apply the concepts of another language in their lives. In this connection, Sherer (2009) added that the most of the scientific texts are the persons' explanations that are literary support and available in their styles. The available scientific researches and texts are difficult to those who are just aware of the general idea behind the text. Others learn English from their teachers in low fee schools, who by no means really acquire proficiency in the English language, which are ghettoized in job market and never reach lucrative jobs. Because, the language policy in Pakistan is multi-cultural but as ordained by the constitution 1973 that the official language in Pakistan is English, and 77 more languages are talked across the country and 72 are regarded as indigenous and other 5 languages are linked with

immigrants (Ethnologue, 2016). The linkage shows the importance of language as a medium of instruction to acquire the knowledge and its understanding to resolve the issues and problems in daily life routines (Solangi et al., 2010).

B. English in Pakistani Perspective

English is taught as a compulsory subject from primary to University in Pakistan, where the failure in English means failure in all other subjects, which is essential for achievement and success of all concerned academic subjects (Ozowuba, 2018). For this success, the growth and development of English medium schools in urban and rural areas of Pakistan is increased day by day (Aftab, Sheikh & William, 2014) based on the demand of acquisition of English language (Aftab, 2012), which has been witnessed from the findings of Zohrabi, Sabouri and Behroozian (2012) that most of the students in the world work hard to acquire English language proficiency for their bright future success through inspirational communication skills (Kumar, Ahsan, & Negi, 2017). English proficiency and computer skills are most common requirement of jobs in Pakistan, publish in job advertisements, and consider the basic requirements of success in educational and professional career (Nunan, 2003, p. 605).

In Pakistan, many local languages are used as MoI in the remote educational institutions that have obstacles for students to communicate fluently in the lingua franca of the country. Thus, it has put them on discriminatory role of state owners to deploy them in official services. English as MoI only in metropolitan cities has divided the society in factions in terms of competency leading to class stratification. In order to avoid the problems, English teachers should have a concerned educational qualification, expertise, and proficiency in English language to communicate well their contents of lesson, which are the necessary requirements of English teachers to be well versed in English linguistic aspects (NEP, 2009; 1998-2010) to manage their classroom properly. Moreover, teachers pose questions fluently to students and in return get feedback and use different types of assessment in order to assess their students properly and authentically (Freeman, Katz, Garcia Gomez, & Burns, 2015). Research on English as MoI has manifested that low language competence affects deeply upon the teaching styles, learning contents and consequently limited language expertise and adversely affects the classroom interaction, explanation, and illustration (Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Coleman, 2006; Hahl, Järvinen & Juuti, 2016; Margic & Vodopija-Krstanovic, 2017; Mauranen, Hynninen & Ranta, 2010; Vinke, Snippe & Jochems, 1998). Weakness on the part of the teacher can lead to difficulty for him or her to improve in the class, adapting students' needs by the lessons and skills to rephrase the contents of subjects. The students' who lack English language proficiency require more knowledge, skills and disposition to discuss their lessons within their classes to improve their English language competency (Jabeen, 2010), and confidence. Perception and attitude of stakeholders is a strong connection towards code switching ability of students to design discipline peculiar language capabilities that shadows upon their ability to contribute and learn (Dreyfus, Humphrey, Mahboob & Martin, 2015).

In spite of the policies framed in the favor of mother tongue or regional language has not been implemented throughout the country. In exception to Sindh, approximately half of the area covered by Sindhi language and on the other hand no uniform policy is prevalent in the province, which is segregated in terms of civic sense ascribed by the concept of the country side or the metropolitan cities. Across the country English language is on the board, whereas local or regional languages have been internalized as social and cultural ghettos (Rehman, 2003). No country can comply with the remote dialect to be the medium of instruction. It is quite difficult for the students to perceive and imagine the phenomenon with other sensory organs (Rehman, 1997). In china a massive number of people are in favor of the English and deem it suitable for their kids to be imparted and taught as a global language, which highlights to understand the importance of the scientific books, journals, economy and other universal activities (Xiaoyang, 2014) in detail.

III. METHODOLOGY

The research design under taken for this study was qualitative in nature and revolved around the semi structured interviews, conducted from twelve English teachers. The interview protocol was made, reviewed and refined by authors themselves. For further modification, authenticity and credibility, the interview protocol was sent to two field and language experts. After finalization of protocol version, the approval was taken for piloting and then permission from the heads of the respective educational institutions for data collection. The bird's eye view and out lines about subject matter of the research were given to the employed sample in order to get authentic, reliable and accurate primary data with regard to the research problem (Sparkes & Smith, 2014; 2009), which were further inquired with demeanor and dealt with amicability. The research questions were asked in soft manner that the cluster of characteristics was shown with social relationship. Furthermore, the awesome tactics and strategies were set to meet and comply with the criteria that paved the way for reliable, valid and usable study (Smith, Sparkes & Caddick, 2014).

In this sort of case study, the thematic-narrative analysis was made, whereas this type of analysis was more appropriate to have the personal ideas in the form of self-explanatory narratives. These narratives were replete with the valuable and remarkable experiences and experiments that work at individual relationship and experiences to obtain so far. Fascinating interaction with all stakeholders of institution was at ease to be executed. For those, who are concerned with instructing, teaching and learning process through English as MoI, were provided with necessary information to have the glimpse of overall logical effects of the study. The pivotal concentration of the study was to maintain topical

richness and loftiness; its utility to the existing literature; its organization in objective manner; its proclamation to the proposed data; requisite of the topic; and its compliance with size of the sample (Tracy, 2010).

The prime aim of this research was to collect, analyze and evaluate the data through thematic-narrative analysis, which was provided as tool to its transcriptions. The interviewed participants' were twelve (12) in number and structure was semi in nature. The number ranges from 1 to 30 and 40 (Creswell, 2012), in order to get desired objectives at optimum level. The process of conducting semi-structured interviews is viewed as much more productive to investigate about the research topic that has tinge of personal perspectives. The interviews conducted were of prime importance where the ambit was designed to articulate the perceptions about the usage of English as a MoI. Reflections of all teachers were deemed as suitable indicators and elements of the research asset. Thus primary data for the research was taken from six male and six female employed in the boys and girls higher secondary schools respectively. The themes were produced through the process of recording, selecting, coding and analyzing the primary data of the participants.

IV. RESULTS

The interviews' sub-themes were incorporated into larger and comprehensive themes to give them proper shape as per professional experiences of teachers. By means of face to face talks that yielded to be productive for the study to analyze the primary data in its culmination in the form of main themes.

A. *Perception of Teachers about English as Medium of Instruction*

It was aptly remarked by teachers that Perception is the one of the faculties of the mind to observe the phenomenon with regards to English language and then to comprehend and give fruitful meaning to the observed linguistic objects. This is the general aspect of the English language and all English teachers were differing in their stance towards the English as MoI. Almost teachers were of the view that in spite of cultural, social, and economic restraints, English has played a vital role while giving exposure to teachers and the students at the global level, especially in the field of science, education, economy, politics and technology. Few of teachers were of the opinion that those students and teachers who have close social, cultural and ethnic affinity and proximity with their native languages are made vulnerable to violate in terms of second language acquisition.

B. *English as a Medium of Instructions at Higher Education Level*

Teacher (T-2) was of the view that "most of useful tools that had enabled and empowered teachers in terms of proficiency and communication within the English are learnt very well at higher education level". Whereas, the teachers (T-12) said that "It is as an overmastering language, which is being talked by almost 60% of population in more than 70 countries of the world, who also recommend the English as official language at their higher education level, especially for research degrees". It has opened new horizons and opportunities to those who have good English back ground. Teacher (T-8) added that "the learners seek the information with regard to subject matter to develop and boost the confidence and morale level. Communication, arts, and technical experience are only possible to coin and create when the confidence level of the learners is at optimum level that is going well at graduate and postgraduate levels". Teacher (T-9) drew the attention towards "the learners who have good access in the English comprehension and linguistic terminology are supposed to be the part and parcel of 21st century education. The teachers are resource persons to familiarize students about the inevitable role of English language in the scientific, technological and mathematics subjects". Teacher (T-4) further extended the discussion and said that "the teachers convey the ideas in order to manipulate the technical information by means of activities and workshops. In wake of time and efforts that are concerted and centralized to meet the tuff task of second language acquisition in schooling of future generation, because English is the language of 21st century".

C. *English as a Medium of Instructions at Basic Education Level*

Few of the interviewed teachers were of the view that English as MoI has cast bad impression upon the psyche of the students at basic and elementary level. As teacher (T-7) added that "the students from different backgrounds in terms of language, culture and adaptability to the specific environment are not at ease to use English as MoI at the school level". While, teacher (T-11) revealed that "I convey my ideas and discourse either in regional or Sindhi language to impart education to the students. I found my students happy and relaxed when they understand well to be capable to grasp of the notions and concepts with their applicability in the society". Teacher (T-6) further added in this regards that "most of the developed countries use their native or regional language as MoI in order to have students taught in natural setting where English works little". Teacher (T-3) has shown grave concern about the English as MoI and stressed that "ethnocentric ideas pertaining to regional languages and insisted much that learners must be instructed in the regional language. China, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Italy, Japan, Korea, Netherland, Norway, Russia, Sweden and Switzerland are the major countries who have their mother tongue as MoI". He, further, expressed that "it would be unjust and unfair to our native language as it is being treated on disparity basis to instruct in foreign language. Policy makers should make major local languages compulsory for the process of teaching and learning in the subjects whether they are in theoretical or content in characteristics". Teacher (T-5) made conviction to use regional language as MoI and suggested that "literary translation of the linguistics, art, social and natural sciences into regional language should be

done on priority basis for the sake of enhancement of local language repository". Teacher (T-1) went on saying that "it is the first and foremost duty discharged by government or the state owners to get the educational subject matter translated and published into the regional language(s) while making it enriched and glorious for the development of the country. To use the second language as MoI is against the committee report of the UNESCO, which indicates that children's own language should be MoI because of its validity in the aspects of cognition, educational psychology and lingual order".

D. English as a Medium of Instructions in the Perspective of Lingua Franca

After mutiny in 1857 Britain got hold of subcontinent made the region operational in terms of activities and it was only possible when they did it through English language as their strategy to maintain the decorum and law and order in the sub-continent. They replaced the Persian language with English to propagate their message. Pakistan had remained the part of British colony. Teacher (T-10) remarked that "most of the literary legacy inherited to Pakistan was in English language, after the foundation of British rule in this sub-continent, the rulers used English as MoI not only in the education but also in other domains of governance across British subjugated areas in the region. Teacher (T-5) has aptly remarked that "English language has led towards the concept of British imperialism in the form of linguistic and cultural imperialism. Thus English ridden as MoI was more political move rather than educational process to oblige the British rulers and to maintain their right in the enslaved sub-continent".

E. English as a Medium of Instructions to Promote Globalization

Teacher (T-11) explained that "English as MoI has daunting and remarkable role to set to be set up across the globe. It is high time for its globalization. The modern age is era of science and technology, which has alluring and persuading objectives to develop and design the technical terms of scientific domain and business jargons well in English". Owing to this trend and tendency, which has over whelming influence upon the mentality and mindset of the person living in consumers' world? Teacher (T-2) further added and pointed out that "English language has become mass media, in which an English language teacher have paved the way to support the learners of mathematics and science subjects by means of application of objects in cultural context to demonstrate well in the daily life of individuals".

F. English as a Medium of Instructions in Arts and Humanities

Teacher (T-3) delineated that "MoI may be considered as a concept, phenomenon and may be both. English as a MoI in subjects i.e. arts, humanities and social sciences has been regarded controversial and ambiguous because our native languages can afford the linguistic standard and role to carry the message of culture, religion, ethics and other societal traits of our society". Teacher (T-5) underlined that "we have historical and ideological references and our province is rich in its super civilization of Indus valley. We have our sustainable script that is deep rooted into our primitive and splendid social system along with radiant fabrics of institutions. Our own language can foster dual roles, firstly, in written prescription and secondly, in spoken format, thus, it can be rather better to have communication through the media". Teacher (T-5) further added that "our mother tongue has the supreme role to play in organized system of social institutions. We have massive resources of linguistics pouring down to us in the forms of superb streams of our dialects with definite code of syntax, semantics and pragmatism".

G. Teachers' Experience about English as a MoI to Improve the Quality of Education

Teachers' shared their experiences in detail about the English as a MoI; especially teacher (T-12) said that "English as a MoI is suitable to meet the demands of millennium goals in order to stand the other nations of the world, which is a requirement of the global village. It's very difficult for teachers to cope with the problems and issues of the phenomenon". The problems and issues were described by another teacher (T-9) in detail that "teachers don't have an appropriate qualification(s) to deal with the issues and problems of MoI in a proper way to maintain the quality education. The majority of the teachers' possess degrees in English literature not in linguistics". This discussion further enlarged by another teacher (T-5) that "Bachelors or master's degrees in English with linguistics specialization play a highly effective role to upgrade the phenomenon of English as a MoI, which supports teacher and students to plan, deliver, and learn their lesson in a scientific and systematic way". The quality education was further described and supported by another teacher (T-2) that "MoI can play a vital role to maintains, manages and enhances the quality of education through improving the English language skills of the students and teachers, because teachers need continuous professional development training in their concerned field of specialization to lead their students in a proper and authentic way". Teacher (T-7) further explained the phenomenon and focuses that "good English teachers and books play a pivotal role to maintain quality education because both are important for MoI to improve the competency level of students and teachers. Students learn from their teachers and classmates through having a good grip and expertise on their book. Teachers learn from their senior teachers, management and organizational environment(s) through attending and conducting different activities i.e. training, conferences, discussions, etc." Conducting and attending different activities play important role to increase the confidence level of teachers and students.

V. DISCUSSION

This case study is multiple embodied cases, which has manifested the instructional and language-related problems and challenges in the Pakistani context by the mechanism adopted to analyze the perceptions of teachers and students. This is disparity and inequality that English as MoI has been produced because of social, educational, and cultural diversity, prevalence throughout the Sindh province of Pakistan. Schools in the urban areas of metropolitan cities are having the teachers with much proficiency in the English language, whereas, schools in remote areas such as in the case of the researched schools don't have with mastery over English. They are not provided the opportunities to avail from the workshops, training, and other linguistic courses in order to be proficient in English. Due to teachers' incompetency it has made students average in their performance. Thus it has become mandatory to make teachers efficient in English before you may aspire to so well conversant and adopted in the process of instruction held in the English language as MoI.

The perception of teachers' about English as a MoI was found directly connected with the quality and effectiveness of instructions used worldwide concerned with language policy and planning (Kirkgoz, 2014). Because universities and higher education institutions are considered as the knowledge development industries to facilitate the communities through particular and specialized types of education and training to increase the number of highly qualified professionals (Hall & Rosenberg, 2010). It can be done only within the strong relationship of contact and competition with the rest of the world to increase the globalization and internationalization (Healey, 2008) with the materialization of English as the principal instructional language of science and technology (Ammon, 2001) in 21st century. The instructors' perception of English as the MoI was studied by Collins (2010) at a private university in Turkey and the study revealed that the majority of the instructors and teachers were found in the favor of English as a MoI. Only 41% of students agreed that English should be their MoI, while others were found in the fear of studying in English, which bring their lowered grades and success.

The positive and negative dimensions of English as a MoI were identified from the students' perspectives in the Thai higher education system by Hengsadeeikul et al, (2012). The positive dimensions were explained as the enhancement of English language proficiency is essential to increase and advance the communication skills to gain strong social prestige for better employment opportunities. While the negative dimensions were defined as the English language creates a huge burden on the students' comprehension to understand the instruction and day to day class and study activities. This same issue was also discussed by Hashimoto, (2013b) that the status of English as a MoI in Japanese educational policy documents has not yet been clearly and officially formalized, which is a crucial point to make decisions positively for strong and sustainable internationalization education. It is only the facilitation towards the co-existence of the national language with English (Hashimoto, 2013a).

English as a Medium of Instructions in arts, humanities and social sciences is also a consideration of prime attraction to understand and learn new knowledge through different books and research studies, which were confirmed from the finding of the study of Coşkun et al, (2014). The findings explored that pre-service teachers have received a profound understanding and highest scores in English and the settlement of classroom management issues (Gökyer & Özer, 2014); and the effect of the anxiety of foreign language on learning (Tunçel, 2014), who switch from mother tongue to another language later. These statements clearly defined and explained with proof of its findings that English as a MoI provide a wide range of opportunities to the individuals globally. Those people face problems and issues who don't have access, exposure and experience with English as a MoI in their earlier stages of study and learning at their schools. Later, they may overcome these problems and issues with their dedication, commitment and hardworking to stable and retain their knowledge, skills, and dispositions to become successful to avail global opportunities. In the two schools where the respondents showed signs of imbalance between the English within the school and outside the school revealed and indicated the widened gap lying between cramming and understanding the English language. In respondents' schools English as MoI has not made the mess to the extent as the artificial environment has done. Here students don't realize the significance of the English as MoI in their daily life routine. The two schools don't have a body of hard and fast rules or the standardized parameters that can suggest so much ratio of English usage within the class and outside the class of the researched schools.

During the implementation process of English as MoI, it has put on itself the question mark and shown so many challenges and pressing problems. Though development done by it can't be denied, the solution to these challenges and problems have not been fully sorted out (Suviniitty, 2012). It is of core significance to pinpoint the vital experiences and attitudes from the perception gained by all stakeholders (Tatzl, 2011). Teachers are partially divided into their perception of English as MoI. Our social, lingual, cultural, and educational diversity has influenced them to have the positive and negative perspective regarding the English, some of them expressed their point of views about it as perfect means and media to seek the development in all sectors of the society through this organized and globalized language. They stressed that teachers with effective management and sheer hard work can prosper and raise the present status quo of education. The teachers should perform an inspirational role to encourage students to mold them into a modern prototype or model of schooling. That is only possible, when all the educational stakeholders put their heads together to develop a conducive environment to overcome as such language barriers. Teachers have to be familiarized with the significance of English as MOI. they should consider it the bilateral process that promotes the learning of students and on the other hand develops the future of the society. They the teachers take it as positive in the context of evaluation that serves to intensify the linguistic skills. Teachers are well acquainted with the importance of English and its impact

upon the educational ambit. The English has a broad way forward to act as a middle end between learners and science and technology. On the contrary other teachers as respondents of study incline the mother or regional tongue used as MoI. They are of the view that English as MoI has beset teachers and students with difficulties in the process of real and lifelong learning rather than rote learning. They believe that indigenous language can cater job of conveying and imparting the instructions in as such language. The usage of the English language has also created problems for bilingual teachers to get learners to understand the concepts of things clearly. And it is not for the just sake of outcome desired so far.

For maintaining quality education, the mixed methods approaches would be used that mother tongue as a medium of instruction is the best solution for a lower level of schooling with English language learning flavor and English for tertiary level of studies to deal with research and its commercialization. Quality education can be achieved through two main intervention i.e. the quality books and quality teaching. Quality books can be made and published when quality writers and publishers work properly in the field. In this connection different studies have been done in Pakistan i.e. the significant differences were found in the perception of students' and teachers' about English Textbooks of higher secondary level in the province of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan to explore the effect of given contents on students' English language proficiency (Khan, Khan, Hayat, Ahmad & Raza, 2020). Textbooks are used as a primary source by English teachers to teach in their classrooms, which are considered an essential tool in any language classroom (Tabassum, 2018). Textbook contents address the needs, interests, and requirements of students (Angulo, 2014), which are never taken into consideration in Pakistan through need or situational analysis (Shah, Majeed, Waheed, & Anjum, 2013). That's why; the majority of the male and female teachers were found not satisfied with the quality of textbooks taught at the higher secondary level (Shoukat & Ghani, 2015). Therefore, it is concluded that the language learning must be interesting and interactive to learn through performing some activities (Tomlinson, 2010), which are to be designed through giving due consideration to the needs and requirements of targeted learners and teachers, and language learning principles before textbook development (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2010) that are preferred by the majority of teachers for their class preparation (Tomlinson, 2008, 2010). The quality and language of published books in Pakistan were found not up to the test of the students and teachers. Low quality of books, pedagogy, inadequate teaching materials (Khan & Khan, 2016; Mansoor, 2003), lack of proper training and ineffective and outdated teaching methodologies and practices (Maldonado, 2018) were found major factors that are equally responsible for students' lack of proficiency and poor results in their subject of English. Therefore, they failed to promote linguistic skills among students, because of no balance among all four language skills (Lodhi et al., 2019).

The extra reading materials with the support of technology i.e. the English lessons can play a pivotal role taken by teachers to give internalization and adaptation of the English language as MoI that will resultantly provide the interactive platform. Reservations about the historical imposition of English upon the people of this region can be clarified with awareness among the masses using media that English has been inevitable in its role in the field of education. Teachers can avail from resource persons with the help of directed road maps as envisaged for the merger of the English language along with the support of socio-political programs. After getting training and attending workshops conducted by governmental departments on English competency, English teachers should be deputed in researched schools where there is a dearth of English language proficiency. Separate English training centers should be launched to facilitate the teachers as well as students, and these centers should be aimed at delivering assistance of material and non-material stuff. Those teachers who teach other subjects than English academic subjects should be given proper guidelines acquired through training to make them capable of conveying the information to the students in a more productive way. Through demonstrations and activities teachers can add in conceptualized learning. In vernacular or regional languages such as Sindhi in respondent schools, the humanities, arts, and other social science subjects should be taught to improve their language skills. The use of ICT in primary training courses should be implemented and made mandatory.

VI. CONCLUSION

Based on the collected data and its analysis and interpretation it is concluded that the teachers and students wanted to learn their scientific subjects i.e. science, mathematics, technology, etc. in the English language to remain updated with the global world for their bright future. Many teachers and students want to go abroad for higher studies, which can be achieved through learning the English language. Therefore, they try their level best to learn their subjects in English from their school-age but they feel many issues and challenges in their regular learning routines to work well and be satisfied and motivated as Sahito and Vaisanen (2018) found that the English language competency increases the satisfaction and motivation level of teachers. Whereas, teacher satisfaction is directly concerned and connected with students' satisfaction and motivation to bring good results in the majority of the learning domains. However, it is further concluded that the English language competency or proficiency has a huge motivational power to create an interest among teachers and students to work hard for their success and lifelong learning to increase, improve and enhance the quality education (Sahito & Vaisanen, 2018). The English language competency or proficiency of teachers and students can be improved through good teachers, books, environment and organizational input.

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Narrative Features in *The Lady in the Van*

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Abstract—*The Lady in the Van* is about the odd friendship between Bennett, a writer, and Miss Shepherd, an eccentric homeless woman. This paper intends to discuss the narrative features of the film version from David Bordwell's three dimensions (narration, plot structure and story world) of film narrative. The film presents us with a unique point of view, a seemingly disjointed but implicitly connected plot structure, and a story world in which the characters have their own goals to achieve. Bennett and Miss Shepherd have got to know each other better in fifteen years. Miss Shepherd is Bennett's guide in life, teaching him how to write and how to get along with his mother.

Index Terms—narration, plot structure, story world

I. INTRODUCTION

Alan Bennett's *The Lady in the Van* was originally a short autobiographical memoir published in the *London Review of Books* in 1989. In 1999, Bennett adapted the story into a two-act play. Dan McIntyre, a British cognitive stylist, based on Fowler's (1977) work on mind style, argues that Miss Shepherd's flawed inductive in the play shows a deviant mind style and also uses Harris' (1984) sociological notion of paradigms of reality to analyze the mind style (Dan McIntyre, 2005, p. 21). McIntyre, based on the study of Emmott's (1997) contextual frame theory and Ryan's (1991) approach to possible worlds, develops his modified version of deictic shift theory (DST). He thinks that the impossible occurrences in the play can be explained, which can reveal how the playwright Bennett in the play is able to create innovative and interpretatively meaningful viewpoint effects throughout the play. (Dan McIntyre, 2006, p. 185)

On the basis of McIntyre's study of the point of view in the play, this paper intends to explore the narrative features of the film version of *The Lady in the Van* from David Bordwell's three dimensions (narration, plot structure and story world) of film narrative. The film version was produced by BBC Films in November 2015, directed by Nicholas Hytner and starring Maggie Smith and Alex Jennings. The film tells the story of a cranky, homeless woman Miss Shepherd who spends 15 years on the driveway of Bennett's house in Camden, London, England, in the 1970s. Bennett provides her with a temporary shelter, and the town neighbors offer their help in the guise of kindness. Social workers offer their sympathy and care. However, Miss Shepherd is still ungrateful for what they have done for her. With a unique point of view, complex plot structure and several embedded story worlds, the film gradually reveals the past of a gifted lady. Lurking beneath the surface of her madness we find her reason, her obsession with music, her devotion to God, her profound knowledge of family relationships. Looking back on her lonely and miserable life, Bennett touches on the repressed humanity.

II. NARRATIVE FEATURES

A. Narration

Narration is the moment-by-moment flow of information about the story world. (David Bordwell, 2008, p. 90) The study of narrative films treats film holistically. (David Bordwell, 2008, p. 94) The symmetries between openings and closings suggest that narration is a system that's put into motion across the whole film. All the factors we normally associate with narration - play with the order of events, shifts in point of view, and voice-over commentary - shape our overall experience. (David Bordwell, 2008, p. 95)

At the beginning the film, a van is driving down the road and there is a loud crash. The driver does not stop. When the van turns to a fork in the road, there is a patch of blood on the front window. The frightened driver pulls away again and a policeman watches the van leave. At the end of the film, Miss Shepherd appears before Bennett, along with the young lad who was killed in the opening scene. Throughout the film, she always thinks that she is to blame for the accident, and thereafter lives in fear of arrest. It turns out that the young lad on a motorbike comes around a corner too fast and smashes into her vehicle. It is not her fault. The opening and the closing form a complete narration.

The events in the film are trivial but closely related, reflecting the British society and people's spiritual world at that time. The film revolves around Miss Shepherd, Bennett and their neighbors. The neighbors don't want her to live near their house. Miss Shepherd always moves her van and becomes the discordant voice of the street. A beat-up van seems to be a real eyesore. She often goes out in her car and seems to know some places in London. She often goes to church to confess. Miss Shepherd is a regular shopper who lives a very full life. But it's weird. She can even speak French fluently. Social workers pay a regular visit to her and bring her some clothes. But She is very choosy about the clothes

they send and thinks that green is not her colour and dumps the green coat. The events described in the film are thus revealed to the audience bit by bit. Her weird reactions are all about her past. The audience begin to know the story of her youth in the 1970s: she was the virtuoso pianist Alfred Cortot's pupil and has to go over to Paris for lessons. She used to practise all day long. The nuns put a stop to that. The mistress of the novices told her that she could not play the piano, it's God's will. She should not argue, she'd never make a nun if she argues. Her practising had become praying.

Li Xianjie (1999) points out that the narration of "I" in films can be divided into "outside" and "inside". The inside "I", as both a narrator and a character (the protagonist), is presented in the film and participates in the narration of the events (p. 279). The focus of the narration of inside "I" is mainly the character's reaction to the event, feelings and how to deal with the state of mind and behavior, and the emphasis is on pouring out the "inner voice" (p. 280). Bennett in the film belongs to the inside "I" and often uses voice-over (narration or internal dialogue) to develop the film.

As for the shifts in point of view in the play version, McIntyre uses AB1 and AB2 in the play to refer to two different Bennetts, namely the character and the narrator. When readers read the play, they may find it hard to determine which Bennett is speaking. McIntyre uses the revised version of DST theory to explain the complexity of point of view when analyzing the play. Deixis refers to pointing or situating. Nina Nørgaard, Rocío Montoro and Beatrix Buss (2017) think that the notion of deixis can be understood both in a literal sense ('pointing in space', 'pointing in time', 'pointing in discourse') and in a metaphorical sense ('placing in the social scale' or 'situating yourself psychologically and emotionally'). (p. 97) DST is less concerned with establishing the ways in which spatio-temporal parameters (among others) are marked in language but more with the cognitive repositioning into the story world of fiction that readers are able to experience (p. 92). The core concept of DST is the deictic center and refers not just to a speaker or hearer's location in space and time, but also to their position in a social hierarchy. (Dan McIntyre, 2006, p. 92) As for how to distinguish AB1 from AB2, McIntyre gives a detailed analysis of some scenes according to AB1 and AB2's personalities. We may refer to the linguistic cues provided by AB2 and know that AB2 starts a new deictic field for AB1 but still stays there with AB1 since AB2 has defined the parameters of his deictic field by giving us the temporal and spatial co-ordinates of his deictic center. Readers' default deictic field in the Actual World will have decayed significantly and they will focus on AB1's deictic field, making it primed as well as bound. (p. 165)

In the film version, it is not so difficult to determine the shifts in point of view. It is rather interesting when we see AB1 and AB2 are conversing with each other. Maybe we can say it is rather ironic if we know the loneliness of Bennett and his relationship with his mother "Mam" whose affection almost smothers him. However, he can get along with Miss Shepherd and tolerate her. How to distinguish these two Bennetts? We may judge by how they dress. At the beginning of the film, Bennett who wears a shirt, as a writer, sits at a typewriter and types what he thinks about Miss Shepherd's various odours. The narrator's voice-over continues as Bennett looks up and sees Miss Shepherd coming down the stairs after using the lavatory. Bennett stands up and says, "Tell her." Then the scene changes to the outside, and Bennett who wears a sweater tries to negotiate with Miss Shepherd about her habit of using the lavatory, but in vain. Miss Shepherd thinks that the lavatories on the bottom of the High Street smell and she is by nature a very clean person. Later he comes back and looks rather helplessly at the other Bennett who wears a shirt. The voice-over continues: the writer is double. There is the self who does the writing, and there is the self who does the living. And they talk. They argue. Writing is talking to oneself. And I've been doing it all my life. A writing self and a living self can also be viewed as the writer-who-writes and the writer-who-lives. They live in the same house and accompany each other, the writer-who-lives often converses with Miss Shepherd and provides material for the writer-who-writes. In the real life of the film, AB1 or the writer-who-lives is always there and communicates with Miss Shepherd. AB2 or the writer-who-writes is a narrator who is always an onlooker and never appears in front of Miss Shepherd except for the last scene. Later we will discuss this point in the part of story world.

B. Plot Structure

Bordwell (2008) argues that the term *plot structure* can mean many things and it can refer to the way in which the *syuzhet* is patterned in itself, without regard to the strategies by which the narration presents the *fabula* information. (p. 102) He mentions Kristin Thompson's revision of film structure in his book: **Setup section, Complicating action, Development, Climax and Epilogue**. The Setup section endows the protagonist with a set of goals; the Complicating Action recasts or even cancels the initial goals and ends with a new set of circumstances governing the action; the Development ends with a piece of action that puts the achievement of goals into a crisis; the Climax is the final section in which the protagonist definitely achieves or doesn't achieve the goals and often followed by an Epilogue, which asserts that a stable situation has been achieved. (p. 105)

The **Setup section** of the film tells the story of the audience in the 1970s enjoying the elegant music played by the orchestra in London's Gloucester Crescent. Bennett, as a writer, is writing his play on a typewriter about Miss Shepherd's various odours, a mixture of elegance and poverty. The scene cuts to five years ago when the agent took him to see a house for sale and he first saw this house.

Then we have the **Complicating section**. The film is about Bennett's relationship with Miss Shepherd. Neighbors often resentfully look at Miss Shepherd when she takes turns camping out at their respective doorways. Some people send pears from their garden in Suffolk and snacks to her, but she does not appreciate it. Mrs. Vaughan Williams gets some information about Miss Shepherd and suggests that Bennett put Miss Shepherd into his play, but Bennett disagrees. Miss Shepherd's conversation with Bennett often violates some basic conversational rules. Miss Shepherd

has her own channel of communication, that is the Virgin Mary. Everything is in the name of God: as for parking the van, she has guidance from the Virgin Mary, she also follows the tips on Christian Parking. Bennett can't communicate with her and sometimes he teases her about her god's ability to solve practical problems for her. Bennett thinks that she is talking gibberish when she mentions that there may be a gray snake which is keeping close to the wall and is headed for her van. But to his surprise, the snake appears in her neighbour's house the next day. Bennett's mother talks about the massive birds on the wall and he thinks that she is imagining things but later sees four peacocks from the hall lined up on the garden wall. He makes a connection between his mother and Miss Shepherd and cannot understand them. They are just like a deluded woman standing at the northern and southern gates of his life. When Miss Shepherd hears the music played by children in her neighbourhood, she thinks that they are making too much noise. She wants to change cars, painted yellow and covered with the union flag with the Queen's portrait. And she is constantly harassed by a man who calls her Margaret. Is she Mary or Margaret? Bennett plays the music deliberately, but it offends Miss Shepherd.

It's about 50 minutes when the **Development** section starts. The mystery will gradually unravel. Miss Shepherd has introduced herself to a social worker as Mary, but Bennett doesn't know Miss Shepherd's name. The social worker thinks that they lack communication and suggests that he call her by her name and talk things through. Bennett refuses the social worker's suggestion and thinks there is no through, it is impossible to talk things through with someone who has conversations with the Virgin Mary. Miss Shepherd drives freely, walks along the beach, eats free cookies at the senior citizens' club and enjoys her favorite melodies. The scene cuts to an intersection where Miss Shepherd is on her knees confessing. Bennett is very worried about the long absence of the elusive Miss Shepherd, fearing that it would be the end of the story. Miss Shepherd suddenly appears from behind him and startles him. She is angry with him for having opened her van door without permission. To her, it is her private place, the untouchable place. Miss Shepherd spends her days shopping in a wheelchair. She even offers some insightful observations and thinks that he is using her mother and should be ashamed of himself. Later she says she has to go to mass and it is an anniversary and a day of obligation. Someone who died is purgatory and needs her prayers. Bennett becomes truly involved in Miss Shepherd's life and turns to nuns in a convent for help. He thinks that they could help the ailing Miss Shepherd, but the nun refuses to help a difficult woman. However, Miss Shepherd is unkind to Bennett who has helped her a lot. When the social worker views him as a carer for Miss Shepherd, he reacts angrily to that reference. He thinks that it is ungrateful of Miss Shepherd. He says that he isn't a carer and he is here, she is there. There is no caring. Bennett also says he has coped with this woman on a daily basis for the past 15 years, she is a bigoted, blinkered, cantankerous, devious, unforgiving, self-serving, rank, rude, car-mad cow.

When Miss Shepherd is about to die, the staff member at the day center, not sick of her soul smell, carries her to the car. Bennett thinks that there is a vagabond nobility about her when she slowly rises above the level of the garden wall. She looks like a derelict Nobel Prize winner. Her grimy face is set in a kind of resigned satisfaction. She is given a good bath and also plays her favorite tunes. However, the scene of playing the piano suddenly cuts to her lying in the van. Miss Shepherd tells Bennett something from the bottom of her heart that may be the **Climax** in the film. She recalls her past and thinks playing comes easier than praying. She can play in the dark, C major, D minor. The keys are like rooms: dark rooms and light rooms. Music is like a mansion. She doesn't understand why people are supposed to avoid it. The confessor tells her that is another vent devil could creep through. So he outlaws the piano and puts paid to music generally. He says dividends would accrue in terms of growth of the spirit. They shake hands and say their farewells. And then the **Epilogue**. The dead Miss Shepherd shows up at the cemetery and makes a new friend, the young man she didn't run over. The film ends with her ascension.

C. *Story World*

Bodwell (2008) thinks that the story world of includes its agents, circumstances, and surroundings (p.90). Based on Ferdinand Brunetiere's saying, a novel might center on characters who merely respond to external circumstances, stage plays demand a character who vigorously pursues his or her desire. Hollywood and other film industries also have this model and human beings tend to seek the intentions behind every action and to recognize that society is riddled with clashes between individuals, all eager to fulfill their own needs. (p. 117)

McIntyre (2006) uses the term "frame" narration proposed by Richardson (1988) to analyze the position of AB1 and AB2 in the play. AB2 has two identities, the narrator and the character. The first level is about AB2, the narrator who is outside the framing fictional world, communicates with the audience, sometimes returning to the framing fictional world to speak to AB1 and Miss Shepherd. The second level is within the framing fictional world where the character AB2 is writing about his experiences with Miss Shepherd before she dies, and we as the audience can see AB2 writing, reading to us. The third level is the most central part, belonging to the embedded fictional world, where the character AB1 communicates with Miss Shepherd, the social worker, and others. (p. 162) In analyzing the discourse structure of the play, McIntyre (2006) points out that there are four levels of communication: one-way communication between the playwright and the real-life reader or audience; one-way communication between AB2 as the narrator and the reader or viewer; one-way communication between AB2 as a character and AB2 as a character in a diary or notebook, since the play itself is a fictionalized account of Alan Bennett actually writing a play based on Miss Shepherd's life and AB2 is effectively addressing himself when he writes up his notes on Miss Shepherd in diaries and notebooks; bi-directional communication between the characters AB1 and AB2 and Miss Shepherd and the other characters. (p. 8)

The story world in the film is discernible and closely resembles McIntyre's analysis, though it is not easy for the audience to see the various levels of communication. At the outermost level is the real world: Alan, the real author in the real world, appears on the screen. Bennett is shooting a scene about unveiling a blue plaque on the wall of the house where he lives and his introduction to Miss Mary Shepherd, none odder or more remarkable than her. The plaque reads "Miss M. T. Shepherd" and "The Lady in The Van" lived here 1974-1989. The audience then withdraw from the film and know this is a story created by a playwright named Alan Bennett. It's a one-way communication between the director and the audience.

The second level is a one-way communication between Bennett and the audience. As the narrator, Bennett tells the audience a story about his friendship with Miss Shepherd based on the process of creation of his book. At the end of the film, the audience know that the writer Bennett has published a book, entitled *The Lady in the Van*. This is a response to Bennett's recollection of the past as a writer at the beginning of the film.

The third level contains several levels of communication which are interwoven together: **firstly**, there is a two-way communication between writer-who-writes and writer-who-lives. The opening says that the story is mostly true, so what are the fictional elements? We may know this point at the end of the film, Miss Shepherd's sudden appearance at a cemetery startles Bennett who is mourning her death. Miss Shepherd asks him if she is still at the center of the story. At that moment, Bennett, the writer, appears, holding a book and wearing a slightly different coat. In the real life, it is impossible for the two Bennetts to appear in front of Miss Shepherd at the same time. However, Miss Shepherd says: "There are two of you now. Is that because you're in two minds?" She gets different answers from two Bennetts: Yes and No. As for Miss Shepherd's return from the grave, McIntyre (2006) explains that this seemingly impossible occurrence can be explained by the theories put forward in his book: the reader/audience moves not only between deictic fields but also between the alternative possible worlds of the TAW. (p. 185). We know that when the book is published, the two Bennetts exchange their views on the subject. At the end of the film, the writer-who-writes is gone, leaving the writer-who-lives alone. They become unified. **Secondly**, there is a bi-directional communication between Bennett, Miss Shepherd and other characters. It is also the best perspective for the audience to understand agents, circumstances, and surroundings in the story world. Bennett, the narrator or the writer-who-writes, is present throughout the film, just like AB2 moving back and forth between the fictional worlds of McIntyre's framing fictional world, and the viewer follows his point of view and gets to know the woman who lives in the van.

Miss Shepherd comes to Camden with plans of her own. She abandons her sinful name, Margaret and changes her name to Mary, but keeps it from Bennett. Bennett calls her Miss Shepherd, but the social workers call her Mary. This may imply that Miss Shepherd intentionally distances herself from Bennett and makes their friendship last for fifteen years. She is a paradox and at odds with her surroundings. She is self-employed, not a beggar. When people praise her, she is angry. She thinks she is sick and will die at any moment. She is looking for a last resting place, somewhere to lay her head. She has escaped from the Asylum which cannot imprison her soul, which is adrift, nowhere to put, and even becomes cognitively deviant. She cannot maintain a fixed abode but has a temporary habitat or the van. It is Bennett that accommodates her. Bennett is a writer who gets material from the real-life Bennett, often using his mother to tell stories in a monologue form. Bennett thinks that there is a painful symmetry between them, homeless, seemingly mad. Miss Shepherd is always at ease, and Bennett's respectable mother ends up in a home in Weston-super-Mare. He thinks that putting his mother in a home is some sort of failure, giving the other a home, that is a failure, too. The two Bennetts often communicate with each other. When will they be unified? It turns out that finally Bennett's writing comes from life and touches the real humanity after he contacts with Miss Shepherd. Bennett thinks that Miss Shepherd teaches him that you don't put yourself into what you write. You find yourself there. Maybe that's the essence of the film.

The film is not about Bennett's kindness but reveals an oddity and ironically describes the British society and its people at the time: callous, selfish, contradictory and ridiculous. The gentle middle-class neighbours live in a mansion but cannot have a deep insight into life like Miss Shepherd. They have only a nodding acquaintance with Bennett, while Miss Shepherd can be his true friend and help him improve his relationship with his mother "Mam". His company soon awakens his mother who may sleep away all the time. The film is not aimed at preaching esoteric philosophy, instead presents a kind of eerie mother-child bond. The seemingly nutty Miss Shepherd is a guide in Bennett's life, teaching him how to write and how to get along with his mother.

III. CONCLUSION

This paper has given a detailed analysis of the film version of *The Lady in the Van* from three dimensions put forward by David Bordwell. As for the narration, the writer Bennett uses voice-over or as a narrator tells us his odd friendship with Miss Shepherd. The plot structure follows the traditional film structure but reveals a inextricably interwoven plot. The story world is also complex and contains many levels of communication. When the audience enter the story world, they are led by the narrator and witness the interaction between two Bennetts, Miss Shepherd and other people.

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Youth Culture and EFL Students' Development of Integrative Motivation

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Abstract—The aim of this study is to examine the role of the habitual use of English mediums (English T.V programs and English websites), being informal learning contexts, in Syrian non-English majors university students' development of integrative motivation. Furthermore, this study aims at highlighting the importance of integrative motivation in foreign language acquisition whether for teachers, learners or language policy makers. Results showed that the students professed positive attitudes towards learning English in general and a good level of integrative motivation. Furthermore, resorting to correlational formula has proven that students' habitual use of English mediums do have a role in developing integrative motivation especially viewing English T.V programs. It was also noticed that the students' integrative motivation did have a positive influence on their achievement in the English language course. The most significant implication of this research is that once learners realize that they could use English for self expression, as a desire brought on by the impacts of the international *youth culture*, they will be more integratively motivated to learn the language.

Index Terms—motivation, integrative motivation, instrumental motivation, youth culture, attitudes

I. PURPOSE OF STUDY

The aim of this study is to examine the linguistic and cultural effects of globalization on a group of Syrian non-English major university students. Mainly, it will analyse students' attraction to youth culture and its effects on their integrativeness (being a composite of integrative motivation to learn English). Thus, the study will focus on students' habitual use of English multimedia, being popular amongst youth, and its role in students' development of integrative motivation. In addition, this study will highlight the importance of integrative motivation for the students' language learning process.

Thus, this study will seek to fulfil its aim by:

- 1- Examining students' habitual use of English multimedia (being informal learning contexts).
- 2- Assessing students' integrative motivation.
- 3- Establishing a link between students' linguistic achievement and their integrative motivation.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *The Socio-educational Model of Gardner, 1985*

It is quite well known that the process of language learning is basically a "social event". This has been the primary reason that has led researchers to focus on the "social dimensions" that could have an effect on language learning motivation (Dornyei, 2001). Researchers have become quite aware of many issues that could be related to the area of language learning motivation. One of these important issues is that of "language globalization" (ibid). Thus, some social psychologists Like Gardner, became interested in studying the motives behind this socially originated phenomenon. Gardner's model comes as the result of a long examination of other models. Therefore, it is more refined and universal.

Gardner's model focuses on individuals' cultural and social context. This is because it was common that some English societies do not believe or encourage learning another language. In addition, it has also been notable, as Baker (1992) states, that the American community holds a philosophy of "assimilation of minority cultures and languages". This means giving a much superior status to their own language and culture over others. This could explain the spread of a global culture that basically carries the American stigma.

Gardner's model examines four major variables that represent individual differences. These variables are "language aptitude, motivation, integrativeness, and attitudes towards the learning situation". It is obvious that these variables are affected by the "cultural and social" context of individuals (Gardner, 1979).

The model distinguishes between "formal" and "informal" language acquisition contexts. The formal context is represented by a typical "class room" in which the main goal is to become fluent in the target language. Whereas the informal context is when an individual "watches a foreign film, listens to foreign radio programs", uses the internet and read English materials only for the sake of entertainment.

As stated by Gardner (1985), motivation and language aptitude have a key role in informal learning contexts in the sense that they are the factors that attract an individual to listen or watch foreign programs. However, Aptitude is not of

main concern in the present study because as stated by Gardner (1983), it is motivation that takes over aptitude to a large extent in the learning process.

The model highlights two predicted outcomes. These are “linguistic and non linguistic” out comes (Gardner, 1985). Linguistic outcomes are exemplified by “pronunciation, vocabulary, and fluency”. Non linguistic outcomes are represented by newly acquired “cultural values and beliefs, attitudes, and self-concept”. These later outcomes will be the prime focus of the current research. It should be noted that linguistic outcomes in particular, keep “feeding” back into the model. In other words, watching a foreign film or listening to foreign radio programs affects motivation; which in turn affects “continual classroom experiences” and other informal learning contexts in a non ending “cycle”. The following diagram is adapted from Gardner (1983), and summarizes the components of the model. (See figure 3.2).

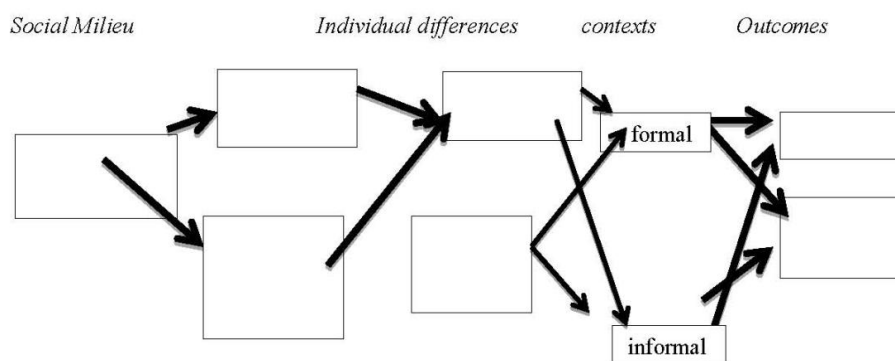


Figure 1. The socio-educational model (Gardner, 1983)

B. Integrative Motivation

Clement, Dörnyei & Noels (1994:5) define integrative motivation as the following:

A positive interpersonal/ affective disposition toward the L2 group and the desire to interact with and even become similar to valued members of that community. It implies an openness, and respect for, other cultural groups and ways of life; in the extreme, it might involve complete identification with the community (and possibly even withdrawal from one's original group). Thus a core aspect of the integrative disposition is some sort of psychological and emotional identification.

Clement ...et al (1994) seem to be concerned with the language learner's social and psychological state. This is because learners seem to be strongly affected by the target language “cultural group”. Thus, they develop a need to “interact” with that group or adopt its cultural norms because of a personal attraction. These learners are most likely to put forth immersive efforts to learn the target language in order to fulfil their need and desire of integration. This state of integration could be classified into two types according to the kind of outcomes it brings about whether positive or negative. If the integration process originated from a disposition that represents “openness” and “respect” for other speech communities and their culture, then it is most likely to be a positive integration. This kind of positive integration will probably facilitate the language learning process. However, a negative integration would be represented by an over rated attraction and favourability of the target language and its culture and a “gradual withdrawal” from one's native language and its culture. In relation to these types of integration, comes the role of the *youth culture* which has been discussed in chapter 2 (pop culture). This role is mainly concerned with attracting *youths* and consequently driving them indirectly in the path of foreign language learning, namely English.

C. Baker's Language Attitude Model, (1992)

Baker (1992) was concerned with distinguishing the most influential variables (whether direct or indirect) on language attitudes. Thus, he proposed a model depending on an “input and output equation” of attitudes. In this equation he considers “gender, age, language background and school” as inputs while “language attitude and language ability” are considered to be outputs. Baker has exemplified his proposal of this model with the following diagram:

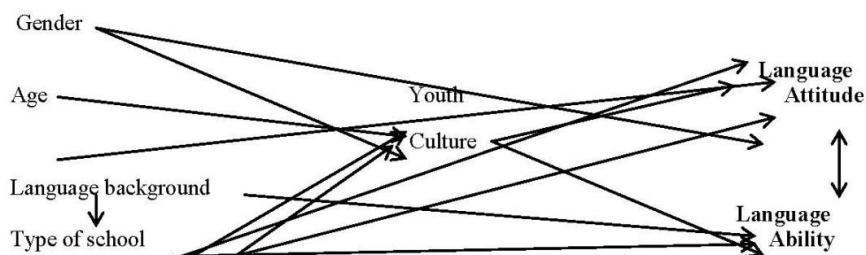


Figure .2 (Baker, 1992)

In his model, Baker (Ibid) points out a possibility of the choice of school type being influenced by the language background of the students. Consequently, the four variables (gender, Age, language background, and type of school) are most likely to affect “the kind of youth culture being experienced” i.e. whether a popular or a local culture. Indirectly and through youth culture, which has a direct effect on attitude, the above variables tend to have an influence on language attitude. Whereas, the two outputs ability and attitude have a “mutual” influence on each other. Baker describes his model as “dynamic” and evolving. He applies this description even to the two variables of gender and school choice which might be considered as fixed inputs. He explains how there are some aspects of gender, e.g. “how an individual perceives himself from a Masculine/ feminine perspective”, which are considered to undergo “changes” and development constantly. The same applies to the variable of school choice. Even if the school is taken as a fixed “physical property”, how a student perceives school and the experience he had are both “subjected” to change. Furthermore, *youth culture* is also subjected to “change” as students move on in their “teens and youth years”. Eventually, the ultimate goal that Baker seeks to fulfil is to construct and present a language attitude model that reveals the major social and linguistic elements that affect and constitute attitudes.

D. The Present Study and the Conceptual Framework

This study has adapted a convergence of both Gardner’s (1985) and Baker’s (1992) models. Both models employ the elements of culture and linguistic abilities. However, Gardner’s model is mostly structured on a motivational point of view with a dominant aspect of integrativeness. It analyses the factors which contribute to the formation of students’ integrative motivation and the overall effects on students’ second/ foreign language acquisition and achievement. On the other hand, Baker’s model has *youth culture* as the vital centre of his model which has a great effect on another major component which is language attitudes. Although Baker’s model was basically structured to study language attitudes towards indigenous and “nearly perished” languages like Wels, in contrast with other prominent and popular languages like English, this has not made it exclusive to such linguistic cases. On the contrary, Baker’s model was quite useful to many researchers e.g. Dewaele (2005) and Lamb (2004) in highlighting the significant role of *youth culture* in the formation of language attitudes regardless of the cultural and linguistic milieu. Thus, comes the rationale for the convergence of Gardner’s and Baker’s models.

With regard to the present study, the international *youth culture* has been given a primary role. This is because it is a major element of attraction which affects youth’s language attitudes, increases their integrativeness and encourages them to use *English multimedia*. In addition, multimedia in its turn, being a source of informal contact with English and an informal language learning context, affects language attitudes and integrative motivation. Consequently, integrative motivation influences learners’ attitudes towards the English language course and thus affects their linguistic achievement.

Thus, it is evident that this research perspective of informal learning contexts runs against Gardner’s proposition that considers learners’ involvement in informal learning contexts as part of the entailed consequences of integrative motivation but not the cause (Gardner, 1983, 1985).

It should be noted that the current study did not include the variable of age nor type of school because all of the participants belong to the same age group and the same major (Science).

III. RESEARCH TOOL

The main and basic tool of the current study is a questionnaire of 93 items, 3 of which are demographic statements, No (1, 2, 3). The rest of the items are classified into 14 scales that are intended to cover the research problem, questions and hypotheses. This questionnaire is based on the AMTB (the attitude motivation test battery) (Gardner, 1985) and on the attitude and youth culture questionnaire (Baker, 1992). However, some items have been modified according to the sociocultural context of the study. In addition, items regarding (reading habits) were omitted due to proficiency reasons. It should also be noted that the questionnaire was conducted in Arabic (the students’ native language), in order to avoid any incidents of miscomprehension.

The Construction of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of two parts. The first part is related to demographic information (gender, age, academic year, and parents’ educational level). The second part of the questionnaire consists of the following 14 measurement scales. It is important to note that the word “foreign” in the questionnaire was explained to the participants as another equivalent to “English”.

1- Attitudes towards native speakers of English: this scale consists of 9 statements (items: 4-12).

It assesses students’ attitudes towards native speakers of English from different perspectives e.g. sociability, humour, sophistication, respectability and superiority.

2- The effect of interaction with native speakers of English: 1 statement (item: 13).

3- English T.V programs viewing: 4 statements (items: 14-17). This scale evaluates the preference of English programs over others taking into consideration certain kinds of English programs. In addition, it assesses the frequency at which the viewing habit takes place.

4- Attachment to English T.V programs: 3 statements (items: 18-20). This scale evaluates the reasons that make viewers attached to English T.V programs.

5-Effects of watching English T.V programs: 3 statements (items: 21-23). This scale evaluates the societal, psychological and linguistic motivational effects that English T.V programs have on their viewers.

6-Internet use: 5 statements (items: 24-28). This scale evaluates the preference of English websites over others with regard to certain kinds of websites and the suitability of English as a major language used on websites. In addition, it assesses the frequency of usage.

7- Fashion & western culture: 2 statements (items: 29-30). This scale evaluates students' interest in keeping up to date with the latest western fashion and their desire to practice some western cultural habits.

8- Personal perceptions towards learning English: 9 statements (items: 31-39). This scale evaluates students' beliefs and gains from learning English with regard to the following points: acquiring a respectable educated and distinguished self image, being able to socialize in western cultural events, and personal satisfaction.

9- Instrumental motivation: 11 statements (items: 40-49). This scale evaluates students' perspectives about the need to learn English with regard to the following points: peers' influence, enjoy ability of the learning experience, and sociable and academic benefits.

10- Attitudes towards learning English: 4 statements (items: 50-54). This scale assesses the feasibility of the learning process, the priority of the English subject in comparison with other subjects, and students' desire to further their English skills even after graduation.

11- Attitudes towards the status of English in the world: 6 statements (items: 55-61). This scale evaluates students' attitudes towards English as a language with regard to its significant role in social communication, developments, and scientific discoveries.

12-Attitudes towards the required English language course: 6 statements (items: 62-67). This scale evaluates students' perceptions towards the required English course with regard to its importance, clarity, excitement and the required effort to study it.

13-practical steps of improvement (motivational intensity): 12 statements (items: 68-79). This scale assesses students' actual behaviour while aiming at improving their level of linguistic proficiency. In the current questionnaire, the students' acts of improvement were represented as follows: talking to foreigners whenever possible, classroom participation, joining extra curricula activities, doing homework and studying regularly, and asking the teacher when in need.

14- Uses of English: 14 statements (items: 80- 93). This scale assesses students' frequency and attitudes toward the use of English in different circumstances e.g. with friends, family, in class, self expression, shopping, speaking of science and inventions.

This questionnaire depended on a five point likert scale to measure responses limits according to the following table:

TABLE I

Response	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Degree	5	4	3	2	1
Limits	4.2_<	3.4	2.6	1.8	1

The questionnaire was statistically analysed using the SPSS program. It has proven to be valid, when reviewed by specialists. This is because it fulfils the research aims, answers the research questions from a statistical descriptive point, and endorses the hypotheses. These points will be clearly notable in the final chapter. In addition, the questionnaire was also proved to be reliable with a total Cronbach's alpha value of 0.835. Thus, the questionnaire is said to have an internal consistency and homogeneity amongst the scales and each scale is said to consist of homogeneous clusters of items.

IV. PARTICIPANTS

The participants are a group of 88 second year students at the faculty of Science -Damascus University. These students belong to the age group of (19 to 21) years old. There are two main reasons behind the choice of such a group of participants. First, these students were chosen from the faculty of science because it is almost factual that students of this faculty have a general average level of English. Second, the reason why the selected group happened to be at the second academic year is to eliminate any other factors that may affect students' perceptions. If the selected group happened to be of first year students, there is a chance of adjustment issues interference being freshmen students. Consequently, this might have certain effects on students' opinions. As for not choosing third or fourth year students, it is because these students will be attending more specialized and complicated courses of English.

The total selected group is divided into two independent sub- groups. The first sub-group consists of 30 male students, with a percentage of 36.1% of the total group. The second sub-group consists of 53 female students, with a percentage of 63.9% of the total group. There is a missing value of 5 students who didn't specify their gender, with a percentage of 5.7%. The following diagram represents the total group of participants classified according to gender.

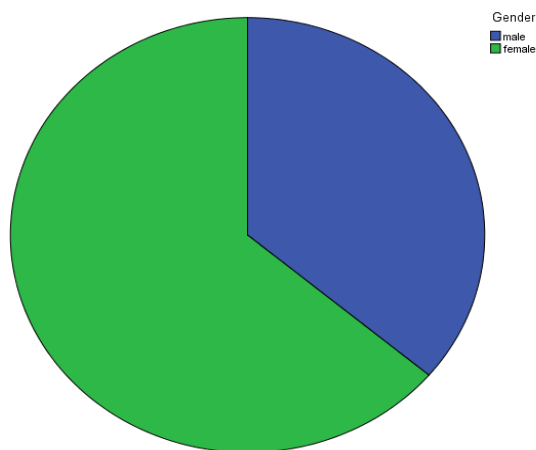


Figure.3

TABLE II.
SAMPLE'S GENDER PERCENTAGES

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	30	34.1	36.1	36.1
	Female	53	60.2	63.9	100.0
	Total	83	94.3	100.0	
Missing	.	5	5.7		
Total		88	100.0		

V. ANALYSIS OF MEASUREMENT SCALES

Each measurement scale as a whole, is considered an independent variable. This could be explained by the fact that each scale tend to represent the participants' independent personal opinions. As for the dependent variables, this questionnaire has presented a single dependent variable which is the required English language course. The results obtained from each measurement scale will be presented and discussed in the following sections.

A. Attitudes to Native Speakers of English

Students' attitudes towards native speakers of English are said to be concerned with different aspects of native speakers' characters, e.g. social and practical sides. Thus, results showed that the students have feelings of respect for native speakers of English, with a percentage of 30.7%. The students also agreed that native speakers of English have a good sense of humour with a percentage of 28.4%; and a kind and sociable nature with a percentage of 20%. In addition, 48,9% of the students agreed that native speakers of English are educated. Furthermore, the students professed their admiration of native speakers of English with a percentage of 20.5%. Moreover, 29.1 % of the students agreed that native speakers of English are sophisticated. Consequently, 38.6% exhibited a desire to meet –get acquainted- with native speakers of English. However, 33.7% didn't associate any superiority with the English speaking communities over speakers of other languages. Finally, an overall evaluation of the statistical analysis of this measurement scale showed that the students in general have positive feelings towards native speakers of English with a percentage of 34.42% (Mean:3.02/SD: 0.84).

B. The Effect of Interaction with Native Speakers of English

The results confirmed the positive effect that interaction with native speakers of English might have on the students. With a percentage of 46%, the results showed that the students strongly agreed that the more English speaking people they knew, the more their desire to learn English increased. This measurement scale has a mean value of 4.25 and a standard deviation value of 0.90.

C. English T.V Programs Viewing

Results showed that 46% of the students strongly agreed that they prefer watching English T.V programs to others (Mean:3.32/SD:1.29). As for the frequency of the students' viewing activity, the results presented a variety of the students' viewing habits: daily viewing 23%, every other day 26.4%, monthly 23%, and never 21.8%. The students who professed a daily habit of watching English T.V programs exhibited different lengths of viewing time (49.1% spend 1 hour , 36,8% spend 2 hours, 1.8% spend 3 hours, 5.3% spend 4 hours, 7% spend more than 4 hours).

With regard to the most preferred type of English T.V programs, statistical analysis presented the following results:

48.8% of the sample preferred watching English films, 23.8% preferred cultural programs, 10.7% preferred English songs and 6% preferred English series. Thus, the most popular type of English Programs, is films.

D. Attachment to English T.V Programs

Many reasons have been found to justify the sample's attachment to English T.V programs. These reasons had the following percentages:

46.6% of the students agreed that they like English T.V programs because they represent a source of inspiration and offer new visions and ideas. 26.1% of the students agreed that some of the English T.V programs characters help them create an attachment to these programs. In addition, 34.5% of the students stated that they like English T.V programs because of their exciting and influential stories. In general, 35.74% of the students agreed that they are attached to English T.V programs because of the novelty of their ideas and attractive characters (Mean: 3.45/SD:0.82).

E. Effects of English T.V Programs

English T.V programs have proven to have many effects on their habitual viewers. These effects appear to be mostly positive when considered from the participants' perspective.

20.5% of the sample group agreed that the act of watching English programs makes them feel excited and attracted to the foreign life style. 10.5% of the sample agreed that watching English programs makes them forget about their personal problems. 43% of the sample strongly agreed that watching English programs makes them love the English language and motivates them to learn it. In conclusion, 22.3% of the students agreed that watching English programs have positive effects on their lives (Mean:3.03/SD:0.86).

F. Internet Use

The students showed a good degree of preference for English websites over Arabic ones with a percentage of 30%. It is also worth mentioning, that about 60.2% of the students agreed that English is the most suitable language for internet websites. In addition, the students exhibited different habits of internet use according to the frequency of usage and the periods of time spent. As it was noted, 26.5% of the students use the internet on a daily basis, 6% use the internet every other day, 21.7% tend to have a weekly usage, 13.3% have a monthly usage, and 32.5% of the students did not profess any internet usage. The most important usage rates, are those pertaining to daily and weekly usage. Furthermore, it turned out that those who stated a daily usage of the internet, spend different periods of time according to the following percentages: 16% for one hour of usage, 7.4% for 2 hours of usage, and 1.2% for more than 3 hours of usage.

As for the types of preferred websites, the following results were obtained: 61.1% of the students preferred scientific websites, 15.3% preferred entertainment websites, 12.5% preferred using email services, 6.9% preferred using general knowledge websites, and 4.2% preferred using chat services.

Students' significant preference of scientific websites is due to their academic major.

G. Fashion and Culture

The students' involvement in the international youth culture, could be detected in their attraction to trends, inventions, and western cultural norms. This is more properly stated by the following percentages: 37.9% of the students are keen on keeping up with the latest foreign trends and inventions. In addition, 19.5% of the students agreed that they like practicing in some foreign cultural norms and habits. In conclusion, 28.73% of the participants showed a preference for foreign trends and cultural norms (Mean:3.02/SD:0.91).

H. Personal Perceptions towards Learning English

Results analysis has yielded a variety of the students' perceptions towards learning English, with regard to the different effects it has on their personalities as individuals. These are represented by the following percentages:

27.9% of the participants agreed that learning English makes them more respectable by others. 50% of the students strongly agreed that being familiar with two languages makes them a better person. In addition, 83.9% of the students agreed that learning English makes them feel more educated. 24.4% of the students stated that learning English makes them able to participate in foreign cultural customs and traditions. Furthermore, 72.7% agreed that learning English makes them feel special.

65.9% stated that learning English gives them self satisfaction. 53.16% of the students agreed that learning English elevates their consciousness. Moreover, 51.6 % agreed that learning English makes them feel more civilized. 31.8% of the students said that learning English gives them a sense of renovation. All in all, 36.53% of the students agreed that learning English has positive influences on them as individuals (Mean: 3.59/SD:0.53).

I. Instrumental Motives for Learning English

The participants showed different instrumental reasons for learning English as apparent in the following percentages:

49.4% of the students agreed that learning English is an exciting experience. 36.15% agreed that learning English is sufficient enough not to learn other languages. 67.1% agreed that learning English will be the key to expand their knowledge and scientific resources. In addition, 48.14% agreed that learning English will make them more appreciative of western art and literature. 81.6% agreed that learning English will facilitate any transactions with foreigners. In conclusion, 75% of the students seem to exhibit a high level of instrumental motives to learn English (Mean:2.19/SD:0.38).

J. Attitudes towards the English Language Learning Process

The students exhibited different attitudes concerning learning English as presented in the following percentages:

39.5% of the students agreed that learning new skills in English is a difficult task. 35.2% agreed that studying the main courses, which are more related to their major, has more priority when compared to studying for the English language course. In addition, 51.2% strongly confirmed their will to further take and improve their English language learning even after graduation. In general, 60.64% of the students appeared to have positive attitudes towards English (Mean:3.22/SD:0.49).

K. Attitudes towards the Status of English

With regard to the students' attitudes towards the status of the English language, the following results were obtained:

48.9% of the students agreed that English is the most important language in the world. 33.14% agreed that English is a must for countries' development. Furthermore, 20.9% agreed that English is a sophisticated language and reigns supreme in the world. 25% agreed that English must spread –reach- to all of the societies in the world. In addition, 37.6% agreed that English is the language of science and discovery. 46.16% agreed that English is a rich language. 22.6% showed their favourability of English being the primary language of the world. In general, 37.64% of the sample had positive attitudes towards the present status of the English language (Mean:2.94/SD:0.07).

L. Attitudes towards the English Language Course

The students' attitudes towards their English language course varied according to the following percentages:

67.9% of the students agreed that the English language course is one of the basic and important subjects of the curricula. 66.6% agreed that the contents of the course are good and useful. In addition, 38.15% agreed that the course contents are exciting and interesting. 45.4% approved of the course contents clarity; while 33.14% agreed that the course contents are complicated. 71.13% agreed to the efforts required to study and pass the English language course. Finally, this measurement scale had a general mean value of 3, 44 and a standard deviation value of 0.05.

M. Practical Steps of Improvement (Motivational Intensity)

There are many practical steps that could enhance the students' level of proficiency. The percentages of the students which have an actual application of these steps, are presented as follows:

76.8% of the students confirmed their will to use English to communicate with foreign neighbours. 45.8% confirmed their regular participation in the English language lecture. In addition, 51.7% stated their will to join an English language club if it was available at their faculty. 52.9% confirmed doing their English assignments with care and attention. 74.13% confirmed that they are keen on correcting any mistakes in their English assignments. Furthermore, 68.6% stated their habit of asking the course instructor when facing any difficulty. 44.8% confirmed doing extra curricula activities in relation to the English language course. 17.14% agreed that they study only in amounts that enable them to pass the subject. Moreover, 71.7% stated that they study in amounts that enable them to pass with high marks. 14.9% agreed that they depend on luck to pass the English subject.

63.9% confirmed doing regular revisions of their English lessons. In conclusion, 49.26% of the students appeared to apply practical steps of improvement to enhance their English language proficiency (Mean:3.26/SD:0.37).

N. Use of English

The results showed different percentages of the students' views towards using the English language in their lives. These percentages are presented as follows:

61.13% of the students stated their acceptance of using English in their daily lives along with Arabic. 25.6% confirmed using English with their friends. In addition, 23.14% confirmed using English with their family. 48.14% stated their use of English only in the classroom. 30.6% of the students only use English when travelling. Furthermore, 34.13% use English when discussing scientific issues and inventions. 19.8% stated their use of English to express themselves. 26.4% confirmed their use of English when lacking the courage to say something. Moreover, 17.9% confirmed their use of English while shopping. 32.10% agreed that using English makes them more sophisticated. 25.12% agreed that using English makes feel more like in a western atmosphere. However, 30.9% stated their preference to use the language of the visited country rather than English. Thus, 31.24% of the students appear to have positive attitudes towards the use of English in their lives (Mean:2.80/SD:0.05).

O. Gender Differences

Depending on the t- test, analysis showed that there is no difference between males and females attitudes. This result is ascertained by the t- test value which is 0.067. Since this value is higher than 0.05, then it approves the above mentioned result. Using the F-test –one way Anova-, with a value of $0.286 > 0.05$, results showed that there is no difference between the participants' attitudes in relation to their fathers' level of education. In addition, the F- test- with a value of $0.708 > 0.05$ - also proved that there is no difference between the participants' attitudes in relation to their mothers' level of education.

VI. POSSIBLE CORRELATIONS AMONGST MEASUREMENT SCALES

Using "Pearson" correlation formula amongst the questionnaire's items and sections, some major correlations were discovered. These relations will be detailed in the coming sections.

A. Correlations of Attitudes towards the Status of English

According to data analysis, students attitudes towards the status of English showed some significant correlations as presented in the following table:

TABLE III

Scale	r	sig
Attitude to native speakers of English	0.333	0.21
Attitudes to the English language course	0.303	0.006
Practical steps of improvement	0.420	0.00
Use of English	0.521	0.0
Effects of English T.V programs	0.324	0.003
Interaction with native speakers of English	0.372	0.001

The highest correlation value was with the (use of English) scale. This might indicate, that the higher the status the learners ascribe to the English language, the more frequent their use of the language becomes.

B. Correlations of Internet Use

There is a correlation between participants' use of the internet and other measurement scales of the questionnaire as shown in the following table:

TABLE IV

Scale	r	sig
Attitudes towards native speakers of English	0.347	0.006
Personal perceptions towards learning English	0.251	0.024
Attitudes towards the status of English	0.376	0.001

As it is shown above, the highest correlation value is that with the students' attitudes towards the status of English scale. This might indicate that the more the students use the internet (English websites), the more positive their attitudes get. On the other hand, the lowest correlation is that with the scale which measures personal perceptions towards learning English.

C. Correlations of Personal Perceptions towards the Learning of English

Analysis has proved an existing correlation between students' personal perceptions towards the learning of English and other scales as shown in the table below:

TABLE V

Scale	r	sig
Attitudes towards native speakers of English	0.255	0.02
Internet use	0.251	0.024
Fashion	0.254	0.023
Interaction with native speakers of English	0.377	0.00
The status of English	0.534	0.0
Instrumental motives	0.255	0.20
Practical steps(motivational intensity)	0.309	0.005

Analysis has revealed that the highest correlation value is that with the scale that measures students' attitudes towards the status of English. However, the lowest correlation was with the English and internet usage scale. Thus, it could be said that the higher the status the students assign with English, the more positive their personal perceptions get towards the learning of English.

D. Correlations of attitudes towards Native Speakers of English

The students' attitudes toward the Western society have shown positive correlations with some measurement scales as presented in the table:

TABLE VI

Scale	r	sig
Interaction with native speakers of English	0.293	0.006
Effects of English T.V programs.	0.577	0.00
Attachment to English T.V programs	0.488	0.0
English and the internet	0.266	0.013
Fashion	0.357	0.001
Watching English programs	0.285	0.009

The highest two correlations are those with the scales which measure effects of English T.V programs and attachment to English T.V programs. Therefore, it could be concluded that the more the students are attached and

affected by English T.V programs, the more positive their attitudes get towards the western society. It is worth adding that the most influential types of English programs are those of films (mean:3.64/SD:0.63) and series (mean:3.77/SD:0.66). On the other hand, the least influential type is that of pure cultural programs (mean:3.24/SD:0.58). English Films and series tend to have quite an impact on the participants' attitudes towards the western society more than pure cultural programs. This could be explained by the fact that implicit cultural messages are more influential than those who are explicit as mentioned in chapter (2).

E. Correlations of Interaction with Native Speakers of English

Interaction with native speakers of English has shown some correlations with other scales as displayed in the table:

TABLE VII

Measurement	r	sig
Motivational intensity	0.237	0.029
Use of English	0.339	0.001
Effects of English T.V programs	0.275	0.01
Attitudes towards native speakers of English	0.389	0.0

As presented in the table, the highest correlation value is with the scale which measures attitudes towards native speakers of English. It might be concluded that the more frequent the interaction with native speakers of English is, the more positive the attitudes get.

F. Correlations of Attitudes towards the English Language Course

Attitudes towards the English language course have correlations mainly with the motivational intensity scale and the scale which measures English T.V programs effects. This might be summed up by the fact that positive attitudes towards the English course would eventually lead to a more intensive state of motivation in order to achieve a desired level of proficiency. As for the effects of English T.V programs; they are mainly represented by developing a desire to learn the language of these programs (English) and fostering positive attitudes toward the required English language course. These effects are represented in the following table:

TABLE VIII

Scale	r	sig
Motivational intensity	0.327	0.002
Effects of foreign T.V programs	0.228	0.043

G. Correlations of Motivational Intensity

Motivational intensity (practical steps of improvement) has shown a high correlation value with the language usage scale, as presented in the table.

TABLE IX

Scale	R	sig
Use of English	0.359	0.001

This high correlational value could mean that the more intensive the students' motivation is, the more frequent their language usage gets.

H. Correlations of English T.V Programs' Effects

English T.V programs effect has shown some correlations with a number of scales. The highest correlational value was with the scale that measures attachment to English T.V programs as presented in the table.

TABLE X

Scale	r	sig
Use of English	0.313	0.003
Attitudes towards native speakers of English	0.341	0.001
Attachment to English T.V programs	0.555	0.00

Thus, it could be concluded that the greater the attachment, the higher the effects.

I. Correlations of the Use of English

The language use scale has many correlations with other scales. However, the highest correlation value was with the scale that measures fashion and cultural attachment. This means that the increase in the rate of the language use tends to occur whenever the students express or show a high degree of attachment or involvement in western cultural activities, occasions, and the latest fashionable trends. This could mainly be due to the existence and spread of *youth culture* which encompasses all sorts of trends and fashion that attracts young people. This could explain the low correlation value of instrumental motivation which gives support to the research hypothesis that the students are being more culturally and integratively oriented. Correlational values are presented in the following table:

TABLE XI

Scale	r	sig
Attitudes towards native speakers of English	0.274	0.01
Attachment to English programs	0.299	0.005
English and the internet	0.265	0.014
Fashion & culture	0.470	0.0
Instrumental motivation	0.285	0.007

J. Correlations of Fashion and Culture

The measurement scale of fashion and culture has four correlation values. However, the highest value is that with the status of English scale. This means the more the students are culturally immersed the more they ascribe a high status to the English language.

TABLE XII

Scale	r	sig
Personal perceptions of language learning	0.254	0.023
Instrumental motivation	0.280	0.009
The status of English	0.347	0.002
English programs effects	0.260	0.016

VII. CONCLUSIONS CONCERNING MEASUREMENT SCALES CORRELATIONS

The most significant correlation values amongst measurement scales are those related to students' habit of watching English T.V programs, their attitudes to native speakers of English, and the fashion and cultural attraction.

It was perceived that the degree of students' attachment to English T.V programs, controls to a great extent the amount of affect those programs might produce. The most prominent effects of watching English T.V programs and developing a strong attachment to them, are those pertaining to the students' attitudes towards native speakers of English and their attitudes toward the status of the English language. Watching English programs, is most likely to make the students develop positive attitudes and attraction towards western societies. In addition, it increases their appreciation of English being the language of global communication.

It was also discovered that students' positive attitudes towards the status of English have many effects. They affect students' personal perceptions towards learning the language, the intensity of their motivation, and the frequency of using the language in their daily lives as they find it more prestigious. Furthermore, this has made their attitudes and evaluation of native speakers of English more positive.

VIII. INTEGRATIVE MOTIVATION

Gardner (1985, 2000) had identified three main components for integrative motivation: Integrativeness, attitudes towards the learning situation, and motivation. The participants' integrative motivation was calculated with regard to the above mentioned sub-scales which constitute of the questionnaire's items:

It should be noted that the items chosen for each scale are similar to those of Gardner's (1985).

A-Integrativeness:

1-Attitudes towards the target language group: (Items: 4—13). Mean: 3.37>3 /SD: 0.617 (good).

2-Interest in foreign languages: (Items: 42-53-92-93). Mean: 3.21>3 / SD: 0.517. (good)

3-Integrative orientation: (Items: 34-47-49-50). Mean: 3.56>3.4 / SD: 0.704. (good).

The total score of integrativeness: Mean: 3.45>3.4 / SD: 0.38. (good).

B- Attitude toward the learning situation:

It is basically restricted in this research to the evaluation of the course. This includes (items 62—67), Mean: 3.42 >3.4/ SD: 0.479. (positively strong).

C-Motivation:

1- Motivational intensity: (Items 68—79). Mean: 3.22>3/ SD: 0.38 (good).

2- Attitude toward learning the target language: (Items 31-33-35—41-43-44-46—48-52)

Mean: 3.11>3 / SD: 0.401. (Positive attitudes).

3- Desire to learn the target language: (Items: 40-54-74) .Mean: 3.84>3.4 / SD: 0.79 (Strong desire)

The total score of Motivation: Mean: 3.39>3,4 / SD: 0.41 (good).

The sum of integrative motivation: Mean: 3.42>3,4 / SD: 0.32 (good).

After calculating the sum of the three measures that comprise integrative motivation, the scale had a value of 3.42>3.4 which is considerably good.

The following diagram,(figure 4) represents the students' integrative motivation :

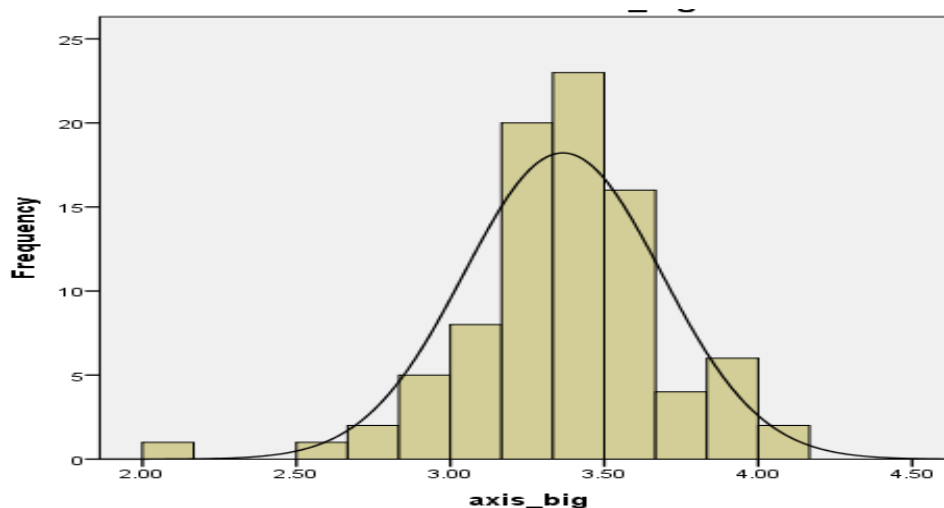


Figure 4. Integrative motivation

The horizontal axis represents the values of students' integrative motivation; whereas the vertical axis represents the number of students matches each of the values.

IX. CONCLUSIONS

There are many conclusions could be drawn concerning the state of the students representing the sample group. These students are said to mostly show a great desire to learn English along with a good degree of integrativeness. This has been exemplified by their attraction towards western societies in general and English speaking communities in specific. What has helped in the creation of this integrativeness, is the students' attraction to the international youth culture, which adopts English as its language of communication and which has been representing "the most meaningful contact with the language" (Cheung, 2001) cited in (Lamb, 2004). In addition, the students had managed to have a good degree of familiarity with the target group. Thus, they have created some integrative orientations (Clement & Kruidenier, 1983). This sense of familiarity and feelings of belonging to a greater cultural frame of reference, the international popular culture, have emerged as a result of the students' contact and use of English media. This contact has broadened their perspectives and made them more conscious about the world around them (Arnett, 2002).

It was noted that the major factor that has strengthened the degree of the students' integrativeness was watching English T.V programs and English films in particular. Most Arab youth could be at a critical stage of their personality formation and this is where media plays its part at large. Media materials, especially English T.V programs, are constantly supplying its viewers with a diverse set of life styles (mostly American) (Erling, 2001).

Thus, media has a huge role in the formation of youths' identities (Giles, 2003). Consequently, youths select and adopt what's easy, fast, simple, entertaining, trendy, goes along with their laziness and is largely promoted by western media (Al Ayid, 2004). It could also be said that part of the students' *possible and ideal selves*, was present in the recreated realities of English films' stories (Higgins, 1987), (Shanahan, 1999), (Arnett, 2002). Regular viewing of these films, have made these students attached to their characters and the represented foreign life styles (Da'asa, 2002). As if those students have projected their own aspirations and wishes on these episodic glimpses of the western life style; which has almost become international due to its popularity (Ibid). This issue has been thoroughly discussed in chapter 2 (p: 29), while discussing media attachment theories, with special reference to the *value expectancy* theory. Consequently, such attachment to English T.V programs has increased the students' motivation to learn the English language.

X. IMPLICATIONS

The outcomes of the current research, are of a high importance for educators, language policy makers and media institutions (Erling, 2001). As for educators and language teachers, this research will highlight the role of habitual use of English mediums on language learners' motivation and cultural integrativeness.

This study requires a comprehensive plan that focuses on how to utilize and direct language learners' habitual media use to enhance the language learning process. This plan could be derived and structured with regard to the current research hypotheses. The present research results have explained the existence of 3 types (groups of classification) of Syrian university students.

The first type is represented by heavily English media users. This group is said to show a good degree of *xenophilia* or *xenophilic* attitudes. These attitudes are explained as "the absence of *ethnocentrism* and *authoritarianism*", which the current research has measured when assessing student's interest in foreign languages as one composite of integrativeness (Gardner, 2007), (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). This almost addicted like use is reflected in the students'

high level of linguistic proficiency. However, these students are most likely to be inflicted with a cultural and linguistic “anomie” (Ibid). The role of educators here is to guide those students to a moderate use of media which will lessen the negative effects and consequences.

The second type of students, is represented by those who exhibit an acceptable level of media use and a good level of English proficiency. This group might not be of major concern for teachers or educators, since it is considered to be normal and acceptable.

The third type of students is represented by those who reject any kind of English media use and who exhibit a low level of English proficiency. This group might have a high degree of *ethnocentrism* or *authoritarianism* (Ibid). The responsibility of educators in this case, is to explain the linguistic benefits of English mediums and to encourage a moderate and organized use of English multimedia.

It is worth adding, when referring to the researcher’s experience as a language instructor, that there is a chance of an existence of a fourth type of students. This type might probably have a high degree of foreign cultural integration due to its heavy use of English multimedia. However, this cultural integration did not bring on any linguistic achievements. The task of teachers here, is to direct the students’ cultural integration and employ it to elevate their linguistic proficiency.

With regard to the later two groups, language policy makers and media institutions hold a responsibility of making a balance between the proliferation of foreign languages in Syria and the status of the native language (Arabic). This should be done, with a little more stress and weight in the behalf of the native language. Language policy makers should have an effect on the educational systems, by setting the standards for proper implementation of foreign languages in schools and universities’ curricula. In addition, language policy makers should have a role in choosing the language used by national T.V networks.

XI. LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

As it is known for most researches, the bigger the sample, the more significant and representative the results become. The current research was conducted on an acceptable number of students, 88 students at the faculty of science-Damascus University. However, it might have been more representative to add other sample groups from other scientific faculties. Another thing which might have added value to the research, is including samples from literary faculties and comparing the results with those of the scientific ones. Furthermore, this study might have yielded different results if it was applied on private universities which adopt an English based curriculum regardless of the specialized majors. It is also possible to apply the same study on English majors, which might bring about different results. Furthermore, using an open ended questionnaire would introduce a good variety of responses and results. It would also add a more personal aspect to the research.

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On the Construction of Teachers' Professional Quality-oriented English Practice Teaching System—Exemplified with the English Major of Sichuan University of Arts and Science^{*}

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Abstract—Professional quality is the core element of training talents. Developing elegant professional qualities is the thirsty demand for students and the great mission of higher education. With the main purpose to train would-be qualified English teachers, English major is supposed to build an English practice teaching system directed by teachers' professional quality on the basis of Certification Standard of Secondary Education, so that students can gradually follow professional principles, understand teaching methodology, start educational task and seek self-improvement in practice teaching and learning activities, subsequently helping to lay a solid foundation for students' future professional ability development.

Index Terms—English teachers, professional qualities, practice teaching, content system

I. INTRODUCTION

Practice teaching is an important measure to adhere to the concept of scientific development and fully rejuvenating the country with aid of advanced science, education and talents. Enforcing practice teaching is an educational plan for colleges and universities to further deepen teaching reform, improve ability and level of personnel training, meet the needs of economic and social development for high-quality innovative talents, which is a powerful starting point for ensuring the improvement of undergraduate teaching quality. The document of *National Medium and Long-Term Education Reform and Development Program* (2010-2020) clearly proposes that colleges and universities should vigorously strengthen practice teaching, including professional probation and graduation practice and the construction of practice teaching bases. The Ministry of Education also sponsors to attach great importance to the practice links and improve students' practical ability in the issue of *Several Opinions on Further Deepening Undergraduate Teaching Reform and Improving Teaching Quality in an All-round Way*. In recent years, colleges and universities have continuously stepped up the pace of practice teaching reform, improved practice teaching conditions, and strengthened practice teaching administration. Practice teaching has received unprecedented attention and achieved good results.

II. THEORETICAL BASIS OF ENGLISH PRACTICE TEACHING

Language learning cannot be achieved without a proper learning environment, and language learning environment is an important criterion to distinguish “the second language” from “the foreign language”. The second language learners study and live in the target language environment, and the natural and real environment enables learners to acquire the target language gradually and unconsciously. However, Chinese students learn English in their own country mainly through purposeful and conscious classroom teaching activities to learn systematic language knowledge and grammar rules with obvious instrumental and utilitarian learning motivation (Shi, 2009). From the perspective of language input, Chinese students lack a natural language input environment when learning English in their own country, and the amount of language input is quite limited, so English teaching in China is termed as foreign language teaching, and there needs to set up a special language practice teaching environment to train learners' language skills and improve learners' English proficiency.

A. Theories of Acquisition and Learning

According to Krashen, an American linguist, language acquisition does not require extensive use of conscious grammatical rules or tedious drill. For study of target language, acquisition requires meaningful interaction in the natural communication in which speakers are not concerned with the form of their utterances but with the messages they are communicating and understanding (Krashen, 1982). This theory holds that there are two ways of language study: “acquisition” and “learning”. Acquisition is a subconscious process, which allows learners to participate in social

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activities and unconsciously absorb and use language in the exchange of information. Learning is to do systematic training work in listening, speaking, reading and writing through teaching materials under the arranged teaching procedures in order to deepen the understanding of language forms and grammar rules. It can be seen that both “acquisition” and “learning” need objective environment for language information input and output. Therefore, language learners should not only pay attention to learning a lot of language knowledge from teaching classroom in “weak context”, but also get more language input from language practice activities in “strong context” as much as possible and constantly improve skills of language use, so as to finally achieve the goal of internalizing the learned language (Duan, 2009).

B. Theory of Constructivist Learning

Constructivism holds that knowledge is not acquired through teachers’ teaching, but through the meaning construction realized by interpersonal cooperation activities with the help of others in a social and cultural background. Constructivist learning theory first emphasizes the central position of students and holds that students are the main body of cognition. Whether students can acquire more knowledge is determined by the ability of learners to explore and construct the meaning of relevant knowledge. What plays a decisive role is not the abilities of learners to obtain book knowledge or abilities of teachers to teach. This theory stresses that learning situation and cooperative learning play an important role in the construction of knowledge and meaning. In the teaching process, teachers design students’ desirable learning resources, learning strategies, cognitive tools and cultural situations of language learning from the perspectives of “situation”, “cooperation”, “conversation” and “resources”. English is a highly practical subject, and its accumulation of language knowledge, improvement of language skills and cultivation of language awareness need to be constructed and formed in a large sum of language practice. Only in the real pragmatic background, with help of social interaction and necessary learning resources, can students actively and effectively construct knowledge and reorganize the original knowledge structure to achieve their learning goals.

III. BASIC REQUIREMENTS OF ENGLISH TEACHERS’ PROFESSIONAL QUALITIES

Education shoulders three major functions: it firstly aims to impart the existing knowledge of human beings, the second is to train learners’ social abilities, and the third is to cultivate learners’ personal qualities (Shu & Zhuang, 1999). Han Yu (an ancient Chinese writer in Tang Dynasty) said that the teacher is one who preaches truth, teaches knowledge and dispels doubts. Normal English major is mainly committed to cultivating English teachers and English teaching administrative talents in primary and secondary schools with sound personalities, firm beliefs, solid English language foundation, extensive cultural knowledge and profound humanistic qualities. After several years of study, Students are hoped to have a good command of bilingual cultures, strong expressing abilities, proficient English teaching ability, innovative thinking abilities, autonomous learning abilities, and develop a high sense of social responsibility and continuous enterprising spirit. As a foreign language teacher, there are following aspects of qualities for attention:

A. Firm Ideological Qualities

Foreign language teachers should stick to a firm and correct political direction, understand and actively practice social core values, forming a high degree of ideological, political, theoretical and emotional identities with Chinese characteristics. They are supposed to love education and cherish noble teachers’ moralities, social responsibilities, good educational ideals and great instructing emotions. English teachers are to learn about the national strategies and policies of education development, abide by the national education laws and regulations, nurture the willingness and positive emotion, develop correct attitude and correct values to contribute to education. Besides, an English teacher is able to respect students’ personalities and become a guide for students to acquire knowledge, uplift abilities, sharpen wisdom and improve characters.

B. Solid Professional Qualities

First of all, foreign language teachers should have well-knit frame of basic knowledge, language skills and comprehensive abilities to use English. Secondly, they should have a broad view of educational knowledge, including scientific knowledge, social knowledge, administrative knowledge, etc. To the greatest extent, rich educational knowledge can stimulate teaching passion and motivation. In addition, foreign language teachers are required to have certain theoretical literacy, mastering educational theories, modern linguistic theories, foreign language learning and teaching theories etc. Such theories contribute to their English teaching and academic researches.

C. Profound Humanistic Qualities

Foreign language teachers must know Chinese history, humanities and social sciences, natural sciences and art education. They equally keep learning Chinese traditional culture and culture of English-speaking countries, trying to have a broad international vision and strong cross-cultural communication abilities. Thus, they can actively direct students to enhance their sense of identity and self-confidence in Chinese culture in the multicultural background by the way of telling Chinese stories and spreading Chinese culture in English.

In addition, foreign language teachers should have a scientific attitude of seeking truth from facts, a good sense of teamwork, physical and mental health and optimistic spirits. The professional qualities of foreign language teachers

determine that the English practice teaching system is required to closely focus on professional training objectives and talent specifications on the basis of professional characteristics, social needs and students' employment demands.

IV. PROFESSIONAL QUALITY-ORIENTED ENGLISH PRACTICE TEACHING SYSTEM

In the document of *Some Opinions on the Reform of Undergraduate Education for Foreign Language Majors in the 21st Century*, the Steering Committee of Foreign Language Major in Colleges and Universities emphasizes that the theoretical knowledge of classroom learning be applied to extra-curricular practical activities so as to cultivate students' cross-cultural abilities, critical thinking abilities, innovative abilities and abilities to analyze and solve problems by using the knowledge they have learned (1998). The *Syllabus for English Major in Colleges and Universities* also requires that English classroom teaching should be linked with extracurricular practical activities because extracurricular practice, as the expansion of classroom teaching and learning, plays an important part for cultivating and developing students' abilities and comprehensive qualities in all aspects (2000).

A. Principles of Practice Teaching

1. Principle of Integration

English practice teaching system not only optimizes the curriculum structure from the requirements of society for the all-round development of talents' knowledge, quality and ability, but also ensures the coordinated development of teaching content, teaching means, teaching practice, teaching management and teaching supplies. Attention should be paid to creating a close link between practical and theoretical teaching, so that come into being a good atmosphere and environment in which classrooms, laboratories and practice teaching bases are integrated to combine teaching, learning, practicing into one unity.

2. Career-oriented Principle

To satisfy the demands of professional qualities, English teachers need to have strong English listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating skills. Moreover, they try to be proficient with Chinese and Western cultures, acquire good cross-cultural communication skills, master modern information technology and make the best of professional knowledge to conduct speculative, innovative and scientific research. Therefore, it is reasonable that the teaching contents and training objectives of English practice teaching system contribute to the professional needs of English teachers, which runs through the whole teaching process to help cultivate English professionals with adept language application and strong employing competitiveness.

3. Principle of Modularization

Modular teaching mode was developed by the International Labor Organization in the early 1970s, which focuses on on-site teaching and training skills. According to the requirements of English practice teaching objectives, plans and tasks, the student-centered practice teaching contents can fall into training modules of specialty skills, teaching skills, educational probation, moral practice, and academic training, etc.

B. Components of Practice Teaching Content

Practice teaching for English major centers on cultivating English teachers' professional abilities, which is divided into five parts: moral education practice, practice of specialty skill, practice of normal skill, teaching practice and academic research practice.

1. Moral Education Practice

A moral practice program is consisted of different social practical activities such as military training, social investigation and labor experience, which aims to deepen students' understanding of life, improve students' abilities to adapt to social situations and temper characters. Practice of moral education devotes to establish a firm political direction, scientific view of the world and moral values, guiding college students to edify their thoughts, enriching their spiritual life, improving their moral realm and increasing their knowledge and talents in practice.

2. Practice of Specialty Skills

This practice aims at training students' English professional skills to polish English listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating abilities. In the lower grades, the practice of English skills mainly focuses on strengthening language foundation to acquire pure pronunciation, fluent expression, standardized writing and abilities of acquiring English information by appreciating English movies, learning to sing English songs and conducting English debates. Senior students attach importance to improving their English-applying abilities, and the design of practice teaching content should help to enrich the students' mind with linguistic theoretical knowledge, literary knowledge, cross-cultural communication knowledge and professional knowledge. For example, the practice of analytical reading and writing can be carried out in combination with the original reading of British and American literature. Subjects like English speaking contests, interpreting practice and translation training can be conducted along with the hot issues of social economy, culture, life, history and art, so that students highlight abilities of professional knowledge application, logical thinking, problem-solving and teamwork cooperation.

3. Practice of Normal Skill

In order to fully play an exemplary role, English majors in normal universities, as future English teachers, are supposed to apply English accurately and skillfully. What's more, they'd make best of modern educational technology

and computer operating system for teaching design, courseware making and classroom teaching. Therefore, the practice of normal skills includes English and Chinese calligraphy, training of teacher's oral expression, teaching design and making courseware. Of course, trial teaching as well as micro-course presentation is also quite meaningful practice. To highly arouse students' much attention, the authority of the university ranks the courses of teachers' skill practice as the compulsory subjects in the curriculum system. Teachers give theoretical guidance in the form of lectures, and students do practice independently out of class. In due time, contests of normal skills are held to motivate students for better progress, and academic credits are calculated in the final comprehensive assessment of the corresponding courses.

4. Instructing and Teaching Practice

Teaching practice mainly includes educational probation and classroom trial teaching experiences. Educational probation helps students to obtain self-education from on-the-spot observation, which is generally developed in the second year or third year of college study. It aims to clear the professional vision and requirements for normal students. While observing and experiencing the teaching process, students witness the communicating ways between teachers and students in the real teaching environment, truly perceive different teaching styles and teaching arts, master teaching procedures, understand teaching reform and contents of class management. English classroom teaching practice is to put educational and English theoretical knowledge learned in class into professional practice, thus students further consolidate theoretical knowledge and cultivate the practical abilities of using language in foreign language teaching work. The basic theories, knowledge and skills students have mastered are comprehensively used in various teaching practical activities such as listening to lectures, preparing lessons and evaluating classes in teaching and instructing practice. Gradually, students learn to understand the nature and law of English teaching so as to improve vocational skills and students' teaching abilities.

5. Practice of Academic Research

To cultivate sense of academic research, teachers can direct students to write course papers and graduation desations; In addition, students also actively participate in scientific research projects, listen to professional academic lectures and engage in other practical activities, which helps students to know the basic methods of doing scientific research and cultivate students' abilities of academic investigation, literature retrieval and comprehensively applying the knowledge they have learned to analyze and solve problems. If students build up these qualities, they will lay foundation for their future development of scientific research and innovation abilities.

C. Practice Teaching Mode

In 2007, the Ministry of Education issued the document *Opinions of the Ministry of Education on Further Deepening Undergraduate Teaching Reform and Improving Teaching Quality in an All-round Way*, which requires that the accumulated credits (hours) of all practice teaching links involved in the teaching plan of humanities and social sciences majors should generally not be less than 15% of the total credits (hours). Practice teaching permeates the whole process of education from lower grade to higher grade, and it mainly includes three modes: in-class practice teaching, after-class practice teaching and off-campus practice teaching.

1. In-Class Practice Teaching

The chief goal of educating undergraduate English majors is to cultivate students' basic language skills and professional teaching skills, and most English courses are characteristic of practical application. In-class practice teaching is mainly completed through the relevant courses set up in the curriculum schedule. These courses mainly include Basic English, English Listening, English Reading, English Pronunciation, English Speaking, English Writing, Interpretation, Translation, Modern Educational Technology, Mandarin Chinese and other subjects. Classroom teaching of these courses adheres to the student-centered teaching philosophy, and teachers mainly direct students into understanding learning theories with aid of intensive lectures and innovating teaching methods. For example, "task-based" and "project-based" learning methods are introduced into foreign language teaching, or language scenarios are actively created to guide students to participate in language practice activities of listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating. At the same time, teachers pay full attention to supervision of students' participation in classroom practice activities, and teachers strictly record and evaluate students' performances in classroom practice activities, trying to create atmosphere in which students are willing to be actively engaged in classroom learning practice.

2. After-Class Practice Teaching

Classroom teaching is limited in time and space, and it is impossible for all students to participate in language practice activities in class. In order to enrich the forms of practice teaching, Firstly, Teachers should strengthen the supervision of extracurricular study and strictly implement the tutorial guidance (The tutorial guidance means that every teacher is consistently responsible to communicate with a group of students in free time; the teacher, acting as a tutor, regularly inspects the completion of extracurricular learning tasks assigned to students and helps to resolve their problems in study and life). Secondly, full use is made of the language experimental equipment to improve the efficiency of using resource and train language skills in their spare time. Thirdly, the school of foreign languages frequently organizes various extracurricular activities to arouse students' interest in professional learning and stimulate their curiosity for English culture, such as English salon, English reading contest, English writing contest, English debate contest, English-Chinese interpretation and translation competition, British-American knowledge contest, English drama contest, college students' speech forums, classic reading activities and so on. For the fourth, prestigious experts and scholars are invited to give academic lectures, so that students can broaden their professional horizons and

deepen the academic insights. Last but not least, it is equally central to ensure that the student writes a graduation thesis of high quality. Graduation thesis is not only an in-depth examination of students' professional level, but also an important professional practice teaching means. Through thesis writing, students master certain researching method, which lays a foundation for later independent exploration into study.

3. Off-campus Practice Teaching

Off-campus practice teaching mainly includes professional probation, teaching internship and provincial or national professional competitions. According to the teaching plan, students conduct one-week probation in the fourth and sixth semester, so that English majors can step into primary or secondary schools to observe how English teachers demonstrate classes. From this, students have a preliminary understanding of the basic requirements and teaching processes of English class. In the eighth semester, students are assigned to various teaching practice bases for internship. The task of professional practice is completed under the guidance of the college teachers specialized in English methodology and the skillful middle school English teachers who guide students to familiarize themselves with the practice work gradually and try to carry out teaching work independently. At the same time, the college attaches great importance to participating in various provincial and national competitions, such as "Mid-west English Translation Competition", "College Students Teaching Contest", "National Oral Evaluation Competition" and so on. According to statistics in recent three years, English majors have won more than 100 awards in various professional competitions: one national award and seven provincial awards for English Reading and Writing Competition; one national prize and one provincial prize in the English Debate Competition; six provincial prizes in the English Speech Contest; two provincial awards in the English Teaching Competition; fifty-five provincial awards for English Interpretation and Translation Competition; twenty-one prizes for the National Oral Test (2019).

D. Safeguarding Measures of Practice Teaching

In order to set up more favorable teaching conditions and practical environments for cultivating practical and innovative foreign language talents, the authority of the university puts much emphasis to construction of software and hardware in foreign language practice teaching, so that students can effectively combine theoretical teaching with practical teaching to absorb culture through language and study language from culture.

1. Intensifying Practice Curriculum

According to the *National Standard for Teaching Quality of Foreign Languages* and *Certification Standard for Secondary Education Majors*, the new talent-training program in 2020 has set a large number of practical courses such as Listening and Speaking Practice, Chinese and English Calligraphy, Comprehensive English Skill, Curriculum Design, Graded English Reading, Education and Teaching Probation, Graduation Thesis (Design), Trial Teaching Practice, Labor, etc. The number of practical courses is 30 credits in all, accounting for about 18 percent of the total credits. In addition, combined with the new content, new system and the specific situation of professional practice, brand-new practical teaching materials can be compiled, such as Question-and-Answer Teaching Practice, Interactive Teaching Practice etc., so as to continuously enrich the practical course content.

2. Optimizing Practice Teaching Staff

The foreign languages school has bred a team of teachers with rich teaching experience and strong practical abilities. Firstly, excellent middle school English teachers are invited to act as tutors and present demonstrative classes for college students. Every off-campus tutor as well as each of the foreign language school teachers is responsible to steer several students in their professional study. The off-campus tutors who offer vocational guidance are the English teaching backbones, and most of them grasp advanced foreign language teaching concepts with remarkable foreign language teaching achievements. Simultaneously, college teachers also walk into middle school class to enrich practical teaching knowledge. Among the staff members involved in practice teaching, nearly 30% of the foreign languages school teachers have been appraised with senior professional titles, and more than 50% are certified with mid-level professional titles.

3. Improving Practice Teaching Platforms

Supported by the Basic Foreign Language Teaching Experimental Center, the foreign languages school has set up two simultaneous interpretation studios, an English translation studio, a situational language laboratory and eight standard language laboratories. The simultaneous interpretation studio is used for the practical training of simultaneous interpretation and consecutive interpretation courses, so that students can acquire language edification and practice in simulated situations. The English translation laboratory helps to create interactive teaching mode of translation course through translation practice, correction of translation homework and feedback of homework annotations on the platform. The English situational lab provides students with an independent language learning environment for students to practice speaking and listening. It can be used as a training place for English speaking, debating, broadcasting and recording English programs. It can also work for appreciating English films or videos, performing short English dramas and hosting English parties. The college also has equipped labs with about 700 seats, which fully satisfy the demands of teaching practice for listening courses. In addition, relying on the rich learning resources and technical support of the publishing house, the school has invested into a foreign language autonomous learning system loaded with online courses, audio/video materials, e-books, multimedia courseware and proficiency tests etc. Such autonomous learning system stimulates students to make use of the resource pool efficiently, and improves the abilities of applying foreign language skills step by step, which provides intellectual support for English practice teaching task.

4. Fortifying Practice Teaching Bases

In order to meet the need of English practice teaching, the university actively develops close contacts with primary education institutions and has established a number of stable practice bases. The practice bases for English majors are located in Dazhou No.1 Middle School, Dazhou Senior Middle School, Dazhou Middle School, Dachuan Middle School, Tongchuan No.7 Middle School, Tongchuan No.8 Middle School and Tongchuan No.1 Elementary School, together with more than 30 primary and secondary schools in other cities. English teachers and students regularly hold educational and teaching seminars in these practice bases. As an important forum for students' language training, practice bases ensure of smooth operation for students' professional probation and internship.

5. Enforcing Practice Teaching Administration

The foreign languages school has established an evaluation system of practice teaching quality assessed by practice teaching supervisors, peer experts and students. Through assessment of practice teaching, the motivation mechanism of assessment and evaluation can be used to arouse working enthusiasm of practice teaching staff. For those who have made outstanding contribution to practice teaching work, they would be praised and rewarded, and the teachers are given priority to their professional promotion. At the same time, the practice teaching achievements strictly determine whether the students can get qualified grades of the corresponding courses, and the total credits of practice teaching courses should be regarded as one of the compulsory criteria for graduation from college.

V. CONCLUSION

It is one of the important contents of higher education to construct a practical teaching system with the aim of improving teaching quality, the demand of technological progress and social development for talents, the ability training of students as the basis, the cultivation of comprehensive quality and innovative spirit as the core, and the improvement of students' professional quality as the orientation. The Ministry of Education points out that it is necessary to attach great importance to practice links and improve students' practical abilities in the document *Several Opinions on Deepening Undergraduate Teaching Reform and Improving Teaching Quality in an All-round Way*. Therefore, teachers in colleges or universities should update their educational concepts of cultivating students' practical abilities and innovative entrepreneurial spirits, adhere to the idea of equally emphasizing practical teaching and theoretical teaching, and infiltrate practice teaching contents into the whole educational process. With the mission of cultivating would-be English teachers, the normal English major should always focus on teachers' professional quality to deepen the reform of practice teaching contents and methods, continuously improving English language competence and teaching skills through diverse practice teaching platforms, so as to truly achieve the goal of training well-qualified English teachers in primary and secondary schools with solid foundation, great abilities and new mindsets.

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On EST Sentence Translation Based on English and Chinese Structures: Natural Linear Expansion vs. Reversed Linear Expansion

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Abstract—With the development of science, new subjects with a new technical vocabulary spurt from technology and science, and it makes translation in EST more difficult. It turns out that similarities between English and Chinese can be handled easily in translation, while differences between the two make translation in EST a hard task. The intention of this study is to analyze the formulas of the patterns between English and Chinese in thinking and explore possible advantages in translation practice.

Index Terms—EST (English of Science and Technology), natural linear expansion, reversed linear expansion, translation tactics

I. INTRODUCTION

With the rapid development of modern science and technology and the gradual deepening of global economic integration, English of Special Purpose will attract more and more attention from the scientific field, language researchers and governments. Written English in science and technology has become an independent subject. It covers all aspects of science and technology, including: scientific and technological academic works, scientific and technological papers and research reports, experimental reports, scientific and technological information, product patent specifications and written materials; scientific and technological exhibitions; scientific and technological talks, conferences, scientific and technological films, etc. ESP translation plays an important role in the development of science and technology all over the world. China's reform and opening up is facing an unprecedented stage of development, in order to promote the vigorous development of China's science and technology, scientific and technological English translation should arouse our attention. Compared with non-ESP, scientific English texts are characteristic by polysemy, (which the association of two or more related senses with a single linguistic form (Taylor, 1956, p.99) is ubiquitous in natural language and therefore deserves the linguists' attention), more long sentences, more passive sentences, more parts of speech, more non finite verbs, etc. According to the corpus of 1,070,000 words in Shanghai Jiaotong University, the average length of scientific English sentences is 21.4 words, and only 8.77% of short sentences with less than 7 words (including 7 words) and more than 40 words account for 6.3% (Fang Mengzhi, 1994, p.97). Long sentences are used in ESP to describe the complicated and changeable world. The style of scientific and technological articles is simple, but the language is condensed, and the structure poly-subordinate. Therefore, it is inevitable that a large number of long and complex sentences will be produced. How to deal with the translation of long sentences has become the most concerned problem.

II. THE LINEAR EXTENSION OF ENGLISH SENTENCE PATTERNS AND THE INVERSE LINEAR EXTENSION OF CHINESE SENTENCE PATTERNS

Translators have always attached great importance to the contrastive study of languages. The comparison between English and Chinese is the core of translation theory. Translation theories, methods and techniques between English and Chinese are based on the comparison of similarities and differences between English and Chinese. Because of the "similarity", we can translate each other; with the "difference", we have different methods and techniques. Yan Fu had made comments on English sentence structure: "in Western sentences, most of the names and things are interpreted with the help of examples. ..., in Western grammar, there are sentences with two or three words or more than one hundred of words in a sentence. " (Yan Fu, *Evolution and Ethics, Translation Illustration*, 1984, p.6) Lu Shuxiang, a linguist, once said, "only by comparison can we see the common and special points of various language expressions. (Lu Shuxiang, *outline of Chinese grammar*, Volume I, 1982, p.7) ", and stressed that, normally there are many sentences in Chinese texts, one followed another, and most of them can be taken apart or connected at random. Usual is the style of sentence pattern in Chinese with short sentences to explain the problem point by point, which makes the number of Chinese

sentences more than of English in expressing the same content. Therefore, in translation, several short sentences in Chinese can be translated into a long English sentence connected by English related words and various phrases.

Example 1: yào zhǎo dào yì zhǒng qià hǎo shì yòng yú mǒu zhǒng yòng tú de gāng sī shéng, tā néng mǎn zú gāi yòng tú de gè fāng miàn yāo qiú, zhè chéng kè néng xìng suī rán yǒu, dàn bì jìng hěn nán yù dào.

While there is a possibility, there is little likelihood that an application can be found for which there is a precisely suitable wire rope—one that can satisfy every indicated requirement.

There are four sentences in Chinese, and only is a compound sentence with an adverbial clause of concession in the English translation

In *Intercultural Communication*, Lin Dajin points out that "extension" refers to the linear extension of basic sentence structure with the development of thinking. When English sentences are extended linearly, they are extended from left to right (LR for short), while Chinese sentences are extended inversely, from right to left (RL for short). The LR extension of English sentence makes the end of a sentence open and the beginning of a sentence contract; the RL extension of Chinese sentence makes the end of a sentence contract and the beginning of a sentence open. (Lin Dajin, 2005, p.233) "

Bi Jiwan, a scholar, Beijing Language and Culture University, interpreted that Chinese sentence parataxis and English sentence hypotaxis respectively reflect the differences of thinking modes between the overall synthesis of Chinese culture and the detailed analysis of English culture (Bi Jiwan, 2004,p34).

From the perspective of logical reasoning, Liu Miqing gives the following Chinese examples (Liu Miqing, 2006, p.267)

Open pattern	extending inversely(R ← L)
Basic sentence	jǐng jǐng yǒu tiáo
Level 1	gǎn de jǐng jǐng yǒu tiáo
Level 2	yí qiè gǎn de jǐng jǐng yǒu tiáo
Level 3	tā bǎ yí qiè gǎn de jǐng jǐng yǒu tiáo
Level 4	méi xiǎng dào tā bǎ yí qiè gǎn de jǐng jǐng yǒu tiáo
Level 5	tā méi xiǎng dào tā bǎ yí qiè gǎn de jǐng jǐng yǒu tiáo
Level 6	tā shuì tā méi xiǎng dào tā bǎ yí qiè gǎn de jǐng jǐng yǒu tiáo

In terms of the contents reflected in English sentences, it is generally from less important to important, from specific to general, which reflects the follow-up rule of sentence structure with a beginning stated shortly and a detailed ending. On the contrary, Chinese is LR expansion mechanism with a detailed beginning and an ending stated shortly.

Taking the unit of translation as an example, it is necessary to explain the unit of translation before giving examples. In *Language and Translation*, Balhudarov, a linguist of the former Soviet Union, defined translation unit as "the smallest (minimum) language unit in which the source language has its counterpart in the target language (*Dictionary of translatology*, 2004,p.19)". Vinayand Darbelnet believed that the translation unit must be the smallest part in translation. Fang Mengzhi takes it as a translation unit—a language fragment that must be considered in the whole translation process (Fang Mengzhi, 2004,p.19).

A sense group is the content of phonetics. As a language unit, it is whole in conveying feelings and meanings to others. The division of sense group is the correct expression of ideas, otherwise there will be ambiguity and misunderstanding. In written language, the division of meaning group must be judged by the reader himself. Usually, sense group is composed of several words. It can be a phrase, a clause phrase, a clause, etc. sense group may also be a word, but isolated words cannot be equated with sense group. The recognition of sense group is very important in understanding of sentence meaning and the text in translating.

The division of sense group should consider both grammatical structure and semantics. The division of grammatical structure is consistent with the division of semantic. Sense group could be thought as translation unit.

The following examples are translated by words and phrases according to the principle of translation unit.

Example 2:

a. Tom studies.

(1)

b. Tom studies hard.

(2)

c. Tom studies very hard.

(3)

d. Tom studies very hard in the aluminum and nodular cast iron industries.

(4)

- e. Tom studies very hard in the aluminum and nodular cast iron industries every day.
(5)
- f. Tom studies very hard in the aluminum and nodular cast iron industries everyday in the laboratory.
(6)
- g. Tom studies very hard in the aluminum and nodular cast iron industries everyday in the laboratory of Wuhan.
(7)

Tom studies very hard in the aluminum and nodular cast iron industries in the laboratory of Wuhan.

① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦

(1)–(7) The underlined parts are the supplementary contents of the sentences (the same below). The English sentence structures above extend from left to right with the development of thinking.

The following Chinese sentences are the corresponding Chinese translations.

tāng mǔ yán jiū. A.

(1)

tāng mǔ kè kǔ yán jiū. B.

(2)

tāng mǔ yán jiū hěn kè kǔ. C.

(3)

tāng mǔ zài lǚ gōng yè hé qiú mò zhù tiě gōng yè fāng miàn yán jiū hěn kè kǔ. D.

(4)

tāng mǔ měi tiān zài lǚ gōng yè hé qiú mò zhù tiě gōng yè fāng miàn yán jiū hěn kè kǔ. E.

(5)

tāng mǔ měi tiān zài shí yàn shì zài lǚ gōng yè hé qiú mò zhù tiě gōng yè fāng miàn yán jiū hěn kè kǔ. F.

(6)

tāng mǔ měi tiān zài wǔ hàn de shí yàn shì zài lǚ gōng yè hé qiú mò zhù tiě gōng yè fāng miàn yán jiū hěn kè kǔ. G.

(7)

The comparison between English and Chinese word orders is as follows:

tāng mǔ ① měi tiān ⑦ zài wǔ hàn ⑥ de shí yàn shì ⑤ zài lǚ gōng yè hé qiú mò zhù tiě gōng yè fāng miàn ④ yán jiū hěn ③ kè kǔ ②.

English Word order ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦, Chinese Word order ① ⑦ ⑥ ⑤ ④ ③ ②. The main sentences (S+V+O) are the same, but the orders of modifiers are opposite to each other.

With the development of thinking, the above basic sentence structure shows an inverse linear extension.

In order to demonstrate the nature of thinking patterns between Chinese and English, more examples are as following.

Example 3:

a. All the materials are collected.

(1)

b. All the materials are collected for the research.

(2)

c. All the materials are collected for the research. project.

(3)

d. All the materials are collected for the research project on pollution.

(4)

e. All the materials are collected for the research project on pollution in our college.

(5)

All the materials are collected for the research project on pollution in our college.

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③

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In the same way, the above basic sentence structure extends along the line with the development of thinking. The following is the Chinese translation of each corresponding sentence.

suǒ yǒu de cái liào dōu shōu jí qǐ lái le. a.

(1)

suǒ yǒu yòng yú yán jiū dōu shōu jí qǐ lái le. b.

(2)

suǒ yǒu yòng yú yán jiū xiàng mù de cái liào dōu shōu jí qǐ lái le. c.

(3)

suǒ yǒu yòng yú wū rǎn yán jiū xiàng mù de cái liào dōu shōu jí qǐ lái le. d.

(4)

wǒ men xué yuàn suǒ yǒu yòng yú wū rǎn yán jiū xiàng mù de cái liào dōu shōu jí qǐ lái le. e.

(5)

The comparison between English and Chinese sentence order is as follows:

wǒ men xué yuàn suǒ yǒu yòng yú wū rǎn yán jiū xiàng mù de cǎi liào dōu shōu jí qǐ lái le.
 (5) (4) (3) (1) (2)

English Word order① ② ③ ④ ⑤, and Chinese Word order⑤ ④ ③ ① ②. The main sentences (S+V+O) are the same, but the orders of modifiers are opposite to each other. With the development of thinking, the above basic sentence structure shows an inverse linear extension.

The following is an example of taking sentences as translation units. Because the sentence is too long, it will be operated differently on the format.

Example 4:

a. It now seems likely that the time will soon come.

(1)

b. It now seems likely that the time will soon come. if, indeed it has not yet arrived.

(2)

c. It now seems likely that the time will soon come. if, indeed it has not yet arrived when coal-burning locatives will no longer be manufactured.

(3)

d. It now seems likely that the time will soon come. if, indeed it has not yet arrived when coal-burning locatives will no longer be manufactured though they will continue to be used for many years.

(4)

It now seems likely that the time will soon come if, indeed it has not yet arrived when

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③

coal-burning locatives will no longer be manufactured though they will continue to be used

④

⑤

for many years.

Similarly, with the development of thinking, the above basic sentence structure presents a linear extension. The following is the Chinese translation of each corresponding sentence.

a. xiàn zài kàn lái , bú jiǔ kě néng chū xiàn nà yàng de shí dài (1) 。

b. xiàn zài kàn lái , jí shǐ nà yàng de shí dài xiàn zài shàng wèi lái dào (2), (dàn) bú jiǔ de jiāng lái kě néng huì chū xiàn 。

c. xiàn zài kàn lái , jí shǐ nà yàng de shí dài jí rán méi de jǐ chē jiāng bú zài shēng chǎn le (3) De shí dài , xiàn zài shàng wèi lái dào , (dàn) bú jiǔ de jiāng lái kě néng huì chū xiàn 。

d. xiàn zài kàn lái , jí shǐ nà yàng de shí dài jí rán méi de jǐ chē jiāng bú zài shēng chǎn le , dàn zhè xiē rán méi jǐ chē jiāng réng rán shǐ yòng hěn duō nián (4) de shí dài , xiàn zài shàng wèi lái dào , (dàn) bú jiǔ de jiāng lái kě néng huì chū xiàn 。

xiàn zài kàn lái , jí shǐ nà yàng de shí dài jí rán méi de jǐ chē jiāng bú zài shēng chǎn le ,

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dàn zhè xiē rán méi jǐ chē jiāng réng rán shǐ yòng hěn duō nián de shí dài , xiàn zài

⑤

shàng wèi lái dào , (dàn) bú jiǔ de jiāng lái kě néng huì chū xiàn 。

③

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The order of English sentence is① ② ③ ④ ⑤ and that of Chinese sentence is① ④ ⑤ ③ ②. The order of the main part of the sentence (S+V+O) is the same, but the order of the modifier is slightly different. With the development of thinking, the above sentence structure shows an inverse linear extension.

Whether the translation unit is words, phrases or sentences, they presents that sentences (English or Chinese sentence patterns) are the most basic sentence pattern. The orders of their main parts (S+V+O) indicate the similarity in English and Chinese, but the word order of the modifier is opposite to each other. So we can get some inspiration.

III. TRANSLATION STRATEGIES AND STEPS IN EST

English for science and technology is a language used to state what happens or appears in nature and science and technology circles, and describe its laws, characteristics and processes. It has features of objectivity and accuracy, logic, rigor, long sentences and complex structures. From the perspective of syntax, why it is difficult to make long sentences is that there are many modifiers, restrictions and additional elements, resulting in the separation structure (the modifier is separated from the modified element). According to the rule of linear extension in English sentences, it is linear extension while in Chinese it is inverse linear extension, and the main parts of English and Chinese sentences (subject + predicate + object) are similar. To deal with long and difficult sentences, we can take the following steps and methods in translating.

A. Main -sentence Extraction

In EST, no matter how long a sentence is, it always has the main part of a sentence, that is, subject and predicate. To

find out the main part of a sentence is to grasp the gist of the sentence. In the application of trunk extraction, this also serves as the first step of translating long sentences.

Example 5:

Gas generating components, capable of quickly producing a large quantity of solids-free nontoxic gases useful as propellants in Halon replacement fire suppression systems consist of a double-based castable propellant formulated from a major amount of ammonium nitrate, a minor amount of nitrocellulose, one or more high-energy nitrate ester plasticizer, a thermal scavenger, and a combustion rate modification.

This is a sentence with about 60 English words, “capable of quickly producing a large quantity of solids-free nontoxic gases” and “useful as propellants in Halon replacement fire suppression systems”, they are adjective phrases used as attributives. Therefore, the subject is “Gas generating components,” The verbs that can be used as predicates in long sentences are “consist of” phrase and “formulated from”. But if you look at it carefully, “formulated from a major amount of ammonium nitrate, a minor amount of nitrocellulose, one or more high-energy nitrate ester plasticizer, a thermal scavenger, and a combustion rate modification.” is a past participle phrase. It's an attribute in the sentence. So the predicate is “consist of”. The main structure of the sentence is “Gas generating components consist of...”.

According to the same order of main parts (subject + predicate + object) of English and Chinese sentences. Accordingly, the Chinese structure is “shēng chéng qì tǐ chéng fèn shì yóu ...zǔ chéng ” Therefore, the translation is as follows:

zuò wéi hā lóng miè huǒ qì tǐ dài xì tǒng tuī jìn jì de shēng chéng qì tǐ chéng fèn , (yīng shì) yǒu zhù yú kuài sù chǎn shēng dà liàng wú gù tǐ cán zhā hé wú dú de qì tǐ , yóu cóng rán shāo lǚ xiū zhèng 、jiǎn rè zhuāng zhì 、dà lì àng xiāo suān ān 、wēi liàng de xiāo huà xiān wéi 、yī zhǒng huò shù zhǒng gāo néng xiāo suān zhī kě sù jì děng xiàng guān zhū yīn sù shè xiǎng ér lái de kǎo zhù shuāng jī tuī jìn jì zǔ chéng 。

Example 6:

Victory Garden, a collection of 75 essays ranging from general topics such as fertilizers and crop yield to detailed information on all the standard garden vegetables and 60 species of houseplants, is now part of Compuserve's thousands of informational categories, according to Ted Batutis, a computer consultant with a doctorate in vegetable crops.

First, analyze the sentence, “Victory Garden”, which may be part of the subject. “a collection of 75 essays...”, it may also be part of the subject. However, through the interpretation, we can see that the latter is the explanation of the former. Therefore, the subject is “Victory Garden”. Look at the predicate part again. The predicate part of this sentence is very obvious. There is only one verb form, namely, “is part of ...”, the composition of the predicative part. According to the same order of main parts (subject + predicate + object) of English and Chinese sentences. The Chinese sentence is “《shèng lì yuán pǔ 》, xiàn zài shì Compuserve jǐ qiān zhǒng xìn xī fēn lèi zhōng de yī bù fēn 。”

The Chinese whole sentence is:

jù shū cài zuò wù xué bó shì 、jì suàn jī gù wèn Ted Batutisshuō , shōu lù 75piān lùn wén , nǐ róng hán gǎi cǎng fēi liào hé zuò wù chǎn liàng děng pǔ biàn xíng wén tí , zài dào yǒu guān gè zhǒng biāo zhǔn de yuán pǔ shū cài hé 60zhǒng shì nèi zuò wù de xiāng xì zī liào de 《shèng lì yuán pǔ 》, xiàn zài shì Compuservejǐ qiān zhǒng xìn xī fēn lèi zhōng de yī bù fēn 。

B. Translation Methods of Branches Based on English Linear Extension and Chinese Inverse Linear Extension

According to the rule that English sentence structure extends from left to right with the development of thinking, and Chinese sentence structure extends from right to left. Split multiple translation units one by one, whether they are words, phrases, or sentences. It also serves as the second step in translating EST sentences.

Take example 5 as an example:

Gas generating components, capable of quickly producing a large quantity of solids-free nontoxic gases useful as propellants in Halon replacement fire suppression systems consist of a double-based castable propellant formulated from a major amount of ammonium nitrate, a minor amount of nitrocellulose, one or more high-energy nitrate ester plasticizer, a thermal scavenger, and a combustion rate modification.

Split by phrase:

- (1) Gas generating components
- (2) capable of quickly producing a large quantity of solids-free nontoxic gases
- (3) useful as propellants
- (4) in Halon replacement fire suppression systems
- (5) consist of a double-based castable propellant
- (6) formulated from a major amount of ammonium nitrate, a minor amount of nitrocellulose, one or more high-energy nitrate ester plasticizer, a thermal scavenger, and a combustion rate modification.

Corresponding Chinese Translation:

- (1) shēng chéng qì tǐ chéng fèn
- (2) kuài sù chǎn shēng dà liàng wú gù tǐ cán zhā hé wú dú de qì tǐ
- (3) zuò wéi tuī jìn jì (shì) yǒu bāng zhù de

(4) z ài hā lóng miè huǒ qì tì dài xì tǒng zhōng

(5) yóu kě jiāo zhù shuāng jī tuī jìn jì zǔ chéng

(6) yóu cóng rán shāo lǜ xiū zhèng 、 jiǎn rè zhuāng zhì 、 dà liàng xiāo suān ǎn 、 wēi liàng de xiāo huà xiān wéi 、 yī zhǒng huò shù zhǒng gāo néng xiāo suān zhī kě sù jì děng xiàng guān zhū yīn sù shè xiǎng ér lái de

On the basis of completing the first step of the trunk extraction method. The order of the main part (subject + predicate + object) is the same in both English and Chinese, after completing the first step of the trunk extraction method, the sentence can be divided into some parts according to the rule of linear extension of English thinking and inverse linear extension of Chinese thinking, and reorganize the EST sentence:

Main structure: shēng chéng qì tǐ chéng fèn shì yóu ... zǔ chéng 。

zuò wéi hā lóng miè huǒ qì tì dài xì tǒng tuī jìn jì de shēng chéng qì tǐ chéng fèn ,

(4)

(1)

(yīng shì) yóu zhù yú kuài sù chǎn shēng dà liàng wú gù tǐ cán zhā h é wú dú de qì tǐ ,

(3)

(2)

yóu cóng rán shāo lǜ xiū zhèng 、 jiǎn rè zhuāng zhì 、 dà liàng xiāo suān ǎn 、 wēi liàng de xiāo huà xiān wéi 、 yī zhǒng huò shù zhǒng gāo néng xiāo suān zhī kě sù jì děng xiàng guān zhū yīn sù shè xiǎng ér lái de

(6)

āo huà xiān wéi 、 yī zhǒng huò shù zhǒng gāo néng xiāo suān zhī kě sù jì děng xiàng guān zhū yīn sù shè xiǎng ér lái de

kě jiāo zhù shuāng jī tuī jìn jì zǔ chéng 。

(5)

Similarly, example 6 can be split as follows:

Victory Garden, a collection of 75 essays ranging from general topics such as fertilizers and crop yield to detailed information on all the standard garden vegetables and 60 species of houseplants, is now part of Compuserve's thousands of informational categories, according to Ted Batutis, a computer consultant with a doctorate in vegetable crops.

Split by phrase:

(1) *Victory Garden*

(2) a collection of 75 essays

(3) ranging from general topics such as fertilizers and crop yield to detailed information on all the standard garden vegetables

(4) 60 species of houseplants

(5) part of Compuserve's thousands of informational categories

(6) according to Ted Batutis

(7) a computer consultant with a doctorate in vegetable crops

Corresponding Chinese Translation:

(1) 《shèng lì yuán pǔ》

(2) shōu lù 75 piān lùn wén de zā zhì

(3) nèi róng hán gài yǒu cóng féi liào hé zuò wù chǎn liàng děng pǔ biàn xìng wén tí zài dào yǒu guān gè zhǒng biāo zhǔn yuán pǔ shū cài de xiáng xì shuō míng

(4) (nǎi róng hán gài) 60 zhǒng shì nèi zuò wù

(5) Compuserve jǐ qiān zhǒng xìn xī fēn lèi zhōng de yī bù fèn

(6) jù Ted Batutis

(7) shū cài zuò wù xué bó shì 、 jì suàn jī gù wén

After completing the first step of the trunk extraction method, the sentence can be divided into different parts according to the rule of linear extension of English thinking and inverse linear extension of Chinese thinking, and reorganize the EST sentence:

The Chinese main sentence: 《shèng lì yuán pǔ》, xiàn zài shì Compuserve jǐ qiān zhǒng xìn xī fēn lèi zhōng de yī bù fèn 。

jù shū cài zuò wù xué bó shì 、 jì suàn jī gù wén Ted Batutis shuō , shōu lù 75 piān lùn wén ,

(7)

(6)

(2)

nǎi róng hán gài cǎi cóng féi liào hé zuò wù chǎn liàng děng pǔ biàn xìng wén tí , zài dào yǒu guān gè zhǒng biāo zhǔn

(3)

de yuán pǔ shū cài h é 60 zhǒng shì nèi zuò wù de xiáng xì zī liào de 《shèng lì yuán pǔ》 , xiàn zài shì Compuserve jǐ

(4)

(1)

qiān zhǒng xìn xī fēn lèi zhōng de yī bù fèn 。

(5)

From the above analysis, we can conclude that: Sentence length, there are many long sentences in English and short sentences in Chinese. In Chinese, on the contrary, meaning is expressed directly through words, and different meanings are often expressed through different short sentences; Sentence structure differences: English is more subordinate than Chinese. English sentences use long modifiers in simple sentences to make sentences longer, and use clauses to make

sentences more complex, which are often connected with the main sentence or other clauses through the leading words of clauses; Chinese always like using short sentences, and the expression structure is relatively loose, and when English clauses are translated into Chinese, they often become some clauses. Based on those, these steps are suggestions in translating EST.

IV. CONCLUSION

The linguists in China have done pioneering work in comparing English and Chinese. With the rapid development of science and technology, a variety of new disciplines and fields emerge as the times go by, and a large number of new scientific and technological words come into being, which makes the translation of scientific and technological English literature more and more difficult. Translation practice has proved that the similarities between English and Chinese are generally easier to transfer between the two languages, while the differences between English and Chinese are often the difficulties in translation. Therefore, we try to explore the nature of the translation skills of scientific and technological English literature. Once we find out the differences between English and Chinese and the regularity of their expression, the problem will be solved. It not only accelerates the speed of translation, but also improves the quality of translation, and constantly improves the translation level of scientific English documents.

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Linguistic Features and Patterns of Texting: Results of a Case Study at an Indian University

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Abstract—The main objective of the present study is to explore the linguistic features which characterize English used by texters. It also aims to investigate if texting follows any specific pattern. As this study aimed to investigate the linguistic features of texting and their impact on the structure of Standard English, the data of the study were collected from a sample of ninety students. The morphosyntactic elements, phonological elements and code mixing elements were linguistically analyzed separately, providing some examples from the data collected for the study. Although punctuation has been discussed under both morphosyntax and phonology, its significant presence in the data prompted us to look into the pragma-semantic elements in the use of punctuation by the texters. Five sent emails, five sent SMS and five sent Facebook chats from each of the respondents were collected to test the linguistic features of texting. SMS are more deviated from Standard English than Facebook chat texts in some cases such as deletion of subject and deletion of punctuation. It is found out that email texts were less deviated from Standard English than SMS and Facebook chat texts. It was found out that the respondents deviated from the Standard English in all the aspects which were examined, i.e. in morphosyntactic and phonological structures, which indicated that it could be a threat to Standard English. This study proved that texting followed some patterns in some cases but it was randomly used in other cases and it is difficult to control and find fixed patterns followed.

Index Terms—texting, linguistic features, patterns, standard English, deviation

I. INTRODUCTION

Language and communication are interrelated terms and cannot be treated separately. No doubt there are several mediums of communication like internet, landline phone, letters, fax, telegram, pagers, television, radio, hoardings, newspapers, magazines and websites but nowadays the most popular tools of communication are Email, SMS and Facebook chats.

As texting has some linguistic features that are different from the features of Standard English, the present study explores the linguistic features of English used in texting. In this paper, the term ‘texting’ refers to the English used in the three tools of communication, namely, Email, SMS and Facebook chats texts. There are range of expressions for texting such as ICT English, txtng, textism, text messages, CMC, textspeak, netspeak and netwrite, which are interchangeably used by the researchers in this paper.

The focus of this research is mainly on linguistic features of texting. The study has been conducted in Aligarh Muslim University (AMU), one of Indian universities where English is used as a medium of instruction and majority of the students speak Urdu/Hindi, which is the first language or the mother tongue of most of the students.

II. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

As we are in the age of globalization, the world appears to have shrunk in size effectively because of better electronic connectivity between people now. This is mainly due to the development in the information and communication technology. This implies that it becomes more and more important to know how ICT users use the language of texting. As the use of texting grows, it often replaces traditional methods of communication. So, there must be studies that investigate and explore the features of texting. This study is significant because it is a good contribution to the field of linguistics and it can help scholars, linguists and others who are interested in exploring how texting works. As texting is a new genre in its own, there is a need for empirical studies to clearly understand this type of English especially in a multilingual setting like India.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What are the linguistic features and patterns of texting used by Indian ESL speakers?
2. Is the language used in texting governed by certain patterns?

IV. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In the introduction to James Cochrane's *Between You and I: A Little Book of Bad English*, Humphrys (2005) writes "there are so many threats to the survival of good, plain English that it is not easy to be optimistic. Email has a great deal to answer for. Punctuation is no longer required and verbs are abandoned with the speed of a striptease artiste late for her next performance. Text messaging is worse—much worse" (Cited in Wolman, 2008. P. 179).

A well-known example of a persistent critic of texting is John Humphrys. In his article, "I h8 txt msg: How Texting Is Wrecking Our Language" (2007), he calls texters "vandals" who "are doing to our language what Genghis Khan did to his neighbors eight hundred years ago". He says that they destroy English, pillage its punctuation; savage its sentences and destroy its vocabulary. Baron (2008) labels texting as a threat. For her, "if email more or less entirely replaces the old-fashioned letter, the culture as a whole will end up with a deficit; it will have lost in quality whatever it has gained in quantity".

Texting poses a threat for adolescents who are poor spellers and who are in the process of learning correct spelling (Ali, Hasnain & Beg 2019 and Simoš-Perlant, et al. 2018). Destiny (2018) finds that Facebook users do not care about punctuation marks, spelling and grammatical errors. Texting leads to ambiguity and misunderstanding (Albasheer & Alfaki 2016; Ali, Hasnain & Beg 2012, 2015; and Yunis 2019). Haryono, Lelono & Kholifah, (2018) conclude that students sent short messages to their teachers which is deviant from Standard one which is less appropriate and less acceptable. Totanes, & Lintao (2019) find that students tend to use texting even in their class interactions. Texters deviate from standard language in other languages and not only English. Jaashan (2014) studies Arabic texting and concludes that Arabic texters deliberately deviate from the Arabic language norms.

On the other hand, Ormazabal (2017) finds out that texters use texting in informal context but not in formal one. Abbasova (2016) and Verheijen (2019) suggest that students should be taught when it is proper to text in order to minimize its negative effect on the students' English language proficiency. They believe that youths will write actively and creatively if they receive proper education on how and when to use texting. Crystal (2008) and Ahmed & Al-kadi (2016) believe that texting does not have a negative influence on texting. Hussain & Lukmana (2019) find that texting is a new method for communication which uses words innovatively. McSweeney (2017) opines out that using social media in the target language can help students develop fluency and intercultural competence skills.

V. METHODOLOGY

This section is devoted to present the methodology employed by the researchers to achieve the objectives and aims of the study. The study was conducted on Plus Two, Bachelor, Master and PhD students from Faculties of Arts, Social Science, Engineering and Technology, Science and Commerce, Aligarh Muslim University, India. The number of students surveyed was ninety. Each student was asked to write/send the last 5 sent SMS in their mobile phones, the last 5 sent email texts and 5 chat texts from their Facebook accounts.

The mobile number of the first author was provided to the participants on the survey page. To avoid bias and to encourage the participants to writing/sending SMS from their mobile phones, they were asked not to disclose their names or the names of the receivers. All these instructions were given in the directive of this part as follows: "Please have a look at your mobile phone and write down the last five messages that you have sent in pure English or in English mixed with any other language, e.g. Hindi/Urdu and English. You can change or erase the names in them, if you like; but please send them in the same way they were sent, without correcting any mistakes whatsoever. If you do not have enough time to write them down, kindly forward them to my mobile phone number: (9897164030)".

Ling (2005) used the same method as he asked the respondents to read the content of the last three messages they had sent. This approach had several advantages. There was an ethical and a methodical reason for why the researcher asked for the last sent emails or SMS as opposed to those received. Ethically, it was not fair for the researcher to ask for messages which a respondent had received. Morally, one could not include data from persons who had not given their consent to participate in the study. Methodically, one does not know the background, demography and other characteristics of the sender too.

Collecting Email, SMS and Facebook chats texts was a herculean task as some of the respondents flatly refused to do the task as it killed their privacy. Crystal (2008: 103) points out that:

texting data is very difficult to get hold of. ... I had already encountered resistance when collecting email and chatroom data for my *Language and the Internet*, but people were far more reluctant to let me see their texts. It was as if I had asked them for a window into their most intimate world.

To get SMS, chat and email texts in very first attempt was near to impossible. For this reason, only a part of the data was collected in October, November and December of 2010. Some participants sent the researcher SMS but not emails or chat messages or vice versa. The participants assured that they would send the email, SMS or chat texts later. But most of them did not do so. The chat texts and email texts received were not enough to conduct the study. So, the researcher had to opt for another way of collecting the data. The researcher visited the participants in their hostels with

the laptop that was connected with wireless internet. The participants, one by one, were kindly requested to fill up the questionnaire, send/write the SMS and log in to their Facebook accounts and send the last five sent chat messages to the researcher's account. The same process was done in the case of collecting email texts. The process of collecting the texts data was done in January, February and March 2011.

The collected data were coded and classified manually. The researchers used a descriptive method to analyze the data of texting. The researcher categorized the collected data of texting into four sections: morphosyntactic, pragma-semantic, phonological and sociolinguistic (code-mixing) features. As some of the texts of emails, SMS and chats received were in English mixed with Hindi or Urdu, the researcher had to take help of one Indian national whose mother tongue was Urdu and who knew Hindi as well. The researcher took the Indian's help in translating the Urdu/Hindi mixed words, phrases or sentences into English and classifying those words, phrases or sentences into their parts of speech, etc.

VI. LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS

A. Linguistic Analysis of Morphosyntactic Structure

1) Deletion of Subject

It was noticed that texters sometimes delete the subject. The following are some examples provided in 1 (a-f):

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---|
| a. m not. | (I am not.) |
| b. takin his food. | (he is taking his food) |
| c. think youve been hacked agen aadam | (I think you have been hacked again Adam.) |
| d. m waiting for her | (I am waiting for her.) |
| e. wz calin u | (I/he/she was calling you.) |
| f. looking awesome in the pic | (You/he/she are/is looking awesome in the picture.) |

In the above examples (1 a-f), the subjects of the sentences were deleted but still the sentences were understood, with the exception of the last two sentences. It was observed that first person pronoun, second person pronoun and the third person pronoun were mostly deleted. Deletion of subject was found in Email, SMS and Facebook chats. The study found that a sentence becomes ambiguous if the subject is deleted as in the last two examples.

2) Deletion of Functional Head

In texting, functional heads such as auxiliaries, modals, articles, prepositions, etc were deleted. Such kind of deletion was found in SMS, emails and chats. The following are some examples provided in 2 (a-g):

- | | |
|------------------------|---------------------------|
| a. it very important | (It is very important) |
| b. u online? | (Are you online?) |
| c. h u? | (How/who are you?) |
| d. he like a real hero | (He is like a real hero.) |
| e. I m waiting u | (I am waiting for you.) |
| f. he said me | (He said to me.) |
| g. that is perfect man | (That is a perfect man.) |

In the above examples, the auxiliaries 'is' and 'are' are deleted in the first four sentences (2a-d) and the particle 'for', the preposition 'to' and the article 'a' were deleted from the last three sentences (2e-g). All these were deleted by texters because the message or meaning can sometimes be conveyed to the addressee without these functional heads.

3) Deletion of Punctuation

It seems that texters commonly delete punctuations. The following are some examples deletion of punctuation:

- | | |
|---|---|
| a. Gud keep gng on wt abt d dining system | (Good. Keep going on ! What about dining system?) |
| b. wt happened to u do'nt bother about this this wll calm down within 2 days its just the way to make money and bcoz new admission is going to open and obviously AMU dont deserve AMUSU election it shud be banned forever (What happened to you? Don't bother about this. This will calm down within two days. It's just the way to make money and because new admission is going to open and obviously AMU doesn't deserve AMUSU election. It should be banned forever.) | |

In the above examples, punctuation marks were deleted. Crystal (2008) claims that deletion of punctuation occurs in texting because of time, money, space and energy factors. However, in this study we found that texters deleted punctuation in emails and chats only where time, money, space and energy were not the concerning factors. This means that these were not the reasons behind deleting the punctuation in texting. Poh, Ung and Tan (2011) find that the errors in punctuations comprised mainly of unnecessary punctuations, incorrect use and omission of commas, elimination of apostrophes, wrong substitutions for periods and the absence of the periods at the end of a sentence.

4) Clipping

It was found that texters clip in their SMS, emails and chats. The following are some examples of clipping:

- | | |
|----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| a. ill meet u tom | (I will meet you tomorrow.) |
| b. im doin Msc in chemstry | (I am doing M.Sc in Chemistry.) |

In the first example, there was a clipping in the word 'tom' and in the second example there was a g-clipping in the word 'doin'. Clippings were found in SMS and chats but not in emails.

5) *Contraction*

Texters commonly use contraction in their emails, SMS and chats. It was found that the students surveyed used contraction in their texting. The following are some examples:

- a. thats hw 2 do it. (That is how to do it.)
- b. plzz dont forget 2 vote 4 Qaderi (Please do not forget to vote for Qaderi.)

In the above two examples, the students surveyed used contractions in the words 'that's' and 'don't'. It was found that contraction was used by texters in SMS, emails and chats. The texter didn't abbreviate or overuse the name of the elected "Qaderi". This shows that the texter did not text the name either out of respect to the candidate or to avoid the misunderstanding of the message.

6) *Mechanics of Capitalization: Words with Upper Case*

It was found that texting users sometimes used words with upper case. The following are some examples:

- a. I LOVE HER TOO MUCH. (I love her too much.)
- b. I DO NOT KNOW ANYTHING. (I do not know anything.)
- c. H R U? (How are you?)

In the above examples, texting users used words with upper case in SMS and chats. Such words were rarely found in emails. It appears that texting users often use words with upper case for emphasis, surprise and expression of strong feelings, etc.

7) *Mechanics of Capitalization: Words with Lower Case*

Texters commonly used words with lower case. It was found that words with lower case were used in emails, SMS and chats. The following are some examples:

- a. im n amu campus (I am in AMU Campus.)
- b. im still n delhi but i will reach aligarh within four hours (I am still in Delhi but I will reach Aligarh within four hours.)
- c. i dont no y the vc did nt understand the matter. (I do not know why the V.C. did not understand the matter.)

In each of the above examples, there were two or more words with lower case such as 'i', 'amu', 'delhi', 'aligarh', etc. The content analysis found the usage of lower case was very common in whole messages. The texts studied showed that the participants were more likely to ignore the use of upper case and preferred using lower case in various forms of sentence structure. Prøysen (2009) argue that the frequent use of lower case in text messaging gradually turned into a habit.

B. *Overuse of Punctuation: Pragma-semantic Analysis*

It was noticed that texting users commonly overuse punctuation which is also occurs under as in the following examples:

- a. where r u ?????????? (Where are you?)
- b. Going gr8.....carry on.....may ALLAH (SWT) blesses u... (Great! Carry on! May Allah bless you.)

In the first example (8a), there was an overuse of the question mark '?' that could be an indication of emphasis or surprise. In the second example (8b), the overuse of the periods could be used as a fashion.

C. *Linguistic Analysis of Phonological Items*

1) *Deletion of Consonants*

In texting, the users deleted some consonants. In this study, it was found that texting users deleted consonants in emails, SMS and chats. The following are some examples:

- a. I m wel (I am well.)
- b. send me ur adres plzz (send me your address, please.)
- c. I no ur rom (I know your room)
- d. giv me ur mobile numer (give me your mobile number.)
- e. it iz nice piture (It is a nice picture.)

In the above examples (9a-b), consonants were deleted. In this study, it was found that the consonants were usually deleted if they were silent or repeated. The consonant 'l' was deleted in the word 'wel' (=well) and the consonants 'd' and 's' in the word 'adres' (=address) were deleted as they were repeated in the spellings of these words. In the third example (9c), the consonants 'k' and 'w' were deleted because they are silent. Sometimes texters delete consonants that are neither repeated nor silent, as in the case of (9d-e), where the consonant sounds /b/ and /k/ are pronounced but they were deleted from the words 'number' and 'picture'.

2) *Deletion of Vowels*

The texting users delete vowels in their SMSes, emails and chats. The following are some examples:

- a. Unfrtnatly i couldnt (Unfortunately I could not.)
- b. Dey hv got it (They have got it.)
- c. nthn cn b don (Nothing can be done.)
- d. tk cr (Take care)

e. raly (really)

From the above examples, it can be noticed that vowels were deleted but it was not a rule as it was shown in the word 'hv'; the vowel 'a' and the silent vowel 'e' were deleted. Noticing the whole data of this study, deletion of vowels was almost a random process.

3) Substitution of Equivalent Sounds

In net speak, the students substitute equivalent sounds for phone(s) or words as in the following examples:

- a. she is n d gals hostl (she is in the girls' hostel.)
- b. this iz very bad (this is very bad.)
- c. c u L8a (see you later.)

In the above examples, texters substituted equivalent sounds for phones and words. In the words 'gals' and 'iz', in the first and second examples, the users substituted phones with equivalent sounds. In the third example, the users substituted equivalent sounds for words.

4) Substitution of a Single Letter for Phone(s)

The texters sometimes substitute a single letter for phones as in the following examples:

- a. Thats enouf (that is enough.)
- b. thanx (thanks)

As shown in the above examples, texters might use a single letter for phones. The letters 'f', in the word 'enouf' and 'x' in the word thanx were substituted for phone(s).

5) Substitution of Number(s) for Phone(s)

Texters use numbers to represent phones or words in their texting. The following are some examples:

- a. gud 9t/n8/98. (Good night)
- b. He came L8. (He came late.)
- c. ther iz no L8 in our hostel (There is no light in our hostel.)
- d. downlod it 4m d net (Download it from the net.)
- e. ther r 6t studnts in our batch (There are 60 students in our batch.)
- f. gr8 (great.)
- g. B4 1 week (Before one week.)
- h. me 2 (Me too.)
- i. it iz 4 u (It is for you.)

In the above examples, numbers were substituted for phones or words. In the first seven examples, the numbers '9', '98', '8', '8', '8', '4' and '6' were substituted for phones. In the last two examples, the number '2' and '4' substituted for the words 'too' and 'for'.

6) Words Represented by Single Letters

In texting, there are words represented by single letters as in the following examples:

- a. al d best bro (All the best, brother.)
- b. she wants to be y (She wants to be you.)
- c. hiiiiiiiiiii, h r u (hi, how are you?)

As shown in the above examples, there were words represented by single letters. In the first example, the letter 'd' was used for 'the'. In the second example, the letter 'y' represented the word 'you'. In the third example, the letters 'h', 'r', and 'u' represented the words 'how', 'are' and 'you'.

7) Overuse of Sounds

If we assumed that texting was a way of abbreviation, the following examples proved that texting was not only a matter of abbreviation.

- a. Okkkkkkkkk/okzzzzzzz (Ok.)
- b. Im fineeeeeeee (I am fine.)
- c. Thats greattttttttt (That is great.)
- d. Plzzzzzzzzzz (please.)

As in the above examples, overuse of sounds, in texting, was an indication of emphasis, surprise, etc. The words 'Okkkkkkkkk' and 'greattttttttt' were an indication of surprise, the word 'plzzzzzzzzz' was an indication of emphasis.

D. Linguistic Analysis of Code Mixing Items

Code mixing was another issue which occurred in texting. In this study, code mixing could be from Urdu/Hindi into English and vice versa. It was found that code mixing occurred in the following cases.

1) Code Mixed Nouns

The following sentences show examples of code-mixed nouns:

- a. dis is the ultimate mantra (This is the ultimate solution)
- b. I m at Dharna (I am at agitation.)
- c. I v got dahi (I have got yoghurt.)
- d. yar i always think about her (Friend, I always think about her.)
- e. bhai unftrnatly i misssssss all (Brother, unfortunately I miss all.)

2) Code Mixed Adjectives

Texting users code mixed adjectives as in the following examples.

- a. dis is jahil decision (This is a foolish decision.)
- b. what happened to ur purana bike (What happened to your old bike?)

3) Code Mixed Adverbs

Texting users also code mixed adverbs but in this study it was found that the students surveyed used only one code mixed adverb in the data collected. This code-mixed adverb is in the following sentence.

- a. Come jaldi (come quickly.)

VII. DISCUSSION

Through the texts of Email, SMS and Facebook chats, it was found that texting was used in different ways by people. It is also difficult to control and characterize it with a fixed pattern. Crystal (2008: 46) states that “*Abbreviated* might appear in half a dozen different guises. I have seen *tonight* written as *tnight*, *tonyt*, *tonite*, *tonit*, *2nt*, *2night*, *2nyt*, and *2nite*, and there are probably several more variants out there. Similar variations can be found in other kinds of electronic communication.” According to Shaw (2008: 48) “One of the problems of texting is the uncertainty and variation of spelling words: *anything* can appear as *anythin*, *nethin*, *nethin*, *anyfing*, *anyfin*, *nefin*, *anyting*, *anytin* or *netin*.” This study proved that texting followed some patterns in some cases but it was randomly used in other cases.

It is claimed that space and money factors are reasons for texting but this claim was not appropriate as it was found that texting occurred in chat and email where space and money factors were not involved to be reasons for texting. Moreover, it was found that in email and chat there was an overuse of punctuation and sounds as in the texted words hiiiiiiiiiii, greattttttttt, congrats!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!, Plzzzzzzzzzz, Okzzzzzzzz etc. This proved that texting is not a matter of abbreviation used for the purpose of saving money, space, etc as most of the scholars claim. Therefore, texting is not only to save money, time, space and effort because it was found that there was an overuse of punctuation and sounds in the data and there were deletion of punctuation, subjects, sounds and functional head in emails and facebook chats, where money and space were not concerned. Moreover, effort and time could have been reasons for texting but it was found that there was an overuse of punctuation and sounds/letters.

Crystal (2008) talks about key-presses and pauses. He says that energy caused by key-presses and pauses is one of the reasons for texting. He states that the process of sending *def*, for example, while sending an SM, senders should do the following:

- you press the ‘3’ key: this gives you ‘d’
- you wait for the time-out to complete (shown by the appearance of a flashing cursor on the screen)
- you press the ‘3’ key twice, making sure that your second press follows the first quickly, before the time-out takes effect: this gives you ‘e’
- you wait for the time-out to complete
- you press the ‘3’ key three times, again making sure that your second and third presses follow the first quickly, before the time-out takes effect: this gives you ‘f’.

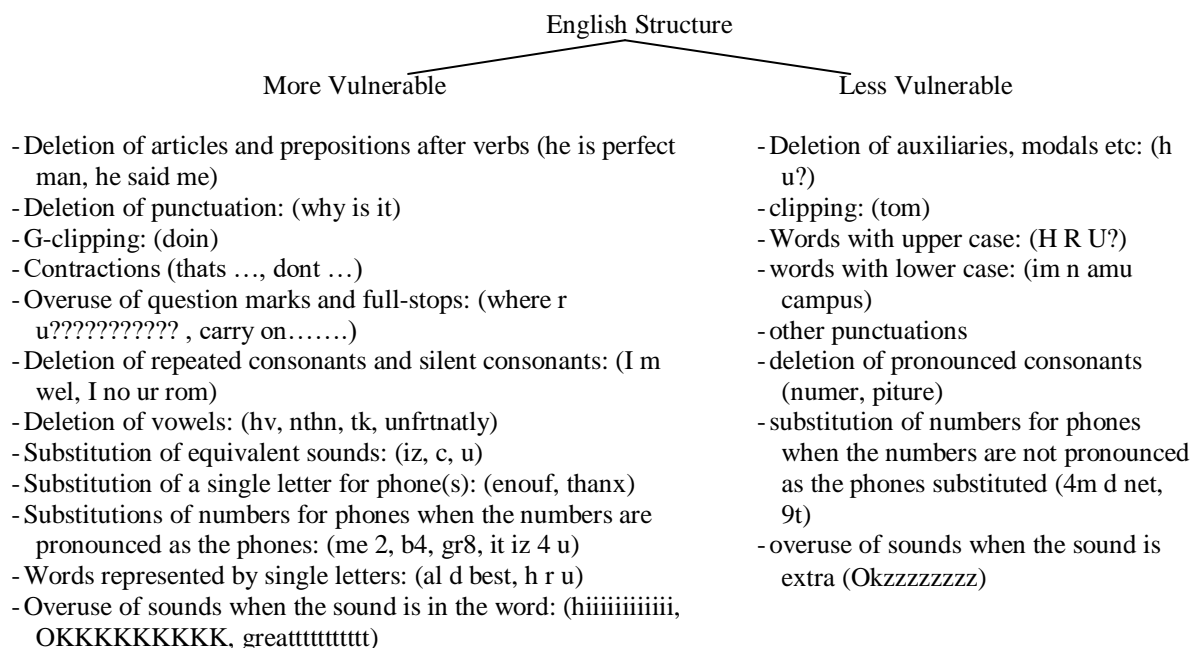
But in this study, it was found that there was no apparent difference between email, SMS and Facebook chats with regard to deviation from Standard English. In other words, it was found that abbreviations were found to be more or less the same in emails, SMS and Facebook chats. This indicated that energy is not a reason for breaking the rules of Standard English, and this is somewhat in disagreement with what was said earlier by Crystal. It could be only a fashion as Crystal also believes, but fashion creates variations that can be used at the cost of Standard English. Idegbekwe (2018) points that the spelling errors used by Facebook users are because of laxity, laziness and haste. This is in consistence with Sutherland (2002) who believes that texting masks mental laziness.

Through the linguistic analysis of the data, it was found that texting could;

- affect the orthography of English language;
- create a problem of identification of errors or creativity;
- affect word structure and grammatical structure;
- reiterate vocabulary; repeated use of same few words with a view to achieving texted messages was perhaps reducing the vocabulary repository that the individuals have, and inadvertently making the students to limit their vocabulary knowledge;
- create texting divide; it creates in-group-texting community; and
- blur the formal-informal distinction between addresser and addressee.

What characterizes English is its openness to change. It has never imposed any restrictions on the use of borrowed words from contact languages. English has seen more noticeable changes compared to other languages such as French or Italian. For whatever reasons, diachronically English has changed a lot over a period of time (old, middle and new). Now the current change in this language can be attributed to texting. People are free to use texting according to their convenience at the cost of Standard English. Based on analysis of the data in this work, a general observation can be made which has a bearing on the longevity of structure and the preservation of perceived notion of standardness of English language.

The present state of change in the structure of English language suggests that there are certain structures that are more vulnerable and there are others which are less vulnerable and liable to change. The following tree diagram shows the structures that might be more vulnerable and those that might be less vulnerable as observed from this study. Such changes and observations can vary from time to time and from one study to another.



VIII. CONCLUSION

The current study aimed to explore the features and patterns of texting used by ESL students at our university. The study shows that the respondents deviated from the Standard English norms in all the aspects of language structure examined here, i.e. morphosyntactic, pragma-semantic and phonological, thereby suggesting the possibility of threat to Standard English. The study also shows that lack of uniformity and consistency in texting has brought in an uncontrollable variability in the structure of English. It has also made it difficult to predict and characterize the emergence of any pattern in the change in English language structure. This is in consonance with Baron (2008) which states that a phenomenon in flux makes it difficult to provide any prediction of specific pattern of change in structure due to texting. However, despite our inability to provide any emerging pattern in the change in language structure, we can still make prediction with regard to the longevity and vulnerability which can make certain structures more vulnerable and others less vulnerable. This study also shows that time, money, and space may not be the only factors leading to overuse of texting but laxity, laziness and haste are equally responsible.

IX. RECOMMENDATIONS

Barasa and Mous (2009) conclude that we cannot stop texting and we need to accept it and find out solutions to the complaints that it is threatening the Standard English. Therefore, the researchers conclude this study by suggesting the following recommendations that might help to solve the complaints that texting is invading the standardness of English.

- There should be a greater effort to minimize or curb texting to occur in school and academics, as it will be a real danger if it appears in any academic work. Crystal (2008. P.161) states "It would indeed be worrying if students entered an examination hall unaware of the difference between formal and informal English, or between Standard and non-standard English."
- The causes that lead to the decline of Standard English should be checked before it gets out of control.
- As texting is inevitable and there is no way to stop it completely, methods and measures should be created to make students differentiate between the Standard and non-Standard English and separate them accordingly. The differences between Standard English and non-Standard English should be shown especially to the young people and school students where the major complaints are raised. The researchers recommend that texting should be confined to its own communication context. In other words, the students should be made aware of where and when texting can be used.
- Email, SMS and Facebook chats could also be useful tools to teach Standard English. As they have become global ways of communication, they might be exploited in teaching Standard English and making the acquisition of Standard English more accessible for everyone using email, SMS and Facebook chats.

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Epistemic Modality and Projection in Argumentative Writing: A Corpus-driven Comparison of Chinese English Majors and Native English Speakers

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Abstract—In academic writings, writers are supposed to properly express the degree of certainty and doubt. Especially in the argumentative text, writers are required to give appropriate arguments and project previous theories or ideas. Epistemic modality and projection are concerned with how writers express their degree of certainty and doubt, which is important for a qualified argumentative text writer. Through comparison of 30 pieces of argumentative essays respectively from Chinese English majors and native English speakers of undergraduate level, this study finds that Chinese English majors rely more on a narrower and imbalanced epistemic devices and projecting verbs in their writings. Therefore, it's imperative for Chinese English majors to expand their vocabulary and improve their English proficiency.

Index Terms—projection, epistemic modality, argumentative writing, second language learner

I. INTRODUCTION

For students at the tertiary level, writing is deemed as one of the most important academic skills (Vandenhoeck, 2018). Writing in a foreign language is difficult for second language learners (Hinkel, 1997; Reid, 2002; Warschauer, 2010). Among the different writing genres, argumentative writing is most challenging and a major problem is to convey statements with an appropriate degree of doubt and certainty (Hyland & Milton, 1997; Luna, Villalón, Mateos & Martín, 2020). Authors need to distinguish the opinions from facts or other people, evaluating their assertions in acceptable and persuasive ways. As such, the ability to express doubt and certainty properly is a task of quite complexity but importance. Unfortunately, the expression of doubt and certainty in a suitable degree has long turned out to be troublesome for the writers, especially for those nonnative academic novices.

Epistemic modality is concerned with writers or speakers' evaluation of possibilities and the degree of confidence in what they write or say, or commitment to the truth and their statements (Coates, 1983; Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985). It's very important for writers to make statements with the precise degree of certainty or doubt, which requires the writers to master a variety of epistemic devices of the target language. However, researches have evidenced that it's quite difficult for second language learners to make statements with an appropriate degree of certainty and uncertainty (Allison, 1995; Hyland & Milton, 1997; McEnery & Kifle, 2002).

Another perspective of understanding the writer's certainty and doubt is through projection. When authors are writing, in addition to proposing questions and making claims, they also need to find fit-in facts, statistics, or theories to support their assertions. As Thompson (2004) points out, in looking into projection in text, certain threads emerge as particularly worth investigating, and "there is a question of the reporter's attitude toward what is reported" (p.215). That is to say, Thompson believes that the content which the reporter projects is to a large extent decided by his or her intention, but as for the extent to which the reporter agrees with the content and how readers or listeners tell the reporter's attitude, we can find something from the reporter's consideration of the reporting verbs and sources. And a message is either positive or negative, but semantically, there are also intermediate stages, which are between the two polars (yes and no), such as "maybe" or "supposedly" which are expressed by modality.

Since the epistemic modality and projection are the two parallel ways of understanding writer's expressing of certainty and doubt, yet little research has combined the two phenomena appearing simultaneously in an argumentative writing. This study hence attempts to discuss the two facets based on corpora of native and nonnative English speakers. Specifically, the present study attempts to compare the writers' expression of doubt and certainty in argumentative essays of both native English speakers (NES) and Chinese English majors (CEM) of undergraduate level. Through such comparison, the result would provide reflection or reference for second language learners' writing and educators' teaching.

II. EPISTEMIC MODALITY AND PROJECTION IN TEXT

A. Epistemic Modality

Modality is quite important in academic written discourse as it conveys the writer's attitude to readers (Yang, 2018). Simply stated, modality is the space between "yes" and "no" (Thompson, 2004). Modality can be typically divided into two basic types: epistemic modality and root modality (Halliday, 1994; Hyland, 1994; Hoyer, 1997). Epistemic modality is a means of conveying the degree of a speaker's or writer's commitment to the truth of what is being asserted. In argumentative writing, writers usually express modality lexically through epistemic modality devices. Traditional modal verbs (or modal auxiliaries), for instance, *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *will*, *would*, *shall*, *should*, etc. are often regarded as the realization of epistemic modality. However, other lexical verbs (e.g., *believe*, *infer*, *think*, *infer*), adjectives (e.g., *definite*, *possible*, *probable*, *certain*), adverbs (e.g., *probably*, *possibly*, *indeed*, *certainly*), nouns (e.g., *possibility*, *doubt*, *belief*, *assertion*) and some units and expressions (e.g., *chances are*, *it seems*) are also used to express certainty and doubt.

TABLE 1
FIVE CATEGORIES OF EPISTEMIC MODALITY

Categories	Examples
a. Certainty	<i>certainly, actually, indeed, in fact, know, think, will, etc.</i>
b. Probability	<i>believe, probably, quite, seem, would, etc.</i>
c. Possibility	<i>may, might, perhaps, possible, possibly, etc.</i>
d. Usuality	<i>always, often, usually, etc.</i>
e. Approximation	<i>about, almost, approximately, etc.</i>

According to Hyland & Milton (1997), the devices of epistemic modality can be divided into five general categories as in Table 1. This categorization has some difference from the types of modality in Systemic Functional Grammar. For instance, Thompson (2004) introduces that there are two basic types of modality (modalization and modulation) on the basis of the information, goods-and-services. However, it has been accepted and examined useful by researchers (Holmes, 1983, 1988; Halliday, 1994; McEnery & Kifle, 2002; Oh, 2007, etc.)

When it comes to a second language learner's expression of epistemic modality, it is necessary to understand certainty and doubt of different extent. For instance, the epistemic modality devices in category of *Certainty* indicate that the writer asserts with certainty that the statement is true or not true, devices in category of *Probability* indicate that the statement is probably true, while devices in category of *Possibility* indicate that the writer asserts his statement is possibly true or possibly not true. In a word, the writer's assertive degree of statement in three categories is approximately shown as: Certainty > Probability > Possibility.

(1) I'm quite **certain** that the reform is beneficial to the regional development.

(2) Learning a second language is **quite** important for a contemporary college student.

(3) It **might** well be adopted by other localities.

The three utterances above provide a simple example that epistemic modality users express certainty and likelihood of different degree. Utterance (1) expresses the writer's certainty about the validity of statement, while utterances (2) and (3) express the writer's estimate that the statements are probably and possibly true. In this way, utterance (1) clearly carries more certainty than (2) and (3), and (3) indicates less certainty than (2).

B. Projection in Text

Halliday (1994) defines projection as "a kind of logical-semantic relationship whereby a clause comes to function not as a direct representation of experience but as a representation of a representation" (p.250). In general, projection is an important concept in SFG to describe a linguistic phenomenon: quote or restate what other people said and thought. In the projection clause complex, the content of the projected clause can be the verbal events as well as the mental events. The verbal events are locutions while the mental events are ideas or thoughts. Thompson (2004) points out that in the case of projecting ideas, since the thinking goes on inside someone's mind, there is no original wording, and the expression choice is open to us.

"Speak English," *said* Carrie. (locution)

"She's nobody's fool," I *thought*. (Idea)

When projecting locutions, it's projecting verbally while projecting mentally is projecting ideas. Both the two kinds of projection can be recognized by the different projecting verbs, for instance in Table 2.

TABLE 2
TYPES OF PROJECTING VERBS

Types	Examples
Locution projecting	<i>say, tell, require, point out, report, remark, observe, ask, query, insist, complain, warn, shout, stammer, murmur, etc.</i>
Idea projecting	<i>think, believe, feel, reckon, hope, expect, suppose, expect, suspect, imagine, etc.</i>

The projecting verbs listed above are far from being exhausted, and due to the genre and text difference, the projecting verbs vary from one to another. The present study focuses on English learners' argumentative essays, and the projecting verbs may be exemplified different from projecting verbs in other texts.

Thompson (1996) interprets projection from the perspective of discourse. He postulates that there are four dimensions of choices in projecting language events: voice, message, signal, and attitude. Thompson (2004) discusses further that the "reporter's attitude and the projecting source are the threads that emerge as particularly worth investigating" (p.215). The projecting verbs carry the reporter's attitude, for instance, 'point out' indicates that the reporter accepts what the other person said as true, while the projecting verb 'claim' suggests that the reporter's doubt and skepticism. Since there is a relative freedom for us to operate projecting language expression, the reporter's decision and attitude thus should be taken into consideration.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Research Questions

Inspired by Thompson's perspective of projection in text, the present study intends to explore further the projection phenomenon in English learners' argumentative essays combining with epistemic modality. Considering that English learners in universities are a large group employing English, and argumentative writing, a combination of argument, proofs, facts, and personal ideas, is a relatively ideal text for doing such research, the present study attempts to explore how projection and modality are embodied in their writing, and how projection and modality show the writers' attitude when students are doing argumentative essays. To make the study more objective and significant, the study focuses on both CEMs' and NESs' essays. To be more specific, the present study will answer the following two questions.

Q1: What is the feature of the projecting verbs and modality devices used in CEM and NES corpora?

Q2: Is there any significant difference between CEM and NES in employing modality and projection?

B. The Two Corpora

The data in the present study includes 30 CEMs' argumentative essays and 30 NESs' argumentative essays. The CEM are students majoring in English at a university in southwest China, and NESs' essays are from the Michigan Corpus of Upper-level Student Papers (MICUSP). MICUSP, a corpus launched by the Corpus Research Group at the University of Michigan's English Language Institute, provides graded papers written by University of Michigan students, and covers a wide range of disciplines and text-type or genres.

In the present study, the essays from both CEMs and NESs are written by the students of the final year of undergraduate. The reason why the present study centers on the academic essays of final-year undergraduate students is that, the crucial tasks for undergraduate English learners are to acquire language ability and prepare for the academic studies in their postgraduate stage. Therefore, their employments of epistemic modality devices and projection to express adequately can to a large extent be used to examine their studies and then are of concern. After the data collection, the author builds two separate sub-corpora: CEM and NES.

TABLE 3
SIZE OF THE CORPORA

Corpora	Size (bytes)	Word Tokens	Word Type
CEM	415,079	65,924	6,974
NES	436,554	70,368	7,811

From Table 3, it can be seen that the sizes of CEM and NES are quite close and balanced, thus the following discussion and comparison can be carried on. To build two separate corpora is to observe whether there is a significant difference between NES and CEM in terms of employing projection and modality.

C. Procedures

In each corpus, the title, abstract, and reference part are excluded. All the files are converted to "txt" form with a common coding of UTF-8. After that, a computer software Antconc is utilized to index. Antconc is widely applied by researchers to conduct corpus studies and provides researchers with the function of words and phrases indexing. In the present study, it is mainly utilized to index the projecting verbs and epistemic modality devices in clause complexes. In total, 82 projecting verbs and 120 epistemic modality devices are examined in the study on the basis of the previous studies. It should be pointed out that some modality devices overlap with the projecting verbs. For example, *think*, *hope*, *feel*, *believe*, *consider*, *imagine*, etc. in the study work as both idea projecting verbs and modality devices. In addition, the present study discusses projection in clause complex level, and not all the results indexed out meet the requirement. For instance, in general, there are about three forms for each projecting verb and some of them may not function as verbs, which requires manual operation to get rid of the noun form. For instance, the verb *think*, when being imputed into Antconc, has three forms: *think*, *thinks*, and *thought*, in Antconc, and the word form *thought* can also index out the forms of *have/has/had thought* as well as the noun form. Another typical kind of situation requiring manual operation is the verb functions as a name. Here lists some examples:

- a. "he or it had the power to try to suppress or prevent that act or *thought*." (NES13.txt)

- b. “*Said* defines Orientalism in three dimensions, as an academic discipline, as a style of *thought* based on binary distinction between the Occident and the Orient, and the corporate institution that deals with the Orient.” (NES5.txt)
- c. “At that time, although the United *States* had broken apartheid in law, in fact apartheid still existed in the South.” (CEM19.txt)

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This part presents comparative indexing results of epistemic devices and projecting verbs in the two corpora before conducting a general discussion.

A. The Usage of Epistemic Modality in the Two Corpora

Hyland & Milton (1997) provide a list of most frequent epistemic items including 77 items compiled from a lot of researchers and scholars (e.g., Holmes, 1983 & 1988; Quirk et al., 1972, etc.). Korean scholar Oh (2007) extends the list to 110 items. The present study examined the 120 items in the two corpora. (see Appendix A)

TABLE 4
OVERALL FREQUENCY OF THE EPISTEMIC MODALITY DEVICES

	CEM	NES
Total number	2066	2976
Tokens per 100 words	3.1	4.2
Top 10 items	1116 (54.0%)	1344 (45.2%)
Top 20 items	1460 (71.1%)	1935 (65.0%)

From Table 4, Chinese English majors use fewer epistemic modality devices in their argumentative writings than native English speakers. However, both the top 10 and top 20 items of devices in Chinese English majors have respectively higher frequency than those of native English students, which indicates that CEM students' writings contain a more restricted range and higher frequency of using epistemic modality devices than the NES students'.

TABLE 5
TOP TEN MOST FREQUENT EPISTEMIC MODALITY DEVICES

CEM			NES	
Rank	Epistemic Items	Frequency	Epistemic Items	Frequency
1	can	315	would	203
2	will	146	seem	167
3	about	111	will	165
4	should	107	can	164
5	think	91	may	109
6	view	66	should	97
7	know	62	fact	92
8	need	60	claim	91
9	may	53	about	86
10	actually	53	idea	86

When exploring in depth the specific epistemic modality devices use, some similarities in the two corpora as in Table 5 can be observed. For instance, the common items most frequently used by both CEM and NES students are: *can*, *will*, *about*, *should*, *may*. The five items appear on the two lists, but their frequencies are not the same, e.g., the item *about* appears in CEM for 111 times but 86 in NES. Despite this kind of difference, it is more distinctive that some words (e.g., *think*) do not appear in native English speakers' expressions of certainty. Therefore, the Chinese English majors' use of epistemic modality device in argumentative writing tends to be more informal and subjective.

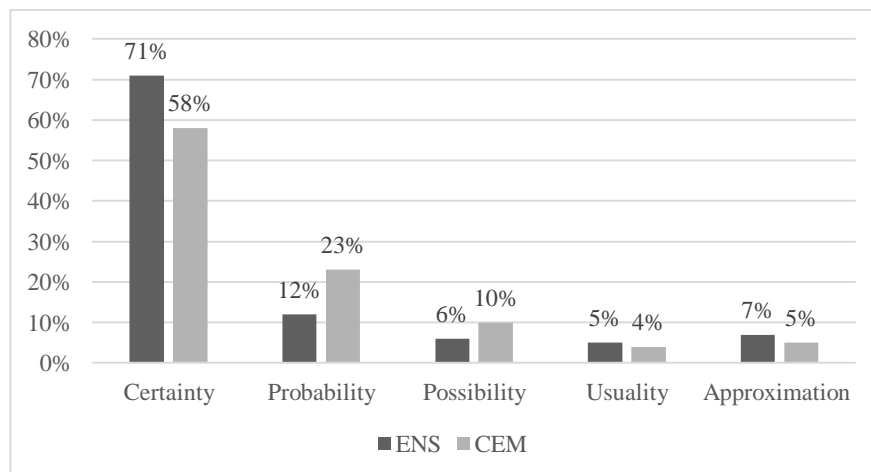


Figure 1 Epistemic modality use across the Five Categories

From Figure 1 above, it can be easily seen that in argumentative writings, both native English speakers and Chinese English majors employ much more certainty than tentativeness. However, Chinese English majors tend to express likelihood than native English speakers.

B. The Usage of Projections in the Two Corpora

By means of Antconc, projection clause complexes are indexed out through imputing the projection markers, especially the projecting verbs. Halliday (2000) points out that there must be a projecting verb or a nominalization of the projecting verb in the projection clause complex. And Thompson's perspective of studying projection in text shows us that in different genres and texts, the commonly used verbs change. For example, in narrative writings, the projection verbs can be more vivid and diverse, e.g., *murmur*, *shout*, *stammer*, etc. However, when it comes to academic writings, there would be academic discourse and formality consideration, hence the choice of the projecting verbs is quite different, e.g., *propose*, *point out*, *claim*, *announce*, etc. Due to the differences of commonly used projecting verbs in different texts, the author combines the features of both argumentative and academic writing, and concludes 55 commonly used projecting verbs which project locutions (verbal events) and 27 ideas (mental events).

TABLE 6
DISTRIBUTIONS OF PROJECTING VERBS AFTER MANUAL OPERATION

Corpora	Projecting verbs	Frequency	Percentage
CEM	Locution	423	0.64%
	Idea	407	0.62%
NES	Locution	652	0.93%
	Idea	479	0.68%

After manual operation, in Table 6, it can be seen that in terms of the frequency of projecting verbs, both locution projecting and idea projection in CEM are higher than those in NES. In particular, in locution projection, NES which takes 0.93% is obviously higher than 0.64% of CEM. But we cannot draw a conclusion that there is a significant difference between the two corpora, and thus more specific and detailed projecting verbs need to be explored.

TABLE 7
TOP TEN MOST FREQUENT PROJECTING VERBS

CEM			NES	
Rank	Projecting verbs	Frequency	Projecting verbs	Frequency
1	think	91	find	81
2	say	91	say	80
3	view	66	claim	79
4	want	62	state	79
5	find	59	think	68
6	show	54	believe	58
7	Regard	35	view	55
8	believe	34	consider	44
9	tell	32	show	37
10	Recognize	19	Tell	37
Total	543 (0.82%)		618 (0.88%)	

From Table 6, the total frequency of the top ten projecting verbs is quite close, and in general, their preferences of projecting verbs are quite similar. Seven words appear in both top-ten lists: *think*, *say*, *view*, *find*, *show*, *believe*, *tell*. However, when the list extends, the difference tends to be more obvious: the frequency of projecting verbs in NES

(1251, 1.78%) is higher than that in CEM (776, 1.2%), and apparently, CEM students employ a narrower range of the projecting verbs (see Appendix B).

C. General Discussion and Implications

The four years of undergraduate is quite important for English learners to accumulate language ability and prepare for academic writings. It is of vital importance for them to make clear the proper usages of modality devices and projecting verbs to express appropriately in their writings. However, from the statistics obtained in the present study, it is still a challenge for these Chinese English majors to master the epistemic modality devices and projecting verbs in their writings. There are various reasons why these second language learners might find it a difficult competence to acquire.

Firstly, the first language competence inevitably exerts an impact on the second language acquisition. L1 competence ideally involves a wide range of knowledge repertoire that people use to communicate appropriately for multiple purposes in their communities, whereas second language competence is usually or inevitably more restricted for the reason that the second language serves a more limited range of communicative needs than the first language, especially when the second language learners reside in their native language communities. Secondly, the second language learning purposes give different priorities for second language use. According to Saville-Troike (2006), in considering the purposes for which a person needs to learn a second language, there are two types of fundamental communicative competence: academic competence and interpersonal competence. The two types of competence focus differently on the skills of reading, speaking and writing. For instance, learning second language for academic purpose gives more priorities to reading and writing competence while interpersonal purpose gives more priorities to listening and speaking. Thirdly, the cultural difference also makes an impact on the second language learner's preference of vocabulary. Having been accustomed to communication in a high context culture, Chinese people tend to express their ideas in a more mild and euphemistic way, which leads their expression in English less assertive than those learners under a low context culture.

The comparison of uses of the epistemic modality and projecting verbs with native English speakers unveils the Chinese English majors' shortage and lower diversity of the vocabulary in their argumentative writings. Second language learners need to develop the ability to express the degree of their commitment to their assertions and convey their attitudes to their readers when they are writing. Therefore, it is urgent for the second language learners to improve their language proficiency.

From a pedagogical perspective, students should expand the range of their epistemic devices, try various types of different categories to accurately and fully express a degree of certainty and doubt in their writings. In addition, specifying the register of written and spoken text can also help the appropriate expression in their writings. In addition, attention should be paid to the cultural difference between native language and the second language communities. Teachers could cultivate students' second language competence according to their learning purposes and encourage students to improve their writing skills through the input of extensive reading of native works.

V. CONCLUSIONS

In academic writings, writers are supposed to use appropriate devices to express the degree of certainty and doubt. Especially in the argumentative text, writers need to make a statement and then illustrate it with evidence, which requires the author to give proper arguments and project previous theory or ideas. This study explored the argumentative essays from Chinese English majors and native English speakers of undergraduate level from the perspective of epistemic modality and projection. The results indicated that Chinese English majors contain a narrower range of both projecting verbs and epistemic modality devices and make less balanced use of them than native English students. In addition, Chinese English majors tend to write in a more assertive tone with stronger certainty than native English students. Through the comparison, Chinese English majors are clearer about their shortages and are expected to expand their vocabulary and improve second language proficiency. This study has limitations as the size of the two corpora is not large enough. Larger corpora could be used to test the findings in this study, and the in-depth usage difference can be discussed in the future studies.

APPENDIX A. EPISTEMIC MODALITY DEVICES AND FREQUENCIES

NES			CEM	
	Devices	Frequency	Devices	Frequency
1.	can	315	would	203
2.	will	146	will	165
3.	should	107	can	164
4.	need	60	may	109
5.	may	53	should	97
6.	would	36	must	84
7.	must	35	need	58
8.	could	34	could	54
9.	have to	31	might	38
10.	can't	27	would not	19
11.	could not	16	have to	18
12.	should not	11	should not	16
13.	dare	8	shall	12
14.	might	6	may not	11
15.	would not	4	could not	5
16.	may not	4	can't	4
17.	couldn't	3	might not	2
18.	won't	2	won't	1
19.	shall	1	dare	0
20.	had better	1	couldn't	0
21.	might not	0	had better	0
22.	shall not	0	shall not	0
23.	needn't	0	needn't	0
24.	mustn't	0	mustn't	0
25.	think	91	seem	167
26.	know	62	claim	79
27.	believe	34	think	68
28.	appear	30	believe	58
29.	feel	29	argue	53
30.	seem	29	consider	44
31.	hope	15	feel	34
32.	doubt	15	know	29
33.	consider	9	assume	23
34.	expect	6	appear	22
35.	tend	6	expect	16
36.	suppose	6	tend	12
37.	imagine	5	suppose	10
38.	claim	4	indicate	10
39.	guess	4	propose	10
40.	indicate	4	doubt	7
41.	predict	3	imagine	7
42.	assume	2	hope	4
43.	estimate	2	guess	1
44.	argue	1	predict	1
45.	propose	1	estimate	1
46.	presume	0	presume	1
47.	speculate	0	speculate	1
48.	about	111	about	86
49.	always	40	often	35
50.	often	11	perhaps	34
51.	never	21	actually	32
52.	In fact	39	never	29
53.	actually	53	always	28
54.	clearly	4	indeed	25
55.	generally	20	clearly	24
56.	usually	10	almost	24
57.	naturally	36	In fact	23
58.	around	16	generally	18
59.	relatively	0	necessarily	18
60.	sometimes	14	usually	15
61.	perhaps	13	around	13
62.	almost	6	likely	13
63.	maybe	2	probably	12

64.	of course	1	presumably	12
65.	In reality	13	relatively	10
66.	definitely	1	certainly	10
67.	obviously	0	possibly	10
68.	surely	6	surely	9
69.	likely	12	sometimes	7
70.	indeed	8	of course	7
71.	undoubtedly	2	largely	6
72.	in X's opinion	1	In general	6
73.	commonly	1	essentially	6
74.	probably	14	naturally	5
75.	frequently	3	in X's opinion	5
76.	apparently	2	frequently	5
77.	inevitably	8	in reality	4
78.	largely	7	obviously	4
79.	certainly	7	definitely	3
80.	In general	2	inevitably	3
81.	normally	9	maybe	2
82.	not always	2	apparently	2
83.	essentially	0	in theory	2
84.	presumably	0	plainly	2
85.	rarely	3	commonly	1
86.	necessarily	1	normally	1
87.	approximately	1	not always	1
88.	doubtless	1	rarely	1
89.	In theory	4	undoubtedly	0
90.	plainly	0	approximately	0
91.	possibly	0	doubtless	0
92.	evidently	0	evidently	0
93.	a certain extent	0	a certain extent	0
94.	view	66	fact	92
95.	fact	52	claim	91
96.	idea	22	idea	86
97.	opinion	19	view	55
98.	hope	15	explanation	27
99.	doubt	15	evidence	17
100.	chance	8	possibility	15
101.	possibility	4	opinion	14
102.	claim	4	doubt	12
103.	evidence	4	certainty	9
104.	explanation	3	assumption	7
105.	danger	2	hope	5
106.	assumption	0	chance	5
107.	certainty	0	danger	4
108.	estimate	0	estimate	1
109.	clear	17	clear	73
110.	certain	16	certain	49
111.	possible	13	sure	44
112.	inevitable	13	possible	42
113.	obvious	13	likely	20
114.	likely	6	obvious	14
115.	sure	5	apparent	8
116.	plain	5	unlikely	7
117.	evident	1	evident	6
118.	unlikely	0	plain	2
119.	apparent	0	inevitable	0
120.	probable	0	probable	0

APPENDIX B. FREQUENCY OF PROJECTING VERBS IN THE CORPORA

NES			CEN	
Rank	Projecting verbs	Frequency	Projecting verbs	Frequency
1	think	91	find	81
2	say	91	say	80
3	view	66	claim	79
4	want	62	state	79
5	find	59	think	68
6	show	54	believe	58
7	regard	35	view	55
8	believe	34	consider	44
9	tell	32	show	37
10	recognize	19	tell	37
11	speak	18	explain	35
12	hold	16	define	32
13	doubt	15	research	31
14	advocate	15	discuss	30
15	hope	15	hold	26
16	explain	13	note	25
17	reveal	12	agree	23
18	point out	11	suggest	23
19	talk about	9	assume	23
20	consider	9	regard	22
21	define	9	want	21
22	put forward	7	speak	21
23	discover	7	determine	20
24	suppose	6	discuss	20
25	discuss	6	assert	20
26	insist	6	point out	16
27	note	5	conclude	16
28	agree	5	expect	16
29	admit	5	recognize	14
30	wonder	5	illustrate	12
31	suggest	4	admit	11
32	suspect	4	indicate	10
33	indicate	4	propose	10
34	claim	4	suppose	10
35	remind	3	imagine	10
36	persuade	3	reveal	9
37	confess	3	discover	9
38	respond	2	advocate	8
39	conclude	2	confirm	8
40	assume	2	doubt	7
41	assert	2	perceive	7
42	acknowledge	2	suppose	6
43	propose	1	persuade	5
44	announce	1	discover	5
45	advise	1	hope	4
46	repeat	1	acknowledge	4
47			recommend	4
48			wonder	3
49			suspect	3
50			insist	3
51			decide	3
52			wonder	3
53			suspect	3
54			repeat	3
55			respond	2
56			announce	2
57			remark	2
58			remind	1
59			remind	1

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Cultivation of Students' Autonomous Learning Ability in Application-oriented Universities

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Abstract—In the knowledge society nowadays, the responsibility of education is not only to impart knowledge to students but also to enable students to have the ability of autonomous learning. Autonomous learning ability is the foundation of all kinds of abilities. Improving college students' autonomous learning ability plays an important role in cultivating high-quality talents and realizing their all-around development. Based on a brief introduction of the connotation of autonomous learning, this paper starts by discussing the necessity of cultivating college students' autonomous learning ability. Then, combined with the questionnaire survey, the paper analyzes the current status of students' autonomous learning ability in application-oriented universities, discusses the deep-seated reasons for undergraduates' lack of autonomous learning ability, and puts forward some countermeasures to cultivate college students' autonomous learning ability.

Index Terms—autonomous learning ability, cultivation, application-oriented universities

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background Information

With the rapid development of science and technology and people's constant thirst for knowledge, network information technology is more and more used in education. The outbreak of COVID-19 in January 2020 has accelerated the integration of the Internet and education. Affected by the epidemic, teachers and students cannot return to the campus for offline learning. Therefore, the online teaching models combined with MOOCs or micro-lectures have been widely promoted, which also set higher requirements for students' autonomous learning ability. In the practice of online teaching, it is found that although teachers have adopted various teaching methods and teaching modes to carry out flexible online teaching, students' learning enthusiasm and learning effect are not ideal. The deep-seated reason behind this phenomenon is that students' actual autonomous learning ability is not consistent with teachers' expectations of students' autonomous learning ability. In other words, students' autonomous learning ability is seriously insufficient.

Therefore, to achieve the ideal effect of online teaching, we need first cultivate students' autonomous learning ability. With the improvement of students' autonomous learning ability, they can effectively use various teaching resources to carry out autonomous learning according to their own learning situation, learn to discover and solve problems in the learning process, and finally realize the internalization of knowledge and the acquisition of ability. In fact, the cultivation of students' autonomous learning ability is not only beneficial to their academic development but also crucial to their future career development and comprehensive quality cultivation.

B. Connotation of Autonomous Learning

Many scholars at home and abroad have defined the connotation of autonomous learning. Henry Holec (1981) first introduced the concept of autonomous learning into foreign language teaching. He defined autonomous learning as the ability of learners to be responsible for their own learning, that is, the ability of students to learn by themselves. And in this process, learners should determine their learning objectives and learning contents, choose appropriate learning methods according to their condition, try to solve or consult others to solve various problems in learning, and in the end make an objective evaluation of their learning process. Since then, many scholars, such as Dickinson and Littlewood, have defined the connotation of autonomous learning according to their research directions. Dickinson (1995) thought that autonomous learning is not only a kind of learning attitude but also an independent learning ability; Littlewood (1996) believed that autonomous learning is the ability of learners to acquire knowledge independently without relying on teachers.

In China, Professor Xu has done a lot of researches in this field. Combining with the practice of College English teaching, she (2004) put forward that college students' autonomous English learning ability should cover five aspects: 1) understanding teachers' teaching objectives and requirements; 2) establishing learning objectives and making learning plans; 3) making effective use of their learning strategies; 4) monitoring the use of learning strategies; 5) evaluating the whole learning process. From the above five aspects of self-learning ability, it can be seen that in order to have a strong self-learning ability, students must have a strong sense of self-learning, clear learning objectives, good autonomous learning habits, and strong self-monitoring ability.

II. NECESSITY OF CULTIVATING COLLEGE STUDENTS' AUTONOMOUS LEARNING ABILITY

A. *Cultivating Students' Autonomous Learning Ability Is an Important Goal of Undergraduate Curriculum Reform*

With the continuous progress of society and the rapid development of science and technology, teaching methods should also be changed accordingly. *The Implementation Opinions of the Ministry of Education on the Construction of First-class Undergraduate Courses* (Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, 2019) clearly pointed out that innovative teaching methods should be adopted to improve the teaching effect. On the one hand, teachers are required to perfect their teaching design and try to eliminate the phenomenon of simply imparting knowledge while neglecting the development of students' competence and overall quality; on the other hand, they should also strive to strengthen the deep integration of modern information technology with education and put an end to the simplification and formalization of information technology application. In the teaching process, the interaction between teachers and students, students and students should be strengthened, students' innovative thinking and critical thinking ability should be cultivated, their independent learning ability should be enhanced, and the traditional "cramming" way of teaching should be changed into the student-oriented "participating learning".

The traditional teaching method is teacher-centered, which overemphasizes the teaching method and ignores the importance of the cultivation of students' learning methods. This kind of "cramming" teaching stifles not only students' interest and enthusiasm in autonomous learning, but also their innovation capability. If things go on like this, students will be used to passively and mechanically accepting knowledge, rather than actively exploring and discovering knowledge by themselves. This is obviously not conducive to students' academic progress, and may even backfire, seriously hindering the all-around development of students.

In a word, cultivating students' autonomous learning ability and enhancing their learning initiative are of great importance in undergraduate curriculum reform.

B. *Cultivating Students' Autonomous Learning Ability Is an Objective Need for College Students to Realize Their Own Development*

First of all, good autonomous learning ability is an important prerequisite for college students to improve their learning effect. Students with strong autonomous learning ability have more advantages in mastering and understanding knowledge than those who are immersed in mechanical learning. They can better understand and internalize new knowledge, and effectively apply it into practice, which is also in line with the characteristics of deep learning. Only when learners understand and master knowledge, can they apply the knowledge to practice and form their own knowledge structure and thinking ability.

Secondly, good self-learning ability is an inevitable requirement for the long-term development of college students. With the rapid development of science and technology in today's society, if we want to keep up with the pace of the times, we must keep the habit of lifelong learning. Without the self-learning ability, life-long learning is impossible, and the future development of individuals will be greatly limited. Therefore, only when college students change their wrong ideas, truly realize that learning is their own business, and turn "want me to learn" into "I want to learn", can they become the masters of learning and realize their sustainable development.

Thirdly, good autonomous learning ability is the basic element for innovative talents. Innovation has a decisive impact on the future development of a country and it is the premise of national rejuvenation. The current social development needs innovative talents. Innovation is the passport to enter the new era, the soul of a nation for survival, and the quality that a high-tech talent must possess. If students lack the ability of autonomous learning, their creativity will be out of the question. Autonomous learning ability is the prerequisite and foundation of creativity. Therefore, only by giving full play to students' autonomous learning and self-inquiry ability can students' innovative quality be cultivated.

To sum up, autonomous learning ability is a basic quality that contemporary college students must possess. It can not only help students improve their academic performance, but also make them feel the fun of learning, so as to stimulate their subjective initiative in learning, enhance their sense of innovation, and help them better adapt to the needs of social development.

III. INVESTIGATION OF THE CURRENT STATUS OF STUDENTS' AUTONOMOUS LEARNING ABILITY IN APPLICATION-ORIENTED UNIVERSITIES

To have a comprehensive view of the development status of students' autonomous learning ability in application-oriented universities, the author conducted a questionnaire survey among some students on their autonomous learning ability in Zhejiang Yuexiu University. According to the discussion of the connotation of autonomous learning in chapter 1, this survey will focus on the four dimensions of the connotation of autonomous learning: whether the awareness of autonomous learning is strong, whether the goals of autonomous learning are clear, whether the habits of autonomous learning are developed and whether the ability of self-monitoring is possessed.

A. *Methodology*

1. Research object

The objects involved in this research are some students in the English School of Zhejiang Yuexiu University. According to the principle of stratified sampling, 200 students were randomly selected from 2257 students in the School of English Language to participate in the questionnaire survey. To make the sample more representative, the number of students should be roughly equal in gender structure and major background. In terms of the gender structure, there were 105 girls (accounting for 52.5%) and 95 boys (accounting for 47.5%); in terms of major background, the number of students in English major was 78, accounting for 39%; the number of students in business English major was 54, accounting for 27%; and the number of students in translation major was 68, accounting for 34%.

2. Research instrument

The research tool used in this study is a questionnaire survey. The questionnaire was designed by referring to other relevant questionnaire designs and combining them with the actual situation of students in application-oriented universities. The questionnaire consisted of two parts, with a total of 16 questions in four categories. The first part of the questionnaire was the basic information of the objects, and the second part was the main questions of the questionnaire. To have a deeper understanding of the status quo of students' autonomous learning ability in application-oriented universities, all the questions were designed on the basis of the connotation of autonomous learning, and the investigation was mainly carried out around the four dimensions of the development of autonomous learning ability. Some of the questions in the questionnaire were single-choice questions in the form of Likert scale, while others were multiple-choice questions to investigate their understanding of autonomous learning and their common practices in cultivating autonomous learning ability. The higher the score, the better the development status of autonomous learning ability.

After the questionnaire design was completed, a pre-survey was first conducted among a small group of students, and the students who participated in the pre-survey were asked to give suggestions or opinions on the questionnaire. And the results were analyzed. On this basis, the questionnaire was revised, and the final questionnaire came into being. The questionnaire survey was conducted in the College of English Language, Zhejiang Yuexiu University. A total of 200 questionnaires were distributed and 198 valid questionnaires were returned, with an effective rate of 99%. All the data obtained from the single-choice questions in the questionnaire were analyzed with SPSS statistical software to calculate the mean value, and the answers to the multiple-choice questions in the questionnaire were also statistically calculated.

B. Research Results and Analysis

1. Awareness of autonomous learning

The dimension of self-learning awareness mainly aims to investigate students' self-evaluation of their development of self-learning ability. The survey on the dimension of self-learning awareness includes 5 aspects: students' understanding of the connotation of autonomous learning, the degree of students' fondness of autonomous learning, students' understanding of the importance of autonomous learning, the degree of students' satisfaction with their own autonomous learning ability and students' awareness of their own potential for autonomous learning.

There are five questions in this part of the questionnaire, all of which are single-choice questions. The results are shown in the figure below.

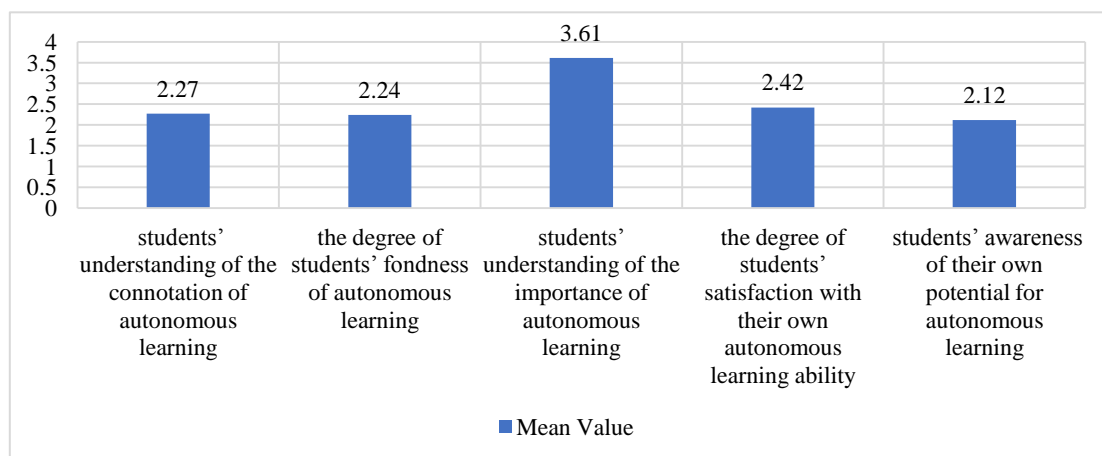


Figure 1 Investigation Results of the First Dimension

It can be seen from the results in Figure 1 that students generally had insufficient understanding of the connotation of autonomous learning (39.4% of the objects chose "unclear" and 25.8% of the objects chose "very unclear"), and they did not like autonomous learning very much (only 30 students chose "like" or "strongly like", which only accounted for 15.2%; meanwhile, 29.8% of the objects chose "dislike" and 32.8% chose "strongly dislike"). However, students were generally aware of the importance of independent learning (only 22.2% of the students thought that autonomous learning was "unimportant" or "very unimportant"). Besides, students were generally not satisfied with their self-learning ability (the number of students who chose "satisfied" or "very satisfied" was only 34); to make matters

worse, 71.7% of the students believed that there was little room for the development of their autonomous learning ability.

All in all, the above data show that most of the students do not have a strong sense of autonomous learning. Although they realize the importance of autonomous learning, most students don't like and are not willing to carry out autonomous learning at all, regarding that they have a poor academic foundation and do not have the ability to learn autonomously.

2. Goals of autonomous learning

The dimension of autonomous learning goals mainly examines whether the objects have a clear concept of learning objectives. The survey on the dimension of autonomous learning goals mainly includes 3 aspects: whether students have a clear understanding of the teachers' teaching objectives and requirements; whether students can clearly define their learning objectives and formulate corresponding learning plans, and whether they have the confidence to achieve the established learning objectives.

There are three questions in this part of the questionnaire, all of which are single-choice questions. The survey results are shown in the figure below.

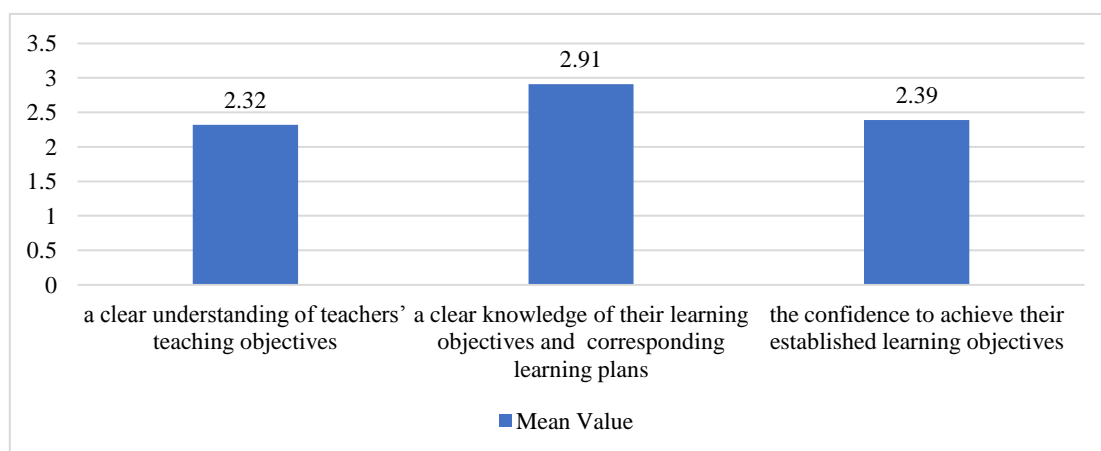


Figure 2 Investigation Results of the Second Dimension

It can be seen from the results in Figure 2 that in the process of autonomous learning, students generally did not have a clear understanding of the teachers' teaching objectives and requirements (31.3% of the objects chose "unclear", and 28.3% of the objects chose "very unclear"); most of the students also indicated that they were unable to determine their learning objectives and formulate corresponding learning plans (only 42.9% of the objects gave a positive answer to this question); and due to the lack of clear understanding of learning objectives, most objects (55.1%) clearly stated that they could not achieve the established learning objectives through autonomous learning.

From the above data, it can be seen that students lack a clear understanding of the teachers' teaching objectives and their learning objectives, and they also fail to formulate their own learning plans. As a result, the majority of students have no confidence to complete their learning objectives.

3. Habits of autonomous learning

The dimension of autonomous learning habits mainly examines whether the objects have formed good autonomous learning habits. The survey on the dimension of autonomous learning habits mainly includes 5 aspects: whether students can actively adhere to autonomous learning, whether students can consciously cultivate their autonomous learning ability in the learning process, whether students can effectively use autonomous learning strategies in the process of autonomous learning, the degree of students' satisfaction with their autonomous learning strategies, and the best way to improve their autonomous learning ability.

There are five questions in this part of the questionnaire, the first four are single-choice questions while the last one is a multiple-choice question. The survey results of the first four questions are detailed in the figure below.

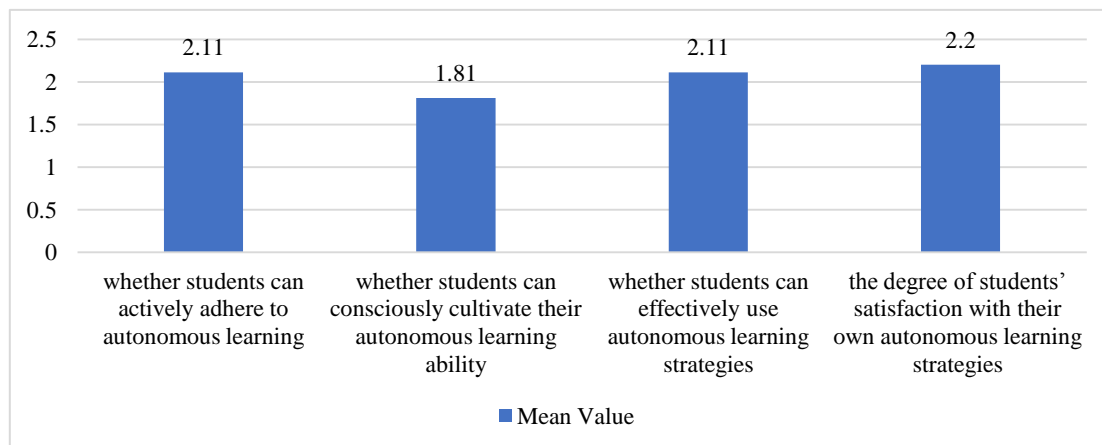


Figure 3 Investigation Results of the Third Dimension

It can be seen from Figure 3 that most students regarded that it was difficult to adhere to autonomous learning (only 29 students indicated that they were able to actively persist in autonomous learning, accounting for 14.6%); in the process of autonomous learning, the vast majority of students (75.8%) never consciously cultivated their autonomous learning ability; nor have they used autonomous learning strategies effectively (only 12.6% of the objects gave a positive answer to this question). Therefore, the vast majority of students were not satisfied with their autonomous learning strategies (the number of objects who selected “unsatisfied” was 62, accounting for 31.3%; the number of objects who selected “very dissatisfied” was 74, accounting for 37.4%).

The last question in the third dimension adopted a multiple-choice question to investigate students' main ways to improve their autonomous learning ability, and the result showed that 63.6% of the objects thought that teachers should provide scientific guidance in this aspect, 59.6% of the objects believed that more exercises should be done to help them cultivate autonomous learning ability, 31.8% of the objects thought that more examinations should be added to urge students to study independently, while 13.6% of the objects thought that online counseling could be very useful.

The above data show that students from application-oriented universities generally do not form a good habit of autonomous learning, nor do they have effective autonomous learning methods. In other words, they do not have the ability of autonomous learning in a strict sense.

4. Ability of self-monitoring

The self-monitoring dimension mainly examines whether the objects can effectively monitor and evaluate their autonomous learning. The survey of the self-monitoring dimension mainly includes 3 aspects: whether students can monitor and evaluate their autonomous learning, the main problems that students encounter in the process of autonomous learning, and the main factors affecting the development of students' autonomous learning ability.

There are three questions in this part of the questionnaire, the first one is a single-choice question, and the last two are multiple-choice questions. The results showed that students generally believed that it was difficult to effectively monitor and evaluate themselves in the process of autonomous learning (the mean value was as low as 1.91). Among the main problems that students encountered in the process of autonomous learning, 65.2% of the objects chose “lack of interest and motivation”, 76.8% of the objects chose “lack of effective learning methods and strategies”, 52.0% of them chose “lack of teachers' guidance”, while 30.3% of the objects thought that they were lack of satisfying learning environment. Among the main factors affecting the development of students' autonomous learning ability, 35.9% of the students thought that their academic foundation was weak and they were lack of confidence, 57.1% of the students said that they “had no effective learning methods and cannot understand the knowledge points through autonomous learning”, 58.6% of the objects stated that “learning atmosphere” was very important, while 28.3% of the objects attributed this problem to “the lack of corresponding autonomous learning management system in universities”.

The above data show that the vast majority of the objects have a strong desire to develop their autonomous learning ability, but the desire is in conflict with the actual academic level of students. From the perspective of students, to carry out effective autonomous learning, they must first have the ability to learn independently, and the confidence to carry out autonomous learning, and then it's also very important to find a method of autonomous learning that suits them. However, students in application-oriented universities generally have a poor academic foundation, and they do not have the basis of autonomous learning. Therefore, teachers should teach students in accordance with their aptitude in the teaching process. They should not only teach students the methods of autonomous learning but also supervise students' autonomous learning activities after class. Only in this way can students have the confidence to learn by themselves, and gradually improve their autonomous learning ability.

IV. DISCUSSION OF THE DEEP-SEATED REASONS FOR COLLEGE STUDENTS' LACK OF AUTONOMOUS LEARNING ABILITY

From the survey in the previous chapter, it can be seen that students in application-oriented universities generally lack the ability of autonomous learning. To change this phenomenon and cultivate students' autonomous learning

ability, first of all, the deep-seated reasons for students' lack of autonomous learning ability must be explored. Only in this way can we find the most suitable ways to solve the stubborn problems that hinder students' sustainable development.

Generally speaking, the reasons that affect the development of college students' autonomous learning ability can be summarized as the following four points: the achievement-oriented teaching philosophy, the knowledge-based curriculum setting, the teacher-centered teaching mode, and the summative-assessment-based course evaluation system.

A. Achievement-oriented Teaching Philosophy

The teaching philosophy is the concentrated embodiment of people's understanding of the internal laws of teaching and learning activities, and it also reflects people's attitudes towards teaching activities. A teaching philosophy is very important because it is the guiding ideology and action guide for people to engage in teaching activities. In other words, teaching behavior is dominated by teaching philosophy (Sun & Fu, 2004). In layman's terms, "attitude decides everything."

In application-oriented universities, the achievement-oriented teaching philosophy occupies an important position. This kind of teaching philosophy seriously hinders the cultivation of students' autonomous learning ability. First of all, the achievement-oriented teaching philosophy is easy to cause students to misunderstand the purpose of learning. Under the guidance of this teaching philosophy, students' academic performance has become the main criterion for evaluating their learning effect, and the main purpose of students' learning is to pass the exam. It is under the influence of such misconceptions that students attach great importance to scores, and even choose to cheat in exams for high scores. Secondly, the achievement-oriented teaching philosophy will affect students' judgment of the importance of autonomous learning ability. Students mistakenly believe that the purpose of learning is to acquire knowledge and get high scores, rather than to develop the ability to learn knowledge independently. This has caused students to ignore the cultivation of autonomous learning ability for a long time. Finally, the achievement-oriented teaching philosophy will affect college students' judgment of their learning performance and imperceptibly urge college students to regard scores as the only way to evaluate themselves. However, if students only judge their learning effect according to their grades, they will not be able to have a full knowledge of their learning, let alone make effective adjustments to the problems that arise in their learning process.

B. Knowledge-based Curriculum Setting

Knowledge-based education narrows the original broad concept of education and equates knowledge teaching with education itself. The knowledge-based curriculum setting tends to emphasize theory rather than practice, and therefore general education courses and practice courses usually account for a relatively low proportion of the curriculum system.

Although this kind of curriculum system has enhanced the theoretical knowledge level of college students to a certain extent, it ignores the cultivation of their practical ability, therefore, it has been criticized for many years. On the one hand, the knowledge-based curriculum system mainly focuses on the imparting of theoretical knowledge, and students need to memorize knowledge points in the learning process. Due to the lack of practical opportunities, students' learning enthusiasm has been greatly affected over time. Students are not willing to conduct independent learning or take the initiative to explore knowledge but hope to cram before the exam. The inevitable result is that students not only fail to master the method of acquiring knowledge, but even the knowledge they have learned is also forgotten easily after exams, and the cultivation of critical thinking ability is even more impossible. On the other hand, the knowledge-based curriculum system encourages students' speculative psychology. Most students are not willing to focus on learning. If things go on like this, students would become more and more impetuous, which obviously goes against the original intention of higher education.

C. Teacher-centered Teaching Mode

The "teacher-centered" teaching mode emphasizes the leading role of teachers in teaching and maximizes the value of classroom teaching. However, this kind of teaching mode can easily ignore students' subjective initiative, which leads to students' lack of initiative and enthusiasm in learning. What's worse, it may even result in students' weariness of learning. In the teacher-centered teaching mode, teachers habitually conduct cramming teaching, and students are accustomed to passively accepting knowledge. They seldom carry out autonomous learning, and never try to solve problems independently, let alone actively explore the nature of the problem. Over time, students are used to asking others for help whenever they encounter problems or choosing to give up, which is obviously harmful to their long-term development.

D. Summative-assessment-based Course Evaluation System

Summative assessment refers to the summative evaluation of students' learning effect at the end of teaching activities. In application-oriented universities, summative evaluation still occupies a dominant position. In the process of learning evaluation, teachers often overemphasize the assessment of theoretical knowledge but pay less attention to the evaluation of students' initiative and creativity in the process of learning. This kind of curriculum evaluation ignores the progress made by students in the learning process and weakens the students' initiative and self-confidence. Under the guidance of this wrong orientation, the goal of students' learning is to get high scores, and the cultivation of students'

autonomous learning ability and critical thinking ability has not been given due attention. The talents cultivated under such an evaluation system obviously cannot meet the requirements of “lifelong learning” for talents in today’s society.

V. COUNTERMEASURES TO CULTIVATE COLLEGE STUDENTS’ AUTONOMOUS LEARNING ABILITY

Given the various reasons for college students’ lack of autonomous learning ability, this chapter will put forward specific countermeasures to cultivate their autonomous learning ability from four aspects: teaching philosophy, curriculum setting, teaching mode, and evaluation system.

A. *Advocating the Process-oriented Teaching Philosophy*

The process-oriented teaching philosophy requires teachers should not only pay attention to students’ academic performance but also need to make a comprehensive evaluation of the whole process of students’ learning, so as to prompt students to timely adjust their learning attitudes and learning strategies according to the real-time feedback in the learning process.

First of all, the process-oriented teaching philosophy can guide students to better enjoy the learning process, remove the anxiety and correct their learning motivation. Only when students have established a correct learning attitude, can they truly become the masters of their learning, and improve their learning effects. Secondly, the process-oriented teaching philosophy enables students to focus on their daily performance. Students can determine their learning objectives, learning plans, and learning methods independently, and improve their autonomous learning ability.

B. *Setting the Competency-based Curriculum System*

The knowledge-based curriculum is not conducive to the development of college students’ autonomous learning ability; therefore, the competency-based curriculum should be constructed. Competency-based education centers on ability cultivation, while not denying the status of knowledge accumulation. It develops ability on the basis of knowledge acquisition and at the same time, pays attention to the combination of theory and practice. As an application-oriented university, in the design of a curriculum system, the comprehensive needs of society, enterprises, and students should all be taken into consideration, so as to meet the requirements of society and enterprises for application-oriented talents to the greatest extent.

Firstly, the teaching objectives of the courses should be formulated based on students. In the teaching process, we should highlight the ability training objectives of courses, and advocate inquiry learning and interactive teaching. Secondly, the teaching content of the courses should meet the actual needs of enterprises. Therefore, in the design of talent training plans, it is necessary to consider what the market needs for talents, so as to help students better apply what they have learned into their daily practice after graduation. Thirdly, the proportion of practice courses should be increased. On the one hand, practice courses can help college students to deepen their understanding of theoretical and professional knowledge, so that they can better apply their knowledge to social practice; on the other hand, practice courses can enable teachers to devote more energy and time to question-answering. In this way, college students are encouraged to explore and research consciously and actively.

C. *Forming the Student-centered Teaching Mode*

The teacher-centered teaching mode inhibits students’ learning initiative and is not conducive to the cultivation of their autonomous learning ability. Therefore, the student-centered teaching mode should be adopted. In this teaching mode, students, as the protagonists in the classroom, grasp the initiative of learning, and the role of teachers is to help students become the best that they can be.

To begin with, the student-centered teaching mode enables students to change from the passive recipients of knowledge to the active explorers of knowledge. Teachers use the form of questioning, classroom discussion, and role-play to help students learn independently and construct knowledge actively. This kind of teaching mode returns the initiative of learning to students and guides them to learn to study and think independently. Secondly, the student-centered teaching mode strives to treat students as independent individuals, and help everyone to fully develop their potential. Each student is a unique individual, and their learning styles, learning habits, learning rhythms are largely different, which determines that we cannot copy the assembly line operation mode to cultivate talents on a large scale. The student-centered teaching mode allows students to learn autonomously at their own pace, and teachers are responsible to guide and supervise them, thus ensuring the greatest possible stimulation of students’ potential. Thirdly, the student-centered teaching mode also puts forward higher requirements for teachers. Teachers no longer mechanically repeat what the book says, but need to design flexible classroom activities to stimulate students’ interest in learning and enhance their learning effect. This is undoubtedly beneficial to the development of teachers’ comprehensive ability.

D. *Constructing the Formative-assessment-based Course Evaluation System*

Formative assessment is a comprehensive evaluation of students’ daily performance, academic performance as well as their changes in learning attitudes and learning strategies during the learning process. It is a developmental evaluation based on the continuous observation, recording, and reflection of the whole learning process of students. Its purpose is to encourage students to learn actively and help students effectively monitor their learning process, so that

students could gain a sense of achievement in learning. Formative evaluation transforms students from the object of evaluation to the subject and active participant of evaluation.

Compared with summative evaluation, formative evaluation has obvious advantages. Firstly, the formative evaluation adopts diversified evaluation methods, which include not only final examination but also extracurricular reading reports, classroom discussion, autonomous learning, and so on. Secondly, the evaluation content of the formative assessment is multifaceted. Besides the assessment of the theoretical knowledge, it also involves the assessment of students' learning attitudes, classroom participation, team-work capability, problem-solving ability, and so on. Thirdly, the evaluation subjects of formative assessment are more abundant. In the traditional way of evaluation, teachers are the only subject of evaluation, while in the formative evaluation, students themselves, their classmates, and teachers all need to participate in the evaluation process. Fourthly, formative assessment can provide real-time feedback to the teaching and learning process. This evaluation method can give dynamic feedback to the problems existing in teachers' teaching and students' learning, thereby promoting the improvement of teachers' teaching ability and students' academic performance. The above-mentioned advantages of formative assessment can help students to foster correct learning attitudes, raise problem awareness and enhance the ability of autonomous learning.

VI. CONCLUSION

The cultivation of autonomous learning ability is in line with the actual needs of students' sustainable development. The progress of science and technology has not only enriched the content of knowledge but also increased the speed of knowledge update. The knowledge one gains in school is far from satisfying his needs for future development. Learning is no longer limited by time and space, and lifelong learning has become a quality and ability that contemporary people must possess. However, the learning effect depends on the learner's autonomous learning ability to a great extent. As teachers, we should realize that the long-term development of students is inseparable from the cultivation of their autonomous learning ability, since autonomous learning is the main way for individuals to study after they leave school. If a student lacks autonomous learning ability, his lifelong development will be greatly limited. However, at present, the self-learning ability of students in application-oriented universities is generally weak. Therefore, as educators, we have a long way to go.

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Electoral Defeat, Conversational Practices of Blame and Avoidance of Responsibility in Nigerian Media Political Discourses

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Abstract—This paper addresses electoral defeat suffered by the Peoples' Democratic Party (PDP) at the 2015 presidential polls and the communicative character of blame and avoidance of responsibility as evident in the Nigerian media political discourses. Discourse analysts are yet to study the linguistic aspects of blame and avoidance of responsibility in great details. This work is intended as a contribution towards filling this lacuna in knowledge by examining the conversational discursive practices adopted by Nigerian politicians in the circumstances of blame risk to achieve the twin goals of positive self-presentation and consolidation of political capital (Hansson, 2015). Some PDP members enlisted the discursive strategies of blame avoidance, in which blames and denials are carefully and strategically planned to serve positive self-representation (semantic macro-strategy of in-group favouritism) and negative other-representation, that is, semantic macro-strategy of derogation of out-group, (<https://www.hse.ru/en/>). We illustrate the linguistic mechanism of blame and avoidance of responsibility and how it thrives as a dominant recurrent theme in conflict talk and public communication discourses. The findings tend to enrich and enliven the literature on discourse studies and by extension open fresh vistas of critical research into language use in politics.

Index Terms—adjacency pairs, argumentative moves, blame, discursive strategies, electoral defeat, felicity conditions, Nigeria

I. INTRODUCTION

Discourse - language use in speech and writing - is viewed from the theoretical prism of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) as a form of 'social practice,' (<https://pt.scribd.com>). Describing discourse as a social practice, according to Fairclough & Wodak (1997), implies a dialectical relationship between a particular discursive event (such as blame) and the situation(s), institution(s) and social structure(s), which frame it. A given discursive event such as blame is socially constitutive as well as socially conditioned – it constitutes situations, objects of knowledge, and the social identities of and relationships between people and groups of people. van Dijk (1997) considers discourse as a form of spoken language, (<https://hdl.handle.net>). Building on this theoretical plank, van Dijk (1998) goes further to underscore the particular directions of language in which discourse sheds light on language use and social interaction in communication, for instance, interviews, conversations, meetings, letters, diaries, propaganda, discussions, laws, contracts, political discourses, songs, poetry, and news, (<http://consortiacademia.org/>). van Dijk (1998) considers language as influential factor for society through which people's identities, ideologies, and mutual knowledge are constructed. In spite of their different disciplinary backgrounds and a great diversity of methods and objects of investigation, such related disciplines as pragmatics, sociolinguistics, ethnography of speaking, conversation analysis and discourse studies all deal with discourse and have at least seven dimensions in common as identified by van Dijk (2007) and Wodak, 2008a (<https://pt.scribd.com>).

From the foregoing, it seems tenable to contend that the concept of blame as a social practice fits into the theoretical frame of a typical discourse amenable to analysis based on relevant discursive strategies. The 2015 general elections featured two dominant political parties – the ruling Peoples' Democratic Party (PDP) and the opposition All Progressive Congress (APC). The ruling party was defeated in the March 28 presidential and National Assembly elections and it lost massively in the April 11 governorship and state Houses of Assembly elections. The massive electoral defeat it suffered set off a hurricane of intra-party discord, acrimony, recrimination, accusations and counter-accusations. The visceral

bout of confidence crisis and blame-game, which Olisa Metuh described as a product of Election Defeat Trauma (EDT), pitted the Presidency, PDP governors, the PDP Presidential Campaign Organisation as well as some leaders of the party against its National Working Committee. When a political system experiences a setback in the form of electoral defeat, it raises various issues that border on blameworthiness, blame judgment and management. Such norm-violating event, which engenders linguistic and contextual framing has been proved to affect people's reasoning in a variety of domains (e.g., Levin, 1987; Loftus & Palmer, 1974; Tversky & Kahneman, 1981) (<http://www.psych.stanford.edu>).

This paper examines how PDP members locked up in a kind of politically-motivated 'mutually-assured destruction' (MAD), worked hard to undermine an objective appraisal of the 2015 general elections through self-absolving speech acts intended to avoid responsibility and reframe the 'problem' of electoral defeat. This is achieved by engaging in political debates and persuasive discourses intended as a convenient leverage for mitigating blame of moral responsibility, in which blaming and denying, by serving to promote one group and ascribe blame for electoral defeat to the 'other,' are carefully and strategically planned to achieve the twin objectives of positive self-presentation and negative other-presentation.

II. CONCEPTUALISING BLAME AS A SPEECH ACT

Blame presupposes the act of expressing disapproval or reproach about the action(s) or statement(s) of someone or group. Searle and Vanderveken, (1985: 191) cited in Al-Ameedi, et. al. (2016:1), define the speech act of blame as "the act of disapproving or condemning something bad." Blame, notes Williams (2006:12) in Al-Ameedi, et. al. (p.2), "is the act of expressing disapproval, negative feeling, censure, or annoyance towards a past or ongoing action whose consequences are perceived to the addressee's responsibility," (<https://jourhum.com>). In pragmatics and philosophy, blame as a speech act is conceptualized variously as *behabitive*, *assertive*, *expressive* or *verdictive*. As Al-Ameedi, et. al. (p.3) note, Austin (1956:35), Austin (1962: 83), and Nozick (2000:108-9) see blame as a kind of social behaviour, hence its classification as *behabitive*, while Searle and Vanderveken (1985: 182-3), Vanderveken (1990:169) and Downs (1998: 378-9) classify blame as *assertives*, with assertive illocutionary forces, which "have the preparatory condition that the addresser has a reason, ground or evidence that supports the truth of the propositional content," (<https://jourhum.com>). For Proost (2007) in Al-Ameedi et. al., blame is an expressive act meant to express "a negative evaluation by the addresser of some past action performed by the addressee," (<https://jourhum.com>). From the theoretical perspective of Kreidler (1998) also in Al-Ameedi, et. al., blame comes under the category of verdictive, that is, "speech acts in which the speaker makes an assessment or judgment about the acts of another, usually the addressee". The foregoing conceptualization of blame provides a basis for examining it as a form of expressive and verdictive speech act, which manifests in the electoral defeat discourse in Nigeria, the analysis of which follows in the subsequent sections.

III. FRAMEWORK

The framework adopts an eclectic approach that combines aspects of speech act theory, conversational analysis, van Dijk's perspective of critical discourse analysis, and argumentation theory. To analyze the speech act of blame in this study, we follow certain felicity conditions as outlined by Al-Ameedi, et. al. (2016: 18-9), which are necessary and sufficient for the act of blame to be successfully performed in the utterances of the parties involved in the electoral defeat discourse. The felicity conditions suggested here are as follows:

- i - Comprehensive conditions (CCs): The addresser should specify a particular addressee(s).
- ii - Propositional content conditions (PCCs): (a) A bad proposition P has been achieved; (b) Some individual is responsible for the existence of the state of affairs.
- iii - Preparatory conditions (PCs): (a) The addresser has as evidence or a reason to blame (P/ addressee/addresser – himself/ or another agent); (b) A harmful effect has been received /or ongoing received by the addresser, and/ or the addressee and/ or another agent.
- iv - Sincerity conditions (SCs): The addresser is discontent and believes that the state of affairs is bad and blameworthy.
- v - Essential conditions (ECs): The utterance counts as dissatisfaction or expression of blame to the effect that P represents the actual state of affairs, (<https://jourhum.com>).

The value of Conversation Analysis (CA) to sociolinguistics as a discipline that contextualises language derives from the structuring of conversation as contiguous and alternating turns of talk referred to as 'adjacency pairs'. In their discussion of dialogic approaches to discourse analysis, Hill & Irvine (1993:1) note that "many aspects of linguistic form may usefully be seen as having interactional processes profoundly embedded in them" Here, adjacency pairs are claimed as one such, (<http://www.pragmaticshumour.net/>). An adjacency pair refers to a unit of conversation, which entails "an exchange of one turn each by two speakers," which are related in functional terms such that the first turn elicits a functional equivalent turn from the second speaker. In other words, the first part of an adjacency pair produces the expectation of a relevant and acceptable rejoinder in the second part, (<http://www.idcw.com/beian.asp>). (<http://dsbigham.net/ling101sdsu/2014/10/page/2/> <https://glossary.sil.org/term/adjacency-pair>). Schegloff and Sacks (1973:295-6) state that an adjacency pair has these features: two utterance length; adjacent positioning of the

component utterances; different speakers producing each utterance; relative ordering of parts i.e., first pair parts precede second pair parts; discriminative relations i.e., the pair type of which a first pair part is a member is relevant to the selection among second pair parts, (<http://www.practicshumour.net/>). Such pairs can be question-answer, greeting-greeting, blame-denial/admission, request-grant/refusal, invitation-acceptance/declination, compliments/response. In the same sense that question-answer exemplifies an adjacency pair, so shall we treat the blame-denial 'tied pair', which tends to characterize the electoral defeat discourse as evident in the speech acts of blame outlined in the Appendices.

van Dijk's (2002) perspective of critical discourse analysis (CDA) takes ideology as the attitude a group of people hold towards certain issues and describes the political discourse as the most ideological. Later, van Dijk (2004) reformulated his approach, which consists of two main discursive strategies of 'positive self-representation' (semantic macro-strategy of in-group favouritism) and 'negative other-representation,' that is, semantic macro-strategy of derogation of out-group, (<http://ejournal.stkip-pgri-sumbar.ac.id/>). In the framework, van Dijk elaborates on 27 ideological strategies among which the fundamental dichotomy of 'self positive-representation' and 'other negative-representation' stands out, (<http://www.uab.ro/>). In this paper, we examine a number of argumentative moves made by the key interactants involved in the blame game, ranging from attacking the opponent personally (*argumentum ad hominem*) or threatening the opponent and his/her freedom of expression (*argumentum ad baculum*) (<https://www.lancaster.ac.uk/linguistics/>). Another set of argumentative moves include authority (argumentation), evidentiality (meaning argumentation), generalization (meaning argumentation), and number game (rhetoric argumentation).

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

Here, we analyse the speech acts of blame as produced by the parties to the conflict. To this effect, we shall establish the felicity conditions of the speech acts of blame, present the adjacency pairs of blame/denial, discursive strategies of positive-self/negative-other presentations and argumentative moves.

A. Felicity Conditions of Blame Speech Acts

In line with the felicity conditions aforementioned (section 3), we shall analyse a sample of the speech acts of blame, which represents an aggregate of the entire speech acts that make up the corpus elicited from the online editions of Nigerian print media.

SA 1: 'Hate campaigns of First Lady, Fayose caused Jonathan's defeat' – PDP National Working Committee.

Here, Olisa Metuh is addressing the PDP Presidential Campaign Organisation (PDPPCO) led by Amadu Alli. Implicitly, there is a very strong blame for PCO members for their bad conduct. The major reason is that the PDO allowed Jonathan's campaign spokesman Femi Fani-Kayode, Ekiti State Governor Ayo Fayose, presidential aide Dr. Doyin Okupe and First Lady Patience Jonathan to lead the hate campaign, which caused PDP's electoral defeat. "The decision of the PCO to adopt and execute a hate campaign strategy against the then presidential candidate of the APC, Gen. Muhammadu Buari led to the failure of PDP," Mr. Metuh said (<http://nigerianseers.blogspot.com>). From the foregoing, the FCs of this speech act are established as follows:

1 – The CCs: Metuh is addressing PDPPCO; 2 – The PCCs: noting their blameworthy action of hate campaign; 3 – The PCs: the hate campaign is the root-cause of PDP's electoral loss; 4 – The SCs -Metuh expresses discontent at the norm-violating event, which he considers blameworthy; 5 – ECs - The statement counts as a dissatisfaction and implies a severe blame of PCO's action, (<https://www.allafrica.com>).

SA 2: "Moles in the Party working for APC led to PDP's defeat," – Femi Fani-Kayode.

Here, Fani-Kayode is addressing Metuh's NWC. Implicit in this address is outright denial of the blame and avoidance of responsibility for the electoral defeat. His allegation of sabotage is based on authority information on the underhand dealings of the moles. From this, we distill the following FCs of the speech act:

1 – The CCs: Fani-Kayode replies Metuh; 2 – The PCCs: an action, which the addresser considers blameworthy is denied; 3 – PCs: promise to provide evidence that supports addresser's claims; 4 – SCs - addresser disproves of the blameworthy action; 5 – ECs – statement of disapproval implicates blame of NWC's action.

SA 3: "The road to electoral losses of the PDP started from its December 2014 primaries, when the governors deliberately shut out 'unwanted candidates' and imposed their choices on the party."- Victor Ndoma-Egba, (<http://www.abusidiqu.com/>). In this speech act, the speaker is addressing the PDP Governors. The speech implicates blame of the action, i. e. imposition of candidates, which caused discontent among members, the speaker inclusive. The blameworthy action led to mass exodus from PDP without corresponding influx. The net-effect is electoral losses. The FCs of the SA are distilled thus:

1- The CCs: Speaker addresses the Governors; 2 – The PCCs: The candidate imposition as bad proposition (P) is achieved; the agents of the P is identified; 3- PCs: A harmful effect of the P is received in form of mass defections; 4 – SCs – The addresser disapproves of the P as blameworthy; 5 – Ecs: The addresser's discontentment as implicit in his statement implies blame of the P.

SA 4: "Those who were 'praise-singing and insincerely advising' the President during the campaign period were responsible for PDP's defeat at the presidential poll." – Adamu Muazu, (<http://www.aice11.blogspot.com>)

In this case, the speaker addresses certain unnamed persons. These persons' 'sins' are identified as praise-singing and

bad advice. The effect of these sins is responsible for the electoral loss. The action of these persons is blameworthy. The SA has the following FCs:

1 – CCs: Speaker addresses a group of people; 2 – PCCs: Praise-singing and bad advice as constituting a bad proposition (P) is achieved; 3 – PCs: The system feels the adverse effect of the P; 4 – SCs: Speaker is unhappy with the state of affair; 5 – ECs: The utterance implies expression of blame to the effect that P represents the actual state of affairs.

SA 5: “PDP lost because of Muazu’s underhand dealings with the APC.” – Ayodele Fayose

Here, the speaker addresses Muazu; accuses him of sabotage; this action caused PDP’s defeat; this action is blameworthy; Muazu should mitigate the effect of the action by resigning. The FC of the SA is outlined thus:

1 – CCs: Speaker addresses Mauzu; 2 – PCCs: Sabotage is identified as constituting a bad Proposition (P); 3 – PCs: Speaker has evidence to associate P with the addressee; 4 – SCs: Speaker relies on blameworthiness of P in justifying his discontentment with the addressee; 5 – ECs: The statement counts as a discontent disposition, which implies a severe blame of addressee’s action.

SA 6: “Jonathan was a victim and target of international cum domestic esoteric codes and conspiracies...” – Osom Makbere

In this SA, the speaker addresses an indeterminate audience; identifies factors (internal/external) that caused PDP’s defeat. The FC’s outline is as follows:

1 – CCs: Speaker addresses nobody in particular; 2 – PCCs: identifies local and international conspiracies as crux of the bad P; 3 – PCs: considers the causative agents of PDP’s electoral loss as blameworthy; 4 – SCs: disapproves of the P; 5 – ECs: statement of disapproval implicates blame of the P.

SA 7: “The PDP chairman did not have the party’s interest at heart from the time the party started campaigns...Mu’azu is the number one mole planted in the PDP to destroy it... he was the number one culprit for the dismal outing of the PDP...” Ahmed Gulak

In this SA, the speaker pointedly identifies PDP chairman as the architect of the Party’s electoral woes; hinges his claims on (real/imagined) treacherous disposition of Muazu; such action is bad, blameworthy, and requires immediate mitigation by Muazu’s resignation as Party chairman. We establish the FCs of the SA as follows:

1 – CCs: Speaker specifies a particular addressee, Mr. Muazu; 2 – PCCs: He achieves a bad proposition P by identifying Muazu as a ‘mole’ in PDP; 3 – PCs: Speaker identifies the adverse effect of the bad P on the Party and provides evidence to associate P with the addressee; 4 – SCs: Speaker expresses disapproval of P implying that the state of affairs engendered by P is bad and blameworthy; 5 – ECs: Speaker’s statement mirrors his discontentment and implicates expression of blame to the effect that P typifies the real state of affairs.

B. Blame-denial Adjacency Pair

In a typical adjacency pair, the conversation is structured in a way that the first part of the pair imposes a requirement on the interlocutor to supply the second part of the pair. This resonated sonorously in the speech acts of blame being investigated, which created a kind of conversational dynamic that sought to cast the problem of PDP’s electoral defeat in the mould of blame-denial dialogic exchanges. In blazing the trail of blame game, Olisa Metuh holding brief for PDP’s National Working Committee, blamed PDP’s loss at the poll on the hate campaign of the Presidential Campaign Organisation against Buhari of the APC. Metuh’s efforts were complemented by Mohammed Tsav. The pragmatic function or purposive intention of the speakers in the first part constrains the kind of pragmatic function of the second part, which is outright denial of the blame. This is explicit in the rebuttal provided by Fani-Kayode when he described such speech acts as “unfair and mischievous.”

His denial aligns with the principles of blame management as evident in extant literature (cf. Benoit, 1995; Cupach & Metts, 1994; Goffman, 1967; Dersley & Wootton, 2000; Alberts, 1989). In managing blame and by extension mitigating its perlocutionary effect, the defender usually resorts to denying the ‘norm-violating event’ as reported by Metts (1994) and Newell & Stutman (1988). Where either of such claims turns out to be true as Dersley & Wootton (2000) observe, it would keep the defender blameless, although strategic event denials without good evidence rarely succeed. The offender, note Scully & Marolla (1984), can also try to dispute the nature of the alleged norm-violating event or claim that the event itself is not norm-violating.

The flipside of the blame-denial adjacency pair originated from the harried team of Ayodele Fayose, Ebenezer Babatope, Babangida Aliyu, Ahmed Gulak, and Olabode George, who laid the blame of PDP’s defeat squarely on the NWC members, a blameworthy action, which imposes a moral burden on them to resign immediately. By engaging in a communicative speech act of blame that reprimands with feeling, Fayose and company had hoped to bring the wrongdoers to appreciate the magnitude of the blameworthiness and perhaps effect a behaviour change. Initially, the speech act of communicative blame intended to bring the NWC members to feel the proper pang of remorse, failed to cut ice with the blamees. Instead, it elicited a kind of pragmatic function of the second part, which is flat denial of the blame. This is reflected in their separate responses. (See Appendices vii, viii, x, xii, xiv, xvi). However, Muazu’s defiant disposition seemed to have had a fragile frame that broke down too quickly to sustain his cling to the chairmanship position, one which he relinquished while on medical tourism overseas. By throwing in the towel, Muazu had tended to justify the effect of communicative blame, which is to be intended to bring about a positive behavioural change in the wrongdoer. Nonetheless, the burden of guilt and blameworthiness was not weighty enough to sway Metuh and other

NWC members away from their defiant path of doggedness, which explains the failure to forge a common moral ground between the wrongdoer and blamer.

C. Discursive Strategies of Ideological Discourse Structures

In this section, we examine the ideological strategies of positive self- and negative other-presentations and argumentative moves and explore the extent to which the electoral defeat discourse reflects them. Positive self-presentation and negative other-presentation are two complementary strategies, which focus on participants as social groups rather than individuals (van Dijk, 1993). Some researchers (see, for example, the works of van Dijk (1987, 1993), Fowler (1991), have paid particular attention to the role of language in the construction of social consensus regarding the in-group 'us' as against the out-group 'them'. The analysis of what van Dijk (2007:78) refers to as 'ideological square,' that is, "(i) Emphasize *Our* good things; (ii) Emphasize *Their* bad things; (iii) De-emphasize *Our* bad things; (iv) De-emphasize *Their* good things" (<http://eprints.undip.ac.id>) is an aspect of what he sees as the need "to relate properties of discourse with these underlying, socially shared, representations, which group members use as a resource to talk about (members) of other groups" (van Dijk, 2016). Therefore, a given discourse is considered *ideological* when people as in-group members talk in terms of *we* and are disposed to evaluating their policies, actions, and statements in positive terms as well as defending their sectarian interests. In this study, we set out to demonstrate how the use of cognitive processes associated with 'we' reveals not only how the electoral defeat discourse interactants categorise *Us* and *Them*, but also their judgment of *Us* as good and *Them* as bad. This positive-self presentation is clearly expressed in Fani-Kayode's denial of hate campaign accusation, wherein he reframed the electoral defeat discourse:

We are serious-minded, patriotic, loyal, faithful, responsible and hard-working party leaders, who chose to answer a call to duty by our President and made massive sacrifices in terms of time, energy, commitment and risk, and stood up for our President when asked to do so...(<https://www.allafrica.com>). This was a great achievement for which we ought to be thanked and not one for which we should be maligned, misrepresented and insulted...(<http://www.abusidiqu.com/>).

The NWC led by Muazu and Metuh took turns to 'express/emphasize information that is positive about *Us* and express/emphasize information that is negative about *Them*'. In his words, Muazu passed his judgment of *Us* as good and *Them* as bad thus: "We went to every state in Nigeria to campaign. In the face of abuse, insult and open ridicule by our friends and brothers, we supported our leader President Jonathan faithfully... the perception of President Jonathan and our party in the north was at an all-time low because of the lies they were told by politicians..." He was equally quick to shriek the responsibility of getting President Jonathan re-elected: "Those who blame us for not delivering maximum votes to the president in the north seem to have forgotten that it's the people who vote..." (<http://dailyindependentnig.com/>). If I had my way, everyone in my state, Bauchi would have voted for President Jonathan but it's the people that vote not me," (<https://www.graphittinews.blogspot.com>). For Metuh, the tale of positive-self presentation was told with mellifluous suavity and patrician cadence:

...For the avoidance of doubt, we wish to state categorically that this national leadership has remained very transparent in all its dealing since coming into office, (<http://www.abusidiqu.com/>). We state clearly that we have not been given any money, rather this NWC generated billions of naira from the sales of forms from where we funded our candidates for governorship and State Assembly elections in all the states of the federation..." (<https://www.agiolycia.blogspot.com>).

The second pair of the ideological square, i.e., suppress/de-emphasize information that is positive about *Them* and suppress/de-emphasize information that is negative about *Us* (Russi, 2016) was volubly expressed with equal verve and intensity from both sides of the ideological divide. From the NWC perspective, Metuh and Muazu complemented one another in the use of cognitive processes associated with *we* against *them* and polarized relationship between the antagonistic ideological groups as evident in excerpts xvi (<http://saharareporters.com/2015/05/05/president-jonathan-responsible-his-defeat-%E2%80%93-olisa-metuh>) and xix (<https://naijasly.blogspot.com/2015/05/why-adamu-muazu-is-not-to-blame-for.html>). Conversely, the 'other' group of the ideological divide led by Fani-Kayode equally proved formidable in the tactical deployment of the combined strategies of positive-self and negative-other presentations as explicit in his own interpretation of the second pair of the ideological square. His words:

They are simply incapable of defending the President and his legacies after he has left office, and neither are the majority of them even ready to do so, (<http://www.abusidiqu.com/>). The truth is that their allegation is not only baseless but also unadulterated rubbish, and those who made them are nothing but ingrates, cowards and traitors who know nothing about politics, political campaigns, intellectual discourse or political engagement, (<http://dailyindependentnig.com/>). They are fueled by hate and envy, and worst of all, right from the start, they had no interest in fighting for our leader and candidate, President Jonathan, or in ensuring that he won the election..." (<https://www.allafrica.com>).

The foregoing contextual strategy of positive-self and negative-other presentations have tended to provide ample justifications for van Dijk's (2000) socio-cognitive model of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). van Dijk (1998:23) argues that his model is able to deal with the ideology-laden issues since a socio-cognitive approach "is able to explain how ideologies monitor practices of social actors in the society." Van Dijk's (2000) model also considers discourses to clarify the roles of ideologies through which texts and talks are constructed, of processes participants go through in understanding ideological discourse and of the ways discourse may be manipulated to construct ideologies

(<http://consortiacademia.org/>).

D. Argumentative Moves

1. Argumentum ad hominem

This type of argumentative move constitutes an attack on an argument made by attacking the person that made the argument, instead of attacking the argument directly. A glimpse of this kind of argumentative move is gleaned from Fani-Kayode's virulent barbs as quoted above. Toeing the same line of argumentum ad hominem, Governor Fayose rained vituperative attacks on Adamu Muazu: "I am even more particular about the national chairman because he sold the party to the opposition" (<http://www.abusidiqu.com/>).

2. Argumentum ad baculum

The strength of this form of argumentative move flows from the appeal it makes to the timidity or fear of man and this appeal turns into fallacy if it fails to maintain logical relationship between it and the claim being made. Put differently, the emotion driven more by a threat than a cogent reason suffices as a trigger of alignment with the apparent conclusion of the argument. This move, by implication presupposes a threat, which is informed by the idea that 'might makes right,' (<http://paxexistovos.blogspot.com/2012/>) Again, Fayose's attack on Muazu intended as a brazen tool of intimidation is quite illustrative: I have cogent evidence of his unholy alliance with the opposition before the elections and if they go any further, I will expose all his underhand deals" (<http://www.abusidiqu.com/>). Here, the ad baculum constitutes a thinly-veiled threat intended to vaporize Muazu's integrity as Party Chairman and force him to resign. The gamble paid off as the embattled Chairman eventually relinquished his chairmanship position after initial hesitation.

3. Authority argumentation

This form of argumentative move predisposes the interactants to take recourse to the fallacy of mentioning authorities to support their case, usually organizations or people who are above the fray of party politics, or who are generally recognized experts or moral leaders. International organizations (such as the United Nations, or Amnesty), scholars, the media, the church or the courts are often enlisted to play such role of argumentative move (<http://www.discourse-in-society.org/>). In the case of the present study, those who oppose the NWC members (Governor Fayose, Ebenezer Babatope, and Olabode George) cite the case of Party leaders' resignation in Britain as an exemplary step that should be taken by the NWC members. (See Appendices ii, iii, xiii). All of these were in reference to Ed Miliband's resignation statement in Appendix xxii. In his own authority argumentative move, Olisa Metuh cited historical antecedents to substantiate his hate campaign theory, (See Appendices xiii). In all of these, interactants of different ideologies typically cite different authorities that tend to support their respective ideological leanings.

4. Evidentiality (meaning argumentation)

This is one of the ideological discourse structures of van Dijk's (2004) framework, which suggests that claims or points of view in argument are more plausible when speakers present some evidence or proof for their knowledge or opinions. This may happen by references to authority figures or institutions (as seen in the preceding sub-section), or by various forms of evidentiality (<http://www.discourse-in-society.org/>). To this effect, Osom Makbere provides evidence of 'international cum domestic esoteric codes and conspiracies' to prove Jonathan's victimhood that paved the inglorious way to the electoral defeat. Also, Metuh, Muazu, and Tsav provided evidence of hate campaign by Fani-Kayode, Mrs. Jonathan, and Gov. Fayose and raising of derogatory allegations against the APC presidential candidate, Gen. Buhari to explain PDP's defeat. For instance, Fani-Kayode's allegation of Buhari's connection with terrorist organizations, Fayose's 'death-wish' advert, and Mrs. Jonathan's claim that Buhari was 'brain-dead' and her 'stone them' inciting statements were cited as evidence of hate campaign that cost PDP victory.

5. Generalization (meaning argumentation)

In generalization as a form of meaning argumentation, interlocutors refrain from providing concrete accounts of events. Instead, they make generalizations about the electoral defeat discourse to formulate prejudices against members of the opposed ideological camp. This type of argumentative move is evident in the statements of Bode George and Ndoma-Egba. (See Appendices v, vi).

6. Number game (rhetoric argumentation)

According to van Dijk (2004), much argument is oriented to enhancing credibility by moves that emphasize objectivity (<http://www.slidelegend.com>). Numbers and statistics are the primary means to persuasively display objectivity. In the case of this study, some interactants relied partly on number game as a form of rhetoric argumentation to drive home their points. Prominent among them was Metuh and Fayose. For Metuh, fine numerical details were needed to lend credibility and objectivity to his own account of the electoral defeat discourse. (See Appendices viii). In apparent response to Metuh's number game, Fayose offered a rebuttal (Appendix xv). In all of this, we notice how these ideological discourse structures operate and offer insights into how ideologies monitor practices of social actors in the society.

V. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we examined the discursive strategies of electoral defeat discourse and how the linguistic mechanism of blame and avoidance of responsibility thrives as a dominant recurrent theme in conflict talk and public communication discourses in Nigeria. By examining the conversational 'discursive practices' adopted by Nigerian politicians 'in the

circumstances of blame risk to achieve' the twin goals 'of positive self-presentation' and consolidation of political capital, the linguistic account of blame is intended not only as a contribution to discourse studies but also seeks to open fresh vistas of critical research into language use in politics (Hansson 2015: 301). To this effect, a number of speech acts of blame elicited from the public statements of the political actors as reported in the online editions of Nigerian newspapers were analysed by establishing the felicity conditions of the speech acts, which are necessary and sufficient for the act of blame to be successfully performed in the utterances of the parties involved in the electoral defeat discourse (<https://jourhum.com>). Furthermore, the speech acts of blame were accounted for in terms of adjacency pairs of blame/denial, positive-self/negative-other presentations. The discursive strategies of 'positive self-representation' (semantic macro-strategy of in-group favouritism) and 'negative other-representation' (semantic macro-strategy of derogation of out-group) show that ideological discourse often features overall strategies of van Dijk's (2004) 'ideological square' (<http://www.uab.ro/>). Apart from the ideological square, the electoral defeat as a discourse featured other such subtle ideological discourse strategies as actor description, polarization, Us-Them categorization, self-glorification, victimisation, and a number of argumentative moves including authority, evidentiality, generalization, and number game argumentations. In summary, insights from speech act theory, discourse analysis, and conversation analysis are explored and adopted as analytical means of establishing the communicative and interactional character of speech act of blame as a discourse, which as van Dijk (1997) surmises, involves social matters through which language is utilized for communication and also expression of feelings, ideas, and beliefs (<http://consortiacademia.org/>).

APPENDIX

- (i) "It is unfortunate that people had to be called to resign. The leaders are supposed to voluntarily resign their positions for the loss at the just concluded general elections..." - Governor Babangida Aliyu (<https://dailypost.ng/2015/05/10/aliyu-asks-muazu-others-to-resign-as-lamido-names-road-after-g7-governors/>)
- (ii) "From the example of what has happened in Britain where leaders of the Labour Party have resigned as a result of the elections, this is a step that should naturally be taken by any party that has lost an election..." - Ebenezer Babatope (<https://www.africanewshub.com/news/3078835-pressure-mounts-on-muazu-others-to-resign-before-may-29>)
- (iii) "You saw how the Labour and Liberal leaders resigned after losing elections in the United Kingdom..." - Olabode George (<https://www.latestnigeriannews.com/news/1484410/pressure-mounts-on-muazu-others-to-resign-before-may-29.html>)
- (iv) "The PDP chairman did not have the party's interest at heart from the time the party started campaigns...If the belief of the majority of the members of the PDP is anything to go by, you could say that the party chairman was the number one culprit for the dismal outing of the PDP." - Ahmed Gulak (<https://theeagleonline.com.ng/muazu-responsible-for-defeat-of-jonathan-pdp-gulak/>)
- (v) "The PDP lost the elections because of unresolved issues and due to the handiwork of enemies within..." - Olabode George (<https://dailypost.ng/2015/05/03/pdps-enemies-made-us-lose-elections-bode-george/>)
- (vi) "The road to the March 28 and April 11 electoral losses of the PDP actually started from its December 2014 primaries, when the governors deliberately shut out "unwanted candidates" and imposed their choices on the party..." - Victor Ndoma-Egba (<https://guardian.ng/news/ndoma-egba-blames-pdp-govs-for-partys-polls-loss/>)
- (vii) "The hate campaign played a huge part in the PDP's woeful outing at the last general elections..." - Olisa Metuh (<https://www.premiumtimesng.com/news/headlines/182424-pdp-crisis-party-blames-hate-campaign-for-jonathans.html>)
- (viii) "We (NWC members) did not lead the party to failure. If we had handled the campaign, Mr. President would have won the election...Olisa Metuh (<https://www.premiumtimesng.com/news/headlines/182424-pdp-crisis-party-blames-hate-campaign-for-jonathans.html>)
- (ix) "I have no apology on my position on the NWC because their responsibility as a party does not take away their failure in the last general elections... Ayodele Fayose (<https://www.premiumtimesng.com/politics/182482-pdp-crisis-fayose-hits-back-at-exco-says-muazu-betrayed-party-2.html>)
- (x) "Those who were "praise-singing and insincerely advising" the President during the campaign period were responsible for PDP's defeat at the presidential poll..." - Adamu Muazu (<https://www.herald.ng/muazu-denies-conspiring-with-apc-to-defeat-jonathan/>)
- (xi) "Jonathan's loss could be blamed on a multiplicity of interwoven causes. Jonathan was a victim and target of international cum domestic esoteric codes and conspiracies..." Osom Makbere (<https://www.nairaland.com/2277881/patience-jonathans-attitude-cost-us/>)
- (xii) The party headquarters was sidelined during the campaigns, and that "overzealous" persons were allowed to run a hate campaign against Mr. Buhari...Olisah Metu (<https://www.legit.ng/428042-2015-pdp-chief-speaks-about-reasons-for-jonathans-loss.html>)
- (xiii) "It is morally wrong for the national chairman to remain in office after leading the party to its first national electoral loss..." - Fayose (<https://web.thecable.ng/muazu-resign-like-uk-party-leaders>)
- (xiv) "Those who insinuate that I did not do my best for our great party and Mr. President during the elections are being economical with the truth..." - Adamu Muazu (<https://web.thecable.ng/muazu-couldnt-force-people-vote-gej>)

- (xv) “Only N30m was received for the last two elections and to the glory of the Almighty God and support of Ekiti people, we won all elections outright...”- Fayose (<https://www.legit.ng/433311-fayose-pledges-allegiance-to-pdp-insists-on-muazu-dismissal.html>)
- (xvi) “The NWC advised such party officials against hate speeches, but that the advice and suggestions were ignored. We cannot be held responsible for the failure...” – Olisa Metuh (<http://saharareporters.com/2015/05/05/president-jonathan-responsible-his-defeat-%E2%80%93-olisa-metuh>)
- (xvii) “The leadership of PDP was unconcerned about obvious irregularities that characterised the party’s primary that led to its shameful and disgraceful defeat...” - Sara-Igbe (<https://www.pmnewsnigeria.com/2015/05/08/pdp-lost-to-lack-of-internal-democracy-ex-security-adviser/>)
- (xviii) The party was taken over by Mrs. Jonathan, Gov. Fayose, Femi Fani-Kayode among others...” – Tsav (<https://dailypost.ng/2015/05/06/tsav-blames-patience-jonathan-fani-kayode-fayose-for-pdps-defeat/>)
- (xix) If you watch my utterances personally, you will find that there is nothing I do than to be a good salesman of what I should be, for my party and for my President. “Unfortunately, when the opposition goes haywire, some of our small boys in our own party also shout back...” - Adamu Muazu (<https://naijasly.blogspot.com/2015/05/why-adamu-muazu-is-not-to-blame-for.html>)
- (xx) “The president fought against evil conspiracies both locally and internationally in his bid to deliver good governance to the people of the country...” - Doyin Okupe (<https://allafrica.com/stories/201505112560.html>)
- (xxi) “How could you lead a party to disastrous outing in an election and you are still in that place, take the blame for the defeat by quitting?” - Babangida Aliyu (<https://allafrica.com/stories/201505180948.html>)
- (xxii) “I take absolute and total responsibility for this result and our party’s loss in this election. Now it’s time for someone else to take forward the leadership of the party. So, I am tendering my resignation” – Ed Miliband (<https://www.independent.co.uk/news/uk/politics/generalelection/ed-miliband-resigns-the-labour-leaders-resignation-speech-full-text-10236019.html>)

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The Vocabulary Teaching Mode Based on the Theory of Constructivism

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Abstract—Vocabulary teaching is an important research topic in English teaching, this paper combines constructivist theory with English vocabulary teaching and proposes a new model of vocabulary teaching on the basis of qualitative analysis and modular construction, that is “The Word Parameter Contextualized Meaning Construction Mode and The Embodiment-activation Schematic Construction Mode”, the former point out that some words, in vocabulary teaching, do not appear in the vocabulary list, but teachers can hint parameters or clues in the context, such as: time, categories, comparison etc. to guide students to recognize and construct the meaning of unknown words autonomously; the latter means that the human brain systematically stores the learned knowledge and experience and divides it into several units to form a "schema" of which some incomplete places will continue to be supplemented and improved with people's cognition and practice's development. At the same time, the accumulation of new knowledge will activate the old knowledge in the brain, which enables learners to connect messy knowledge into a systematic network. It is worth promoting in teaching practice. This study selects the college English textbook "New Vision" as the case material to analyze and prove that this new type of vocabulary teaching mode not only can broaden the teaching thinking of teachers and improve teaching efficiency, but also can help students explore the cognitive laws of vocabulary, build a vocabulary system, and effectively stimulate their potential in the short term.

Index Terms—vocabulary teaching, constructivism, contextual parameter, schema, motivations

I. THE INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary is not only an important component of language expression, but also the most basic content of language application. For most learners, the breadth and depth of the vocabulary will affect their listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation level, therefore, vocabulary teaching is particularly important. However, the current situation of English vocabulary teaching and learning is not optimistic. English teachers have the following problems in vocabulary teaching: the first problem is that teachers in schools generally use the grammar translation teaching method in vocabulary teaching, which focuses too much on the explanation of grammatical structure and sentence structure, but seldom explain the vocabulary part. The second problem is that due to the influence of traditional teaching concepts, teachers often use the three-step method to teach vocabulary when explaining words, that is "pronunciation + spelling + word meaning", ignoring the interpretation of contextual meaning and cultural connotation, which is not conducive to the improvement of students' vocabulary cognitive ability and self-construction ability of knowledge. As a result, students only passively accept language knowledge and their motivation to learn is stifled. The third problem is that roles of teachers and students are not appropriate, teacher play the role of instructor in the classroom, and rarely explains language learning strategies, leaving the important task of learning vocabulary after class. These teaching problems cause students to memorize vocabulary books or vocabulary lists mechanically, and they always forget old words after learning new words, therefore, it is difficult to expand the breadth of the vocabulary (Laufer, Parabakht 1998). In addition, students lack the depth of vocabulary learning, and only master the literal meaning of the words they learn, but do not really master the dynamics of the semantics in the context. As a result, students are bored with vocabulary learning and feel that vocabulary learning is boring, resulting in poor speaking and writing ability (productive ability), as well as some common problems in class and examinations, such as, poor semantic flow and inaccurate collocation or word selection.

Therefore, how to efficiently teach vocabulary has become an important research topic in college English teaching. As an important theory of teaching, constructivism thought that knowledge does not exist objectively, but is actively constructed by individuals or learners under a specific social and historical background, therefore, in vocabulary teaching, teachers should stimulate students' knowledge construction ability and make students the main body of classroom learning. Based on this theoretical point of view, this thesis takes the teaching practice of "New Horizons College English Reading and Writing Course (2011)" (referred to as "New Horizons") as a case study to discuss the constructiveness of English vocabulary teaching and learning.

II. CONSTRUCTIVISM

The theory of constructivism was first proposed by the Swiss cognitive psychologist Piaget in the 1960s, which revealed the cognitive rules of human learning process in a unique perspective. Later in the 20th century, with the

further efforts of Piaget, Dewey, Vygotsky and other scholars, constructivist ideas is constantly being developed and improved, and gradually formed a relatively mature theoretical system. The two basic core concepts of constructivism are activity theory (Leont' ev, 1981) and the area of recent development (Vygotski, 1930). The former refers to the activities, behaviors, operations of individuals and groups which are affected by social institutions, that is to say, social institutions determine the background or context of educational activities. The latter discusses the basic characteristics of learning. It mainly explores that how participants in learning activities obtain the assistance from more capable learners, and predicts the development and changes from their potential capabilities, according to the individual's performance in interactive activities. Both the activity theory and the recent development zone reveal an important idea, that is, the change in the concept of learning, students no longer regard learning as a process of simply receiving knowledge, but believe that learning is a process that learners participating in various learning activities and acquiring knowledge. For example, when students have a conversation, they consciously mention a lot of information materials, especially some new vocabularies that they have previously unknown, will be learned accidentally, which seem to be more effective than just the knowledge imparted by teachers. Therefore, in the process of interactive learning, students can improve their learning ability, one of the performances of the learner's progress is that they no longer need their teachers to remind them to use a certain learning skill but are able to independently and consciously apply a certain skill, that is, the development of metacognitive ability. However, the cultivation of students' autonomous construction ability in vocabulary teaching is inseparable from the teacher's guidance, teachers should give critical scientific guidance in whole vocabulary teaching process, and provide necessary help and give some materials in time when students are uncertain or doubtful, at this time, teachers' language should be instructive, not prescriptive. Except that, teachers should pay attention to learners' past learning experience, and encourage students to seek learning assistance from their learning partners, make sure that the classroom atmosphere is active, teachers and students are very involved, because the classroom is "us", not "me". The communication between teachers and students should be not only the transmission of information, interpersonal communication, but also instructive. Based on the requirements of the two principles above, this paper designs the following teaching models, they are the word parameter contextualized meaning construction module and the embodiment-activation schematic construction module.

III. ENGLISH VOCABULARY TEACHING FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF CONSTRUCTIVISM

How to efficiently conduct vocabulary teaching has become an important research topic in college English teaching. Because the traditional vocabulary teaching mode always takes the teacher as the main teaching channel, listing the meaning and collocation of each word in isolation without the context of the article, and asks students to memorize mechanically. In order to solve these problems, Constructivism advocates student-centered and emphasizes that students are the active constructors of the meaning of knowledge. It updates the traditional vocabulary teaching concept in China that teachers are the center of vocabulary teaching and emphasizes learners' subjective consciousness and the ability of self-construction. This thesis mainly quotes the viewpoints of "Schema" and "Context" in Constructivism, and proposes two modes of vocabulary teaching, one is the word parameter contextualized meaning construction module, that is because every word has their meaning in a specific context, as Verschuereen said, "without linguistic context, a word would be just a fragment without any meaning" (Verschuereen 1999). Generally speaking, the meaning of word in context is no longer the dictionary meaning, but the dynamic context meaning which needs to be constructed on the basis of the interaction between subject and object. The other is the embodiment-activation schematic construction module, this model is based on the reflection schema and cognitive structure theory proposed by constructivist psychology (Hui Ying 2010), this mode can activate the knowledge and experience stored in the brain, and effectively guide students to organize a complete vocabulary network in vocabulary learning.

A. *The Word Parameter Contextualized Meaning Construction Module*

This model mainly relies on the information provided by the context, context refers to "situation or context that helps people understand"(Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary), including "situational context" and "linguistic context" which restricts the generation of semantics. In real case analysis, the parameters in the context provide a reference for learners to determine the meaning of each word.

1. The parameters in the context

Zeng Li sha (2011) put forward the theory of context parameter, it said that "context" or "pre and post article" can be specifically expanded into a number of identifiable, qualitatively generalized "parameters" which restrict the process of specific discourse understanding, interpretation and generation of discourse unit. These parameter factors are shown in the table below.

THE TABLE OF CONTEXT PARAMETERS

Parameter factors	Definitions	Examples
Generic-specific Parameter	Generic concept can derive the specific concept.	for instance, such as, including, etc.
Explanation Parameter	It is used to explain unknown word.	is, or, that is, namely, referring to, defined as, a dash, etc.
Anaphora /Cataphora Parameter	It has the same coreference as a word in the preceding or following text.	These, that, the former, the latter, etc.
Synonymic Parameter	The parameter factor in the context that has the same meaning as a unknown word.	that is, namely, viz, put it simply, etc.
Antonymic Parameter	It has the opposite meaning to the unknown word	But, while, whereas, etc
Logic-relation Parameter	Word that used to express logic-relation, such as, whole-part relationship, etc.	Consequently, in part, generally, put it more specifically, etc.

Of course, these parameter factors are not all. The table lists only some conventional parameters. “Yang guizhang and Zeng Lisha (2014) believed that context parameters were divided into two categories: conventional and unconventional: the former includes subject, subject tendency, time, location, event, scale, generic-specific, causal parameters, etc., the latter refers to a collection of diachronic social and cultural context parameters or parameters with random characteristic constructed by cognitive relevance.”Setting contextual parameters not only reflects the potential connections between textual meanings and the constraints of various illocutionary knowledge, and also reflects the mental representation of the operation of the discourse coherence mechanism, making it empirical. In vocabulary teaching, contextual parameter factors can often fill in the lack of information, and play a great indicative role in the vocabulary learning.

2. Case Analysis of Vocabulary Teaching

In a real teaching case, the word parameter contextualized meaning construction module provides teachers and students with a framework for teaching and learning. Under the guidance of a wide range of contextual parameters, students can accurately identify unrecognized vocabularies and complete the process of vocabulary acquisition. The following is a specific case analysis,

Example one: As they moved westward, they faced many adversities, such as scarce food, extreme weather and loneliness. (“New Vision I”, Unit 2)

Gracia (2009) thought that the meaning of a text depends on the context, so it can be regarded as a relational concept. In this case, *adversities* as the new word of this sentence, the semantic construction of the word depends on the parameter factor of the following context, that is “such as” which is called generic parameter, at the same time, other three concepts “scarce food, extreme weather and loneliness” belongs to the specific parameters or concepts, these negative lists just confirm what the previous “adversities” means, and thus, learners are able to construct the accurate meaning of the generic parameter’s concept, that is “some difficult and tricky things”. In addition, *moved westward* is “the westward movement” in the American history, according to this historical background, it is not difficult to determine that the meaning of this sentence, that is “when they move westward, they are encountering difficulties such as, food shortage, bad weather and loneliness.”Therefore, the existence of generic-specific parameter here plays a huge role in constructing the meaning of unknown word.

However, the traditional context is single, so complex problems cannot be solved in single context. The parameters are the multi-dimensional map and they have restrictive relations with each other, such as macro-micro propositions, whole-part, concept and morpheme, relationship feature map and other cognitive mechanisms. Learners need to distinguish the meaning of word from complex parameter relationships, the specific analysis is in the following example.

Example two: Writers have constantly imagined worlds where people lived to extraordinary ages while holding on to their youthful looks and vigor by means, mostly foul. In the real world too, people are tempter to try all kinds of disgusting things, from bathing in tubs of warm mud to receiving injections of monkey glands, all in the hope of foiling the negative effects of aging. (“New Vision I”, Unit 1)

There are a lot of parameter factors in the paragraph and these factors are connected and intertwined with each other, when students distinguish unknown vocabularies, they may not find the equivalent parameter factors, which may lead to parameter displacement or even the ambiguity of word. Therefore, finding the right parameter factor is very important. Let’s analyze this paragraph.

Here, *foul* is a new word in this paragraph. Learners need to construct the meaning of this word by qualitative analysis of the context parameter factors in this paragraph, *holding on to and foiling* is the objective parameter, *means* is the measure parameter; *disgusting* is synonymous parameter, and the semantic prosody constructed by disgusting and negative is the same, therefore, we can infer *foul* is bad. In fact, the recognition of contextual parameters requires teachers to help students make relevant judgments between the concept or proposition of contextual changes (independent variables) and functional contextual parameters (dependent variables),. In this case, the teacher needs to guide the students to make three steps. The first step is to find the unknown words and clarify the structure of the sentence; the second step is to find the parameter factors, such as the purpose parameter “*in the hope of* and *holding on to*”, the synonymous parameter “*negative* and *disgusting*”; the third step is to find the equivalent item of the parameter

and determine the final meaning of the unknown word.

This vocabulary teaching mode makes full use of contextual parameter factors. Students can make full use of objective factors in the context, which is an important step in vocabulary construction. In addition, students should also more or less relying on the self-cognition level in the process of vocabulary learning, this involves another vocabulary teaching mode in this thesis, that is "the embodiment-activation schematic construction module".

B. The Embodiment-activation Schematic Construction Module

This vocabulary teaching model originated from the hypothesis of "schema" in cognitive psychology. The hypothesis was originally proposed by Kant. "He believed that there are pure concepts in the human brain, and schemas connect concepts and objects of perception". (Kant 2000). Schematic theory has continuously formed the schema theory of modern cognitive psychology in its later development and schema theory mainly used to explain the psychological process of storing and extracting information. Since then, more and more scholars have used schema theory as a tool for teaching and cognitive research.

The embodiment-activation schematic construction module is designed based on schema theory, This model fully takes into account human cognitive ability, emphasizes the dynamic interaction between object resources and the learning subject, and makes up for the traditional vocabulary teaching's neglect of the brain integration ability. It is a bold attempt in the teaching process.

1. The design of schematic construction module

The design of this model consists of three steps. The first step is that the teacher creates a real situation and requires students to act the role in the situation, to experience and feel, in this process, students' multiple senses are fully mobilized. In the second step, when students are immersed in a real situation, their brains are in an extremely active state, and the previously forgotten knowledge is gradually reactivated, under the collision of new and old knowledge, new cognition and understanding are produced. The third step is the construction of the schema. When the learner's brain has too much knowledge, the brain will automatically sort out and internalize it. In this process, the knowledge will be organized into a temporal or spatial network and formed in the brain, schema construction is the last and most critical step of this model and it further proved the effectiveness of this model. Therefore, in the process of semantic construction of vocabulary, learners can use schema methods to learn and master vocabulary in language contexts, expanding vocabulary and use vocabulary for practical purposes and communication activities. Then, how students and teachers do in a real vocabulary teaching case, the following is a specific analysis.

2. Case Analysis of Vocabulary Teaching

In teaching practice, the embodiment-activation schematic construction module takes into account the learner's real experience, cognitive ability and dynamic knowledge construction ability, providing teachers and students with a framework for teaching and learning. It provides an effective program for English vocabulary teaching, under the guidance of that mode, students can complete the process of vocabulary acquisition. The following is a specific case analysis.

Example one: He (the officer) said the pair's methods suggested they might be the same men who had committed a number of robberies in the area over the past few months. He asked me to come to the station and look through mug shots. ("New Vision I", Unit 1,5b)

The subject described in this case is robbery, which said a story that the author may have met someone who once robbed himself. When teaching the "contextualized" vocabulary, such as *robbery*, teachers can use the embodiment-activation schematic construction module, the concept of "robbery" will activate the diagrams or knowledge framework in the brain, such as, robber, pistol, wallet, valuables, threat, robbed, alarm and so on, teachers can show pictures to them or ask students to act and play relevant videos so that students can learn vocabulary on the basis of experience and cognition. In the subsequent text reading, students can find and fill in new slots, thereby constructing a more complex and experienced "robbing" situation, storing these vocabularies in memory as a knowledge node. Compared with traditional vocabulary teaching, the embodiment-activation schematic construction module is characterized by the experience (contextualization), constructability (relevance) and systematization (stability) of the vocabulary. Below is a schematic analysis of robbery.

(robbery schema)=robbers(single robber/pair/gang/armed robber/offender)--a crime tools (gun/pistol/knife)--robbery of money or sex (wallet/valuables/sex)--a verbal threats (threaten/bark/snap)--intimidation of action (dig the gun into the head/temple)--searching or plundering money (searching/grabbing)-- the person who is robbed (the robbed/victim)--an action (hands up or extended/lie on the stomach)--and psychological activities--(frightened/ask god for mercy)--an alarm(call 911/report the details/operator/uniformed /officer/police car).

In the pictorial teaching mode, students can acquire knowledge quickly and intuitively. Therefore, both the various multimedia and corpus specific resources can provide convenient and effective help for the construction and reconstruction of various lexical knowledge schemata.

Example two: I climbed the ladder, heard my dive announced, and commenced the moves that would thrust me into the air. (Para.2) Pushing off the diving boarding with my legs, I lifted my arms and shoulders back, and knew immediately I would be close to the board and might hit my hands. (New Vision, Unit 5b)

In this case teaching, the difficulty in this sentence is the word *moves*, which is the plural form of the noun and includes two or more actions. The appropriate contextual meaning needs to be enriched and constructed in the current

context. Teachers not only need to use pictures and videos to introduce students to the background knowledge of diving, but also need to ask a student to imitate the diving action of a springboard: climb the ladder, walk to the end of the springboard, wait for the jump instruction, the jump action including pedal accumulating, arm standing backward, pedaling on springboard, at the end, jumping into the air. So the following schema memory network is formed.

(moves) = (standing on the end of the diving board -- posed --lifting the arms -- pushing off the board --thrusting into the air).This schema strengthens vocabulary memory. But it can be regarded as a sub-schema of springboard diving, teachers and students can further construct a complete diagram, thereby expanding the students' knowledge system and background knowledge.

Experience-constructivist teaching model points out that the decoding of linguistic signs is a series of cognitive processes with inherently relevant contextual parameterized operations (Huang lepin & Wang junchao, 2015).This innovative model of combining teacher's top-down explanations with students' bottom-up construction, combining static deconstruction with dynamic construction in context, and constructing open modules together with teacher-student interaction, not only provides theoretical basis for vocabulary teaching, but also It helps to improve students' ability to guess word and create new word. It has great potential for development in vocabulary teaching.

IV. THE CONCLUSION

Through the analysis of the above teaching cases, it is not difficult to draw such a conclusion that the word parameter contextualized meaning construction module and the embodiment-activation schematic construction module are feasible in actual teaching cases. On the one hand, this model makes teachers and students notice the existence of parameter factors. In the construction of vocabulary semantics, learners can rely on multiple parameter factors to distinguish unknown word and complete the process of vocabulary learning. On the other hand, the establishment of schemas connects the same category with related word in English. When students see a word, they can think of a series of characters, which not only enlarges the vocabulary, but also makes it difficult to forget. This teaching mode can make the teaching and learning of English vocabulary not monotonous and arduous. In addition to using schemas to construct semantic maps of vocabulary, teachers can also instruct students to use this strategy for English listening, oral teaching, etc. It has a wide range of use. In actual vocabulary teaching, students will improve their English reading ability due to the expansion of English vocabulary. Therefore, scientific learning strategies can expand English vocabulary when learning and memorizing English vocabulary. Thus, through deep understanding of the meaning connections between vocabularies, students can improve the ability of memorizing vocabularies. This kind of learning strategy of semantic representation is worth popularizing in daily foreign language teaching.

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The Analysis of the Features of Interaction in Instructed SLA*

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Abstract—This study investigates the interaction in university instructed setting in China. It reveals the interactional patterns, the strategies used in the negotiation of meaning and language forms being negotiated in classroom. The results show that the most frequently used interactional pattern and strategy of negotiation of meaning is IRF and comprehension check. But data shows that more complicated interactional patterns such as IRF(I)RF, IR [$I^1 R^1 (I^2 R^2)$] F and $IR^1 F^1 / R^2 F^2$ are being used. They are beneficial in promoting students' language production. And we also found that there is focus on form in the negotiation of meaning, which can help to raise learner's awareness of language forms in meaningful communication.

Index Terms—interactional pattern, negotiation of meaning, conversation analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

It is widely accepted that the goal of L2 instruction and learning is to develop learners' communicative competence. (Jin & Cortazzi, 2011). Interactions and conversations that learners participate in classroom are of great importance because it is in this setting that learners receive information about the correctness and incorrectness of their utterances (Gass & Mackey, 2015). Interaction in instructional setting is of great importance because it decides what opportunities it provides for the learner, in what way they are exposed to what kind of input of target language, whether or not it leads to the production of target language and in what form. This study analyzes the interaction in instructional setting in China, aiming to find its features and provide implications for English teaching in China.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Instructed Second Language Acquisition

The term Instructed Second Language Acquisition (ISLA) is used to refer to the subdomain of SLA that investigates the effects of manipulating various aspects of the L2 learning endeavor, from L2 input, to language processing and contexts of learning (Loewen, 2017, p.10). ISLA 'emphasizes mental processes such as information processing and internalization, storage of knowledge, and production of language as correlates of some form of pedagogical intervention' (Han & Nassaji, 2019, p.395). There are two dimensions in analyzing the features of L2 instructional context, one is language context and the other is cognitive context, which Ellis proposed as two conceptual frameworks in 1990: classroom as interaction and classroom as formal instruction. So basing on this framework, the study of classroom interaction includes: (1) to describe the features of classroom discourse; (2) to check the relationship between features of classroom discourse and language acquisition; (3) to control certain features of classroom discourse and intervene the process of language learning; (4) to identify the elements that can influence the features of classroom discourse. This study is mainly concerned with the first study, to have a description of the features of classroom conversation. But it goes a step further, on the basis of the analysis of the data we observed, this study tries to investigate what we can do to teacher-students interaction to make it more beneficial for language acquisition.

B. Interaction in Instructed Setting

"Interaction" is the conversation in class that learners take part in. Interaction is important because in this process learners receive information and find out whether their utterances are correct or not. The Interaction Approach was formed in the early 1980s and updated in 1996 by Long. It has witnessed a growth in empirical research and is now subjected to meta-analyses and research syntheses. (Keck, Iberri-Shea, Tracy Venture, & Wa-Mbaleka, 2006; Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Macky & Goo, 2007; Norris & Ortega, 2000). It is widely accepted today that there is a robust connection between interaction and learning.

Interaction in instructed setting is the process by which samples of the target language becomes available to the learner for interlanguage construction. (Ellis, 1990, p. 93). The following example shows us the typical structure of interaction in classroom.

T: R_____, What is _____?

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L1: This is a book.
 T: Wait. What is this?
 L1: This is book.
 T: 'A'.
 L1: This is a book.
 T: Right. Very good. What are these?
 L1: What is _____
 L2: These are _____
 L1: This – these are rubbers.
 T: Rubbers.
 L1: Rubbers. (Ellis, 1990, p. 94)

This episode is a typical teacher-student interaction. It consists of display questions and evaluative and corrective feedbacks on the part of the teacher and responses from the students. The language knowledge talked about in this episode is the third-person copula. It is also a form-focused sequence in which language form is emphasized, negotiated and acquired. So interaction in class has its typical patterns and modes. Negotiation of meaning usually triggers interactional adjustments by the NS or more competent interlocutor. It helps to facilitate acquisition because it connects input, internal capacities and output in a productive way. A clear description of the communicative patterns and the strategies of negotiation of meaning can help to give us some hints of how learning happens in a traditional English class in the University in China.

C. The Analysis of Classroom Interaction: Conversation Analysis (CA)

In a CA view, all meaning is created and negotiated in interaction. Sinclair and Coulthard, basing on Halliday's theory of scale and category grammar, developed a model of analyzing classroom discourse, which involves a series of ranks and levels arranged in a hierarchical order. Ranks at discourse level are in descending order. They are: *Lesson, Transaction, Exchange, Move* and *Act*. In practice Sinclair and Coulthard were to be remembered most for the Moves they identified: *Initiation, Response* and *Feedback* move, known as the *IRF*. In their description, the typical exchange in the classroom consists of an *initiation* by the teacher, followed by a *response* from the student, then the *feedback* to the student's response given by the teacher. Each separate part of a move is one act. So *acts* are the units at the lowest rank of discourse. For this, we will have detailed explanation in the following part of this chapter.

Acts make up moves, and moves make up **exchanges**. The exchange is the primary unit of language interaction, and it has a structure made up of IRF:

Initiation (I)	Response (R)	Feedback (F)
<i>Who is the student teacher today?</i>	<i>Mary.</i>	<i>Ok.</i>

Exchange is that of the smallest structured interchange between speakers. We can still find discourse with more moves than IRF, these extended moves serve more targets either to promote language production or to focus certain language form.

According to Sinclair and Coulthard, a typical classroom exchange consists of three moves: an initiating move, a responding move and a follow-up move. The teacher makes the initiation move and the follow-up move with students being restricted to responding moves. This is still the pattern in a good many language classes, especially in large classes of perhaps 40 to 50 students. Where this happens, it is likely that students will have little chance to practice different utterance functions. The following example is a typical classroom exchange made up of three moves.

T: So, now, I have a question, if you have a robot at home, what kind of job would you like it to do for your family?	(initiating move)
S: I want it to do some housework for my family, if possible, I want him have talk with me.	(responding move)
T: OK, so you want it like a person.	(follow-up move)

This is a typical three parts exchange. In such language classrooms, learners rarely get the opportunity to take other than the responding role, and even in classes where students have the opportunity to initiate, the follow-up move is often still in the hands of the teacher, and learners get little or no practice in this particular discourse pattern.

D. Negotiation of Meaning

The interaction hypothesis emphasizes the importance of comprehensible input. It also seeks to explain how acquisition comes about and makes claims regarding which kinds of interaction will best promote it (Ellis, 1990, p. 107). According to Long, there are three ways of making input comprehensible (1983a, p. 128):

- (1) by means of input simplifications;
- (2) through the use of linguistic and extra-linguistic context; and
- (3) through modification of the interactional structure of conversation.

Long (1981) refers to (1) as input features and (3) as interactional features and argues that acquisition is only made possible if interactional adjustments are present. The presence of such adjustments is described by Long as the **negotiation of meaning**. Negotiation of meaning is the process in which interactions are modified between or among conversational partners to help overcome communication breakdowns (Long, 1983a, 1983b; Long & Porter, 1985). Thus, cooperative interaction often results in mutual understanding (Pica, 1987). Gass et al. (2005) illustrated three

major ways of negotiation for meaning as in the following table:

Negotiation Strategy	Definition
Clarification Requests	In clarification requests, learners seek out extra information to clear up their misunderstanding. Question like 'What do you mean?' is often used in clarification request.
Confirmation Checks	Confirmation checks involve learners in verifying the meaning of their interlocutor's previous utterance. Questions like Do you mean X? is often used in such a situation.
Comprehension Checks	Comprehension checks involve speakers attempting to avert misunderstanding through the use of comprehension checks to ensure that their interlocutor has understood their intended message. The speaker may use 'Do you know what I mean?' to verify that their partner understands what is being said.

(Loewen, 2015, p. 42)

The purpose of this study is to find out the interactional patterns and negotiation modifications used in university English class in China. We want to confirm, besides IRF, if there are any other interactional patterns. We also want to know what negotiation modifications are being used in class and what are the focuses of the negotiation. On the basis of the literature review talked above, this study addresses the following research questions:

1. What is the typical interactional structure in instructed setting in China?
2. What are the forms of negotiation of meaning used in instructed setting in China?
3. What aspects of language did the negotiation of meaning address?

III. METHOD

The present study is descriptive. That is to say, it tries to describe naturally occurring phenomena in classroom without experimental manipulation but it has a narrow scope of investigation. The study consists of three stages. The first stage is the observation of the classroom and the recording of teaching process in a normal university in China. The second stage is the transcription of the teaching process into text document and two other teachers then check the transcription. The third stage is identification of interactional structures and the negotiation strategies used in the interactional episodes. The fourth stage is a detailed description of the interactional structures and negotiation strategies found in the data.

A. Instructional Setting

Five intact classes of English major in a normal university in China were observed as the source of data with each class was recorded twice. The time we observed the class was at the beginning of the second term because the students were quite adapted to the learning environment and teacher's teaching methods after studying here for half a year. At the beginning of their freshmen semester, the students were evenly distributed into different classes according to the grades they got at the college entrance examination so there is no significant difference in their English proficiency among different classes. The course we chose is intensive reading with each lesson consists of 50 minutes. Totally we got 500 minutes of recording. The observer went into the class without intervening the teaching process. In intensive reading class in China, the activities usually included retelling, question and answer, reading comprehension activities, and translation. The topic of teacher-student interaction includes the explanation of the reading material and grammar focus.

B. Participants

Each class consists of 30 students with most of the students are females. Most of the students are from less developed areas thus their English proficiency is comparatively low. They seldom initiate interaction during class. The teacher initiates most of the interactions. The students are fee paying and teaching English will be their career after graduation, so generally they are highly motivated. All the teachers of these five classes have a master degree of linguistics or translation. One of them has taught for 20 years. Two of them have taught for 10 years. The other two teachers have taught for 5 five years. They are informed that the aim of the study is to examine classroom interaction.

C. Procedure

(1) Data Collection

A recorder was attached to the teacher in each class to record classroom interaction, including whole-class interaction and the teachers' interaction with individual student and groups. Thus this can ensure we can collect all the interactions teacher-students interaction. Totally 500 minutes of classroom interaction have been collected.

(2) Data Review

The recordings were first transcribed into text of approximately 50000 words. Two assistants reviewed the recordings and the texts to ensure the correctness. Then all the teacher-students interactions were picked out to form the data of this study.

(3) Identification of the Interactional Structures

We then identified the interaction episodes in which there are complete transactions, sequences or exchanges. Because the aim of the study is to find out the pattern of teacher-students interaction with the framework of

Conversation Analysis, thus any interaction episode which does not contain complete exchange is counted, such as when the teacher asks the student to close the window, or when the teacher asks questions, too many students answer the question so we can not hear clearly what they are talking about.

(4) Identification of the Negotiation of Meaning

According to the analyzing framework we mentioned in the last chapter, the researcher checked the interactional episodes to find out the strategies of negotiation of meaning used. In order to ensure correct strategies to be identified, the researcher and the assistant first made a clear criterion for each strategy, and then the researcher and the assistant independently coded a transcription sample of 50 minutes, with a resulting 92% agreement rate.

(5) Data Analysis

All these data were next subjected to detailed analysis. We first identified different types of exchanges according to the moves they have. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) have proposed descriptive framework for analysing spoken discourse, using classroom data as a starting point (Tsui, 2001, p. 8). A typical classroom exchange is made up of three moves: an *initiating move* from the teacher, a *responding move* from the student, and a *follow-up move* from the teacher (ibid.: 9). Three major acts probably occur in all forms of spoken discourse—*elicitation*, *directive*, and *informative*. They appear in classroom discourse as the heads of *initiating moves* and are very frequently realized by interrogatives, imperatives, and declaratives respectively. But as what we have found out, the most often used initiation act is *elicitation*, that is to say, the typical exchange in English class begins with teacher's questions.

The following example is a typical exchange found in our transcription.

T: What is the meaning of "beyond our imagination"? (elicitation act)

S: Cannot be imagined. (response act)

T: Yeah, it means cannot be imagined. (follow-up act)

This exchange begins with teacher's question. This kind of question is usually used to check if the students have a clear idea of the meaning of certain word or sentence.

The researcher then checked the interaction episodes that contain negotiation of meaning. Meaning negotiation is thought to be able to accelerate language acquisition because it can lead to comprehensible input (Long 1983; Pica et al 1987). The researcher found out when an exchange contains more than three move, it usually contains negotiation of meaning. For example:

S: I think Zhao Wei is a **victim**, we should forgive her.

T: A what? ← Clarification Request

S: A victim.

T: Good, I think it's good for you to use this word. (Lu, 2011, p. 88)

In this sequence, the teacher asked the student to make a clarification by using a tag question, this negotiation method we call *clarification request*, that is to say, to ask the student to state again the information he/she has just said because of misunderstanding or the missing of the point.

IV. RESULTS

A. The Typical Interactional Structures

Overall 210 interactional structures were identified in the 500 minutes teaching. Approximately teacher-student interaction occurred at a rate of every five minutes. The interactions were then divided into different types according to the structures they have. Generally speaking, the following structures have been found in the freshmen intensive reading classes.

(1) IRF Pattern

This is a three-move interaction. It is initiated with the teacher's question, the student's response, and then the feedback given by the teacher. e.g.,

T: What is your favorite fruit? (initiation)

S: Apple. (response)

T: Good. (feedback)

According to our observation, IRF is the most frequently used discourse pattern in the class we observed. In a teacher-centered class, IRF is helping most of the students involve into teaching process. The differences lie in the third move. The teacher gives evaluation or feedback according to the correctness of students' answer: a positive evaluation for a correct answer, and a negative evaluation or a withholding for strategic reasons for an incorrect answer.

T: How many meaning does this word have? (initiation)

S: Two. (response)

T: No, three. (feedback)

In a traditional English class in China, the teacher is the instructor of the teaching plan and also arranges class activities. According to Barnes (1976), IRF interaction has a close relationship with "transmission mode of education", which indicates that the teacher reinforces his authority while transmitting knowledge. That means the teacher has a dominant function. The students cooperate with the teacher and they just receive the knowledge passively. They have little chance to exercise their communicative ability. In a word, the more control the teacher gives to the teaching process, the more frequently the IRF appears. Thus we may doubt the effectiveness of knowledge transmission in this

way since the students have only limited production.

(2) IRF(I)RF Pattern

The IRF(I)RF pattern contains four moves: initiation, response, feedback and initiation, response and feedback. It contains a re-initiation on the part of the teacher. For example,

- T: *What is the main idea of this paragraph?* (initiation)
 Ss: *It's about the return of his life.* (response)
 T: *You think so?* (feedback)
 I: *but what kind of life?* (initiation)
 Ss: *His dreamed life.* (response)
 T: *Yes.* (feedback)
 Or:
 T: *What is the meaning of "query" here?* (initiation)
 Ss: 询问. (response)
 T: *No,*
 T: *it has a negative meaning here.* (feedback)
 Ss: *To question, to doubt.* (response)
 T: *Right*

When a wrong answer is given, there are usually two major routes open to the teacher: he can stay with the same child until the student gets the right answer or he keeps the question and moves on to another child. It is usually realized by 'Yes', 'No' or a just a repetition of what the pupil just said (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975, p. 54). The second initiation is realized by prompt, nomination, or clue.

(3) IR [I¹ R¹ (I² R²)] F Pattern

In this pattern, the teacher may not give feedback immediately after the student gives response to his initiation, instead he may go on with another initiation usually with a prompt or a clue to help the student to get the right answer. These steps will be repeated for several times, at last, the teacher gives his feedback. e.g.,

- T: *How do you answer if I ask "Do you mind my opening the window ?* (initiation)
 S: *Never mind.* (response)
 T: *Is that correct?* (initiation)
 S: *Not mind.* (response)
 T: *Here you should say "of course not", that is to say "I do not mind".* (feedback) (Lu, 2011, p. 87)

This pattern is also of high frequency in the class we observed. It shows the teacher deliberately leaves more opportunities for the students to have more language production. And this also is a trend in today's English class in China. More communication is happening. Teacher's initiation can also be seen as scaffolding for students to develop his language ability and they will also have more opportunities to participate in the teaching process.

(4) IR¹F¹ / R²F² Pattern

That means after the teacher's initiation, more than one student gives response and the teacher gives feedback respectively. We also call this pattern a *post-cooperative* structure. This pattern involves more students in classroom communication. So in a typical English class in China with at least 30 or more students in one class, this may be a good choice for the teacher to organize class communication. e.g.,

- T: *After reading this paragraph, what words have you found to describe a person's personality?* (initiation)
 S1: *Considerate.* (response 1)
 T: *Yeah, Considerate.* (feedback 1)
 S2: *Thoughtful.* (response 2)
 S3: *Courageous.* (response 3)
 T: *Great, so you have found "considerate, thoughtful and courageous".* (feedback 2)

Here, the question the teacher gave is a referential question or an open question. There is no definite answer to this kind of question. So we can see more students participate in the interaction. IR¹F¹ / R²F² Pattern is a very effective way teacher can use to enhance classroom communication.

B. Frequency of Interactional Structures

The distribution of these interactional patterns can give us a real picture of how teacher and students interact in teaching process. Thus we calculate the frequency of the interactional patterns we have talked about above.

TABLE 1
THE DISTRIBUTION OF INTERACTIONAL PATTERN

Interactional Pattern	Frequency
IRF Pattern	117
IRF(I ^b)RF Pattern	28
IR [I ¹ R ¹ (I ² R ²)] F Pattern	30
IR ¹ F ¹ / R ² F ² Pattern	35

We can see from the table that IRF is the most frequently used interactional pattern in the class we observed. It can be

explained by the fact that teacher has to finish a certain teaching task within a limited time span, so most of the time the teacher just gives the students a feedback or a confirmation to their answer. There is no time for further expansion of the communication. The more moves contained in an exchange, the more complicated the interaction is, so we can see that the number of IRF(I)RF Pattern, IR [$I^1 R^1 (I^2 R^2)$] F Pattern and $IR^1 F^1 / R^2 F^2$ Pattern is much less than IRF pattern.

Traditionally, English class in China is teacher-centered with less involvement on the part of the students. What we can see from the recording data is that teachers are trying to create more opportunities for students to make more language production. It is in the interaction forms of different topics are discussed, such as grammar, vocabulary or text understanding. Focus on form in the process of meaningful communication not only enhances language production on the part of the students but also raises their awareness of language forms.

C. Negotiation Modifications in Instructed Setting

Based on the transcriptions from the audio recordings, of all the 210 interactional patterns, 121 of them contain negotiation of meaning. After a detailed analysis of these episodes, totally six modification strategies have been identified. These strategies are used to promote mutual understanding and discuss language forms. We may say the negotiation of meaning leads to the focus of language form in which grammatical items are taught in a certain language context. In a traditional English class with at least 30 students maybe this can help to serve two aims, one is to promote communication, the other is to raise students' awareness of language forms.

(1) Clarification Requests

Clarification requests are utterances made by the listener to clarify what the speaker has said, which includes statements such as "I don't understand", wh-questions, yes/no questions, and tag questions (Long, 1980, 1983b; Pica & Doughty, 1985b). e.g.,

S: I think she is *on welfare*.

T: *On what?*

S: *On welfare*.

T: What do you mean by *on welfare*?

According to the data we have collected, the teacher makes most of the clarification requests. Sometimes the teacher can't hear clearly what the students said or doesn't get the students' meaning, so he may ask the students to repeat his/her preceding utterance, or sometimes the students can not get what the teacher has said because of a new word. Under this situation, clarification request is usually adopted.

(2) Confirmation Checks

Confirmation checks are those utterances made by the listener to confirm whether the preceding utterance has been heard and understood correctly, but they include repetition of all or part of the utterance accompanied by a rising intonation (Long, 1980; Pica & Doughty, 1985b). e.g.,

S: I think the author of this text has *a positive view in life*.

T: You mean she has *a positive outlook on life*?

S: Yeah.

In this example, the teacher makes the confirmation check just because she wants to make sure what she heard is correct or not. She just repeats part of the student's words while at the same time she corrects the mistake in student's expression by using a recast. Usually, during the teaching process, the students rarely adopt the strategy, because traditionally students in China are not inclined to ask questions. Most of the time they just receive knowledge passively. But we can see there is a trend in today's English class that teachers are encouraging students to get involved in the teaching process, either by asking them more questions or encourage them to pose their own questions.

(3) Comprehension Checks

Comprehension checks are those utterances made by the speaker to check whether the listener has understood the preceding utterance. It consists primarily of questions, either tag questions, repetition with rising intonation, or questions such as "Do you understand?" (Long, 1980, 1983b; Pica & Doughty, 1985b). In our data, it is the most frequently used strategy in class. We also find that sometimes the teacher doesn't use this strategy for specific purpose, expression such as "Do you understand?" or "Have you got it?" are used as casually. e.g.,

(The teacher was talking about some cyberwords. He wants to check if the students understand what he said)

T: "Watermelon eaters" refers a big crowd of passive onlookers. *You know "Watermelon eaters"?*

Ss: Yeah.

Sometimes the teacher asks these questions although he knows the students understand what he said. He just wants to emphasize the target knowledge and help the students have a strong impression.

Here is another example:

T: Whatever you do you will have to think twice before you take any actions, or look before you leap. *Do you understand the meaning of look before you leap?*

So confirmation check is used as a way of confirmation or the teacher uses this strategy to adjust the pace of his teaching especially when new words or knowledge is being taught. The teacher needs to check if the students have understood what she/he said.

(4) Conversational Adjustments (Combination of the Above Three)

Conversational adjustments consist of the combination of the strategies described above. The teacher may ask a

series of questions to communicate with the students. Sometimes this kind of communication is just like a conversation. It looks very casual but the students can get teacher's information in the communication. e.g.,

T: What else did you do during the summer holiday?

S: Swimming.

T: If you are asked to describe this vacation using some words, what words will you use?

S: Sunshine,

T: *What?*

S: Sunshine.....seaside.....

T: *You went to the seaside?*

S: Yeah.

T: What's your feeling when you first saw the sea?

S: I felt I was so little.

T: Good, *because we are so small standing by the sea.* Right?

Ss: Yeah.

In this example, we can find the strategies of meaning negotiation we have talked about above. The teacher uses several questions to confirm, to check and to make sure he gets the student's idea. This kind of communication is more like a conversation, the teacher just wants to help the students practice their oral English and he can also correct student's mistake in a tactful way. So in the communication the students not only practice the words he learned but also have their mistakes corrected.

(5) Partial, Exact, Expanded, and Total Self-Repetition

This consists of the speaker's partial and exact repetitions of their own preceding utterances within five speaking turns (Pica & Doughty, 1985b). The speaker repeats what he/she said to make his/her expression clear. But some students repeat themselves just because of nervousness. e.g.,

T: Does anyone share his opinion?

Ss: I think....

T: *I mean do you agree with him?*

In this example, the teacher repeats himself by using different expression but with the same meaning. In the second sentence, *agree with sb.* has the same meaning with *share one's opinion* in the first sentence. He tries to make his idea clear to the students.

(6) Partial, Complete, Expanded, and Total Other-Repetition

These include not only partial and exact repetitions of lexical items from a speaker's preceding utterances within five speaking turns but also the expansions of the utterances. The purpose of using this strategy is for one hand to confirm the information, and for the other hand to emphasize the important information in previous utterances. e.g.,

T: *What can you get from this passage?*

S: I think this quick-fixed society is not benefitting for everybody.

T: *Benefitting. Good.*

S: *Yeah, We need to slow down.*

In this example, the teacher repeats the student's word to show his agreement with the student. Also the teacher thinks it is an appropriate word to describe the feature of the quick-fixed society. So here repetition serves as a way of confirmation.

The researcher calculated the frequency of different types of strategies used in the negotiation of meaning. This table can show us how these strategies are used in our English class. Sometimes teacher and students are using these strategies unconsciously, so a clear description of these strategies helps them realize what they said in class. It can also help them use these strategies more consciously in the future.

TABLE 2
FREQUENCIES OF STRATEGIES OF NEGOTIATION OF MEANING

Strategies of Negotiation of meaning	Frequency
Clarification Request	17 (14%)
Confirmation Checks	18 (12%)
Comprehension Checks	45 (37%)
Conversational Adjustments	16 (17%)
Self-Repetition	10 (8%)
Other-Repetition	15 (12%)

In table 2 we can find that comprehension checks take up the majority of all the strategies of negotiation of meaning. Expressions like "Do you understand?", "Have you got it?" or "got it?" are just pet phrases. Teacher usually can't get responses from the students so teachers should be cautious in using this strategy. The second strategy that teachers often use is confirmation check. Some of the confirmation checks contain recast. Recast is good in maintaining communication but sometimes it can not be noticed by the students. So if teacher can focus on form after giving a recast, it will be more effective.

D. Language Forms Being Focused in Negotiation of Meaning

Cooperative interaction is beneficial because it provides learners with comprehensible input. Of all the 121 interactional structures we identified from the data, 101 of them contain negotiation of form of certain grammatical items. We may find the following linguistic items:

- grammar: tense, verb morphology, subject-verb agreement, plurals
- vocabulary: the meaning of words, including single words and idioms
- text understanding: the meaning of the reading material

These three linguistic items are the major linguistic items in teacher-students interaction but different strategies are used. We may find the distribution of these linguistic items in the following chart:

TABLE 3
DISTRIBUTION OF THE TARGET LINGUISTIC ITEMS

strategies linguistic items	CR	ConC	ComC	CA	SR	OR	Total
grammar	5	10	10	9	/	3	37 (37%)
vocabulary	/	6	/	5	3	5	19 (19%)
text understanding	2	6	5	8	1	/	22 (22%)
spelling	5	/	2	/	/	2	9 (9%)
pronunciation	/	3	3	/	1	7	14 (14%)
Total	12(12%)	25(25%)	20(20%)	22(22%)	4(4%)	17(17%)	

(CR= Clarification Request; ConC= Confirmation Checks; ComC= Comprehension Checks; CA= Conversational Adjustments; SR= Partial, Exact, Expanded and Total Self-Repetition; OR= Partial, Complete, Expanded and Total Other-Repetition)

We may find from the table that the percentage of grammar as the target linguistic item is larger than the other two. The negotiation of the meaning of vocabulary accounts for 35%. Of all the strategies used in negotiation of meaning, clarification request and other repetition have the same percentage, both are 23%, and self repetition is the most rarely used strategy accounting only for 11%.

V. DISCUSSION

The aim of instructed SLA is to develop implicit or procedural knowledge for communicative competence in L2 learners. In many cases, explicit instruction results primarily in explicit knowledge of the information that was taught (Loewen, 2015, p. 38). So meaning-focused interaction may be a way of instruction that is more likely to lead to implicit knowledge and communicative competence (Loewen, 2015).

A. Patterns of Classroom Interaction

We first investigated the interactional patterns in university English classroom. The Interaction Approach to ISLA focuses mainly on input, negotiation of meaning and output (Gass & Mackey, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2005). Krashen's Monitor Model confirms the importance of communication in the classroom and states that the ability to use language for spontaneous communication develops through implicit learning mechanisms (Krashen, 1982, 2003). For most of the Chinese English learners, the classroom may be the only context in which they are able to engage in L2 communication, so the characteristics of interaction in the classroom most beneficial for L2 acquisition and the development of communicative competence have always been the target of instructed SLA.

Our data shows more teacher-students communication can be found in English classroom in our country although most of the time it is still a teacher-centered interaction. If we want to talk about L2 acquisition, input is a topic we can't avoid. Input in our English class comes mainly from two aspects, one is textbook, and the other is teacher's language. So looking into the way of how teacher and students interact may be a good way to find out how input intervene the process of learning and how it enters learners' cognitive systems.

One of the main findings of the study is that we can find distinct patterns of teacher-students interaction. No study up till now has identified the functions of these interactional patterns in promoting acquisition and how. The first finding we got is, of all these patterns, IRF is the most frequently used pattern, in which three moves can be identified. But this pattern is of little benefits in accelerating acquisition because questions used in the initiating move are usually display question and in the third move, teacher usually gives a positive feedback. That is to say, it can't help students notice, comprehend and take into their cognitive system the information in the input. Another important finding we got is the importance of extended interactional patterns although teacher uses them unconsciously. In these extended patterns like $IRF(I^b)RF$, $IR [I^1 R^1 (I^2 R^2)] F$ and $IR^1 F^1 / R^2 F^2$, teacher uses questions and negative feedbacks to induce responses on the part of students. Although the number of these patterns is much less than IRF, still we can find focus of language forms in the interaction. So negative feedback and the correction of students' mistake in the previous utterance are of great importance to intervene the learning process and target students' attention to the form being focused in the interaction.

B. Strategies of Negotiation of Meaning

The second question of this study is to find out the strategies used in negotiation of meaning. Long (1991, 1996) argued that linguistic and situational context was not enough to make input comprehensible. Modified input during interaction is very important for L2 comprehension and development.

A number of studies have examined how negotiation of meaning occurs in the classroom (Gass et al., 2005). In her study, Gass found that different types of negotiation of meaning, such as confirmation check, clarification request and comprehension check can potentially help learners notice gaps between their own linguistic errors that result in communication breakdowns and the target-like forms that convey learner's intended meanings (Loewen, 2015). We identified six types of negotiation of meaning in English class we observed, among them comprehension checks are the most frequently used one although it does little contribution to language acquisition. This is different with Gass' finding.

According to our data, the target of the negotiation is about different aspects of language forms, such as grammar, vocabulary, spelling etc.. Through analyzing these episodes we found that among all the language forms, grammar is the focus of most of the meaning negotiation. So we can say grammar, as the focus of instruction is still a typical feature of English class in China. Another finding is that the process of negotiation not only directs students' attention to language form, but also accelerates language production. If they can notice the differences between their own utterance and teacher's utterance either from teacher's negative feedback or from communication breakdown, then output is not only the result of learning, but also as something that can contribute to L2 development. From our data, conversation adjustment is the negotiation strategy in which both focus on form and language production can be promoted.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study has explored teacher-students interaction in instructional setting. Previous studies on classroom interaction just treat them as communication in situational context. No study up till now explores classroom interaction from the perspective of instructed second language acquisition. This study not only draws a picture of classroom interaction in English classroom in China, from interactional patterns to ways of negotiation of meanings, but also investigates in what way they influence acquisition. We found that among 210 interactional episodes, 121 of them contain negotiation of meaning, and among them 101 episodes are about different language forms. The researcher thinks that a clear knowledge about what is happening in classroom interaction can help language teachers attach definite target in designing teaching tasks or teacher-students interaction while at the same time reduce the number of aimless interactions.

This study, with such a limited sample, can't tell the story of classroom interaction in every detail. The author hopes future studies can include as different learning community as possible to investigate how to make full use of classroom interaction to promote acquisition.

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A Study of Autobiographies: Confessions, Facts, Fiction and Hypothesis

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Abstract—Since ancient times, man has attempted to express his inner feelings, covetousness and inclination to the world through various mediums e.g. poetry, drama, story, etc. Literature is one of the outcomes of the man's efforts to reveal his aspirations to the world. Literature has avalanche of the widespread genre which is always subject to precisely apprehend and assimilate. Biography and autobiography are the two different genres of literature. The life of an individual is full of sweet and bitter experiences. There are incidences in an individual's life which he or she never wants to share with anybody. Politicians, Rulers, Socialites, Movie Stars and other public personalities are also normal human beings. They too have their personal share of problems in their lives and in an attempt to resolve those issues they sometimes commit mistakes and even crimes which they never want anyone to know. Sometimes they commit these mistakes, misdemeanours, felonies or crimes because of their lustful desires or inclinations. The present paper is a result of interest and curiosity to know if individuals share such information in their autobiographies.

Index Terms—autobiographies, truth in autobiographies, Urdu autobiographies, confessions, facts in autobiographies, fiction in autobiographies, the element of exaggeration in autobiographies

I. WHAT IS AN AUTOBIOGRAPHY

Autobiography is an account of events and different episodes of a person's life. However, it is an aesthetic depiction of one's life. The Oxford Reference Dictionary defines that autobiography is "[A] personal account of one's own life especially for publication". Thus, it suggests that an autobiography is biography of a person's life as Abrams in his book *A Handbook of Literary Terms* rightly defines that an "[A]utobiography is a biography written by the subject about himself or herself" (Abrams, p. 31). Autobiographies give an insight in the subconscious mind of the writer. We can guess the flow of ideas in the mind of the writer by reading his autobiography or the autobiographical work. This type of knowledge is not only interesting but also intriguing as well as sometimes inspiring and instructive.

When you read a novel you, sometimes, sympathise with the protagonist. You feel pity for the sufferings of the central character. You start hating the wicked or villainous characters. Even in the autobiographies you start sympathizing with the author and start hating the people who, according to the author, are the perpetrators of crime or who persecute the author. Prasad rightly asserts that "no one can know so well as the writer of the autobiography himself what motives prompted him at decisive moments, what his secret hopes and ambitions were, and how far his career fulfilled his real aspirations"

II. HISTORY

The advent of the first autobiography, in various languages and different parts of the world, is a matter of discussion. The Renaissance witnesses the first European autobiography by Margery Kempe, an Italian mystic dictated an account of her life during this period. Baxter's and John Bunyan's Autobiographies, in 17th century England, are the examples of religious life-accounts. *Apology for the life of Colley Cibber*, *Comedian* by Colley Cibber, in the 18th century, attracted the readers. Autobiographies, written by the distinguished writers like Benjamin Franklin, Edward Gibbon and Rousseau, marked a great history. Moreover, Wordsworth's *Prelude* and Byron's *Childe Harold* are the inspiration from Rousseau's 'Confessions'.

The first autobiography written in Indian English was Raja Rammohan Roy's short autobiographical sketch (1833) which is a very realistic presentation. Lutufullah, a tutor in Persian, Arabic and Hindustani to British officers wrote the first extensive autobiography in 1857. Some of the epoch-making autobiographies were written by prominent freedom fighters and great Indian leaders. Surendranath Banerjee's *A Nation Making* (1925) is a live commentary about the political turmoil of those days and how India moved towards independence, Mahatma Gandhi's *The Story of My Experiments with Truth* (1927) which was translated into English in 1940 by Mahadevbhai Desai. The two vitally

important autobiographies are Lala Lajpat Rai's *The Story of My Deportation* (1908) and Jawaharlal Nehru's *An Autobiography* (1936). Nehru's autobiography, an epitome of introspection, is a living record of the Indian history.

III. AN AUTOBIOGRAPHY, AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL WORK OR A DIARY

There is a huge difference between an autobiography and a diary. Autobiographical works are sometimes poles apart than the diary and autobiography. In an autobiographical work the author uses the fictional names and characters to speak his own story. Sometimes the author even crosses the thin line between the facts and fiction. That is the reason autobiographical works can never be considered as an authentic record of once life. Babur, the founder of Mughal Empire in India, wrote his memoirs *Tuzak-e-Babri* and his grandson wrote his famous memoirs named *s Tuzak-e-Jahangiri* but they are not considered as autobiographies.

IV. AUTOBIOGRAPHY AND LETTERS

We can define autobiography as a record of the history of once life. An autobiography is record of the events of once life and incidences through his own prism. Letters are a sort of communication between two or more individuals. There are people who keep exact record of event by noting them down in journals and when they write autobiography they can quote the incidences exactly as they happen. On the contrary there are people who do not have any written records and they quote incidences from their memory. Now the biggest question is how far a man can trust his memory. Human memory degenerates with the passage of time and it is not trustworthy for the event which takes place in the distant past. There are many incidences when the authors could not recall the events of the past exactly as they had happened and quoted them inaccurately. One of the greatest journalists and writers of India, Khushwant Singh who wrote his autobiography by the name 'Truth, love & a little malice' quoted the incidences of the life of the then prime minister of India Mrs Indira Gandhi. The daughter in law of the Prime Minister, Meneka Gandhi, who was mentioned in a bad light said in an interview to an Indian national daily in so many words that Khushwant Singh is an old man and his memory is no more trustworthy. There are several autobiographies which landed the author in trouble. Some people even go to the court of law and put stay on the publication of the work. However, autobiography "is not the annals of a man's life, but its 'philosophical history' sometimes the writer hides some important events of life because those events may put writer in a bad light in front of the reader or general public. But on the contrary some writers have used their autobiographies as a weapon for maligning the character of others. This can also be called as character assassination of others. Reham Khan the former wife of the Prime Minister of Pakistan Imran Khan, even goes to the extent of saying that Imran Khan used to take drugs in the bathroom. While talking about her first husband she mentions him as if he was not a man but a monster who never paid any attention to her or her children's feelings. On the other hand she depicts herself as the one who wanted to continue the relations but both the men i.e her first husband and her second husband were responsible for the break up. Ironically Reham Khan's autobiography released when her former husband was contesting the general elections in Pakistan. Although her autobiography did not have a very damaging effect on the political career of her former husband but the autobiography was widely read and discussed during the elections. You will hardly come across any autobiography where the writer candidly confesses about his or her mistakes and takes the responsibility of the mistakes and crimes committed.

Zahiruddin Babur (1483 – 1530) the founder of the great Mughal Empire in India, in his Baburnama, also known as Tuzke Babri, writes about his interests in homosexuality and how he was 'maddened and afflicted' towards a boy in Urdu Bazar. Qudratullah Shahab (1920-1986) a renowned Urdu writer and diplomat in his autobiography 'Shahabnama' writes about his childhood infatuation towards the beautiful young wife of his teacher. When the region of Jammu was hit by the worst kind of plague and his teacher, the husband of the beautiful young lady, caught with the plague, Qudratullah, enamoured with his infatuation, wished death for him. Unfortunately for him, his teacher survived but after a few days his beautiful wife got infected with plague and died. He also mentioned how he used to steal money, thrown in charity, from the grave of a famous Sufi Saint. The first chapter of his autobiography 'Shahabnama' is '*Iqbal e Jurm*' confession. Mahatma Gandhi, the champion of nonviolent resistance and the father of nation of India writes about his childhood marriage and how he stole money from his home as a child and how he tried smoking and drinking. Tehmina Durrani, the then wife of the most famous Chief Minister of Pakistan's largest province of Punjab, wrote in her autobiography 'My Feudal Lord' how she cheated on her husband with whom she was married before getting married to Mustafa Khar the chief minister of Punjab. Protima Bedi, a prominent model in Bombay in the late sixties and early seventies, writes in her autobiography 'Timepass' about her lustful inclinations when she was in college. She also wrote about some of the known men of those days whom she had bedded with. She was known for running stark naked on the beach of Mumbai. In her autobiography 'Timepass' she says she had actually jogged bare naked on the beach of Goa and not in Mumbai. The newspapers reported it as a jogging on the beach of Mumbai just to create sensation, she said. This led to a great controversy in those days. The paper explores some of the incidences or confessions provided by some of the writers in their autobiographies. The paper also intends to understand the state of mind of some of these writers through the Freudian theory of id, ego and superego.

V. ELEMENT OF FICTION IN THE AUTOBIOGRAPHIES

When Qudratullah Shahab wrote his autobiography 'Shahabnama' it was a magnum opus of his works and it was commercially a very successful book. Several editions of the book were published in the later years. When critical reviews started coming in the newspaper critics started questioning the accuracy of the events mentioned in the book. There were many incidences which looked like the stories of 'Arabian Nights' rather than looking like the events of a real life. At places he mentioned some incidences of ghosts and witches. He even mentioned the incidence of his written communication with some supernatural forces. He says when he was living at a rented house he used to hear the voice of a postman who used to knock at his door in the mid of a pitch black night and used to give him a letter. When he opened the letter in the morning he found that it was from a victim of a murder conspiracy. The victim was, may be from haven, asking the writer of the autobiography to reopen the murder case and get her justice by bringing the perpetrators to the gallows. Autobiographies also define the milieu or the society in which the author was brought up. Qudratullah Shahab also mentioned about the worst drought of Bengal which had killed thousands of people. He has also discussed the nonchalant behaviour of the British government of those days towards the victims who were dying by starvation. Most of the great autobiographies were written by great writers and the people of outstanding name. These people write their autobiographies thinking that the coming generation would like to know about their lives and general life in those days.

If you look at the history of autobiography or memoir you will find many autobiographies in every literature of the world. Western writers have also produced some of the greatest autobiographies. 'Unforgotten Years' is also one of the greatest autobiographies written by Pearsall Smith's. 'Confessions' written by St. Augustine's is also a great autobiography. St. Augustine's for some time believed in Manichaen religion which is a system which believes in Christian, Gnostic, Pagan and other elements. This belief started in Persia. He later turned back to Christianity and he mentioned the religious right of passage ceremony in his autobiography.

Chateaubriand (1768-1848) a great French writer who wrote several books on romanticism also wrote his autobiography. The name of his autobiography is '*Memoires d'Outre - Tombe* (1849-50). His autobiography gives the details of political upheaval in France in those days.

Aksakov Sergei Timofeyevich drew, Russian author wrote the book *Chronicles of a Russian Family* (1856), *Recollections* (1856), *Years of Childhood* (1858). He mentioned the life of Russian villages. He also mentioned the rustic natural surroundings of those villages. His commentary about the life in Russia gives us an idea about the life in Russia of those days. While discussing the life there he discussed the cuisine and the style of dressing in the Russian villages in those days. He also gives us an idea about the culture and traditions and the way the marriages take place in those regions.

T N Session one of the most known bureaucrats in the history of India and one of the best Chief Election Commissioners of the country, while explaining about an incidence of his life says that he was passing through the countryside in a convoy as election commissioner. His wife was also accompanying him and while passing they saw a beautiful well spun nest of birds. His wife asked him to stop the convoy and ask somebody to get her the nest. T N Session did it and asked the driver to go and get the nest for his wife. Since the nest was on a high branch of the tree the driver looked around and called a shepherd boy to climb the tree and get the nest for them. The young illiterate shepherd was offered some money in return of this service. The boy looked at the convoy of cars and said no for getting the nest. The driver thought he is refusing it because the money offered to do it is less. He offered the double amount than before. The shepherd refused this time by saying, whatever you offer; I won't get it for you. T N Session who was listening to this conversation called the shepherd boy and asked him why he doesn't get the nest for them. The boy explained that this belongs to birds and maybe their little ones are inside the nest. If I pluck the nest and when the birds will come home in the evening, with food in their beaks and when they won't find their nest on its place they will be sad and hurt. T N Session was surprised to see the empathy of a young illiterate shepherd towards the birds. He says he although he cracked the highest public service commission exam in the country but that day a young illiterate shepherd taught him an important lesson in the life. This is an example of a candid confession.

Khushwant Singh (1915-2014) a well known diplomat and a journalist from India writes in his autobiography 'Truth, Love & a Little Malice' how he went to England for higher studies through sea and how during the journey the ship halted at a port in Egypt and the first to rush in the ship from the dock was a bunch of female sex workers. Since the people on the ship were travelling for many days without their wives with them, many of them had great time with the call girls.

He also mentioned the domestic feuds between the former Prime Minister of India Indira Gandhi and her daughter in law Meneka Gandhi. He mentions how a great Prime Minister of India had domestic quarrels with her daughter in law just like a common Indian mother-in-law.

French novelist Marie-Henri Beyle better known as Stendhal (1783-1842) wrote his two well-known novels i.e. *Le Rouge et le Noir* (The Red and the Black 1830) and *La Chartreuse de Parme* (The Charterhouse of Parma 1839). Both are notable for their psychological realism and political analysis. *Souvenirs d'Egotisme* (Memoirs of an Egoist 1892) is an autobiography written by Stendhal. Pascal checks with himself, before sitting to write an autobiography, what kind of a man he is and what positive aspects does his personality have. Once he receives the answers to these questions from his inner self he starts writing his autobiography. Since the novel is the author's recount of life in Paris and

London from 1821 to 1830, the method is used to retrace all the incidents of the ten years he spent there. It is needless to say that the book witnesses authors' remarks about himself a great deal about his way of life.

Great Russian novelist, Maxim Gorky, is well-known for his autobiographical trilogy i.e. *My Childhood*, *In the World* and *My Universities* (1915-23). *My Childhood* is his masterpiece which has been translated in many languages. An autobiography gives us the information about the conscience of the writer and also about the flow of ideas and thoughts in his mind. It also gives the real image of the inside human being to the people. This becomes important information or a revelation especially to the fans of a celebrity or a great political personality.

VI. DIFFERENCE BETWEEN AUTOBIOGRAPHY AND BIOGRAPHY

Biography and autobiography are quite different as it has already been discussed and defined that autobiography is a personal account of one's own life. On the contrary, biography is "a written account of a person's life, usually by another" (Oxford Reference Dictionary, p.144). An autobiography is a first-person account and sometimes the story can be highly personalised which may include photographs about the person's life events or newspaper articles. A. P. J. Abdul Kalam's *Wings of Fire*, for instance, best portrays the photos of the author, his family, friends, teachers and colleagues. It was Dryden who first used and defined the term *Biography* as "the history of particular men's lives" (quoted Prasad p.230). It is sufficient to draw a crystal clear line between a biography and an autobiography by adding Longfellow's statement that "Autobiography is a product of firsthand experience, Biography of second hand knowledge".

VII. CONFESSIONS, FACTS, FICTION AND HYPOTHESIS IN AUTOBIOGRAPHIES

No human being can write or narrate all the incidences of his life without mentioning the bitter experiences he has had in his life. Every individual has some experiences in his life which, if given a chance, he would erase from the practical history of his life. In the same way no truthful autobiography can be complete without the mention of bitter experiences about the life of the writer. It is also true that here writer gets a chance of providing his apologia for the felonious behaviour at that time. This is the reason that many autobiographies have created controversies in the social and political world. There are several autobiographies which pulled the writers to court. Reham Khan, the erstwhile wife of Prime Minister of Pakistan, created a great controversy by mentioning a few scandalous things about her then husband Imran Khan. She decided to release the book exactly before the time of the national elections of the country. This is just an example. There are many autobiographies which created stir in the political and social world. Some of them have even been banned from publication or the writers have been asked to change certain portions of the narration. It is very difficult to churn out the truth from the incidences expressed in the autobiographies.

Mushfiq Khawaja one of the renowned satirists, and fiction writer of Urdu, while expressing his views about Qudratullah Shahab's *Shahabnama*, claims that the writer has exaggerated some of the incidences while narrated some of them inaccurately. He also claims that the writer has stretched the truth a little too long. Mushfiq Khawaja was one of the closest friends of the writer in his last days of life. He also claims that the writer has already discussed most of these incidences with him. He has even accused the writer for penning some of the fictitious incidences.

Protima Bedi in her autobiography 'Timepass' defends her decision of marrying Kabir Bedi at a young age against the will of her father. Although, she has also narrated that her marriage and rebellious behaviour might also be one of the reasons of the cardiac arrest of her father which resulted into his death, yet she did not rue her decisions. When she had her son she says her husband was in Hollywood shooting for a movie and when he returned back she told him without hesitating that this child is not his, but of a German friend of her. Her husband was shocked at this but then she defends herself by saying that she caught her husband several times cheating on her with other women. She has also mentioned the name of a Hindi movie actress with whom she had caught her husband several times.

Sigmund Freud describes the psychological aspect of a personality in three concepts id, ego and super-ego. Id is the set of instinctual desires. Like a child a man feels to have anything which attracts him. This may be desire of acquiring a lot of money by any means. Id forces man to acquire money by legal or illegal any mean. It may also be about the carnal desire like having carnal relations with a beautiful woman or a young girl. Id forces man to have relations with a beautiful woman legitimately or illegitimately. Id doesn't look at moral values or it doesn't look at what is socially or religiously acceptable or not. It even doesn't care about the statutory laws. The second thing is Super-ego which plays the role of a moral police and looks at every action through the prism of right or wrong. Every time one does something the super-ego checks if the act is socially acceptable or not. If the religion permits it or not. It is a kind of a moral police of an individuals' conscience. The third thing or the middle thing in between is the ego. Ego looks at things through the prism of realism. It asks and individual what is pragmatic? What is logically required? What is the need of the hour and what is practically right at the moment.

If you look at most of the autobiographies keenly you will find that it is a struggle between id and super-ego. Sometimes your ego loses a struggle against id and sometimes it loses against super-ego. No doubt generally it is ego which wins almost all the psychological dilemmas. Hence we can conclude here that most of the autobiographies are a struggle between id, ego and super-ego.

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