

Theory and Practice in Language Studies

ISSN 1799-2591

Volume 11, Number 5, May 2021

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A Reassessment of the Influence of Igbo Segmentals and Their Implications on the Teaching and Learning of English Sounds

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Abstract—This paper reassessed the influence of Igbo segmentals on the teaching and learning of English sounds in the University of Nigeria Nsukka. It aimed to determine the extent to which phonological interference in Igbo language has negatively influenced the teaching and learning of the English phonemes. The study was anchored on Lado's (1957) theory of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH). The data for study were elicited from a ten-item questionnaire which was randomly distributed to 50 First Year students of the Department of English, University of Nigeria, Nsukka. Again, the findings of previous researches were utilized to contrastively augment the primary data. Using both simple percentage system and Lado's framework, the data were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The results showed that the recommendations of previous researches were yet to be fully implemented because there are still cases of language transfer at the level of phonology, particularly, the segmental level. Thus a good number of suggestions and recommendations were made to alleviate the problem.

Index Terms—segmentals, phonology, Igbo, English, linguistic interference, contrastive analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

The use of English as a second language in Nigeria is one of the most outstanding legacies which the colonial imperialists left behind after their departure from Nigerian soil prior to independence. Nigerians accepted to use English because the nation itself is multilingual. This language, therefore, enables Nigerians from different climes and cultures to communicate mutually for peaceful co-existence and meaningful development. Onuigbo and Eyisi (2008) confirm that the English language accommodates people of various cultures in a multilingual society like Nigeria and also link them with the international communities. We make bold to say that without the adoption of English as the nation's second language, we, as a nation, would have been experiencing language crisis by now. Since then the English language has continued to be functional in matters of Government, Business, Education, Media, Judiciary, Literature, Education, to mention just these. Particularly, since English is adopted as the medium of instruction in Nigerian schools as the National Policy on Education (NPE) (2010 as amended) stipulates, then it is not belittling to state that the teaching of English as a second language in Nigeria needs to be taken very seriously for the sake of international and cross-cultural intelligibility.

To attain some level of competence in the use of the English language by Nigerian speakers and writers, the user needs to be grounded in the five language levels: phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics. The mastering of these individual levels of language gives the second language learner an ample opportunity to communicate well with his neighbours. Nevertheless, the contact English made with other Nigerian indigenous language serve as one of the factors militating against the correct use of the language in Nigeria today. Ngonebu (2008) buttresses this point when she argues that when two languages come in contact, they are bound to mutually influence each other. The first language (L1) must definitely interfere in the learning and use of the second language (L2) because the language user may transfer the linguistic peculiarities of his Mother Tongue (MT) to the Target Language (TL) being learned. This form of inter-linguistic interference occurs most frequently in the area of phonology. No wonder Onuigbo (2016) argues that there is nothing like simple phonology as against what we have as simple sentence, grammar, vocabulary etc. Again, Onuigbo (2003) avers that "when one speaks, one produces a chain of speech sounds which are arranged in sequence to give syllables or words" (p. 1). If there is a shift in the phonological structure of a language, then the whole language structure is distorted.

It is, therefore, apparent that the structure of Nigerian Indigenous languages generally and Igbo in particular, differ significantly from that of English. Christophersen (1981) avers collaborates that the sound system of language is

peculiar to that language, and that no other language has exactly the same system. He reiterates that despite the similarities that exist between two languages, there are usually far more differences. He further suggests that:

The learner of a new language must therefore realize that he is dealing with quite new sounds; he must not be satisfied to continue to use any of the sounds of his own language unless he is certain in each case that his own sound is exactly the same as that in the new language; he must not rest content until he has completely mastered all the sounds (Christophersen, 1981, p. 2).

The overt differences between phonologies of Igbo and English, to a greater extent, influence the correct pronunciation of English sounds in speech and writing. In the light of this assertion, Ngonebu (2008) particularizes that many Nigerians encounter problems in the pronunciation of English words due to interference from mother tongue; the nature of consonant clusters in English; and lack of correlation between spelling and pronunciation of English words. This paper, therefore, is aimed to determine the extent to which phonological interference in Igbo language has negatively influenced the teaching and learning of the English phonemes; with the hope of making instrumental suggestions that would alleviate the problem.

II. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Research in cross linguistic interference is as old as language itself; however, the implementation of the previous researchers' suggestions and recommendations on the phonological interference of Igbo segmentals on the learning of English sounds seem not to have taken any serious effect. This is because, as lecturers in the Department of English, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, we observed with serious concern that students' use of English is sometimes marked by linguistic interference; particularly, in the area of phonology. Hence, one could not help but to conclude that the suggestions made by previous researchers have probably been swept under the carpet; this perhaps explains why this problem lingers. So, in order to alleviate this problem and to reemphasize the need to be phonologically correct in English by the Igbo speakers, we, therefore, attempt to reassess the influence of Igbo segmentals and their implications on the teaching and learning of English.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This paper adopts Lado's (1957) theory of Contrastive Analysis Hypotheses (CAH henceforth) as its analytic tool because the paper itself aims at expounding the similarities and dissimilarities that exist between Igbo and English segmentals and how the obvious differences affect the teaching and learning of English. CAH is an offshoot of Contrastive Analysis (CA henceforth) proposed by the same exponent. CA, according to Agbedo (2015: 93), "is the systematic comparison of two or more languages, with the aim of describing their similarities and differences." Agbedo goes further to explain that CA is geared towards providing better descriptions and teaching materials for language learners. The general assumption of CAH is that the native language plays a role in learning a second language. Structural similarities between the two languages being compared enhance the learning of a target language; while their dissimilarities hamper. Lado (1957) argues that CAH has three versions— (i) strong (ii) weak and (iii) moderate. Wardhaugh (1970) (as cited in Agbedo, 2015) proposes a distinction between a strong version and weak version of CAH. The strong version involves predicting errors in a second language learning based upon a priori contrastive analysis of the first language. However, in the weak version, the analyst commences with learner errors and explicates them by pointing to the similarities and differences between the two languages being studied. It is however pertinent to note that these structural similarities or differences cut across the whole levels of language. Conversely, since this paper descriptively studies the phonological representation of Igbo and English segmentals; and their implication on pedagogical matters, the choice of this theory is valid and thus considers appropriate in this research.

IV. METHODOLOGY

The study adopts a descriptive survey design because the design allows a researcher to select a representative sample from the entire population of the study. The sample of the study comprised fifty (50) First-year students in the Department of English and Literary Studies, University of Nigeria Nsukka, whose first languages are Igbo. Although there are other students of English in the university whose first languages are not Igbo, but this set of students were not used in this study. More so, a ten-item questionnaire was designed and randomly administered directly to the selected students in order to elicit their responses on the influence of Igbo segmentals on the learning of English. However, out of fifty (50) questionnaires distributed, only forty-five (45) were duly completed and returned for analysis. The questionnaires were analyzed quantitatively using the simple percentage system; while the findings of previous researches were reanalyzed qualitatively in order to establish the similarities and differences which exist between the students' responses and previous researchers' findings. A detailed discussion followed suit using Lado's CAH as a guide.

V. DATA ANALYSIS

TABLE 1
DATA ELICITED FROM THE QUESTIONNAIRES

| ITEMS | OPTIONS | | | | |
|--|------------|------------|------------|-----------|-----------|
| | A | SA | DA | SDA | N |
| 1. The dental fricative /θ/ and /ð/ are the most problematic consonants for the Igbo speaker | | | | | |
| No. of Respondents | 15 (33.3%) | 15 (33.3%) | 8 (17.7%) | 2 (4.4%) | 5 (11.1%) |
| 2. The voiced palatal fricative /ʒ/ is sometimes used as its voiceless counterpart /ʃ/ or voiced palatal affricate /dʒ/ | | | | | |
| No. of Respondents | 24 (53.3%) | 8 (17.7%) | 7 (15.5%) | 6 (13.3%) | 0 (0%) |
| 3. Insertion of additional sound segment (vowel) into certain positions of a word to break up consonant clusters | | | | | |
| No. of Respondents | 21 (46.6%) | 4 (8.8%) | 13 (28.8%) | 4 (8.8%) | 3 (6.6%) |
| 4. transfer the Igbo vowel system into English | | | | | |
| No. of Respondents | 25 (55.5%) | 9 (20%) | 6 (13.3%) | 5 (11.1%) | 0 (0%) |
| 5. The five orthographic representations of English vowels is another source of worry to the Igbo learner of English | | | | | |
| No. of Respondents | 27 (60%) | 8 (17.7%) | 5 (11.1%) | 0 (0%) | 5 (11.1%) |
| 6. The central vowels of English (/ʌ/, /ɜ:/and /ə/) are problematic to the Igbo learners and are released as /o/ & /e/, respectively | | | | | |
| No. of Respondents | 22 (48.8%) | 18 (40%) | 2 (4.4%) | 1 (2.2%) | 2 (4.4%) |
| 7. Translation of words with double letters; treating the two letters as consonant clusters | | | | | |
| No. of Respondents | 16 (35.5%) | 7 (15.5%) | 12 (26.6%) | 8 (17.7%) | 2 (4.4%) |
| 8. This spelling inconsistency is a big source worry to the Igbo learner/speaker of English | | | | | |
| No. of Respondents | 22 (48.8%) | 5 (11.1%) | 11 (24.4%) | 4 (8.8%) | 3 (6.6%) |
| 9. The presence of labialized velar plosive and nasal consonants /k ^w /, /g ^w / and /n ^w / in Igbo enhances the pronouncing of English plosive and nasal sounds | | | | | |
| No. of Respondents | 24 (53.3%) | 8 (17.7%) | 8 (17.7%) | 2 (4.4%) | 3 (6.6%) |
| 10. Sometimes, Igbo learners realize English words containing /l/ as /r/ and vice visa | | | | | |
| No. of Respondents | 19 (42.2%) | 2 (4.4%) | 11 (24.4%) | 8 (17.7%) | 5 (11.1%) |

Item 1 shows that 30 respondents representing 66.6% agreed that the dental fricative /θ/ and /ð/ are the most problematic consonants for the Igbo speaker; 10 respondents representing 22.2% disagreed; while 5 respondents representing 11.1% remained undecided. Item 2 reveals that 71% consented that the voiced palatal fricative /ʒ/ is sometimes used as its voiceless counterpart /ʃ/ or voiced palatal affricate /dʒ/; while the remaining 29% refused. Item 3 reveals that 55.5% accepted the insertion of additional sound segment (vowel) into certain positions of a word to break up consonant clusters; 37.7% did not accept they did; while 6.6% remained neutral. Item 4 shows that 75.5% agreed that the Igbo learner transfers the vowel system of Igbo into English; while 24.5% disagreed. The fifth item reveals that 77.7% accepted that the five orthographic representations of English vowels is another source of worry to the Igbo learner of English but 11.1% disagreed and another 11.1% remained undecided. The sixth item reveals that 88.8% agreed that the central vowels of English (/ʌ/, /ɜ:/and /ə/) are problematic to the Igbo learners and are released as /o/ & /e/, respectively; while the remaining 11.2% disagreed and remained neutral, respectively. Item 7 showed that 51% accepted that they translate words with double letters; treating the two letters as consonant clusters; 40.3% refused; while 4.4% remained neutral. Item 8 showed 60% agreed that the spelling inconsistency of English is a big source worry to the Igbo learner/speaker of English; 33.3% disagreed; while 6.6% were neutral. The ninth item revealed that 71% admitted that the presence of labialized velar plosive and nasal consonants /k^w/, /g^w/ and /n^w/ in Igbo enhances the pronouncing of English plosive and nasal sounds; while the remaining 29% did not. The last item shows that 46.6% agreed that sometimes, Igbo learners realize English words containing /l/ as /r/ and vice visa; 44.2% rejected that claim; while 11.1% remained undecided.

VI. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The English language recognizes the use of dental fricative sounds /θ/ and /ð/. But these sounds are completely absent in Igbo language and of course, other Nigerian languages. This perhaps explains while majority of respondents agreed that these sounds are problematic to the second language learner. Onuigbo (2003), Ngonebu (2008), Anagbogu, Mbah & Eme (2010), and Nkamigbo (2010) confirmed that the Igbo learners of English found the dental fricative sounds too complex to pronounce. This difficulty may not be separated from their non-existence in Standard Igbo.

Similarly, voiced palatal alveolar fricative /ʒ/ is absent in Igbo, but its voiceless pair /ʃ/ is much available in Igbo sound system. The Igbo learner of English, therefore, unconsciously uses /ʃ/ in place of /ʒ/ because of the non-availability of this sound in Igbo. No wonder 71% of respondents consented that the voiced palatal fricative /ʒ/ is sometimes used as its voiceless counterpart /ʃ/ or voiced palatal affricate /dʒ/. This usage, of course, constitutes a problem to the teaching of English sounds. In other words, palatal fricative /ʒ/ is another source of worry to the Igbo speaker.

More so, the clustering of consonants is a phonological feature which is closely associated with English because it permits the occurrence of two or more consonant sounds in a word without the interruption of a vowel sound. For example, the words 'street' /stri:t/ and 'plight' /plait/ contain the initial clusters of three and two consonants, respectively. Contrary to this, consonant cluster is not part of the features of Igbo sound system and as such, the Igbo learner unconsciously inserts an interrupting vowel to break up the cluster. This is why 55.5% of respondents agreed that they sometimes insert vowels amidst consonant clusters. According to Mangwat (2003), many Nigerians have problem with consonant clusters because most Nigerian languages have a vowel following a consonant. He goes further

to argue that where we have words with more than two consonant clusters, the Nigerian speakers of English find it very difficult to pronounce such words and the way out is usually to insert some vowel sounds to break up the clusters.

From the foregoing, it is pertinent to state that the Igbo learner transfers the Igbo vowel system into English. Just as Mangvwat has explained, the vowel in Igbo language almost always comes immediately after a consonant at the final position. This left many Igbo words open. However, the English language closes up most words with a consonant except in few occasions. The Igbo learner, therefore, opens up a closed word by inserting an additional vowel. This is further confirmed in item 4 where a significant number of respondents represented by 75.5% agreed that the Igbo vowel system is transferred into English during speech and writing. This usage is not only erroneous but also constitutes a problem in the teaching and learning of English sounds.

There are twenty vowel sounds in English. The vowels are represented by five letters of the English alphabet (A E I O U). These letters, to a greater or lesser degree, do not adequately represent the whole vowels of English. Anagbogu et al. (2010) consent that English vowels can have up to five or more different orthographic representations unlike in Igbo where each vowel is represented with only a letter of the orthography. This is probably why the vocalic symbols are extended to twenty to account for the vowels not represented in the letters of the alphabet. However, Onuigbo (2003) advises that we should not mistake the letters of the alphabet for speech sounds of the language. This form of (mis)representation constitute a problem to the Igbo learner because the eight vowels of the Igbo language adequately represent the whole vowels in the Igbo sound system; thereby making the identification and use of the vowels easy for the speakers. This argument justifies the reason why 77.7% of respondents consented that the five orthographic representations of English vowels is another source of worry to the Igbo learner of English.

Furthermore, the Non-availability of central vowels (/ʌ/, /ɜ:/ and /ə/) in Igbo is one of the major problems the Igbo learner of English has in learning and mastering of these sound segments. The learner is, therefore, left with no option than to use their equivalents. Onuigbo (2003) supports this assertion when he argues that learners of English generally tend to pronounce /ʌ/ as /o/; he however, emphasizes that there is much qualitative difference between the two vowels. Little wonder why a significant majority represented by 88.8% agreed that the central vowels of English (/ʌ/, /ɜ:/ and /ə/) are problematic to the Igbo learners and are released as /o/ & /e/, respectively.

In another development, the Igbo speakers/writers of English, sometimes, transcribe words with double letters; treating the two letters as consonant clusters. This is a problem caused as a result of phonological interference. This type of linguistic interference “occurs when the speech patterns — phonemes, intonation, stress, or bulk of the phonemic system of the first language (L1) adversely affects the use of the second language” (L2) (Ngonebu, 2008: 22). In Standard Igbo, for instance, The double letters in each of these words: ‘nwaanyị’ (woman) and ‘taa’ (today) are treated as individual sound segments. Consequently, the Igbo learner applies the same phonological principle in treating double consonant letters. Although item 7 in the questionnaire revealed that the number of respondents who agreed that they commit this type of phonological error do not show a significant difference with those who disagreed.

Again, the discrepancy between spelling and sound in English is another source of problem to the second language learner. The data showed that 60% of respondents admitted that spelling discrepancy is a big source worry to the Igbo learner/speaker of English. Consequently, the English language spelling system remains highly irregular. The sound that occurs in one pattern of spelling might be pronounced differently in another pattern of the same spelling. For example, the words “ought/ɔ:t/, bough /bau/, dough/dəu/ and tough /tʌf/ ” take this same pattern of spelling but are pronounced differently. On the other hand, the Igbo spelling system almost follow the same pattern. There are regularities in Igbo spelling as opposed to English. Our finding agrees with that of Ngonebu (2008) who explains that English is said to have one of the most difficult spelling systems in the world, as the written representation of English is not phonetically exact. She concludes that these differences in pronunciation are the reason why English is considered a difficult language for the non-native speakers to learn.

Item 9, as indicated on the table above, revealed that a good number of respondents agreed that the presence of labialized velar plosive and nasal consonants /kʷ/, /gʷ/ and /nʷ/ in Igbo enhances the pronouncing of English plosive and nasal sounds. Although it is evidently clear that English does not make use of these plosive sounds. However, the similarities between English and Igbo sound, in this regard, facilitate the teaching and learning of the English plosive and nasal sounds. Lastly, there is not clear difference in the use of alveolar lateral /l/ and post alveolar approximant (roll) /r/ in the Igbo language. Some scholars attribute this usage to dialectal differences because it doesn't change the meaning of the word irrespective of the initial phoneme used. These same speakers tend to transfer this language use to English which constitute a big problem in language learning. Ngonebu (2008) elucidates that many Igbo speakers use the lateral /l/ in place of the liquid /r/. She goes further to exemplify that the Igbo speaker may pronounce the word ‘bread’ as ‘bled’. These words have their different meanings as against what it is in Igbo language.

VII. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This paper descriptively reexamines the phonological representations of Igbo and English segmentals; and their implications on pedagogical matters; using Lado's (1957) CAH. The foregoing reveals that the differences between English and Igbo Segmentals are heavily marked. This makes the assertion that “no two languages have exact phonological structure”, true. The marked segmental differences constitute serious problems to the Igbo learners of English because the learners tend to transfer Igbo phonological peculiarities into English. This possibly explains why

most university students performed poorly in phonetics and phonology assessments; and why they use language that sounds un-English in their spoken discourses. Although the influence of the source language on the learning of the target language is inevitable as far as language learning is concerned but the learner should aim at reducing the impact of this influence to the barest minimum. It is against this backdrop that the researchers suggest that these influences could be handled adequately by the language users themselves if they employ carefulness in their pronunciations of English words and expressions. Thus the users should always aim at pronouncing words correctly, taking note of the operations of different sound segments in their respective environments. Most importantly, language instructors (lecturers and teachers) should, as a matter of necessity, teach the second language learners the rudiments of the phonology of English and perhaps contrast it with other Nigerian indigenous languages. Again, instructors should not always teach English sounds in isolation, rather, sounds should be taught in connected speech. Also, instructors should encourage their students to listen to the recorded speeches of native English speakers and try to imitate the way they use language. Finally, the administrations of universities and of course, other institutions of higher learning in Nigeria should make provisions for functional language laboratories and ensure that these laboratories are put to use. It is our sincere belief that if these suggestions are implemented, the Igbo learner/speaker of English will be able to pronounce and transcribe English words and expressions with a high level of competence and accuracy.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We wish to express our profound gratitude to our research participants for their contributions which saw to the completion of this study. In the same way, we wish to acknowledge all other sources cited in the study. We are indeed grateful.

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Cognitive Awareness of the EFL Learner of Contrastive Linguistics Between English and Arabic: A Case Study

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Abstract—Corpus-based contrastive linguistics has rarely been thoroughly explored with regards to cognitive awareness of the English as a Foreign Language (EFL), Arabic first language (L1) speaking learners. The current study, based on an intervention, quasi-experimental quantitative research design, aims at presenting a pedagogical implementation of learners' awareness driven instructions on contrastive linguistics between English and Arabic languages interchangeably. A purposefully selected sample of 69 beginner level (A1 CEFR) Saudi EFL learners were placed into an experimental group (n = 35) and a control group (n = 34). Learners in the experimental group were exposed to four grammatical contrastive linguistics criteria (between English and Arabic) over a 14-weeks semester duration, and the control group underwent a normal taught course with no intervention over the same teaching duration. Both groups were assessed via purposefully designed, 20-items grammar test before and after the 14-weeks duration. The gathered data was analysed with one sample and independent samples t-tests. The analysis revealed the outperformance of the experimental group compared to the control group in all four grammatical contrastive linguistics criteria. The study concludes with pedagogical implications on the principle of utilising contrastive linguistics as a pedagogical tool in an EFL context.

Index Terms—Arabic L1, contrastive linguistics, EFL, error analysis, quantitative

I. INTRODUCTION

For any L1 speaker who is learning a new second language (L2), it is apparent that there will be some or many fundamentally structural linguistic variations between the two languages. Many researchers conduct corpus-based contrastive studies to highlight the interlinguistic differences between languages (Barlow, 2008; Curry & Chambers, 2017; Johansson, 2008; Rabadán, Labrador, & Ramón, 2009). Thus, a language learner aiming to acquire L2 in an accurate and effective manner, needs to be exposed to such variations in order to avoid L2 errors (Haegeman, 1985). As such, several factors may contribute to the accurate and error free Second Language Acquisition (SLA). One of such essential factors is the cognitive awareness of contrastive linguistics (sometimes referred to as differential linguistics) between the first language of the learner and the target language (L2) (Hamawand, 2020). The role which cognitive awareness plays in the process of language learning has recently gained momentum with the increasing popularity of cognitive approaches in the field of SLA (Feiz, 2016). For an L2 learner, it is imperative that any form of the L2 language should be first noticed in the input phase, and then, registered consciously in order for that L2 linguistic form to be acquired (Robinson, 1995; Schmidt, 1990). This concept is supported by many SLA researchers including Ünlü (2015) who states that: "Embracing the role that attention and awareness play in the learning process gives a greater responsibility to academicians and practitioners in terms of some intended and unintended consequences" (p. 264).

However, and despite the elaborate role and vital part which the noticing of contrastive linguistics between L1 and L2 plays, many L2 learners in different contexts struggle with certain elements of L2 they have been exposed to, and thus, still commit various lexico-grammatical, interlingual errors (Prayuda, 2020; Sahbi, Chaib, & Khoualdi, 2019; Waelateh, Boonsuk, Ambele, & Jeharsae, 2019; Ziad AlKadi & Ahmed Madini, 2019). Learning an L2 can pose a challenge to EFL learners, especially those of lower proficiency levels where errors are an inevitable part of the L2 learning process (Kaweera, 2013). This is in addition to the fact that many of those errors committed are linked to negative interference and interlingual errors (Al-Khresheh, 2016; Kazazoglu, 2020).

This paper argues that the designation of an explicit teaching scenarios of specific contrastive linguistics elements to EFL tertiary level learners, can lead to an increased level of cognitive awareness of such differences between their L1 and their target language L2. Subsequently, such awareness will diminish the possibilities of the L2 learners committing interlingual errors.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH)*

An area of applied linguistics that has witnessed ample theoretical research studies is the contrastive analysis (CA) concept which has its hypothesis, the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis, first proposed by a pioneer in the field, Robert Lado in 1957. He emphasised that L2 learners who are exposed to a foreign language, will experience difficulties in the elements of that L2 that are different than that of their L1, whereas those features of the L2 that are similar to the learners' L1 will be easy to master and learn (Lado, 1957). Since then, CA was established as a principle in applied linguistics where different languages can be compared and most importantly contrasted for the main differences between those different languages (Nejad & Qaracholloo, 2013). Subsequently, numerous researchers began making the connection between CA and L2 pedagogies based on differences between L1 and L2, so as to eliminate predictable errors an L2 learner might commit due to the contrasts between L1 and L2 (Chunxiang & Baccanello, 2019; Pütz, Niemeier, & Dirven, 2012). However, up to and until the last three decades, research studies into the pedagogical and descriptive contrastive tended to be exclusively focussed on language systems, as opposed to the much needed and effective research into the language use (Khansir & Pakdel, 2019). As such, most of those research studies restricted themselves to the boundaries of the sentence syntax level. This is in addition to the fact that most of these studies were theoretical in principle and did not offer practical implications of contrastive nature between different languages into the L2 classroom.

B. *The Noticing Hypothesis*

As opposed to the natural, subconscious processes of SLA as postulated and hypothesized by Krashen (1981), a different principle of SLA hypothesized the essential role which the conscious awareness plays in language learning, has gained strength where it became an increasingly popular hypothesis based on the cognitive approaches in SLA where it was conceptualised by Schmidt (1990) and Schmidt (2012). The Noticing Hypothesis emphasises on the linguistic form which should be noticed in the L2 input and registered consciously with the L2 learners to be acquired. In other words, whenever L2 learners aim to acquire the accurate form of L2, they need to be consciously aware of the language input and attend to it to be able to cognitively process it, which ultimately lead to the input linguistic form to become an L2 intake (Ünlü, 2015). According to Schmidt (1995): "The noticing hypothesis states that what learners notice in input is what becomes intake for learning" (p. 20). As such, an L2 learner will not be able to acquire a specific L2 feature until such a feature is consciously been made aware by the learner in the process of the L2 input (Kerz, Wiechmann, & Riedel, 2017). This is expressed by the research study conducted by Loewen and Inceoglu (2016) who emphasised the role of visual input of the Spanish language as an L2 for the learners to develop its elements of grammatical forms.

C. *Error Analysis*

The error analysis (EA) concept is considered the post CA approach where EA considers a much wider and broader concept than contrasting errors that are caused by the L1 and L2 differences. EA perceives the errors which L2 learners commit as an important insight into the L2 learners' overall learning process (Corder, 1981; Richards, 2015). Corder (1981) and Selinker, Swain, and Dumas (1975) argue that researchers must focus on the language produced (output L2 structure) by the L2 learners as they try to communicate in the target language and L2 teachers should perceive errors committed by the L2 learners as an opportunity rather than an obstacle in the overall process of SLA. Saville-Troike and Barto (2016) state that:

Error Analysis (EA) is the first approach to the study of SLA which includes an internal focus on learners' creative ability to construct language. It is based on the description and analysis of actual learner errors in L2, rather than on idealized linguistic structures attributed to native speakers of L1 and L2 (as in CA). (p. 40)

Though EA and CA overlaps in the main element of interlingual transfer between L1 and L2 with errors which L2 learners may commit, EA went beyond the boundaries of the dichotomy of positive and negative L1 to L2 transfer. This is particularly true with errors that were predicted to be inevitable with the L2 learners, however, in real life, these predicted errors did not appear in real life L2 learning situations (Allwright & Bailey, 1991).

Notwithstanding the previous comments on the importance of CA and EA, there has been no empirical study conducted in the Saudi EFL context that presents an intervention of CA to the EFL learners in classrooms. This study aims to explore the effect of such an intervention in a tertiary level two cohorts of students at a public university in Saudi Arabia.

III. METHODOLOGY

The current study employed an intervention-type, quasi-experimental quantitative research design (Frey, 2018). This is due to the fact that the two intact cohorts for the two classrooms were designated as the experimental and control groups in this study and in addition, the participants were not selected randomly, rather the researchers chose other strategies (i.e., pre-test and control group) to be used so as to establish some control over extraneous variables (Ary, Jacobs, Irvine, & Walker, 2018).

A. Participants

As this study aimed to quantitatively accomplish the research objectives, two intact cohorts of university EFL learners enrolled on the preparatory year program (PYP). The n_{total} of the participants was 69 and they were on the A1 CEFR (beginner) proficiency level at a major university in KSA. All the participants were 18 years old male students. The designation of the control and experimental groups were assigned randomly and class₁, the control group was (n=37) and class₂, a control group was (n=32). Both groups of students were tested for their proficiency level prior to the study and as a mandatory requirement to assign them a designated proficiency level at the start of the academic year 2019/2020. As a measure to ensure homogeneity of both, the experimental and control groups with regards to their proficiency level before the start of the research study, the Cambridge English Placement Test (CEPT) was administered to the students of both groups (Papp & Walczak, 2016). As per the results obtained from the CEPT, the selected sample of 69 students were designated the beginner level of language proficiency (A1 on the CEFR).

The intervention protocol for the experimental group is based on the instruction strategy set forth by the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) introduced by Chamot and O'Malley (1986) where: "students are taught to use learning strategies derived from a cognitive model of learning as aids to comprehension and retention of concepts in the content area" (p.87). One of the highlights of the CALLA approach is to gradually move the language instruction from explicit to implicit teaching where the learner eventually learns how to become more autonomous and more aware of the new elements of L2 and how to best acquire them efficaciously.

As such, the intervention strategy involved the intentional introduction of CA between Arabic L1 and English L2 in four lexico-grammatical concepts which the students were previously unaware of and for these four elements, the EFL instructor designated 10 minutes of one lesson, three times a week for seven weeks module on top of the main mandatory curriculum tasks. The four lexico-grammatical concepts with marked contrasts between L1 Arabic and L2 English, were: (a) verb to be, (b) countable and uncountable nouns, (c) prepositions (in, on, at) and adjective-noun phrases.

On the other hand, the control group was taught by the same EFL instructor. However, no intervention or any mention of CA points or hints were introduced to them and the instructor delivered the main mandatory curriculum tasks to the students.

Both groups then sat a final departmental (end of semester) grammar and vocabulary (G & V) exam which was prepared by the departmental testing unit. The final exam included several grammar-based questions which had the questions related to the contrastive points introduced to the control group during the semester and prior to the exam.

B. Instruments

Cambridge English Proficiency Test (CEPT)

The Cambridge English Proficiency Test (CEPT) was the mandated and endorsed proficiency exam aiming to provide an accurate evaluation of newly registered PYP students. CEPT provides an alignment to the CEFR where the six designated proficiency levels are: basic (A1), elementary (A2), lower intermediate (B1), upper intermediate (B2), advanced (C1) and very sophisticated (C2) levels, respectively (Docherty & Howden, 2013). Following the CEPT at the beginning of the autumn semester of the 2019/2020 academic year, a statistical index reliability test for the CEPT was calculated and the Cronbach's coefficient alpha value was reported to be 0.992, which considered an excellent indicator for internal consistency for the test (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

Final (End of Semester) grammar and vocabulary exam

At the end of the 14 weeks semester, both the experimental and control groups sat the G & V final exam where their scores for all the questions designated with the specific elements of the contrastive lexico-grammatical elements' scores were plotted and statistically analysed via IBM SPSS Statistics 25® software package using the statistical analysis one sample and independent samples t-tests.

IV. RESULTS

A. Pre-intervention Descriptive Statistics

The initial set of descriptive statistical analysis tests were calculated to reveal homogeneity of both the control and experimental groups prior to the 14 weeks CA intervention. As presented in table 1, the results indicated no statistically significant differences within either group's CEPT scores or even between the groups (control and experimental).

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS PRE-INTERVENTION

| Group | Mean | Median | Standard Deviation | t-test significance (p value) (within group) | t-test significance (between groups) | Cronbach's Alpha |
|--------------|------|--------|--------------------|--|--------------------------------------|------------------|
| Control | 37 | 38 | 3.36 | .071 | 0.0642 | 0.992 |
| Experimental | 38 | 39 | 2.58 | .089 | | |

As per table 1, homogeneity is established for both control and experimental groups. This is evident in the statistical analysis tests' values indicating that the p values are >0.05 and therefore, no statistically significant differences exist

within each group and between the two groups prior to the intervention CA approach in this study.

B. Post-intervention Descriptive Statistics

In the intervention phase of the study, the control group was given specific pedagogical instructions with regards to the four lexico-grammatical elements in the L2 English as compared and contrasted to the elements in the Arabic language. Following the intervention with the control group for the 14 weeks semester, both the control and experimental groups sat the final G & V exam and the scores of those questions relating to the specific four lexico-grammatical elements were plotted and descriptively analysed. There was a total of 10 questions relating to the four lexico-grammatical elements where the verb *to be* had three questions, countable and uncountable nouns had two questions, prepositions (in, on, at) had three questions and adjective-noun phrases had two questions.

The control group as well as the experimental group had the following descriptive analysis results from the final G & V exam where the mean, median, standard deviation was calculated for the scores of the students to the 10 items reflecting the four lexico-grammatical elements in the exam. More importantly, following a one sample t-test for each group, both the control and experimental groups had no statistically significant difference within their groups' scores. However, the two samples (independent) t-test between the scores of the control and the scores of the experimental group students revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between the scores of the control group students in the final G & V exam to the scores of the experimental group students. Table 2 illustrates the statistical analysis of the two groups in the final G & V exam.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE G & V FINAL EXAM

| Group | Mean | Median | Standard Deviation | t-test significance (within group) | t-test significance (between groups) | Cronbach's Alpha |
|--------------|------|--------|--------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|------------------|
| Control | 3 | 4 | 1.52 | .412 | 0.000 | 0.992 |
| Experimental | 9 | 9 | 0.99 | .631 | | |

As illustrated in table 2, the experimental group students outperformed the control group students in the four lexico-grammatical CA elements of this study where the average mean for the experimental group was 9 compared to the control group which had the mean = 4. In addition, the calculated independent sample t-test p-value was <0.5 and thus, there was a statistically significant difference between the scores of the two groups. This is an indication that the experimental group students outperformed the control group students in the final G & V four lexico-grammatical elements tested in this study.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study aimed at highlighting the importance of cognitive awareness of tertiary level EFL students via direct and intentional intervention as part of a pedagogical approach to illuminate the students with contrastive elements that exist between English L2 and Arabic L1. The study is guided by the contrastive analysis hypothesis as well as the noticing hypothesis. Furthermore, the study adopted CALLA strategy instruction model during the intervention which was planned with the experimental group students for 14 weeks. Based on the calculated results of the descriptive statistical analysis, it can be argued that the experimental group students outperformed the control group students in the lexico-grammatical elements tested in this study. The results presented in this study are in line with other studies adopting the CA pedagogical approaches and implications (Al-Juboury, 2018; Hamdallah & Tushyeh, 1993; Jaber, 2016; Thyab, 2016). However, the study is somehow unique in a way that the CA elements between English L2 and Arabic L1 intervention are directly introduced to the students through intervention and not many studies have adopted the same approach.

Additionally, the findings of the present study are at variance and disagreement with the assumptions of those who are proponents of Chomsky's universal grammar (Cook & Newson, 2014) and Krashen's natural order hypothesis (Bailey, Madden, & Krashen, 1974) and researchers who are against L2 grammar correction (Schwartz, 1993; Truscott, 1996). The outperformance of the experimental group students via direct intervention of pedagogical approach highlighting the contrasting lexico-grammatical elements between English L2 and Arabic L1 to adult EFL learners, is supported by previous research studies (e.g., Benati & Schwieter, 2019).

It is also the conclusion the researchers of this study concur and that is, the effective awareness of lexico-grammatical contrasting elements between languages reading habits are not naturally acquired through implicit learning. Thus, EFL learners should be made aware of such contrasts between English L2 and Arabic L1 to allow them to cognitively process an accurate formulation of grammatically correct sentences in L2.

The practical implication of this study is therefore, to recommend that EFL instructors designate a short duration of lesson instructions to highlight the contrasting elements between English L2 and Arabic L1, in order to improve the L2 proficiencies of the language learners. Furthermore, the instructors should have professional development sessions to be trained on how to teach contrastive elements effectively.

VI. LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study adopted an experimental quantitative research design where an additional qualitative data would have certainly added more depth to the study and projected a much wider spectrum of varying data. Adding qualitative element will most certainly reflect on the opinions of the participants themselves and their reflection on the direct intervention of highlighting CA elements between English L2 and Arabic L2. Additionally, it would be recommended that a larger sample will make the generalizability of the findings more appealing.

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Devotional Mysticism: An Analogical Study of Hafez-e Shirazi and William Blake

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Abstract—Mysticism is a method of thinking not widely shared by the majority of the people around the entire world whereas unique individuals sap at the roots of this concept. Less a coherent movement than a way of thinking, the concept of mysticism is not systematically defined as a firm set of ideas but is more tended to be shaped by the individuals dealing with this concept. In this respect, each person carries this notion in his further exploration on his own accord since the concept is highly individualistic. As such, William Blake directed the concept toward a sort of devotional mysticism emphasizing on the individual's hard effort in achieving unity with God. In a similar manner, Hafez-e Shirazi, a classical Persian poet, undertook more or less the same method in signifying the notion of mysticism to his further investigations in his poems. Hence, through this paper, an attempt is made to explore the poems of these two poets regardless of their different cultural and geographical backgrounds to prove that each poet more or less has applied the same method called devotional mysticism in achieving unification with God. Moreover, the aforementioned research is based on the theoretical framework of comparative literature propounded by Françoise Jost and developed and expanded by Shunqing Cao in their seminal works on comparative literature.

Index Terms—comparative literature, analogical study, devotional mysticism, Hafez-e Shirazi, William Blake

I. INTRODUCTION

Human being as a creature with finite capacity tries to connect him/her self with the absolute because in that sense he/she is capable of justifying his existence within this great and unlimited universe. To reach such platform in which the human being is able to find unification with God, the human being should experience some especial relationship with the universe which is beyond the concept of reasoning and thought. This unusual relationship is called mysticism. In other word, "Mysticism is the endeavor of humans to apprehend Reality and experience the ecstasy of being in communion with God, by means of personal revelation, transcendentalism and contemplation or meditation on the Divine" (Samantaray, 2013, p. 41). Those human beings experiencing the ecstasy of being in a close relationship with God are called mystics. In this definition having a close relationship with God is highlighted as the most important feature, however achieving such status is not a well-trodden path. Indeed, the path ending with such an exhilarating moment is filled with different stages of difficult moments for the individual to pass on and finally see him/herself in communion with God. Searching the line of literature within the scope of different geographical areas, one can find common grounds while considering how mysticism works under similar trends that can be called devotional mysticism.

In this regard, through this study, it is tried to explore the works of two distinct authors from different geographical and cultural background to see to what extent these two authors are sharing a common perspective for considering their mystic life. Nonetheless, it should be noted that before embarking on such investigation, a reliable framework should be provided to better illustrate the works of these two authors. Therefore, the theoretical basis of comparative literature is applied to show the extent to which two different authors can be compared together. As such, Jost's basic definition of comparative literature is pondered on and expanded by other theorists to provide the suitable framework necessary for our discussion. Hence, it is tried to use the methods of comparative literature and simultaneously applying the concept of devotional mysticism within this defined framework to arrive at a platform suitable for conducting an analogical study between the works of William Blake and Hafez-e Shirazi. Finally, it is proved that though these two poets are from different cultural and historical background, they share a common point of view in exploring their perspective toward the eternal world.

II. COMPARATIVE LITERATURE

The theoretical basis of this paper is depended on an often used term 'comparative literature'. According to Siegbert Salomon Prawer, the concept of comparative literature can be studied as an "examination of literary texts in more than one language, through an investigation of contrast, analogy, provenance or influence; or a study of literary relations and communications between two or more groups that speak different language" (Prawer, 1973, p. 8). Though Prawer's definition of comparative literature is self-explanatory enough for providing a basic platform for the critics to commence their exploration of this field, François Jost, who is a well-known comparative literature critic, has far better and minutely categorized the whole realm of comparative literature by providing a basic categorization of this field into four groups of "influences and analogies; movements and trends; genres and forms; motifs, types and themes. (Jost,

1974, p. 33). These basic fields of comparative literature categorized by Jost cannot be sharply demarcated; however, the main focus of comparative studies has been yielded by the first branch, such that influences and analogies play the central role as far as the objectives of the discipline are concerned; "influences and analogies have often been considered the two sole objectives of the discipline. In fact, in a sense, comparative literature be reduced to a study of relationships in terms of influence or analogy" (ibid). Moreover, Jost besides categorizing the first group as the most important one, also distinguishes between the role of influence and affinity by giving priority to the second type; "comparatives believe that affinities are better than direct influences for proving the fundamental homogeneity of a particular civilizations and the literary intelligence common to all national elites" (p. 37). In his justification for giving priority to the role of affinity over the role of influence, he states that:

In a sense, such studies (analogy) yield richer, more substantial results than influence studies, for the latter can at best reveal particular relations between specific works, whereas the former (influence studies) more frequently suggest conclusions regarding aesthetic or philosophical attitudes in general. (p. 38)

Shunqing Cao in his seminal work on comparative literature entitled *The Variation Theory of Comparative Literature*, more elaborates on this notion of analogy within the whole concept of comparative literature. His analysis which leads to the high stance of analogy studies in the concept of comparative literature lies in the simplicity of this method in exploring different works of literature from different countries. This means any work of literature from any place around the world can be considered to be studied in a parallel way to explore the common and different parts of each work and then concludes by finding a certain platform to put both works together:

The key point for analogy study is to find the same and different points as well as their relationship which means to uncover certain relationships among the similarities and discover the similarities among the differences or among seemingly unrelated literary phenomena to find certain relationship on the certain aspects of ideological concept or structure. (2016, p. 65)

Cao's firm establishment of analogy studies as the basis of comparative literature leads him to more elaborates on this concept by categorizing it into different groups; "analogy study generally includes several categories such as typology, comparative poetics, thematology, genealogy, and interdisciplinary research" (p. 68). Cao's categorization of analogy study better highlights and clarifies the concept of analogy study which was never fully investigated in Jost's explanation of this concept. Besides, he explains each section thoroughly to portray the whole picture of analogy study. His elaboration on the notion of typology leads him to theorizes how two literary works from different cultural backgrounds produce a more or less same result, even when each work is also situated in a different age;

The research goal of typology is to compare similar literary phenomena produced in different space-time cultural backgrounds, to search out general rules and laws of the thorough process of literary evolution, and meanwhile to discover the deep level cultural differences under the similar type representation. (p. 68)

III. DEVOTIONAL MYSTICISM

An assumption is underlying human life on earth that human beings are constituted of faculty of thinking directed toward their possible aims. The inevitable acceptance of this fact underpins the point that human beings take steps with regard to their faculty of thought. Nonetheless, human being's actions are not always led toward their desirable aims. A certain moment that leaves human being befuddled is the time when he/she tries to find his/her own ways toward God. The broad faculty of reasoning never eases the path of human beings in achieving this certain goal. Unavoidably, he/she needs to search other possible existing ways for arriving at his/her goal away from the path of reasoning which is within the framework of thinking. Not a certain notion to be easily categorized, the word 'mysticism' has been labeled to cover this broad and ambiguous realm of ideas which is devoid of any simple reasoning. As such, "to the mystic, whether he be philosopher, poet, artist, or priest, the aim of life is to become like God, and thus to attain union with the Divine" (Spurgeon, 2011, p. 5). Clearly the point which carries significance here is that arriving at a position in which the human being can find him/her self while forming a close union with God is of utmost importance regardless of the possible methods of performing the task. This shows that "Mysticism is, in truth, a temper rather than a doctrine, an atmosphere rather than a system of philosophy" (4).

The aforementioned definition clears the unclear realm of mysticism by attesting to the fact that the concept of mysticism is not a categorized theory situated within a specific framework whereas this concept is endowed with ambiguous realm forever. Any individual dealing with this concept should undertake this prominent feature of mysticism that he/she is situated within a world in which no one can clearly finds his path and therefore each person tries to see into the world and make a connection with God. Dissolving himself within the external world, the mystic finds an internal way within himself to reach the Almighty and shows his unjustifiable path in terms of reason to the people around the world:

The mystic is somewhat in the position of a man who, in a world of blind men, has suddenly been granted sight, and who, gazing at the sunrise, and overwhelmed by the glory of it, tries, however falteringly, to convey to his fellows what he sees. (p. 5)

As it is shown, the mystic is a special person with a unique vision seeing into the world searching for common reality beyond the superficial appearance of the world. In this regard, the mystic attaches everything in this world together to form a unity basing God at the center; "the true mystic then, in the full sense of the term, is one who knows there is

unity under diversity at the center of all existence"(p. 6). Mysticism capitalizes the unity beyond the whole world as the only method of apprehending the notion of God. Based upon this assumption, their highest goal is seeing not only into the whole world but seeing so as to be unified with God. In this respect, "their highest consummation it is the supreme adventure of the soul: to use the matchless words of Plotinus, it is "the flight of the Alone to the Alone" (p. 7). Since the unification with God is greatly emphasized, some critics call this type of mysticism as devotional mysticism; "these are the devotional mystics who make use of nature and of the experiences of common life with perfect freedom and naturalness as allies of their thoughts of God and of their desire to find Him" (Macnicol, 1961, p. 213).

IV. DEVOTIONAL MYSTICISM IN WILLIAM BLAKE

For a poet who claimed that "I must create my own system or be enslaved by another man's" (Blake, 2008, p. xi), the concept of mysticism is most suited. William Blake established a whole new system of writing poetry for himself. Born in 1757, Blake is considered among the first generation of English romantic poets. He never had the chance to educate himself by attending schools and colleges of his time, but had the extraordinary gift of artistic skills. Besides that, he had vision of seeing into the things around himself which led him ultimately in comprehending God around himself:

At the age of four he saw God looking in at the window, and from that time until he welcomed the approach of death by singing songs of joy which made the rafters ring, he lived in an atmosphere of divine illumination. (p. 93)

His vision compelled him forward to connect with the extraordinary world; to search for God in the existence of the world. Such a unique vision accepts no boundaries and limitations on human actions which are directed toward the Almighty. Indeed, the subject sees no barrier other than the existence of God before him. Blake is also propagating the same view by justifying the ways of human being while being devoid of any barrier. This means that human's inquiry to beseech the presence of God overshadows the hindrance of any obstacle. In this respect, the human being desiring the presence of God should have an extraordinary comprehension of the world accompanied by the element of love; respectively these two collaboratively working together can soar up human being into a different realm of understanding not at all accessible via the rules and regulations of the society of human beings. As such, "In Blake's view the qualities most sorely needed by men are not restraint and discipline, obedience or a sense of duty, but love and understanding (Spurgeon, 2011, p. 45)".

To open the Eternal Worlds, to open the immortal Eyes
Of Man inwards into the Worlds of Thought: into Eternity
Ever expanding in the Bosom of God, the Human Imagination .
O Saviour pour upon me thy Spirit of meekness & love
Annihilate the Selfhood in me, be thou all my life !

Guide thou my hand which trembles exceedingly upon the rock of ages, (Blake, 2008, p. 147)

Subduing reason for the sake of love and comprehension of the world puts the human being outside of the domain of society. Generally speaking, for analyzing the life of a man, one needs to probe the structure of society first and then examines its impact on the individual or to consider to what extent the human being is following the rules and regulations of the society. Nonetheless, when a mystic is neglecting the society as the source of unnecessary rules and regulations in achieving the unity with God, the mystic cannot live in vacuum but should search for a context more suited to his situation. As such, nature affords a suitable shelter for the mystic who is in search of a place devoid of any obstacles and barriers for unifying with God. No doubt that Blake as a romantic poet followed the same method so as to reach his thoughts. Therefore, "Blake uses Nature to illustrate its direct correlation to both man and the Creator" (Samantaray, 2013, p. 47). *In The Echoing Green*, Blake astonishingly expresses this view;

The sun does arise,
And make happy the skies.
The merry bells ring
To welcome the spring.
The skylark and thrush,
The birds of the bush,
Sing louder around,
To the bells' cheerful sound,
While our sports shall be seen
On the echoing green. (Blake, 2008, p.11)

Blake's visionary experience needed two primary requisite before fully being expressed. Firstly the poet needs to be thinking totally out of the context of society. This meant that the rules and regulations dominating the society are considered by the poets as the hindrance not a path-maker helping the mystical poet achieving his aim. Secondly, once the mystical poet is dispensed with the society, it is upon his/her shoulder to search for a new place which aptly matches his/her aims. And as the nature is selected as the primary source of inciting great ideas in the mystic's mind, the mystic is undertaking a new role as a visionary person seeing into the things around the world. For Blake being a visionary poet is of prime importance because once the individual is endowed with a vision, he/she is able to release him/her self from the boundaries and limitations of this world and sees him/herself more close to God that ever. As such, "Blake has

explained very carefully the way in which the visionary faculty worked in him (Spurgeon, 2011, p. 138)". In his letters, he elaborates on this notion of vision as follows:

What to others a trifle appears
Fills me full of smiles or tears;
For double the vision my Eyes do see,
And a double vision is always with me.
With my inward Eye, 'tis an old Man grey,
With my outward, a Thistle across my way. (Blake, 2008, p. 721)

For Blake gaining a vision is the last step before being fully unified with the God. In defining the concept of devotional mysticism, the point which was highly emphasized was the unification of the person with God. Indeed, the person in the path of devotional mysticism yearns for a new realm of reality that is experienced by coming close to God far beyond the usual sense of understanding. This carries a great significance for Blake since it is shown that human being is indeed a small part of the great God but only distanced from him by being situated in this world; "he identified God with Man in order to show that all human beings have a divine element within themselves" (Samantaray, 2013, p. 44). In his *Everlasting Gospel*, he beautifully expresses his final achievement of a new realm of reality in which the man has grown extremely close to God; "If Thou Humblest Thyself, Thou humblest Me/Thou also dwell'st in Eternity/Thou art a Man: God is no more/Thy own Humanity learn to adore/For that is My spirit of life" (Blake, 2008, p. 161).

V. DEVOTIONAL MYSTICISM AS MYSTICAL SUFISM IN HAFEZ-E SHIRAZI

As a classical Persian poet, Hafez's poems are frequently read by Persians to the extent that Dick Davis, a famous well-known translator of Persian poems into English language, has pointed that Iranians may neglect reading Quran but never Hafez's Divan (2013, p. 7). Undoubtedly, Hafez's stature is endowed with a great stature among the Iranians along all these years. Hafez used to write in the form of ghazal which "expresses the never-changing human emotions, love, sufferings, longings, hope, and despair" (p. 23). Seemingly, Hafez has undertaken the same steps as William Blake has taken in reaching unity with God. Clearly, each poet belongs to a specific era and different country; one living in the east in the eleventh century, the other poet living in the literary era of English romanticism in eighteenth and nineteenth century. Nonetheless, one can trace the same line of thought in each poet resulting in the discovering of a new realm of reality understandable through the terms of mysticism. Interestingly, the label of devotional mysticism that was used for explaining Blake is not the same as the one used by the interpreters of Hafez to describe his poems. Instead, critics have used the Sufism as the suitable term for describing Hafez's mysticism:

The term Sufism that first appeared in the nineteenth century, or tasavvof, as it is known in the Muslim world, is a mystical movement within Islam that seeks to find the truth of divine love and knowledge through direct personal experience of God. (Schimmel, 2017, p. 33)

Though, the context in which Hafez is writing is totally different from Blake but more or less, a common ground can be found between them. Hafez's mystical movement is more tended toward Sufism which is an Islamic term for the description of mysticism. However, the aim of experiencing the truth of divine love as being prioritized above any other entity is almost the same as Blake's devotional mysticism. As such, the same stages leading to devotional mysticism already investigated in Blake can be studied here in Hafez. The primary stage unfolded by Blake in his path of achieving a close companion with God began by one's purging himself of the realm of reason so as to grasp the chance of entering the domain of love and comprehension. For Hafez as it was for Blake, the concept of love is beyond reasoning and an individual can only achieves the eternal realm of God's presence when he is in close connection with the concept of love and compassion. As such, Hafez expresses his view regarding the priority of love over reason as follows; "The holy court of love is a thousand times higher/ Than the house of reason/Only a man who holds his soul/Lightly on his sleeve can kiss the threshold of that court" (Hafez, 1995, p. 123). Hafez's last words are the ones describing a new gathering not ruled by the laws of society whereas describing a new company of men created in which the rules and regulations of the society are not applicable and the human being is governed by the power of love. Once the basic foundation of a new gathering is firmed, the mystic tries to use the power of love to connect with anything in nature. In this respect, Hafez imagines himself infinitely close to each and every element in nature:

Tell me of squirrels and birds you know.
Awaken your legion of nightingales -
Let them soar wild and free in the sky
And begin to sing to God.
Let's all begin to sing to God! (p. 188)

In a similar way as Blake, Hafez has firmly established the two requisites of devotional mysticism. First, these two include the attempt of distancing oneself from the rules and regulation of the society and then the experience of having a close association with the nature as the possible source of reaching God. Once the mystical poet has arrived at such a situation, he/she has reached a level in which he/she is able to experience the unique vision of seeing beyond the usual category of this world. Though, Hafez's unique vision of seeing beyond the material world is colored with Islamic philosophy but still carries the same notion as Blake's extraordinary vision of seeing the truth:

What can I tell you? Last night at the tavern,
 When I was drunk and ruined, what glad news
 Did Gabriel bring from the invisible world?
 "Your perch is on the lote tree in Paradise,
 Oh, wide-seeing hawk, what are you doing
 Crouching in this mop closet of calamity?" (p. 197)

Hafez has used Gabriel who is God's messenger to show his closeness with God. Hafez has clearly showed that one's ideal desire is to derive forward the human being more close to God. His main task is to arrive at such a moment in which he can see the truth of life. Though, it may seem a difficult task for the normal people, Hafez has seemingly achieved this revealing moment. In fact, Hafez himself claimed that he had deciphered and conveyed the ultimate meaning; "Nobody has lifted the veil from the face of inner meaning like Hafez/ Ever since one arranged the curls of bride speech" (Schimmel, 2017, p. 25). Truly, Hafez has skillfully drawn together a masterpiece which has fascinated the people ever since and showed the truth path of achieving unity with God. Macnicole in his attempt to define devotional mysticism has mentioned that "devotional mystics make use of nature and of the experiences of common life with perfect freedom and naturalness as allies of their thoughts of God and of their desire to find Him" (1961, p. 213). Based upon his definition of devotional mysticism, Hafez can be considered a prototype achieving such status by trying to find the inherent truth in nature:

Hafez focuses on inherent truth:
 Oh, ascetics, go away. Stop arguing with those
 Who drink the bitter stuff, because it was precisely
 This gift the divine ones gave us in Pre-Eternity.
 Whatever God had poured into our goblet
 We drank, whether it was the wine
 Of heaven or the wine of drunkenness. (Hafez, 1995, p. 235)

VI. CONCLUSION

Through this paper, a comparative study was conducted between William Blake and Hafez-e Shirazi. This should be noted that the aforementioned study which was conducted between Blake and Hafez was not based on the determination of the side influencing the other side as the usual method of comparative studies in literature whereas it was tried to search for the common points of comparison existing between these two authors. Considering the geographical and cultural background of Hafez and Blake, no common point was discovered to be deemed as the suitable platform for our further study between these two poets. Therefore, the analogical framework of comparative study was applied and fitted with the concept of mysticism. As such, each author's line of thought was measured with regard to the concept of mysticism and finally a common ground was reached between these two authors to conduct a comparative study between these two poets.

Capitalizing the role of mysticism as the bridge between the two poets needed further elaboration of the term mysticism itself. To explain what was meant by mysticism, the term mysticism was further attached with the word devotional to add a new dimension to the concept of mysticism. By adding this word to the original concept of mysticism, an attempt was made to pre-empt the concept of human's unification with God as the prime importance in the. In this regard, the defined concept of mysticism was unfolded based on four stages ending in human's unification with. The first two stages which are preliminary to the upcoming ones include the moments in which the mystical poets needs to get rid of the rule and regulations of the society and creates a new haven for him/herself. The mystical poet is always believed to leave the awkward realm of the cities for some joyful and peaceful moments in nature. Once the poet is totally settled in nature, he creates a unique vision to enable him/herself to see the inherent truth in nature and ultimately feels close to God. The above discussion proved that both Blake and Hafez though coming from different geographical and cultural background shared a common ground as a new realm of reality proposed by each author in reaching and uniting with God that is commonly named as mysticism, nevertheless, these two poets experienced a different stage of that called devotional mysticism.

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Assessing and Assisting Arab Undergraduates' Skills in Producing Research Papers in English

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Abstract—This paper discusses the results of a study conducted on a group of undergraduates at the Arab International University. The study has assessed the students' research skills via a qualitative analysis of their earlier research papers submissions and a questionnaire that determined the weaknesses and difficulties they face while writing a paper. Results showed that undergraduates find it most difficult to use and understand English references, paraphrase paragraphs and use in-text citations. Based on the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the results, the researcher devised a new course that aimed to enhance students' practice of the main research skills. This course was based on developing student's information literacy and assigning multiple focused tasks to practice the main research skills. The post course evaluation of students' achievement showed a notable improvement in their research practices that aided the production of above average quality English research papers.

Index Terms—research skills, information literacy, paraphrase, in-text citation

I. INTRODUCTION

Undergraduate research is an essential experience that equips students with the basic skills required for a successful academic journey. However, this experience is usually packed up into a single subject. Thus, undergraduates are required to make the most out of it by focusing on the development of their individual research skills.

A. Digital Literacy

Throughout the last decade, information literacy has been the focus of higher education. It is greatly recognized in the literature that assessment has become the core of all fields of higher education. Subsequently, according to Tancheva, Andrews, and Steinhart, "there has been a shift in emphasis from inputs and outputs ...to users and outcomes." Likewise, Oakleaf, Millet, and Kraus stress that information literacy, introduced by the Association of College & Research Libraries (ACRL) as the competence to "recognize when information is needed and have the ability to locate, evaluate, and use effectively the needed information," is a critical aptitude in all academic fields. In 2012, Schilling and Applegate clarify that, during the 1990s, advanced education certifying offices started to embrace data proficiency capabilities as markers of scholastic achievement, and the ACRL started building up the Information Literacy Competency Standards for Higher Education, exhibiting the developing spotlight on this imperative range of abilities. Oakleaf, Millet, and Kraus additionally report, notwithstanding, that graduates keep on showing immature data proficiency abilities, while overestimating their own capacities here. Along these lines, there has been a developing pattern, detailed in some of the articles investigated here, toward consolidating data proficiency skills into different scholarly teaches. Oakleaf and Kaske examine the expanding inclusion of custodians in the accreditation interaction through the exhibition of their commitment to the advancement of data education abilities and the creation of value graduates. The best methods for accomplishing this objective is through the application and announcing of value evaluation rehearses; yet, in a different 2008 article, Oakleaf defies the way that numerous bookkeepers feel ill-equipped to address this difficulty. Andone et al (2007), Gonzales (2010), Holt, Smitten and Segrave (2006) and Hannon (2009) perceive students as digitally oriented individuals due to their constant use of digital devices and stress the importance of cultivating their digital competence with proper guidance towards useful research practices.

The rise and headway of data innovation is the main factor influencing the insightful correspondence. This innovative progression assists with getting required data rapidly and without any problem. In this innovative period, the print medium is progressively offering path to the electronic type of materials (Sharma, 2009). The change from print to electronic medium separated from bringing about a development of electronic data, has given clients new apparatuses and applications for data chasing and recovery (Ani and Ahiauzu, 2008; Islam and Rahman, 2014). Henceforth, the libraries need to change from its traditional methodology of procurement, association and sharing of data, to current and mechanical driven methodologies. All things considered, numerous libraries have changed into computerized and virtual libraries, where books, diaries and magazines have changed into digital books, ejournals, and e-magazines. One of the capacity of the innovative driven and ICT based library administrations is to furnish the clients with promptly accessible online data assets. The online data assets are those which can be open through World Wide Web, for example, e-diaries, digital books, e-data sets, and online web crawlers; notwithstanding, it goes under the more extensive term of electronic assets. E-assets are the electronic portrayal of data which can be gotten to through electronic framework and

PC organization (IFLA, 2012). Online data assets are priceless examination apparatuses that supplement the print-based assets and are getting increasingly more significant for the scholarly local area, these days (Egberongbe, 2011). Additionally, the most momentous and advantageous of online assets is that it underpins the analyst regardless of the time and topographical boundary. Despite the fact that the online assets are promptly accessible and speediest, they are still underutilized. There are number of elements contributing their underutilization. Absence of mindfulness and abilities with respect to the utilization of online assets is one of the significant obstructions. Skills identified with utilization of online assets are not just fundamental to recover the open access and membership based substance, yet in addition basic to achieve their scholarly and exploration needs. Watts and Ibegbulam (2006) brought up that the utilization of electronic data assets generally relies upon the client's capacity to explore the labyrinth of online assets accessible through innovation based terminals.

B. Early Studies

This research is formed following the trend of what is called educational research design. This kind of research basically depends on uncovering the human factors involved on the side of the students in acquiring and practicing academic research skills and on the side of the tutors whose role is to deliver, transfer, or share their research skills with the students depending on a (feedback-loop). This included a questionnaire distributed prior to the research instructional phases and a post instructional phase evaluation (Reeves, McKenny, & Herrington, 2010; Collins, Joseph, & Beilaczyc, 2004; Reeves, Herrington, & Oliver, 2005).

Quarton (2003) and Maybee (2006), highlight the importance of regular exposure to research assignments, in which the students are required to access and explore information, look for answers, critically evaluate different sources and use the information effectively to accomplish their tasks. This supports the choice of the research assignments discussed in this paper as they were designed to be scaffolding in nature of students' investigation and metacognitive skills as they work in groups.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Pre-sessions Delivery

Surveys are used as a measure of students' self-confidence, skills and behavior. The strength of surveys lies in their ease of administration and ease of scoring even though they focus on intention not behavior (Erlinger, 2018).

B. Post-sessions

Watson et al (2013) and Spackman (2007) depended on focus groups to collect feedback after information literacy sessions. The benefits of focus groups lie in the ability to clarify, ask, and collect data from several participants at once. Focus groups are facilitated structured open ended discussions with a group of participants on the process and skills. But they cannot measure learning as they are basically self-reports.

C. Research Context

This study was conducted at the Foreign Languages Center (FLC) at the Arab International University (AIU), Damascus, Syria. The FLC offers remedial English courses to improve undergraduates English language skills to help them follow up with their other English major related courses. The remedial courses include a course of academic writing and research (AWR). This course was devised to help students practice writing research papers in English following the APA rules. However, this course mainly required students to memorize the APA and exhibited no significant results with limited successful attempts by students to produce complete flawless original research papers. Thus, comes the importance of this study.

D. Participants

The students who participated in this study are a group of 52 undergraduates who have completed a level three remedial English course. Most of these students belong to the (19-23) age group. In addition, these students can be said to have simple to no research skills.

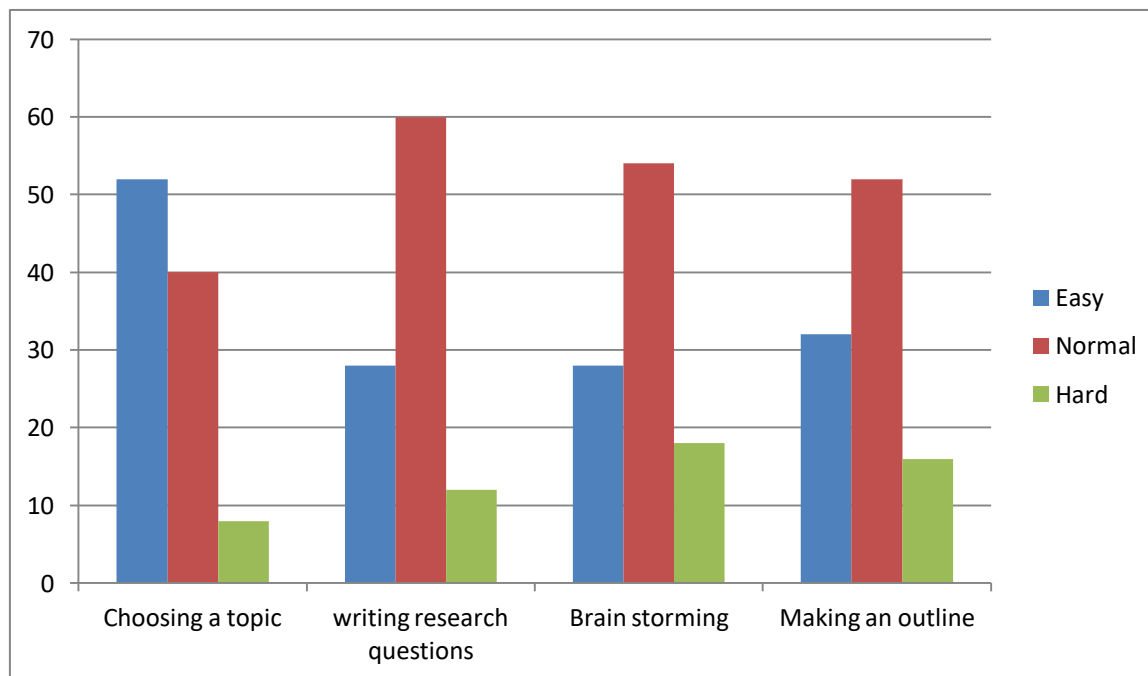
E. Qualitative Analysis of Students' Earlier Paper Submissions

A number of students' earlier paper submissions were analyzed. Analysis showed that most of these papers have a good amount of plagiarized sections. Sometimes whole original papers or even chapters of books were plagiarized, copied and presented as a student's submission for the end of the course work activity. In addition, some of the papers that exhibited signs of originality had some major flaws in planning, total organization, quoting, citing, and referencing. For example, in these papers students have mainly depended on their general knowledge of their paper's topic. Thus, they presented papers with poor content that lack the support of previously published books or articles on the same topic.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

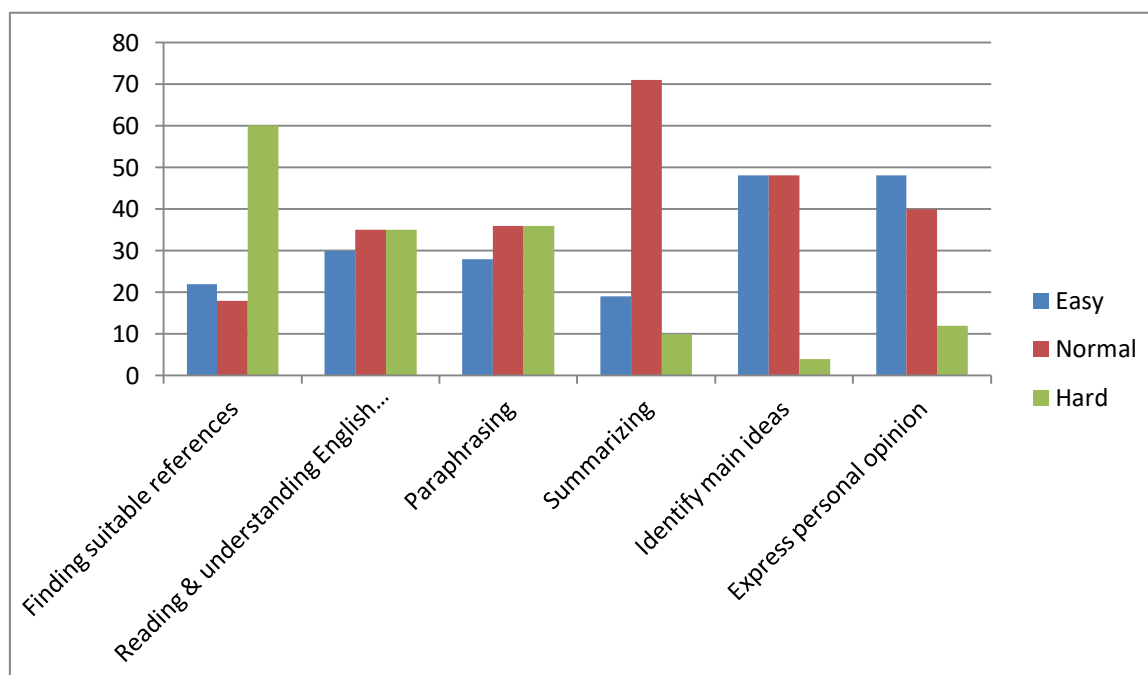
Assessing Students' Weaknesses

A questionnaire was conducted to determine students' main weaknesses and the difficulties they face while writing a research paper in English. The questionnaire is divided into five main parts. The first part used a three point Likert scale (easy, normal difficulty, hard) and had three sub-categories. Each category focused on a group of related research skills. The following diagram represents the difficulty percentages as stated by the students with relation to the first category of research skills that includes choosing a topic, writing research questions, brain storming, and generating an outline.



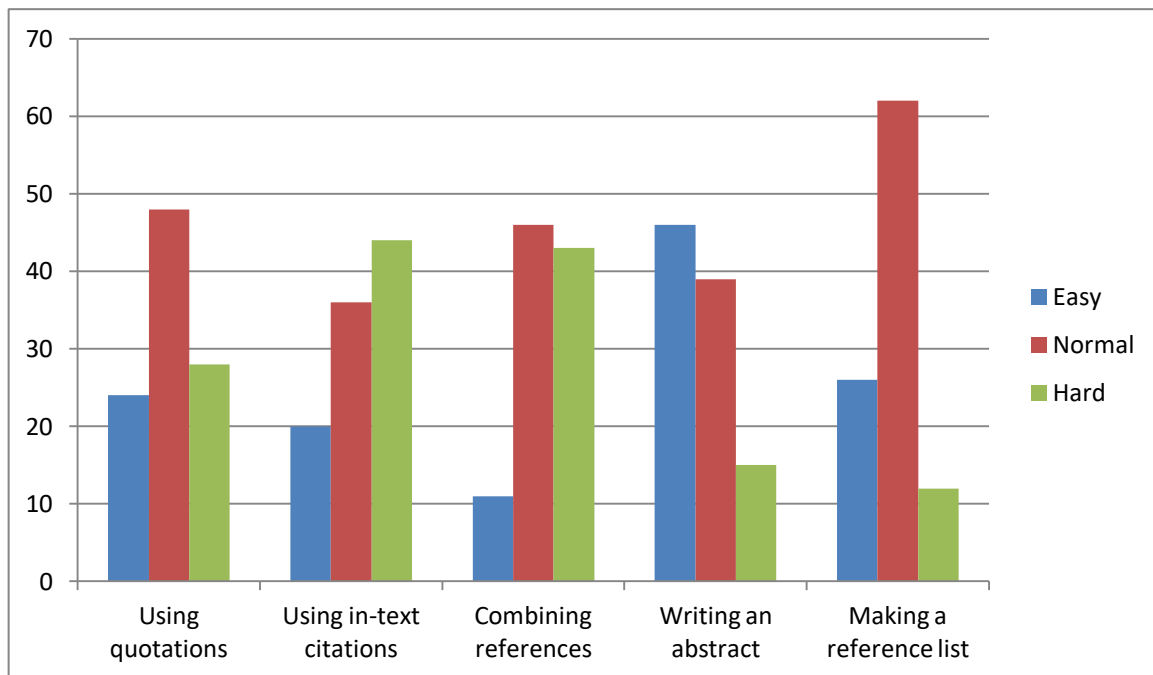
As shown in the previous diagram, 50% of the students find it easy to choose a topic for their paper. In addition, 60 % of the students expressed a medium to normal difficulty in writing research questions, 54% brain storming and 52% generating an outline for their papers with the highest value for the skill of writing research questions.

The second category of research skills included the skills of finding suitable English references, reading and understanding English references, determining main ideas in the original English reference, paraphrasing original paragraphs, summarizing original paragraphs, and expressing personal opinions about the topic. The following diagram represents the different percentages of difficulty for each of the above mentioned skills.



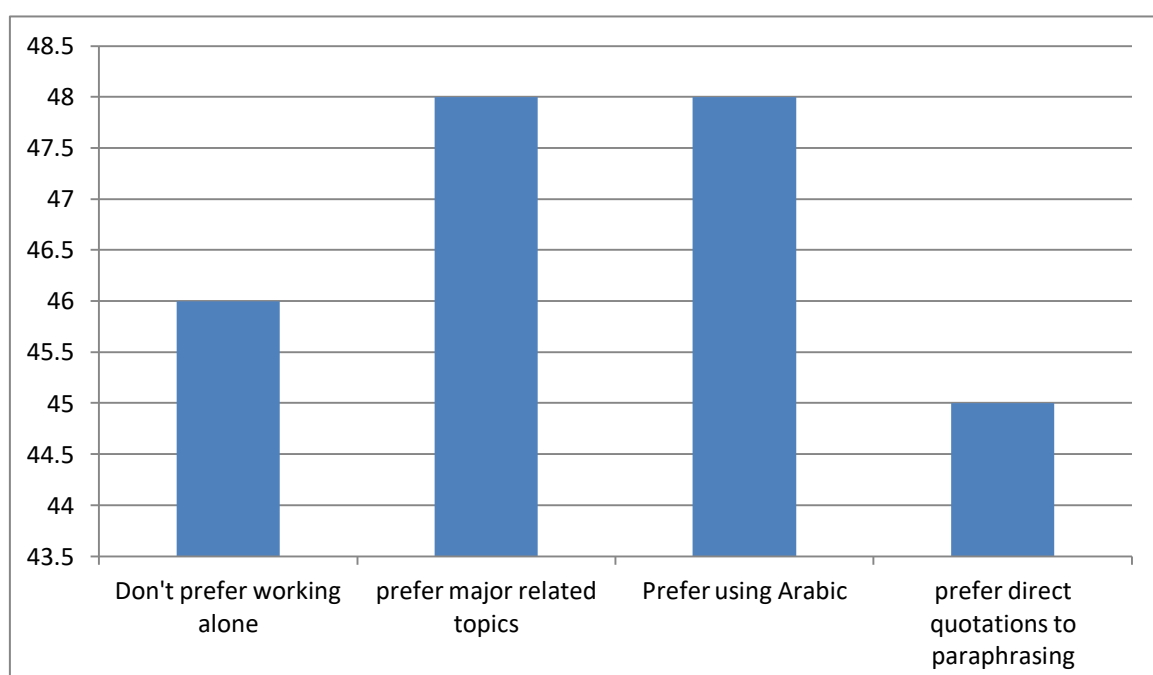
As shown in the diagram above, the most difficult skill for students to practice was finding suitable English references for their papers. However, it was also relatively difficult for students to summarize paragraphs of the original reference. On the other hand, the easiest skill was to express personal opinion about an issue or a topic. Furthermore, reading and paraphrasing English references were both of normal difficulty to students.

The third category of research skills included the skills of using quotations, using in-text citations, combining two references to support one idea, writing an abstract, and making a list of references. The following diagram shows percentages of difficulty for each of the aforementioned skills.



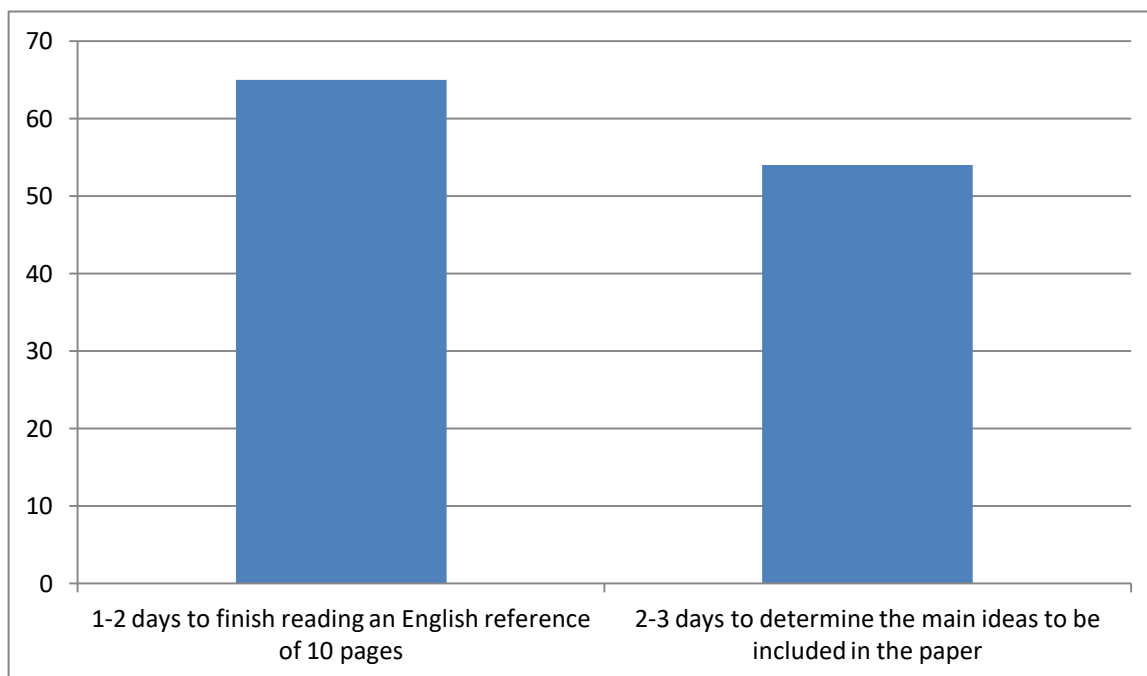
The diagram above shows that the most difficult skill for students was to use in-text citations while the easiest skill was to write an abstract. However, students have also found it relatively difficult to make a list of the references they used in their paper, use quotations and combine resources.

The second part of the questionnaire consisted of four questions that expressed students' preferences using a three point Likert scale (agree, neutral, disagree). The following diagram represents percentages of the most significant students' preferences.



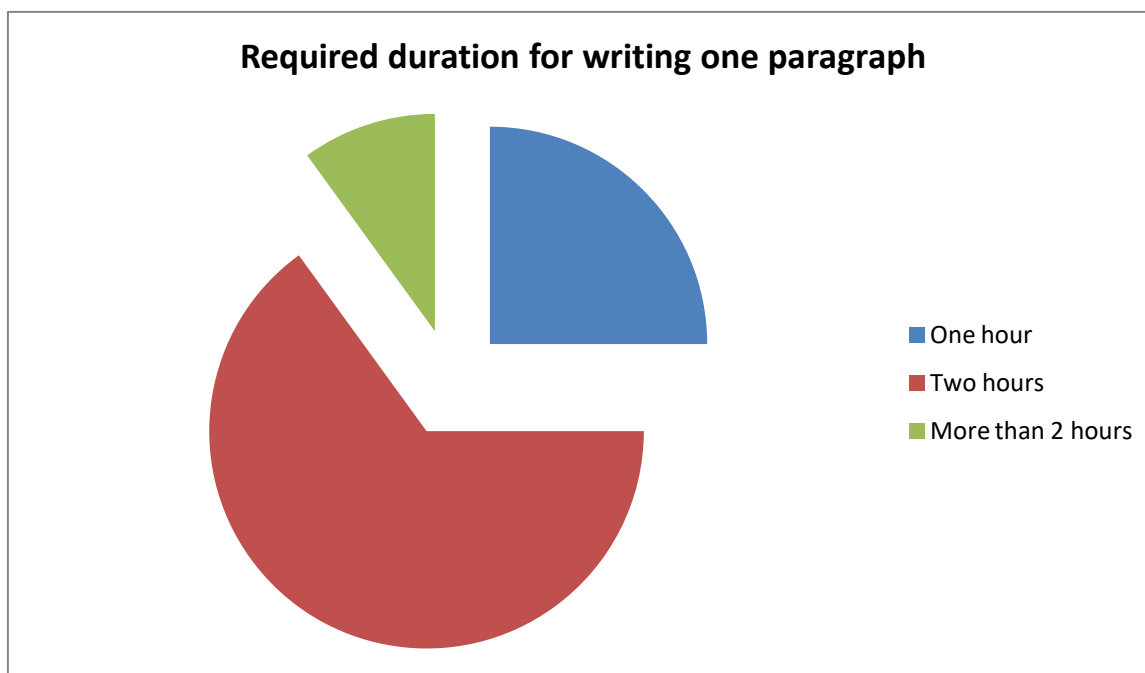
It appears that about 46% of the students do not prefer to work alone on a research paper. In addition, 48% of the students prefer working on a major related topic and using their native language for better results. However, 45% of the students stated their preference for using direct quotations over paraphrasing.

The third part of the questionnaire consisted of three statements to reveal the duration required by students for three research tasks to be completed. The following diagram exhibits the most significant percentages of the required periods of completion.



The diagram shows that 65% of the students would require about 1 or 2 days to finish reading an English reference of 10 pages. However, about 54% of the students would require 2-3 days to determine the main ideas to be discussed in their paper.

The third item in this part elicited students' statements of the required period to finish writing one paragraph of their paper. The following diagram shows that 65% of the students would require two hours to finish writing one paragraph, 25% would require one hour, and 10% would require more than two hours.



IV. DISCUSSION

A. Enhancing Students' Research Skills

After analyzing students' weaknesses and difficulties in writing research papers in English, the researcher devised a new scheme that focuses on enhancing students' research skills through dividing the work on the research paper into separate mini tasks and adopting group work for the execution. The following sections will present procedure and results.

B. Group Work

It is unquestionable that every undergraduate should be able to individually produce a complete research paper. However, offering students the chance of group work for a research paper has exhibited positive results. Students were asked to plan and divide their tasks and cooperate in difficult ones (research skills). Thus, the students were divided into groups of three members.

Evaluation:

78 % of the students exhibited high cooperativeness amongst their groups as they planned, distributed and scheduled the research tasks. They would meet twice a week for two hours to discuss, share, evaluate, and put together the pieces achieved. Group work has saved them a lot of confusion that would have resulted of going around research tasks alone. It has also saved them time and effort and made it possible for them to attend to their other courses while going through the research assignments. It has definitely granted them the opportunity to discuss, exchange, and help each other as the best learning experience is usually accomplished with the help of peers.

C. Topic Selection

Although students showed a preference for choosing major related topics, they did not exhibit a linguistic ability that is required to discuss such topics. Thus, the researcher has created a dozen of general topics, to pick, that allows students of mid-intermediate level of English to maneuver around.

Evaluation:

65% of the students found it more convenient to pick a general knowledge topic for their paper. They have also exhibited high fluency while discussing the topic with their groups. They did not feel confused or in short of any specific jargon.

D. Writing Research Questions

The researcher asked the groups to jot several questions about what they would like to know of the topic they have chosen earlier. Then, they have to write down the final draft of these questions and show them to the researcher. In addition, the researcher advised the students to use WH questions mainly (where, when, why, how, what). The students were also advised to focus on a problem related to the selected topic. Thus, it would be more convenient to ask about the location, time, reasons, effects, and solutions of the addressed problem.

Evaluation:

85 % of the students were able to make specific inquiries about their topics represented by three or four main questions while 15% required the assistance of the researcher to form adequate questions.

E. Finding Suitable Resources

After analyzing the questionnaire's results, it was concluded that students exhibit a need for information literacy improvement. Thus, the researcher has decided to create minimized tasks with regard to finding suitable resources for student's selected topics. Students were first guided to use academic search engines that ensure getting more scholarly works. Students had to find two resources to answer each research question. It might sound that two resources would not be enough to answer each question. However, this task was mainly devised for preliminary learning and practice purposes. The students were guided through the search process that started by using a key word for the search that represent each research question. Before choosing any articles, students had to judge whether the references match the criteria of scholarly works or not. Students had to check the source that published the articles or books. It was a must that the source is either a scholarly journal, a data base, a university website or a university press. Students then were asked to check the abstracts or summaries of the list of their search results in order to find a match that can answer their research questions.

Evaluation:

About 91% of the students were successful in using academic search engines. However, only 68 % were able to find and judge references to answer their research questions.

F. Paraphrasing and Summarizing

During this research, students were not asked to write or submit a complete paper. Never the less, they were asked to choose two paragraphs from each selected article that answer directly each of the research questions. Then, students were guided through steps of proper paraphrasing and summarizing. These included reading, underlining the main ideas and key words, taking notes, replacing some words with their synonyms, and rewriting phrases using different

structures. After doing a model exercise, the students had to paraphrase one paragraph and summarize another from each of the selected paragraphs.

Evaluation:

The students succeed in paraphrasing their paragraphs but needed more practice to master summarizing. This is because most students were not able to limit their summaries and present the main ideas in a brief structure.

G. Using Quotations and In-text Citations

By means of examples, students were introduced to direct, indirect, short, and block quotations. Then, students were asked to make different kinds of quotations using one paragraph of each selected article. Following that, students were familiarized with different sets of in-text citation that differ according to the number of authors contributing to the original cited work. Eventually, students were asked to cite the quotations they formed in the previous exercise.

Evaluation:

84% of the students were able to successfully use quotations and proper in-text citation. This was a quite surprising result as a good percentage of students has expressed in the questionnaire conducted earlier a difficulty in quoting and citing.

V. CONCLUSION

It is evident throughout the paper that with proper planning and guidance, educators could make their students capable of handling research tasks as part of their preparation of research papers in English. In addition, breaking the preparation process into mini tasks and encouraging team work and peer consultation would guarantee successful above average research papers.

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A Study of the Chinese-English Translation of Public Signs in Scenic Spots in Guangzhou From the Perspective of Skopos Theory

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Abstract—Public signs, as the name card demonstrating the cultural quality and spiritual outlook of a city, play a crucial role in the external publicity of Guangzhou, an International metropolis in South China. With more and more tourists travelling to Guangzhou, the translation quality of public signs in scenic spots has become increasingly important. This paper, focusing on the public signs in scenic spots in Guangzhou, first analyzes the Chinese to English translation of public signs and finds out the translation problems and corresponding causes, and then gives some suggestions on the translation methods and strategies of the Chinese to English translation of public signs in scenic spots accordingly. It is hoped that this study can provide some implications for pedagogical application and be helpful for those who follow closely the translation of public signs.

Index Terms—public sign, scenic spot, translation strategy, Skopos rule

I. INTRODUCTION

China is a big country with 5000 years of civilization. With its opening up policy and the acceleration of economic globalization, more and more foreign tourists are traveling to China in pursuit of its fabulous natural circumstances and unique cultural sceneries. China is also a country with exotic customs of various ethnic groups attracting millions of foreign tourists every year. According to the National Bureau of Statistics of China (2020), tourism industry maintains steady and rapid growth every year. In 2019, the revenue of tourism industry reaches 10.94 trillion yuan, accounting for 11.05% of China's total GDP, where the number of inbound tourists was 145 million, a year-on-year increase of 2.9%. In 2020, due to the COVID-19 pandemic, tourism industry all over the world suffers heavy loss. However, after China quickly controls the pandemic, tourism industry recovers soon and will grow rapidly returning to normal by 2021. It is predicted by the Prospective Industry Research Institute (2020) that China's tourism market will continue to develop rapidly from 2021 to 2025, and the number of national tourist trips may exceed 10 billion in 2025.

Hence, to boost tourism industry especially the inbound tourism, the translation of public signs in scenic spots is usually regarded as an indispensable element. Good translation of public signs can not only help to spread the culture bettering the humanistic environment of scenic spots, but also enhance the effect of tourism propaganda and make further improvement on tourism brands. However, the translation quality of public signs in some scenic spots in China is not satisfactory and there are various problems and insufficiencies making readers or listeners confused. Thus, it is of great significance and urgency to conduct a research on the translation of public signs in tourist attractions.

As a core city of Pearl River Delta economic zone and the Belt and Road in South China, Guangzhou attracts a large number of overseas tourists for sightseeing every year. Public signs, as the name card demonstrating the cultural quality and spiritual outlook of a city, play a crucial role in the external publicity of Guangzhou. Therefore, the translation quality of public signs in Guangzhou's scenic spots has become increasingly important. This paper, focusing on the public signs in scenic spots in Guangzhou, first analyzes the Chinese to English (C-E) translation of public signs and finds out the translation problems and corresponding causes, then gives some suggestions on the translation methods and strategies of the C-E translation of public signs accordingly. It is hoped that this study can provide some implications for pedagogical application and be helpful for those who follow closely the translation of public signs.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. Previous Studies of the Chinese-English Translation of Public Signs

In 2002, Beijing International Studies Universities established the first Chinese-English Public Sign Research Center in China and set up a website (www.e-signs.info.com) focusing on Chinese-English Expressions on Signs Service and Research in the next year. In 2004, Professor Hefa Lv and Liping Shan compiled the *Chinese-English Dictionary on Signs*, which is the first reference providing abundant authentic pictures of public signs. In 2005, the first symposium on Chinese-English translation of signs was held in China, which is the most pioneering national conference in this field. From then on, lots of papers on public signs' translation appeared in academic periodicals.

Studies on the translation of public signs abound these years at home and abroad, and lots of scholars have adopted different theories, such as Katharina Reiss's Functionalism, Ernst August Gutt's Relevance Theory, Nida's principles, Newmark's Communicative Translation Theory, Ecological Translation Theory, Trichotomy, etc. while Skopos theory, which emphasizes translators' functions and expectations of target source texts, is also widely applied in analyzing the public signs translation. From the perspective of Skopos theory, strategies such as the adjustment, omission and revision can be adopted in translation, which offer good theoretical guidance for public signs' translation. (Qiu, 2013)

Previous researches study public signs from different angles. Some researchers focus on the definitions, functions and text types of public signs (See for example Dai & Lv, 2005; Zhao & Huang, 2015) and some study the cultural characteristics of language used (Luo & Li, 2006). Some scholars classify different language errors and corresponding causes while some explore the regulations and standards of the translation of public signs. (See for example Ding, 2006; Yang, 2011; Lv & Ren & Zhou, 2015; Guo, 2018) In the early time of researches on public signs translation, scholars mainly study the application functions, linguistic styles and translation theories while in the recent 10 years, empirical researches abound and most academic papers focus on the translation of public signs especially in some cities. (See for example Zhang, 2008; Xu, 2019; Zhu & Chen & Lv, 2020) As China's economy develops rapidly with more foreign visitors travelling to China, the C-E public signs translation especially in scenic spots and public transportation has become increasingly important, attracting more and more researchers who have proposed corresponding translation standards and strategies. (See for example Yang, 2011; Wang, 2012; Luo & Xu & Shu, 2014; Chen, 2019; Chen, 2019; Tang & Ye, 2019; Chen & Lv, 2020) In addition, there are also many studies on the translation of public signs of different industries such as financial and medical industry. (See for example Jin, 2008; Zhu & Li, 2011; Wang & Yang, 2018)

However, studies focusing on public signs' translation in scenic spots in Guangzhou from the perspective of Skopos theory are scanty. How do the translators and the authorities concerned translate public signs in scenic spots by applying Skopos theory? This may provide room for the present study. This paper, focusing on the public signs in scenic spots in Guangzhou, an International city in South China, tends to explore how the three rules of Skopos theory are used in the C-E translation of public signs and give some suggestions on the translation strategies accordingly.

B. An Overview of Skopos Theory

"Skopos" refers to "purpose, intention or aim" in Greek. Skopos theory, regarded as the core of the German School of functionalist translation theory, was proposed by Hans J. Vermeer in her published book *A Framework for a General Translation Theory* in 1978. Vermeer defined "skopos" as the purpose of translation and based Skopos theory on the behavioral theory. From the perspective of behavioral theory, any human activity was motivated by incentive or purpose and translation is thus an activity with purposes. Different from the traditional equivalence-based translation theory, Skopos theory emphasizes the option of translation methods based on the analysis of source text with an aim to acquire the expected function of the target text. The target readers, as a decisive factor, have their specific and communicative needs, which deserves more attention. Therefore, to meet the target readers' demand by applying the Skopos theory effectively, a translator should bear in mind the reason why the original text is to be translated and the function that the target text is to acquire. (Wang, 2016) Skopos theory consists of three rules, namely Skopos rule, coherence rule and fidelity rule. According to Vermeer, the Skopos rule is regarded as the top-ranking one to which priority should be given. (Nord, 2001:29) The latter two rules are subordinate to the Skopos rule.

1. Skopos Rule

Skopos rule stresses that the translation action is determined by its "skopos", that is "the end justifies the means". Translation is considered to be a purposeful activity and the option of translation strategy depends on the translation purpose or aim of the original text. (Nord, 2001, p.29) Besides, the translation recipients with the biggest impact on the formation of the translation aim should be taken into consideration.

2. Coherence Rule

According to the coherence rule, the target text should conform to the standard of "intratextual coherence", which means the target text ought to be accessible to the target readers. (Nord, 2001, p.32) To be more specific, the target text is supposed to be coherent with the culture and communicative situation of the target readers maintaining a certain level of fluency and readability. (Wang, 2016)

3. Fidelity Rule

Vermeer holds that there exists a potential connection between the source text and target text, and he calls this relationship "intertextual coherence" or "fidelity" (Nord, 2001, p.32). Fidelity rule signifies that when people translate two different texts, the output is supposed to accord with the original meaning. Whether the content translated keeps a high consistency with the original has a close connection with the comprehension ability of translators. Fidelity rule is also inseparable from the translation purpose. To be specific, a translator is supposed to operate consciously in accordance with the purpose of the target text than the loyalty to the source text when confronted with a specific translation task. (Wang, 2016)

III. AN OVERVIEW OF PUBLIC SIGNS

Public signs are seen everywhere in our daily life and applied in various fields such as accommodation, travel,

entertainment and shopping. As an important indicator of social environment of cities, the quality of public signs translation represents the local internationalization and human literacy. (Qiu, 2013)

A. Definition of Public Signs

According to *Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary* (2002, p.1406), "sign" is defined as "a piece of paper, wood or metal that has writing or a picture on it that gives you information, instruction, a warning, etc." In *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (1995, p.1334), "sign" refers to "a piece of paper, metal, etc. in a public place, with words or drawings on it that give people information, warn them not to do something, etc.". In *The Merriam-Webster Dictionary* (2004, p.669), "sign" means "a notice publicly displayed for advertising purposes or for giving direction or warning". In China, Professor Hefa Lv (2004) defines "public sign" as "terse and explicit words, sentences, even photographs that are closely related to daily life, production, ecology and professions so as to direct, prompt, restrict, warn, or even compel the public". As for the Chinese equivalence of "public sign", there have been lots of terms such as "标语, 标识语, 标志语, 告示语, 标牌语" while nowadays it has been standardized into "公示语". This paper, based on the above definitions, would adopt the definition given by professor Hefa Lv and the Chinese equivalence "公示语" for the convenience of the following analysis.

B. Functions of Public Signs

Public signs play a critical role in regulating social behavior, adjusting individual relationship, enhancing mutual understanding and some other social aspects. In addition, bilingual public signs help international friends make better understanding of Chinese culture. Public signs can be formal or informal. By delivering certain kind of messages, public signs meet the social, behavioral and psychological demand of the tourists and the public. (Qiu, 2013) According to Professor Hefa Lv (2004), public signs have four functions in practical application.

1. Directing Public Signs

Directing public signs aim to provide indicative service for the public. It does not enforce people to accept some rules or warn them of potential danger, but presents the information objectively. It can provide directions such as Entrance(入口) and Exit(出口), or sometimes with an arrow showing the readers where they are or how to get to some places. Here are some examples as follows.

TABLE 1
DIRECTING PUBLIC SIGNS

| Source Language (Chinese) | Target Language (English) | Source Language (Chinese) | Target Language (English) |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 地铁 | Underground | 货运电梯 | Freight Lift |
| 卫生间 | Restroom | 机场巴士 | Shuttle Bus |
| 门诊部 | Out-Patient Department | 宠物旅馆 | Pet Hotel |
| 游客中心 | Tourist Center | 男士更衣室 | Men's Locker |
| 综合医院 | General Hospital | 机场休息室 | Airport Lounges |
| 咨询服务 | Consulting Service | 24 小时自助银行 | 24 Hours Self-service Bank |
| 转基因食品 | GE Food | 游览观光车售票处 | Sightseeing Bus Ticket Office |

2. Prompting Public Signs

Prompting Public Signs are intended to give tourists some instructions to remind them of what they need to know. Their wording is terse and the mood is indirect. Examples are as follows.

TABLE 2
PROMPTING PUBLIC SIGNS

| Source Language (Chinese) | Target Language (English) | Source Language (Chinese) | Target Language (English) |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|--|
| 售完 | Sold Out | 预留席位 | Reserved |
| 已消毒 | Sterilized | 非饮用水 | Not Drinkable |
| 献血处 | Blood Donation | 当心犬只 | Beware of Dog |
| 小心台阶 | Mind the Step | 最低消费 | Minimum Charge |
| 小心地滑 | Caution: Wet Floor | 不收手续费 | No Commission Charge |
| 请在此等候咨询 | Here for Enquiry | 正在清扫地板 | Floor Cleaning in Progress |
| 闭路电视监控区 | CCTV in Operation | 饮料仅供外卖 | Drinks Purchased Are for Taken Away Only |

3. Restricting Public Signs

Restricting public signs aim at playing a regulatory and confining role on the public. They are presented in a direct way. Here are some examples as follows.

TABLE 3
RESTRICTING PUBLIC SIGNS

| Source Language (Chinese) | Target Language (English) | Source Language (Chinese) | Target Language (English) |
|---------------------------|---|---------------------------|--|
| 现金支付 | Pay In Cash | 保持安静 | Keep Silence |
| 凭票入场 | Tickets Only | 不可议价 | Fixed Price |
| 谢绝更换 | No Exchange | 残疾人设施 | Disable Only |
| 限停 1 小时 | 1 Hour Parking | 热,小心烫伤 | Hot! Avoid Contact |
| 不得自带酒水 | Consumption of Our Food Only | 请系好安全带 | Please wear the seat belt provided |
| 离开前请归还 钥匙 | Please Return Keys Before Leaving | 未经许可车辆 不得入内 | Authorized Cars Only |
| 一米以下儿童须家长 陪同乘坐 | Children Under 1 Meter Must be Accompanied by an Adult | 来客请到门房登记 | All Visitors Please Report to Gate Warder |

4. Compelling Public Signs

Compelling Public Signs aim at making the strict and fast requests on the conduct of people. It does not depend on the will of the public and is a norm that the public must abide by. People must act according to its instructions and people who go against the rules will be punished. Compelling public signs can often be seen in our daily life playing a crucial role in improving social stability and harmony, where negative words such as “No” and “Don’t” are often used in English, while in Chinese the words such as “请勿” and “禁止” are mainly used. Therefore, the regulation and application of public signs are of great significance to the governments and authorities concerned. Examples are as follows.

TABLE 4
COMPELLING PUBLIC SIGNS

| Source Language (Chinese) | Target Language (English) | Source Language (Chinese) | Target Language (English) |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 禁止吸烟 | No Smoking | 严禁摆卖 | No Vendors |
| 禁止攀爬 | No Climbing | 禁止通行 | Don't Walk |
| 禁止张贴 | Post No Bill | 严禁拍照 | No Photography |
| 禁扔废弃物 | No Littering | 禁携宠物 | No Pets Allowed |
| 禁止导游讲解 | No Briefing of Groups | 严禁超车 | Overtaking Prohibited |
| 警戒线内请勿超越 | Police Line Do Not Cross | 红线区内严禁停车 | RED ROUTE No Stopping at Any Time |

C. Linguistic Features of Public Signs

1. Lexical Features

Public signs in scenic spots are served for ordinary tourists, so their words should be clear, concise, natural and straightforward. Moreover, they should avoid using unfamiliar words, slangs or abstruse terms. Consequently, there are a number of nouns, verbs and gerunds frequently used in public signs. The first letters of those words are usually capitalized, and sometimes even all letters are capitalized to attract special attention. The specific examples are as follows:

TABLE 5
LEXICAL FEATURES OF PUBLIC SIGNS

| Source Language (Chinese) | Target Language (English) | Source Language (Chinese) | Target Language (English) |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| 收费站 | Toll Gate | 减速慢行 | Slow |
| 现在营业 | Open Now | 正在施工 | Roadwork |
| 注册登记 | Registration | 值班经理 | Duty Manager |
| 游客止步 | STAFF ONLY | 商务中心 | Business Center |
| 汽车影院 | Drive in Cinema | 外币兑换 | Foreign Exchange |
| 严禁随地吐痰 | No Spitting | 严禁狗便 | No Dog Pooping |
| 计时收费停车场 | Meter Parking | 野生动物保护区 | Game Reserve |

2. Syntactic Features

In addition to the above features, public signs usually use the present tense and simple sentence patterns, including acronyms, independent words, fixed expressions, imperative sentences, phrases, etc. Examples are as follows:

TABLE 6
SYNTACTIC FEATURES OF PUBLIC SIGNS

| Source Language (Chinese) | Language | Target Language (English) | Source Language (Chinese) | Target Language (English) |
|---------------------------|----------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| 停车场 | | P | 厕所有人 | Occupied |
| 请节约用水 | | Please Save Water | 请在此排队 | Please Queue Here |
| 请站好扶稳 | | Please Use Handrail | 请出示证件 | Please Show Your ID |
| 水深危险,请勿靠近 | | Danger! Deep Water | 请勿践踏草坪 | Please Keep Off the Grass |

3. Discourse Features

Terse public signs not only save people's time, but also attract people's attention. Public signs should be precise and succinct and superfluous words, such as prepositions, articles, auxiliary verbs can be eliminated. As for longish public signs, they can be used with rhetorical devices such as rhyme, repetition and antithesis, etc. Examples are as follows:

TABLE 7
DISCOURSE FEATURES OF PUBLIC SIGNS

| Source language (Chinese) | Target language(English) |
|---------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 请勿带宠物入内 | No Pets Allowed |
| 小草青青,足下留情 | The Grass So Fair; Needs Your Care |
| 别让您的烟头留下火患 | Dispose Cigarette Butts Properly |

IV. PROBLEMS OF THE CHINESE-ENGLISH TRANSLATION OF PUBLIC SIGNS IN SCENIC SPOTS IN GUANGZHOU

As an international city, Guangzhou's tourism economy is developing rapidly while lots of translation problems of public signs in scenic spots exist, including linguistic problems and pragmatic problems.

A. Linguistic Problems

1. Spelling Mistakes

A great amount of spelling mistakes can be found in the translation of public signs in scenic spots in Guangzhou. For example, located in the west gate of Baiyun Mountain, the bronze plaque “全国保护旅游消费者权益示范单位” is translated into “National model unit for Troctecting Tourists Rights and Interests”. Here the first letters of “model unit” should be capitalized and the word “Troctecting” should be modified as “Protecting”. This is a standard plaque issued by a national institution displayed in the conspicuous place, which greatly influences the image of the scenic spot. Besides, “AAAA 级旅游景区” is translated into “AAAA Class Touristry Attraction”, where the “Touristry” should be “Tourist”. “云台花园” is translated into “The Yuntal Garden”, where “Yuntal” should be “Yuntai”. And “草坪保养, 请勿入内” is translated as “Lawn Maintenance. Plase don't step in”. Here “Plase” should be “Please”. “严禁取水” is translated into “Don't Dyaw Water” where “Dyav” should be “Draw”. And “荡胸亭站” is translated as “Dang Xiong Paviling Station” where “Paviling” should be “Pavilion”. “天然鸟笼-与鸟儿逗趣的天堂” is translated into “Natural Birdcage-the Paraclise to amuse with birds”, where “Paraclise” should be “Paradise”. In addition, in another tourist attraction whose name on the ticket is translated into “Huang Hua Gang Mausoleum of 72 Martyrs”, the word “Martyrs” should be modified as “Martyrs”.

2. Capital Mistakes

Capital mistakes are prominent as well in the C-E translation of public signs in Guangzhou. Although this kind of errors will not mislead tourists as grammatical and spelling mistakes, a large number of such errors show the carelessness which will have bad influence on the urban language environment in Guangzhou. For instance, “请勿吸烟” is translated into “No smoking” which should be modified as “No Smoking”. A public sign “中国历代书法馆” in Guangdong Museum is translated into “Gallery of Chinese calligraphy of all Dynasties” where the word “calligraphy” should be “Calligraphy”. “吸烟区” is translated into “Smoking area” where “area” should be “Area”. In addition, there are both spelling and capital mistakes in the sign “爱护绿化, 请勿雕刻”, which is translated into “Keep of the grass. no carving”, where the word “of” should be “off” and “no carving” should be capitalized as “No Carving”.

B. Pragmatic Problems

In addition to linguistic problems, there are still a lot of pragmatic problems in public signs translation in tourist attractions in Guangzhou.

1. Multiple Translations

The semantics of public signs are specific and unique. If the same public sign occurs in different places, its translation and form are supposed to be unified, or it will bring confusion, inconvenience and even misdirection to the foreign visitors. The phenomenon of non-standard translation such as non-uniform translation and multiple translation of one name is common in public signs translation in Guangzhou. The word “厕所” has several different translation versions in Guangzhou, such as “WC”, “Toilet”, “Men & Women” and “Male & Female”. “广州大道” is translated into

“Guangzhou Dadao”, while “三元里大道” is translated into “San Yuan Li Avenue”. In addition, there are various English versions of the public sign “白云山风景名胜管理区” on billboards, notices and tourist guides all over the scenic spot. The translation “The Baiyun Mountain Scenic Area Bureau” which is comparatively standard is adopted by the majority while there are many other English translation versions reserving its first half and omitting the “Scenic Area Bureau” or “Bureau”. However, as an administrative authority of Baiyun Mountain, its name should be kept serious and unified in every spot instead of changing arbitrarily. Besides, eight famous scenic spots in Guangzhou attract lots of foreign visitors and Guangzhou government officially calls these spots “新世纪羊城八景”. However, there are two different translation versions of “新世纪羊城八景”, i.e. “Guangzhou New-century Top Eight Scenic Spots” and “NEW CENTURY EIGHT SENCE IN GUANGZHOU”. This might mislead visitors making them confused. Professor Huikang Jin (2003) used to give suggestions on the translation of “羊城八景” as “Famous Eight of Guangzhou City”. Therefore, “新世纪羊城八景” can be modified as “Famous Eight of Guangzhou City in the 21st Century”.

2. Chinglish

Chinglish is a special kind of English created by people who are influenced by Chinese way of thinking and cultural background. It is not consistent with the native way of English expression and cannot be understood by most foreigners. However, Chinglish in scenic spots in Guangzhou abound. For example, a public sign “严禁以下活动” from Liu Hua Lake Park is translated into “PROHIBIT FOLLOWING ACTIVITIES”. This kind of translation is too rigid and the suggested version is “THE FOLLOWING ACTIVITIES ARE PROHIBITED”. For another example, a sign placed outside the cultural relics exhibition hall “请勿入内” in Chen Clan Ancestral Hall is translated into “No Visiting Please”. This is a restricting public sign which means visitors can only stand outside the guardrail and cannot enter. However, the tourists are coming here for visiting and thus the word “Visiting” used here is inappropriate. The suggested version is “No Entry”. The same is true of this sign “即购即入, 一人一票”, which is translated into “ONE TICKEY FOR ONE TOURIST. YOU CAN ENTER ONCE YOU BUY IT”. The suggested modification is “TICKEY ONLY”. Besides, in the scenic spot Yuexiu Park, the sign “百步梯” is translated into “ONE HUNDRED LADDERS”, which is quite misleading. Visitors are confused and wonder where one hundred ladders are. In fact, there are not only one hundred steps and the suggested translation is “Hundreds-of-Steps Ladders”.

C. Causes of Translation Problems in Scenic Spots

From the above analysis, it is found that the translators and the tourism authorities concerned should be responsible for the existing problems in public signs translation in Guangzhou’s scenic spots. Translators play a crucial role in the quality of public signs translation. First, translators should have a good mastery of both English and Chinese. From the errors analyzed above, strong bilingual competence of translators can help reduce lots of linguistic and pragmatic mistakes. Second, translators should be always culturally aware of the language used in public signs as language is the carrier of culture and translation is a cross-culture activity. Therefore, translators should understand the source text accurately in grammar and appropriately in culture so as to present the target text in conformity with the language environment of the target readers. Third, translators should have strong sense of responsibility in the process of translation. As can be seen above, lots of grammatical and pragmatic problems can be avoided if the translators are more careful, serious and responsible in attitude.

In addition, the tourism authorities concerned should shoulder the responsibility as well. The standards and regulations for local public signs translation released by the government can provide good reference and better help translators and organizations in the process of translation. Luckily, today many cities in China such as Shanghai and Beijing serve as good examples in regulating public signs translation. Besides, the translation of public signs can be listed in the service assessment item of tourist attractions and professionals can be invited to make evaluation. It is also suggested that college teachers and students, media and the public be encouraged to find and correct the translation mistakes and make advices for the public signs translation in scenic spots.

V. APPLICATION OF SKOPOS THEORY IN THE C-E TRANSLATION OF PUBLIC SIGNS IN SCENIC SPOTS IN GUANGZHOU

Skopos theory lays stress on the communicative functions of target texts as well as the reaction of target language readers, which is consistent with the purpose of public signs translation, i.e., to convey basic and necessary information to the public. Therefore, Skopos theory can better serve as the theoretical foundation for public signs translation.

A. Simplification under the Skopos Rule

According to the Skopos rule, the main purpose of public signs translation is to make the target readers completely understand the main message conveyed by the source language. Consequently, when translators translate public signs whose language used should be concise, some non-core words in public signs that do not affect the expression of meaning can be omitted, such as articles, conjunctions, etc., and reserving the core words that can clearly express meaning, such as nouns, verbs and other substantive words. Thus, the language used in public signs can be simplified, which means the method of simplification is suggested in translating public signs in tourist attractions. For example, “购票中请当场清点票款, 门票售出, 恕不退款” can be translated into “Check the change before you leave. No refund

for tickets sold". “即购即入, 每人一票” is translated into “TICKEY ONLY”. In addition to the key words, the abbreviations can also be applied to simplification translation. Abbreviations are one of the most concise and understandable ways of expression. Public signs of some common public facilities and service areas in tourist attractions can be displayed by abbreviations, such as E(东), S(南), W(西), N(北), P(停车场), WC(厕所), RD(路), etc.

B. *Borrowing under the Fidelity Rule*

Chinese and English are quite different languages but sometimes they share similar functions. Hefa Lv (2004, p.40) holds that because of the stringent standard, normalization and pertinence, the C-E translation of public signs should use the signs with the same function to have a one-to-one translation in both Chinese and English cultures. Besides, under the guidance of the fidelity rule, the translation is required to be faithful to the source text and the degree and form of faithfulness are determined by the translation purpose and the translator's understanding of the source text. Thus, in terms of the corresponding function and fidelity rule, the strategy of borrowing can be adopted in the public signs translation, which means expressions with equal function and consistent significance from English can be borrowed directly in translating Chinese public signs. For instance, “不可回收垃圾” can be translated into “Non-recyclable”, “售票处” can be translated into “Ticket Office” and “禁止抽烟” can be “No Smoking”. In addition, public signs such as “请勿入内”, “游客止步” and “闲人免进” which share the same meaning and function can be translated into “No Entry” or “Staff Only”, appropriately indicating that visitors are not allowed to enter. Through borrowing the native English expression, the translation will not only meet the needs of the readers, but also achieve the purpose of communication. Therefore, the method of borrowing is not only in line with the fidelity rule but also conforms to the skopos rule.

C. *Adaption under the Coherence Rule*

Translation is a cross-culture activity and thus the differences between Chinese and Western cultures should be taken into account in the process of public signs translation. However, differences of people's daily behaviors, ways of thinking and understanding of the same thing can be embodied in both Chinese and English expressions. For example, Chinese people are more indirect while Westerners are more straightforward. The Skopos rule holds that translators should adopt different translation strategies according to the intended purposes of the target texts. And the coherence rule stresses that the translated text should conform to the usual way of expression of the target language, understood and accepted by the target readers with different cultural backgrounds so as to achieve the communicative function. Therefore, according to the way of expression and cultural background of the target readers, a proper adaption can be adopted in public signs translation, which is also in accord with Skopos rule and coherence rule. For example, the literary signs in the scenic spots “心触一方净土, 爱博一片蓝天” can be translated directly into “Keep the environment clean”. In this way, the effective information is conveyed to foreign tourists. The same is true of the sign “绿色是生命的象征, 爱护是文明的体现”. It is translated into “Green is the symbol of life. Care is the manifestation of civilization” which is quite redundant in English. The suggested version is “Please keep the environment clean” as the above example. In addition, if the sign “小草正睡觉, 请勿打扰” is translated directly into “The Grass Is Sleeping, Please Don't Interrupt”, the foreign tourists may be puzzled and confused. Consequently, according to the coherence rule, adaption can be adopted and this sign can be translated into “Keep Off the Grass”, which is more in line with English way of expression.

VI. CONCLUSION

As one of the leading metropolises in China, the tourism industry in Guangzhou has maintained sustainable development. Public signs play an essential role in promoting tourism economy and spreading tourism culture. However, there are still a lot of problems in the translation of public signs in scenic spots and Guangzhou is no exception. This study, by gathering a great many examples of public signs in major scenic spots in Guangzhou, makes detailed analysis of the translation from the linguistic and pragmatic aspects and finds that translators and the authorities concerned are both responsible for the translation quality of public signs. Translators should have strong bilingual competence and strong sense of responsibility. Besides, they should be culturally aware of both source and target languages used in public signs in the translation process. The authorities concerned at the same time should take some measures in regulating and standardizing the public signs translation. Additionally, more scholars, experts, teachers, students and even Guangzhou's citizens can be encouraged to find, correct the mistakes and make advices for the public signs translation. It is also found that Skopos theory is practicable and useful in the C-E translation of public signs, which lays stress on the response of target readers and holds that the communicative purpose should always take priority while public sign is a kind of text for communicative aims. Consequently, it is feasible to apply Skopos theory in the C-E translation of public signs in scenic spots in Guangzhou. To conclude, this paper, briefly introducing the public signs and Skopos theory, which offers the theoretical guidance for the C-E translation of public signs, has made a further exploration on the translation problems presented in scenic spots in Guangzhou. By giving some suggested C-E translation methods and strategies, it is hoped that this study can provide some implications for pedagogical application and be helpful for those who follow closely public signs' translation.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study is supported by Maoming Social Sciences Association Grant (grant number: 2019YB09) and Department of Science and Technology of Maoming (grant number: 2019431)

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An Investigation Into the Implementation and Selection of Literary Texts to Teach Reading Skills in EFL Classes: The Case of Preparatory Schools in Awi Zone, Ethiopia

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Abstract—This study was conducted to investigate the selection and implementation of literary texts for teaching of reading skills in English as a foreign language classes in preparatory schools in Ethiopia. In doing so, descriptive survey design was employed. To collect data, observation, questionnaire, interview and text analysis were used as data collection tools. Using simple random sampling technique, 30 grade 11 English teachers for questionnaire and 6 teachers for observation and interview were selected. Text analysis was also used to evaluate the suitability of literary texts. The study revealed that literary texts designed in grade 11 English textbook are not suitable for the students' age, interest, cultural background, social background, linguistic proficiency and literacy background. The reading tasks have almost no pre-reading activities, some while-reading activities and plenty of post-reading activities which are not well designed. Besides, EFL teachers perceived that literary texts are important to facilitate the students' reading classes but they were limited in using literary texts meaningfully. The study also revealed that difficulty level of literary texts, unfamiliarity of the cultures from texts, lack of interest, lack of reading experience and students' limited vocabulary were the major difficulties that hindered the proper use of literary texts in reading lessons.

Index Terms—literary texts, reading skills, selection, suitability, implementation

I. BACKGROUND

A. Introduction

Teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) in Ethiopia is a challenging task which has many constraints. For many years, Ethiopia has followed the traditional approaches of teaching English language. As a result, English as foreign language (EFL) teachers were unable to achieve the goals of teaching English language. According to Freeman (1986), traditional approaches of teaching English language discourage the active involvements of students.

From the 1840s to 1940s, English language teaching was chiefly dominated by grammar translation method (GTM). Stern (1983: 454) states "*Grammar translation lays little or no emphasis on the speaking and listening to second language.*"

Due to the above drawbacks, GTM has been highly criticized since it focuses on deductive ways of presenting grammar rules for the students. Later on, communicative language teaching (CLT) was introduced in 1950s. Freeman (1986) notes that in a communicative language classes, students are actively engaged in negotiating meaning in trying to make themselves understood even when their knowledge of the target language is incomplete.

To make the language teaching conducive, EFL teachers should use varieties of communicative techniques. Among the techniques, teaching language through literature is one way of improving students' language skills. As Lazar claims "*Literature enriches the language input in classroom and stimulates acquisition by providing meaningful and memorable contexts for processing and interpreting new language* (1993: 17)." The use of literature as a technique for teaching language skills is very popular within the field of foreign language learning and teaching.

Among the genres of literature, literary texts are appropriate to teach reading skills. Through literary texts, students can read, understand and enjoy the literary texts. Abdollah (2012) describes that literary texts are meaningful, authentic and relevant to learners' lives. Literary texts are rich in metaphor, simile and allusion, and these are the elements which deepen students' understanding of the literary texts. Therefore, students are inspired in reading literary texts to learn language in real life situations.

To use literary texts effectively, appropriate selection and implementation should be considered. Abdollah (2012) also adds that the selection of literary texts in relation to the needs, expectations, interests and language level of the students become significant. Thus, teachers need to focus on choosing appropriate literary texts and implementing

appropriately.

B. Statement of the Problem

Although literary texts are valuable for students' language learning, they have been given less emphasis. Based on the researchers' experience, EFL teachers and students have given less attention for the literary texts; they also sometimes skip literary texts and focus on grammar contents.

Furthermore, different indigenous researchers have conducted studies on the same issue. For instance, Hanna (2016) conducted a study on the role of short stories in developing reading comprehension skill at Minilik II Preparatory School. Yenealem (2014) conducted a study on assessing teachers' and students' views regarding the role of literary texts in enhancing students' language use at Mena Secondary School. In addition, Alene (2012) conducted a study on teachers' and students' views towards using literary texts in reference to grade 12 at Aboker Preparatory School. By considering the gaps of the above studies, this study was made unique in its scope and variables. For instance, those studies did not focus on grade 11 EFL teachers, and none of them focused on the selection and implementation of literary texts to teach reading skills.

C. Objectives of the Study

This study mainly aimed to investigate the selection and implementation of literary texts to teach reading skills in EFL classes. Specifically, the study had the following specific objectives:

- To examine the appropriateness of literary texts to teach reading skills
- To determine the perception of EFL teachers towards the use of literary texts.
- To assess grade 11 EFL teachers' use of literary texts to teach reading skills in EFL classes.
- To identify the challenges of implementing literary texts to teach reading skills.

D. Research Questions

From the above specific objectives, the following questions were formulated.

- How appropriate are the selected literary texts to teach reading skills for grade 11 students?
- What is the perception of EFL teachers towards the use of literary texts?
- How do EFL teachers use literary texts to teach reading skills in EFL classes?
- What are the challenges of implementing literary texts to teach reading skills?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Design of the Study

The researchers employed a descriptive survey research design that included both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis techniques. For this study, qualitative method of data collection and analysis was more important to describe the nature of the problem thematically. Hence, quantitative data was used to support the qualitative data since embedded design of mixed method of research was employed in this study.

B. Sampling and Sampling Techniques

The populations of this study were grade 11 EFL teachers at preparatory schools in Awi Zone. There were 61 grade 11 EFL teachers in all preparatory schools of Awi Zone. Among all EFL teachers, 30 grade 11 EFL teachers were selected for questionnaire from different preparatory schools by using simple random sampling technique. Similarly, 6 grade 11 EFL teachers for observation were selected by using simple random sampling. Moreover, the researchers also included these 6 observed EFL teachers for interview by using purposive sampling. This means, these EFL teachers who were observed were also interviewed to triangulate the data.

C. Data Gathering Instruments

So as to conduct this study, classroom observation, questionnaire, interview and textbook analysis were employed.

1. Classroom Observation

The classroom observation was conducted to check whether EFL teachers implemented literary texts to teach reading skills in EFL classes while the actual instruction was going on. For the purpose of classroom observation, qualitative observation checklist was employed.

2. Questionnaire

The purpose of administering questionnaire for EFL teachers was to examine the perceptions of EFL teachers towards the use of literary texts in EFL classes. The researchers adapted the questionnaire from Hana's (2016) study. The researchers prepared 30 close ended and 3 open ended items for sample grade 11 EFL teachers.

3. Interview

The purpose of this interview was to examine grade 11 EFL teachers' practices and challenges of using literary texts in reading lessons. In this study, semi-structured interview was conducted for selected EFL teachers.

4. Textbook Analysis

Textbook analysis was used to check whether grade 11 English textbook included suitable literary texts to teach

reading skills. This tool was also used to evaluate the selection of literary texts designed to teach reading skills. They were evaluated based on the students' linguistic background, cultural background, background knowledge, age, interest, literacy background and linguistic proficiency.

D. Validity and Reliability of Instruments

To ensure the validity of the instruments, data collection tools were given to different people to check whether they were valid or not. Two experienced MA teachers were invited to examine the instruments. Consequently, some items of these tools were modified and others were omitted according to the suggestions and comments provided by these scholars. The researchers used pilot testing to check the reliability of the questionnaire. Then, they checked the overall reliability of the scale by using Chronbach alpha coefficient by using statistical package for social science (SPSS) version-20 and the result was 0.82. This result demonstrates that the instrument has good reliability.

III. DATA ANALYSIS

A. Analysis of EFL Teachers' Classroom Observation

The first focus of observation sessions was to see whether EFL teachers focused on the linguistic features of literary texts while teaching reading through literary texts. As the researcher observed lessons of reading through literary texts, four EFL teachers were not focusing on linguistic features of literary texts. These teachers did not give attention to linguistic elements of literary texts while two EFL teachers defined vocabularies which were found in the literary texts. For instance, T3 defined some key words in the poem (Acoli cooking) on page 162. These words were "*millet, dug, sweating, gourd, mounds, and gravy*". Then, he defined these words to make the poem clear for the students.

Similarly, T5 in the story (The tale of a tap) on page 198 wrote key words (*light heart, foggy head, tossed, gurgle and humanity*) on the blackboard and gave equivalent meaning for these words. These EFL teachers only used some new words from the literary texts to define them for the students instead of focusing on other linguistic features of the language. However, the remaining four EFL teachers did not focus on the grammar use, pronunciation and style of language in the literary texts. For instance, T6 focused on the content knowledge of literature and plot structure. He explained,

There are basic elements of fiction in a given story. These are setting, plot, story, character, conflict and point of view. The setting is the place and time of a story, and the plot is the structure of conflict based on certain causes. The plot has also its own structure like exposition, rising action, climax, falling action and resolution. (T6)

Although discussing the content knowledge of literature was important, linguistic knowledge of the students should also be focused. EFL teachers did not give attention for the students' language learning because they simply forwarded questions designed on the literary texts and proceeded to the next sections. From the observation data, we can deduce that EFL teachers gave little emphasis to linguistic features of literary texts to teach reading skills.

The second point of observation was to examine whether EFL teachers encouraged the students to express their feelings and opinions to make connections between their own personal experiences with those expressed in the texts. Concerning this item, the researcher observed that two EFL teachers asked the students to express their feelings, opinions, attitudes, experiences and thoughts by comparing their own with the text. Even though it was not sufficient, they encouraged the students to express their personal experiences towards the literary text. For instances, T1 and T3 tried to ask the students to express their experiences and feeling towards the literary texts. For example, T1 asked the students "*What is your feeling about the poem? What are the feelings? Say something please.*"

During observation, these two EFL teachers asked the students to express their feelings and experiences on the literary texts. The remaining 4 EFL teachers did not ask the students to express their experience and feeling with respect to the cultures in the literary texts.

Therefore, we can deduce that EFL teachers did not ask the students to express their feelings, attitudes and experiences towards the literary texts. They did not give attention for the students' experiences and feelings. Even there were various questions on the textbook that asked the students to express their feeling, attitudes and experiences about the literary texts, but teachers did not ask them to do those tasks. For instance, let us look at the questions which were related to the students' experiences, attitudes and opinions in the textbook.

- *In your opinion, why was Maria a better student than her half-brothers? (p: 46, item: 4)*
- *What is your opinion of a) Oweka and b) Maria's mother? (p: 46, item: 4)*
- *Have you ever seen the scorpion? (p. 75)*
- *Have you ever been stung by the scorpion/snake? (p. 75)*
- *What would you do if you were stung by the scorpion/snake? (p. 75)*

Therefore, EFL teachers should have asked at least these questions to assess their opinions, attitudes and experiences towards the literary texts. However, EFL teachers did not practice such activities that could ignite the students' interest during the reading lessons.

The other point of observation focused on whether EFL teachers explained the social, political, cultural and economic aspects of the literary texts to the students so as to convey the intended meanings of the literary texts. During

observation sessions, EFL teachers did not mention the political, social, cultural and economic backgrounds of the literary texts. As it is well known the social, cultural, political and economic backgrounds of the literary texts are the key to make the literary texts easy to understand. However, EFL teachers simply did only the activities. Even, there were various questions in the textbook that asked the students to express their culture and the cultures in the literary texts. For example:

- *In what ways is the culture depicted in this text: a) similar and b) different from your culture?* (p. 45)
- *This poem is set in India. How similar is the scene described with the neighbors and the holy man around the mother in her agony similar to what happen in your culture* (p. 64).

Like the above questions, EFL teachers could have asked the students to express their cultural view towards the literary texts, but EFL teachers did not explain the socio-economic, political and cultural backgrounds in the texts. Probably, students could understand the literary texts if EFL teachers explained the background information of the literary texts. To sum, the researcher did not observe when teachers gave background information about the texts by their own. They gave little information which was written on the textbook, and they did not provide sufficient information for the students to make the texts easier to understand. For instance, T3 gave the background information of the poem: *Two Worlds* which is listed on the textbook as “*The poem is written by American girl. That girl is disabled. So what do you understand here?*” similarly, T1 gave the background information about the texts as “*This poem written [sic] by an American girl with a disability.*” Thus, EFL teachers were limited in giving background information about the literary texts, and they only dictated the information stated in the textbook.

B. Analysis of EFL Teachers' Questionnaire

TABLE-1
RESPONSES RELATED TO THE APPROPRIATENESS OF LITERARY TEXTS TO TEACH READING SKILLS FOR GRADE 11 STUDENTS

| No | Items | SA | | A | | U | | D | | SD | | Total | |
|----|--|----|------|----|-------|---|-------|----|-------|----|-------|-------|-----|
| | | F | % | F | % | f | % | F | % | F | % | f | % |
| 1 | Literary texts in the textbook are proportional when compared to non literary texts to teach reading skills. | 1 | 3.33 | 4 | 13.34 | 4 | 13.34 | 17 | 56.66 | 4 | 13.33 | 30 | 100 |
| 2 | Literary texts in the textbook are suitable for students' social background. | 2 | 6.67 | 8 | 26.67 | 2 | 6.66 | 17 | 56.66 | 1 | 3.34 | 30 | 100 |
| 3 | The text book provides sufficient stages of reading activities (pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading) while using literary texts. | 3 | 10 | 12 | 40 | 2 | 6.66 | 9 | 30 | 4 | 13.34 | 30 | 100 |
| 4 | Literary texts are balanced in different genres of literature in grade 11 English textbook. | 1 | 3.34 | 7 | 23.33 | 3 | 10 | 15 | 50 | 4 | 13.33 | 30 | 100 |

(Key: SA=Strongly Agree A=Agree U=Undecided D=Disagree SD=Strongly Disagree f = frequency)

When we observe the responses given to item 1 in the above table, 1 (3.33%) of the respondents strongly agreed that literary texts in the textbook are proportional to teach reading skills, and 4 (13.34%) other respondents agreed. On the contrary, 17 (56.66%) and 4 (13.33%) of the respondents responded ‘strongly disagree’ and ‘disagree’ respectively that literary texts in the textbook are proportional when compared to non literary texts to teach reading skills while 4 (13.34%) of the respondents remained undecided.

When we examined the responses given to item 2 in the same table, 2 (6.67%) of the respondents strongly agreed that literary texts in the textbook are suitable for students' social background. 8 (26.67%) of the respondents agreed that literary texts are suitable for grade 11 students where as 17 (56.66%) of the respondents disagreed that literary texts are suitable for the students' social background. 1 (3.34%) of the respondents also strongly disagreed that they are suitable for grade 11 students social background while 2 (6.66%) of the respondents remained undecided.

As we can see item 3, 3 (10%) of the respondents strongly agreed that the textbook provides sufficient stages of reading activities (pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading) while using literary texts. The other 12 (40%) of the respondents also agreed that the textbook contains the stages of reading activities while using literary texts in reading lessons while other 2 (6.66%) respondents left undecided. On the other hand, 9 (30%) and 4 (13.34%) of the respondents responded ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’ respectively. That means, 13 respondents believed that the textbook does not provide pre reading, while reading and post reading activities while using literary texts in reading lessons.

Item 4 shows that 1 (3.34%) respondent strongly agreed that literary texts are balanced in different genres of literature in grade 11 English textbook, and 7 (23.33%) of the respondents agreed up on this item. On the other hand, 15 (50%) respondents disagreed and 4 (13.33%) respondents strongly disagreed that literary texts are balanced in different genres of literature in grade 11 English textbook while 3 (10%) respondents did not decide.

From the above data we can deduce that literary texts are not proportional to non-literary texts; literary texts are not suitable for the students' social background. The textbook does not provide stages of reading activities on literary texts, and literary texts are not balanced in genre.

TABLE-2
RESPONSES RELATED TO THE PERCEPTIONS OF GRADE 11 EFL TEACHERS IN USING LITERARY TEXTS TO TEACH READING SKILLS IN EFL CLASSES

| No | Items | SA | | A | | U | | D | | SD | | Total | |
|----|---|----|-------|----|-------|---|-------|---|-------|----|-------|-------|-----|
| | | F | % | F | % | F | % | F | % | F | % | F | % |
| 5 | Students have an opportunity to use literary texts for literary appreciation. | 4 | 13.34 | 9 | 30 | 3 | 10 | 9 | 30 | 5 | 16.66 | 30 | 100 |
| 6 | Literary texts are open for multiple interpretations | 4 | 13.34 | 14 | 46.66 | 7 | 23.33 | 4 | 13.34 | 1 | 3.33 | 30 | 100 |
| 7 | Help to improve their knowledge of figurative speeches. | 7 | 23.34 | 12 | 40 | 6 | 20 | 5 | 16.66 | - | - | 30 | 100 |
| 8 | Literary texts help the students to get implicit meaning through reading beyond the lines. | 11 | 36.66 | 15 | 50 | 4 | 13.34 | - | - | - | - | 30 | 100 |
| 9 | I enjoy teaching reading skills by using literary texts like poems, short stories and novels. | 7 | 23.34 | 15 | 50 | 2 | 6.66 | 5 | 16.66 | 1 | 3.34 | 30 | 100 |
| 10 | It is good opportunity for students to link their experiences with the experiences in the literary texts. | 11 | 36.66 | 15 | 50 | 3 | 10 | 1 | 3.34 | - | - | 30 | 100 |

(Key: SA=Strongly Agree A=Agree U=Undecided D= Disagree SD=Strongly Disagree f = frequency)

According to item 5 in the table above, 13 (43.34%) of the respondents (4 strongly agreed and 9 agreed) supported the item that students had an opportunity to use literary texts for literary appreciation. On the other hand, 14 (46.66%) of the respondents (5 strongly disagreed and 9 disagreed) disagreed that students had an opportunity to use literary texts for literary appreciation. 3 (10%) respondents left undecided. Therefore, 13 (43.34%) of the respondents have the perception that students have the opportunity to use literary texts for literary appreciation.

Item 6 in the same table shows that 4 (13.34%) of the respondents strongly agreed and 14 (46.66%) of the respondents agreed that literary texts are open for students for multiple interpretations while learning reading skills while 7 (23.34%) of them remained undecided. On the contrary, 4 (13.34%) respondents disagreed and 1 (3.34%) respondent strongly disagreed that literary texts are open for students for multiple interpretations while learning reading skills. From this empirical data, we can understand that 18 (60%) respondents agreed that literary texts are open for multiple interpretations to learn reading.

Based on item 7, 7 (23.34%) respondents strongly agreed and 12 (40%) of the respondents agreed that students improve their knowledge of figurative speeches by using literary texts in reading lessons. 5 (16.66%) of the respondents disagreed that students improve their knowledge of figurative speeches by using literary texts in reading lessons while the other 6 (20%) of them remained undecided. So, item 7 tells us that students can improve their knowledge of figurative languages through literary texts.

According to item 8 in the above table, 11 (36.66%) of the respondents strongly agreed and 15 (50%) of the respondents agreed that using literary texts help the students to get implicit meaning through reading beyond the lines. Whereas 4 (13.34%) of them left undecided, and none of the respondents disagreed on this item. Therefore, from this item we can deduce that using literary texts help the students to get implicit meaning through reading beyond the lines.

As item 9 deals with, 7 (23.34%) of the respondents strongly agreed and 15 (50%) of them agreed that they enjoyed teaching reading skills by using literary texts like short stories, poems and novels where as 6 (20%) of the respondents disagreed that they enjoyed teaching reading skills by using literary texts. The other 2 (6.66%) respondents were unable to decide. Again, in this item we can deduce that they enjoyed teaching reading skills through literary texts.

As we can see from item 10, 11 (36.66%) of the respondents strongly agreed and 15 (50%) of the respondents agreed that it is good opportunity for students to link their experiences and the experiences in the literary texts. The other 3 (10%) of the respondents were unable to decide, and 1 (3.34%) respondent disagreed that it is good opportunity for students to link their experiences and the experiences in the literary texts. From this item, it can be concluded that literary texts create good opportunities for students to relate the experiences of the texts with their own experiences.

To sum, from the above items (5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10) we can deduce that literary texts had opportunities for students for literary appreciation; they were open for multiple interpretation; they improved students' knowledge of figurative speeches; they enabled the students to get implicit meaning from the reading text; literary texts are enjoyable for teaching reading skills, and they created good opportunity to link the experiences of texts with the students' experiences. As a result, EFL teachers had positive attitudes towards using literary texts in reading lessons. They perceived that literary texts were important to facilitate language learning and teaching, and literary texts enabled the students to get implied meanings from the texts by providing certain clues.

TABLE-3
RESPONSES RELATED TO EFL TEACHERS' IMPLEMENTATIONS OF LITERARY TEXTS TO TEACH READING SKILLS IN EFL CLASSES.

| No | Items | SA | | A | | U | | D | | SD | | Total | |
|----|--|----|-------|----|-------|---|-------|----|-------|----|------|-------|-----|
| | | F | % | F | % | F | % | F | % | F | % | f | % |
| 11 | I involve the students in literary texts emotionally to learn target language by focusing on personal experiences. | 5 | 16.66 | 22 | 73.34 | 2 | 6.66 | 1 | 3.34 | - | - | 30 | 100 |
| 12 | I direct the students to analyze literary texts to their real life situations. | 7 | 23.34 | 17 | 56.66 | 2 | 6.66 | 2 | 6.67 | 2 | 6.67 | 30 | 100 |
| 13 | I encourage students to associate the themes of the literary texts with their personal experiences. | 9 | 30 | 17 | 56.66 | 3 | 10 | 1 | 3.34 | - | - | 30 | 100 |
| 14 | I focus on the themes of literary texts while using literary texts. | 3 | 10 | 19 | 63.34 | 3 | 10 | 5 | 16.66 | - | - | 30 | 100 |
| 15 | I link the literary texts and the biography of the author with the literary elements. | 2 | 6.66 | 18 | 60 | 5 | 16.67 | 5 | 16.67 | - | - | 30 | 100 |
| 16 | I explain the background information about the literary texts for the students to convey the intended meanings. | 4 | 13.34 | 10 | 33.33 | 2 | 6.66 | 13 | 43.33 | 1 | 3.34 | 30 | 100 |

(Key: SA=Strongly Agree A=Agree U=Undecided D= Disagree SD=Strongly Disagree f = frequency)

As we understand from the responses given to item 11 in the table above, 5 (16.66%) of the respondents strongly agreed and 22 (73.34%) of the respondents agreed that they involved the students in literary texts emotionally to learn target language by focusing on personal experiences. On the other hand, 1 (3.34%) respondent disagreed and the other remaining 2 (6.66%) of the respondents were unable to decide. Item 12 tells us that 24 (80%) respondents (7 strongly agreed and 17 agreed) agreed that they directed the students to analyze literary texts to their real life situations to make meaningful interpretations. The other 4 (13.34%) of the respondents responded that they did not direct the students to analyze literary texts to their real life situations while the remaining 2 (6.66%) respondents left undecided.

Based on the information from item 13, 9 (30%) of the respondents strongly agreed and 17 (56.66%) of the respondents agreed that they encouraged students to associate the themes of the literary texts with their personal life experiences. The other 3 (10%) of the respondents were unable to decide and 1 (3.34%) respondent disagreed with this idea. In item 14, 3 (10%) of the respondents strongly agreed and 19 (63.34%) of the respondents agreed that they focused on the themes of literary texts while using literary texts. The other 5 (16.66%) of the respondents responded that they did not focus on the themes of literary texts, and the remaining 3 (10%) respondents were unable to decide.

As we can see from item 15 in the same table, 20 (66.66%) of the respondents (6.66% strongly agreed and 60% agreed) agreed that they linked the literary text and the biography of the author (intentions, situations and the setting in an author's life) with the literary elements. On the other hand, 5 (16.66%) of the respondents disagreed that they linked the biography of the author, and the remaining 5 (16.66%) respondents left undecided. Item 16 shows that 4 (13.34%) of the respondents agreed strongly that they explained the background information about the literary texts for the students to convey the intended meanings. 10 (33.34%) of the respondents also agreed with this idea where as 14 (46.66%) of the respondents disagreed that they explained the background information about the literary texts for the students to convey the intended meanings. 2 (6.67%) respondents were unable to decide.

From the above data, we understand that EFL teachers involved students in literary texts emotionally by focusing on personal experiences; they directed the students to analyze literary texts to their real life situations to make meaningful interpretations; they encouraged students to associate the themes of the literary texts with their personal experiences; they focused on the themes of literary texts while using literary texts; they linked the literary text and the biography of the author, and they did not explain the background information about the literary texts for the students to convey the intended meanings. Although the background information like political, social, cultural and economic situations of the texts are important for the students to understand the texts, EFL teachers did not explain background information about the literary texts.

C. Analysis of EFL Teachers' Interview

The first item was asked to determine the appropriateness of literary texts for the students' age, interest, cultural background, linguistic background, linguistic proficiency, literacy background and social background. Each of the interviewees responded as follow:

The first teacher (T1) claimed *"Most of the time, literary texts do not fit students' ability, students' capacity and cultures. Students are not involved in a good manner. Most of the time literary texts are beyond their capacities."* The second teacher (T2) also argued *"The literary texts are not appropriate, they reflect the external world. They cannot appropriately touch the students' culture, and they are not designed based on their culture. As a result, Students cannot understand the meaning."* Similarly, the third teacher (T3) said *"Literary texts are not suitable for students' background level and linguistic proficiency because students do not have background information about the texts. They are far from the students' culture."*

Moreover, the fourth teacher (T4) also pointed out *"Literary texts are especially appropriate for their age, but they are new for their cultural background. Especially, the languages that are used in literary texts are too difficult for them to understand even for the teacher."* Besides, the fifth teacher (T5) asserted *"The literary texts are not well designed and suitable for the students. Literary texts do not fit in terms of their age, their interest, cultural background, linguistic*

background and their linguistic proficiency. The vocabularies in the literary texts are not plain for the students' level, so they are unable to understand the literary texts." The sixth teacher (T6) stated *"The literary texts in the text book are not prepared by considering the students' multi cultural background; they are not capable of understanding the language what is written in the literary texts, they are not interesting; they do not match with the students' cultural background and linguistic background."*

From the responses above, we can conclude that literary texts designed on grade 11 English textbook are not suitable for the students' age, interest, cultural background, linguistic background, linguistic proficiency, literacy background and social background. They are not selected by considering the students language ability, interest, culture and literacy background.

The second item dealt with whether EFL teachers gave background information about the literary texts so as to make multiple interpretations of the texts or not. In this item, the biography of the author, historical, political, cultural and social backgrounds of the literary texts were asked. Let us look at the responses of interviewees here under.

T1 responded *"I do not give students any information about the text because students are not reading when I give some necessary information before reading."* Similarly, T2 said *"I did not give sufficient background information for the students, and I sometimes told them about the characters and the plot structures of the literary texts."* T3 replied *"I tried in such a way, but the background of the author is far from the students' background. So, I tried but no longer at all. I tried to tell them the cultural and political information but that is not much."*

In addition, T4 replied *"If there are some hints in a given literary text, especially during the pre reading activities, I discuss some points with my students. Unless and otherwise, I did not do such activities in my own. Even, I skip the literary texts when I am in hurry."* T5 also said *"I did not tell the authors' information since I did not know most authors. I explained the characters and the plot structures of the texts, but I did not do much about the background information about the literary texts."* On the other hand, T6 replied *"I give background information about the literary texts."*

From the above discussion, most of the interviewees described that they did not give sufficient background information about the literary texts to make multiple interpretations of the texts. However, two EFL teachers said that they tried to give such background information about the texts although it was not much enough. Hence, we can conclude that EFL teachers had limitations on giving background information about the literary texts, and they were not willing to give extra information for the students.

The third item described whether EFL teachers gave opportunities for the students to express their own personal feelings, emotions, opinions and experiences on the literary texts. The responses of each interviewee are summarized as follow:

T1 replied *"Sorry, most of the time I do not give because the texts are very long and huge, and the time is not enough to do the activities. So, it is impossible to give chances for the students to express their own feelings."* On the other hand, T2 said *"I try to give a chance to express what they feel."* T3 also said *"At the very beginning, I have already given opportunity and I share my experiences."*

Furthermore, T4 described his practice as *"I simply do the exercises which are listed in the literary texts. Unless and otherwise, I did not ask them to say something concerning on the points."* On the other hand, T5 responded *"Most of the time I try to give the student to express their feelings, their emotions and their opinions without any frustration."* Like T5 did T6 responded *"I just make the students read the text and I forced them to forward their feeling. Even I tried to express my personal opinion and experience in relation to the text."*

From the above data, majority of interviewees said that they did not give opportunity for the students to express their feelings, opinions and experiences about the literary texts. On the other hand, minority of respondents (T5 and T6) said that they forced the students to share their experiences after they had read the literary texts. Therefore, it can be deduced that most EFL teachers did not give opportunities for the students to express their own personal feelings, emotions, opinions and experiences on the literary texts.

The last item focused on the challenges that faced while using literary texts to teach reading in EFL classes. EFL teachers mentioned their challenges that faced while using literary texts in EFL classes as follow. T1 replied *"The first challenge we experience that we depend on only grammatically parts and we ignore these literary texts. The next one is the preparation of literary texts by themselves; I think they are difficult for students' ability and background knowledge."* T2 also pointed out *"Literary texts are very broad for the students. The students cannot understand them. It is difficult to get the meanings from the literary texts to relate their lives."* Besides, T3 stated *"The students have no interest on literary texts. They are not [sic] background information about literary texts. The task by itself is difficult. There is no Amharic and English fiction in our school."*

Furthermore, T4 stated *"The first barrier is the students' lack of interest. The second difficulty is the language usage in the literary text especially in poems; the language usage is difficult for the students, even for the teacher. And the other difficulties are the culture where the literary text is taken from."* Similarly, T5 replied *"One challenge is that the students are not familiar with literary texts; the second is the students are not interested; another problem is also cultural unfamiliarity of the texts."* T6 also stated *"What challenged them are the inability to understand literary texts easily and language difficulty. Basically the language is difficult that enables to understand the poem as easily as possible."*

Based on the above data, the challenges of using literary texts to teach reading skills were summarized as follow. Students were unable to understand the literary texts; students have no interest to read literary texts; they do not have background information about literary texts; the tasks are difficult, and students are not familiar with the cultures of texts. Besides, there are no literary texts in the schools, and teachers ignore literary texts. Furthermore, the languages in the literary texts are difficult to understand; literary texts are too long for the students; the linguistic expressions are difficult, and literary texts are beyond the students' level of intellectual maturity.

D. Analysis of Literary Texts and Their Activities

Poem: Night of the Scorpion (p.74)

The poem is written by one of Indian famous poet: Ezekiel Nissim. It describes what happened when the writer's mother was stung by the scorpion. It is 48 lines long, and relatively the poem is too long to understand the text within a given time. Since it is very long, it is not attractive and enjoyable for grade 11 students. One of the characteristic features of a poem is that a few selected and powerful words should be used. On the contrary, this poem contains many words which are not selected properly. As a result, students are not interested by the poem.

The culture which is depicted in the poem is not related to the students, and it is not practiced by the students. Due to this reason, the culture is unfamiliar for the students. Rarely, such situations can occur in dessert areas of Ethiopia in which persons are stung by scorpion and snake, but in most areas, there is no scorpion. The social structure of the society in the poem is nearly similar to the students' environment. For instance, when in challenge, the community gathers together to help the persons who are in need. Likewise, when the mother was stung by the scorpion, the villagers gathered together and perform their cultural traditions. For example, *"The peasants came like swarms of flies and buzzed the name of God a hundred times to paralyze the Evil one (line- 8)."*

Besides, the expressions are complex for grade 11 students to understand easily because there are difficult words in the poem. As a result, students are not familiar with such kind of poem even in their environments. Since they are new for such text, the theme is also irrelevant for the students, and it is not related to the students' real life experiences.

However, this poem can improve the students' language awareness, and it creates positive language learning environment like grammar and vocabulary. The poem can also expose the students to unexpected, complex and fresh language structures, and it enables the students to think critically. Since the source is available in the textbook, students can get the full version to read the rest parts of the poem in and out of the school.

The poem does not have pre reading activities that enable the students to create interest. There is only one single instruction before reading the poem: *"Read the poem and then do the exercises below"*. This instruction does not create interest for the students; rather, it commands what they are going to do next. Many pre reading activities should have been designed concerning to this poem. For example:

- a) *Have you ever seen the scorpion?*
- b) *Have you ever stung by the scorpion/snake?*
- c) *What would you do if you are stung by the scorpion/snake?*
- d) *What treatments should be given for the one who is stung by the scorpion?*

However, the poem contains while reading and post reading activities. Particularly, the poem contains many post reading tasks than while reading activities. Some instructions are not clear not only for the students but also for the teachers. For example: *"Do you know why it would have been very serious if one of the children had been bitten by the scorpion rather than their mother (item 4a)?"* Moreover, there are too many questions in one instruction. Instead of assessing different tasks by integrating the language skills, numerous items are designed in an instruction. For example, there are 10 items (A-J) in the first instruction, and there are also 11 items (A-K) in the third instruction. Too many similar items can make the students bored with the questions. However, the activities are integrated each other. Through reading the poem, speaking and vocabulary activities are included. For example:

"Find words meaning the following in parts of the poem indicated."

- a) *Like a devil, cruel and wicked (line 1-9)*
- b) *To make something unable to move (line 01-19) and so on."*

The activities assess the students' cultural background, and attempt is made to relate the culture of the poem with the students' culture. For example: *"This poem is set in India. How similar is the scene described with the neighbors and the holy man around the mother in her agony similar to what happens in your culture (item 4d)."* The activities also relate the poem with their feelings, attitudes, thoughts and personal experiences. For instance, *"Have you or someone close to you ever been bitten by a scorpion, or dangerous insect, spider or snake? Describe what happened (item 4e)."* The activities also enable the students to evaluate the intentions of the author, and they are left for the students for multiple interpretations.

Story: The Tale of a Tap (p. 199)

This text is mainly designed to teach reading skills. The text is not attractive so as to create the students' interest to read the whole text on the textbook. The text does not consider the students' language proficiency as it is full of long

sentences. The sentences are difficult not only for the students but also for the teachers. Reading two pages of unfamiliar text in a period is not an easy task for the students, and it is left tiresome to understand the text since the text is too long to read.

The text does not also consider the students' cultural and social background. The text is extracted from 'Drum Magazine' in West Africa. So, how could Ethiopian students with limited language proficiency understand the central meaning of the text? Actually, scarcity of water supply is the issue for the people, but the way of expressions in this tale is different from that of Ethiopians. Since the students do not understand it very well, students remain passive throughout the lesson. Although exposing the students with natural uses of language is a good opportunity, it is difficult to comprehend the text by their own. The students are not also given chances to express their feelings, attitudes and personal experiences. They are simply ordered to read the text and do the comprehension questions.

Unlike the text, the activities are clear to understand for the students. The items are simple enough to answer the questions, and they are comprehensible for the students' level of intellectual maturity. The activities assess the students' cultural background and background knowledge of the text. They are asked to reflect their own feelings, experiences and thoughts. For example:

- *What would you do if you had been in the writer's situation?* (item 1)
- *Do you find the story amusing? Give reasons for your answer.* (item 1)

The instructions are also clear what to do, but it lacks pre reading activities. Students are directly required to read the text without igniting their interest about the topic. Students are not exposed to the pre reading stage and they are told to read the text without any background information.

Poems: Two Worlds, Palm Leaves of Childhood and Why the Old Woman Limps

These three poems on pages 240, 243 and 252 respectively are designed to teach reading skills. These poems are designed in the foreign contexts, and students are not familiar for these texts, but the issues that they raise are familiar for the students. They deal with disability, childhood memory and burdens of women respectively. When compared to the former poems in the textbook, these poems are interesting and enjoyable for the students. They are short enough to transmit messages, and they give sense when they are read. The cultural, political and social problems raised in the poems are familiar for the students. Students are also familiar for such types of poems in their locality, and they are impressed by these poems. The texts fit the intellectual maturity of the students to understand by their own because the texts enrich the students' feelings, attitudes, opinions, thoughts and experiences.

The students can develop their language by reading these poems. Students are also exposed to the new, fresh and unexpected uses of language, and they can benefit from the poem very much. They also expand the students' language learning and critical thinking ability. Besides, these three poems are short enough to create images on the students' minds. For instance, 'Two worlds' is written by an American girl with disability. She describes her challenges by saying 'Two Worlds'. She also states her sorrow for being disabled. For example:

*Tears flow...
Unknowingly both push away,
Rejected, made to feel
Unbelonging... (p. 240)*

On the contrary, on the third poem (*Why the old woman limps*), there is a culture of milking goats and selling their milk. In Ethiopian context, milking goats is not familiar trends except some of the desert areas. For example,

*"Each day she milks the goat, sells the milk to buy soap,
Feeds and washes the children, and tethers the goat."*

Conversely, the burdens of grandmother are common for the students. The grandmother based on the students' culture has various tasks to do for her grand children. She has to look after them, feed them and wash them while her sons and daughters are outside the house.

The activities are designed in clear and simple ways. Students can easily understand the activities, and tasks are comprehensible for the students to answer comprehension and discussion questions. The activities assess the students' cultural background, and students are requested to express their feelings, opinions and experiences. For example,

- *Discuss your feelings about the poem (p. 240)*
- *To what extent are there people in Ethiopia who live similar lives to this old woman?*
- *What is your opinion of the poem? (p. 253)*

Moreover, the instructions are clear for the students to answer. As a result, students are free to express their feelings, and the poems enable the students to develop intellectual, motor and social skills. On the other hand, the poems do not have pre reading activities while there are few while reading tasks. Most activities are listed under the post reading stages. The activities are highly integrated with language skills.

From the data, literary texts and their activities are not suitable for the students, and they are not designed based on the students' interest and needs. They are designed without considering the students' culture, experiences and feelings. In addition, the activities are also designed without involving the students' needs, and they lack pre reading and while reading tasks.

IV. FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Findings

Based on the analysis and discussions of the study, the following main conclusions were made.

- Literary texts designed in grade 11 English textbook are not suitable for the students' age, interest, cultural background, social background, linguistic proficiency and literacy background, and they are not selected by considering the students' needs.
- The reading tasks on literary texts are not designed for the improvements of the students' reading skills. They have no pre-reading activities, some while-reading activities and plenty of post-reading activities which are not well designed; some activities lack clear instructions, and some of them are not comprehensible for grade 11 students.
- Grade 11 EFL teachers had positive perception towards using literary texts to teach reading skills. They perceived that literary texts are open for multiple interpretations; they improve the students' knowledge of figurative speeches; they enable the students to get implicit meaning from the reading text, and they are enjoyable for teaching reading skills.
- However, the actual practices of using literary texts to teach reading skills were unsatisfactory. Although EFL teachers perceived that literary texts are important to facilitate the reading classes, they did not practice literary texts meaningfully. The perceptions of EFL teachers towards using literary texts did not match with their actual practices. As a result, EFL teachers sometimes skipped the literary texts by ordering the students to read by their own.
- Difficulty level of the literary texts and their tasks, unfamiliarity of the cultures from texts, idiomatic expressions from the texts, lengthy of texts, vague instructions of tasks, lack of interest, limited reading experiences, lack of background information about the texts, unable to make texts interesting and unable to modify literary texts were the major difficulties that faced students and EFL teachers while using literary texts in reading lessons. These challenges highly hinder the proper use of literary texts to teach reading in EFL classes.

B. Recommendations

Based on the conclusions made above, the following recommendations were suggested.

- Textbook writers and syllabus designers should revise grade 11 English textbook to have literary texts that consider the students' age, interest, cultural background, social background, linguistic proficiency and literacy background.
- Textbook writers, syllabus designer and EFL teachers need to supervise the literary text based activities to have well designed pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading tasks with clear instructions so as to make the reading through literary texts comprehensible for the students.
- Instead of skipping, EFL teachers should practice every literary text and their tasks on the textbook by providing students with cultural, political, social, economic and literary background information of the literary texts to make the reading lessons understandable for the students.
- EFL teachers have to give opportunities for the students to express their feelings, opinions, personal experiences and real life situations on literary texts to make sense of texts in reading lessons.
- Students should engage themselves in reading different literary texts and reading activities to improve their reading performances, to increase their vocabulary and to familiarize the texts for themselves.

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Problems in Perception Content-based Learning Materials for Chinese EFL Learners

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Abstract—This article explores the problems that EFL learners may encounter when they perceive content-based learning materials. The main questions include: (A) Will inferior reading skills or improper use of learning strategies affect these problems? (B) What are the characteristics of the specific linguistic of reading comprehension that initiate academic problems? (C) How does the learner's learning strategy cause or initiate problems? The data used in this research are learners' midterm exam scores and the frequency of learning strategies employed by students. Including qualitative data in the form of student statements obtained from unstructured participatory interviews, in a descriptive and qualitative way based on content-based reading skills theory and learning strategies, this article will conduct a comprehensive analysis of these materials. As a result of data analysis, there is a situation in which the problems encountered by English readers in understanding content-based learning materials are initiated by inferior reading ability and improper application of learning strategies. The linguistic features of reading comprehension that initiate this problem are the lack of understanding of grammatical features, the low level of vocabulary acquisition, the lack of awareness of sensory construction, and the problems of discourse comprehension. The problems encountered when dealing with learning strategies are improper use of learning strategies, unclear learning goals and poor learning habits.

Index Terms—problems, EFL learners, content-based learning materials

I. INTRODUCTION

In addition to successfully read the materials in reading classroom activities, another main goal of having reading subject at the English Department of Nanchang Business College (NCBC), Jiangxi Agricultural University is to enhance learners to read content-based learning materials the teachers offered. To obtain the academic goal is not an easy job since reading in English as a foreign language (EFL) may face linguistic and non-linguistic obstructions. The linguistic factors usually encountered by EFL learners, such as lack of vocabulary, problems in understanding grammatical rules of the foreign language, inferior basic performance of reading, and inferior level of perception discourse/text are not only naturally encountered by beginners but also by intermediate and pre-advanced learners. On the other hand, the non-linguistic factors such as inappropriate learning strategies, bad reading techniques employed, negative motivation in reading, no sufficient facilities of teaching-learning processes of reading are the classic problems which should be overcome carefully.

According to Masuhara (Tomlinson, 2007), several approaches to the teaching of L2/FL reading have been developed by experts since 1980s to 1990s. The famous approaches are the reading comprehension-based approach, the language-based approach, the skill/strategy-based approach, and the schema-based approach. In addition to the approaches, Masuhara (Tomlinson, 2007) put forward an alternative approach to materials for teaching reading. The alternative method presents four principles, namely: (i) engaging affect should be the major concern of reading materials; (ii) listening to a text prior to reading it helps decrease linguistic demands and enhances learners to concentrate on meaning; (iii) reading comprehension means obtaining multidimensional mental acquisition in the learners' mind; and (iv) materials should assist readers scan the text first before they focus their mind on its language. The approach to materials for teaching reading disputed by Masuhara involves the principles for acquiring reading skills for basic to advanced level of EFL reading. It may serve the reading skill to understand content-based learning materials at university level obtains the four principles of reading materials of reading subjects offered to the learners.

In the teaching-learning processes of language education, especially at the English Education Department of NCBC, Nanchang, the subjects offered in the curriculum can be academically classified, based on learning materials, into skill-based subjects and content-based subjects. The content-based subjects, such as those of linguistic subjects need better skill on reading comprehension, unless the learners mostly obtain inferior academic achievement, then. Based on the result of a research conducted in 2018/2019, most students were not successful enough in perception content-based learning materials. The content-based learning materials are mostly available in reading passages and it is doubtless that reading comprehension skill is highly needed. In fact, however, most students came across serious problems in

perception reading passages (reading materials), particularly the reading passages of *Language Assessment* subject as the research addressed to.

Actually, the students who took the content-based subjects, in this case *Language Assessment*, had already taken the pre-requisite subjects involving language skills which led them to be able to read the materials well. They had learned and passed *Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing, (English) Grammar, Introduction to Linguistics, Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, and Semantics-Pragmatics*, at least in intermediate levels. It is theoretically supposed that the learners are no longer having serious problems to learn content-based subjects. The learners would have had enough vocabulary, reading comprehension competence, and critical thinking to read and to understand the learning materials of the content-based subjects. In reality, the assumption and expectation could not be successfully gained. In the teaching-learning processes of *Language Assessment* subject, the students majored in English are to read and comprehend the reading passages as recommended in syllabus and instructional programs. The students are in high activities to finish reading tasks and they should be in critical thinking to obtain important information appeared in the passages.

In accordance with the reading problems faced by the university students, several questions may be asked in order to understand why the problems came up. The answers for those questions are possibly used to draw appropriate ways to solve the relevant problems. This study, which is further developed from the result of a research conducted in 2018/2019, particularly discusses the causes of *EFL learners' problems in understanding content-based learning materials* at the English Department of NCBC Nanchang. The subject matter was limited to the teaching-learning processes of *Language Assessment*. In more specific items, the data analysis and discussion are based on three major questions: (i) *are those problems influenced by inferior reading method or unsuitable employ of learning strategies?*; (ii) *what are the peculiar linguistic characters of reading skills producing the academic problems?*; and (iii) *how did the readers' studying strategies bring about the problems*. The argument is aimed at revealing the facts the question raised and to formulate reasonable *problems solving for the EFL learners' problems in perception content-based learning materials*.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED THEORIES

A. Reading in a Foreign Language and Language Learning Strategies

Even though reading activities are mostly targeted at perception of the written passages, it is not seriously questioned any longer that reading in L1, L2, or FL may have different problems and difficulties. Reading in a foreign language for its learners, let's say reading in English, frequently finds the phenomena of shortage of practice time for learners who are required to deal with studying a new language and to read for content (Dhieb-Henia, 2006). Accordingly, in some subjects, namely in those of content-based subjects, English is the medium of instruction and a transporter of content information. Consequently, the EFL learners face both language and comprehension problems when they are reading English passages. In this case, it is certain that reading in a foreign language is more difficult compared with reading in L1 and L2.

The ideas of metacognition have been discussed and proposed by many as good methods to overcome classic problems and difficulties in EFL reading, including reading the content-based materials. Apart of that, metacognition, as a linguistic theory, can also be seen as the learning strategies. Metacognition can be understood and defined as: "cognition of cognition" (Carrell, Pharis, and Liberto, 1989); "the conscious awareness of cognitive processes (Bernhardt, 1991); and "knowledge about learning (Dhieb-Henia, 2006). Then, William and Burden (1997) quoted by Dhieb-Henia (2006) mention that metacognitive strategies include an ability to control and regulate consciously the employ of appropriate learning strategies for different situations. They involve an awareness of one's mental processes and a capability to reflect on how one studys, in other words, being aware of what one's knowing. Dhieb-Henia (2006) argues that as applied to reading, these strategies of metacognitive require specifying a purpose for reading, planning how the text will be read, self-revising for mistakes in reading comprehension, and self-evaluating how well the overall objectives are being fulfilled, which allows for taking corrective measures if comprehension is not being achieved.

Students' reading competence can be enhanced when they discover and use specific learning strategies, but it should be memorized that there must be a clear rationale for using specific strategies (1990). According to Johnson (1996), language studying strategies are worthwhile addition to the challenging task of learning and instructing a second and/or foreign language. The metacognitive strategies and metacognition approach are meaningfully applied to improve the reading skill at intermediate and advanced level, such at university level. They are probably applicable for the activities of reading content-based learning materials. Above all, it is essential for the university students to have sufficient understanding on linguistic features used in the reading passages and appropriate-specific learning-reading strategies.

Theoretically, powerful learners are those who are going to be successful. Powerful learners have expanded repertoires of strategies for obtaining education. They know how to profit from a wide range of learning opportunities, from lectures and readings, from collecting and analyzing information and building concepts and theories, and from working together cooperatively (Joice et.al., 1992). Superior learners are able to acquire and set the information and concepts into their long term memory so that they are all becoming knowledge of the subjects learned as the result of the learning processes of content-based subject, as the *Language Assessment* has.

Reading, as an active process of understanding information embodied in a passage or text, needs ability to read thoroughly. Grabe and Stoller (Celce-Murcia, 2001) state that the capability to read – taking overall comprehension as the example – requires that the learner draw information from a text or passage and combine it with information and expectations that the learner already obtains. Sufficient and optimal comprehension after reading a text needs linguistic and non-linguistic factors involved in the text. Therefore, effective readers will use linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge and competence while they are reading in order to gain optimal comprehension. In the learning view point, working with passages means working written language with specific characteristics. Brown (2016) simply mentions the characteristics of written language which include the linguistic and non-linguistic features. The written language is characterized by permanence, processing time, distance, orthography, complexity, vocabulary, and formality. The categories of orthography, complexity, vocabulary, and formality are more on linguistic features, in nature. Linguistic features in a reading text, as in a content-based learning material, need to be understood as the language with such characteristics as opposed to spoken language. The misunderstanding of such characteristics may lead readers to have inferior level of comprehension.

The language competences in a foreign language are intentionally supported by the language awareness, the increasing consciousness and sensitivity in learners to the forms and functions of language (Cartier in Bourke, 2008, P.13). Bourke (2008) argues that an impressive body of research shows that learning consciously also builds interlanguage, one's interim grammar in the mind. Interlanguage has to grow and develop; otherwise rigidity sets in and learners may show over familiar symptoms of a "grammar gap". In reading activities, such as in reading content-based learning materials, the EFL learners have to acquire language awareness and they need to optimally employ it while reading.

B. Content-based Learning Materials for University Students

The term instruction has been used by language methodologists and teachers in the same sense with learning. It seems that the term instruction is commonly used instead of learning in many current references. Although they are similar in general point of view, the term learning comes up more on the students' side, but instruction can be generally regarded as the matters of instructors' side. Theoretically, instruction is used by teachers and experts in order to focus on the learning's and instructional teachers' sides of learning courses. However, the argument on the content-based learning materials for university students in this part can be formally begun with the ideas and concepts of learning and instruction as well.

The materials of teaching-learning at university level, say at the English Department of NCBC Nanchang, can be categorized as content-based materials and skill-based ones. Snow (Celce-Murcia, 2001, P.303) says that the phrase and word content has had various interpretations throughout the history of L2 teaching, but she herself defines the content as the employ of subject matter for second/foreign language teaching purposes. Subject may refer to topics or theories depended on learner's interest or need in an adult, EFL setting or the subjects that students are studying in their elementary school classes. In this study, the meaning of content stated by Snow is adopted because the main instructional purpose of *Language Assessment* subject – the subject learned by the research sample – is to prepare the students for the types of academic problems they come across in their university.

Content-based (also known as "content-centered") language teaching, particularly at university, integrates the learning of some specific subject-matter content with the learning of a second (foreign) language. The overall structure of a content-based curriculum is dictated more by the nature of the subject matter than by language forms and sequences. Then the second/foreign language, is simply the medium to convey informational content of interest and relevant to the learner (Brown, 2001, P.234). On account of this, the content-based subjects offered to learners at university level. As for the English students in NCBC Nanchang, may be the subjects having close relation to the language learning materials or the subjects dealing with teachers training.

In the sense of content-based instruction, Nunan (in Celce-Murcia, 2001) states that content-based instruction comes in many different guises. However, all variations share one common characteristic – language is not presented directly, but is introduced through the content of various subjects. In school situations, this content is typically the regular subjects in the curriculum such as science, geography, and mathematics. Learners acquire the target language in the course studying. Then, patterns and models for content-based instructions are also variously proposed by experts and researchers. Snow (in Celce-Murcia (ed.), 2001:303) states that content-based models can be found in both the foreign and second language settings. Patterns of content-based instruction vary in implementation due to such elements as educational setting, program goals, and target population. All share, however, a common point of departure – the integration of language teaching aims with subject matter instruction.

The ideas above imply that the content-based instructions are the learning materials and/or subjects offered to students in different levels involving subject matters dealing with knowledge instead of skills. In some materials of content-based instructions, language competences are still partially involved, but most of the contents are knowledge and ideas. Therefore, Snow (in Celce-Murcia (ed.), 2001:305) states that models of content-based instruction can be distinguished from each other by several different means. One is by setting; some models are typically implemented in the foreign language setting while others are common in second language context. Another way to distinguish content-based models is by instructional level; elementary school level and secondary or post-secondary levels with

adolescents or adults. A third way is to look at the degree of emphasis on language and content which underlies a particular program.

III. RESEARCH METHODS

As it has been previously mentioned, this paper is derived from and a further development of a research conducted in 2018/2019 academic year, at the English Department of NCBC Nanchang. The research was carried out in the design of a descriptive-quantitative method; it was descriptive in method and quantitative in approach. In the research, the data were in the forms of scores on learning strategies applied by the students in *Language Assessment* subject. The analysis was done in order to argumentatively describe and explain the data in order to have the current portrait of learning strategies used by learners of EFL at the time they were learning a content-based instruction, *Language Assessment*. The procedures of research were initiated by collecting the data through questionnaire distribution and those data were classified in such a way to have classification, tabulation, and quantitative analysis. The conclusion was drawn based on the classification, tabulation, and simple statistical formula (Gay and Airasian, 2000; Gay, Mills, and Airasian, 2009).

The population of this research was all English Department students of NCBC administered as the third year students in 2018/2019 academic year who were taking *Language Assessment* subject. There were 130 students as the population of this research. Considering that it was not necessary to involve all population in the research, a two-stage convenience sampling technique was conducted to select the sample. To select the sample, the researcher chose one group of students. Then, among all members of that group the researcher chose the students who firstly took the *Language Assessment* subject. As a result of sampling, 30 students were chosen as the sample of the research and all of them were sitting at group C.

The instrument of the research was a questionnaire dealing with learning strategies habitually applied by learners (research sample) in following a content-based instruction, *Language Assessment*, consisting of 20 items. The items were consulted to other lecturers of both skill-based and content-based subjects at the English Department of NCBC in order to have experts' scientific opinion and reliable assessment.

The data were collected by using the instrument mentioned above in the following practical steps. Firstly, the researcher as also the lecturer of *Language Assessment* subject asked the students to respond to the items in the questionnaire by making a tick (√) in a suitable space of the table provided in the questionnaire. Secondly, the researcher prepared three tables of students' responses in accordance with the three categories of learning strategies being studied. Thirdly, the researcher read each student's responses, filled out the table of responses, and counted the frequency of each type of response. Finally, the researcher measured the percentage of each type of the response. After the data were collected, they were quantitatively analyzed by means of appropriate statistical formula. The following are the steps followed as the technique of data analysis: (1) each group of data was classified and tabulated into a table which contains the explanations, frequency of being selected, and the percentage; (2) the frequency and the percentage of each category and type of data were described and interpreted as argumentatively as possible to answer the research problems and research questions; (3) the accommodation of all quantitative description, explanation, and interpretation was drawn as the research findings and conclusion. In addition to quantitative data, as the major ones collected in the research, this paper includes the data based on a short direct-practical interview with 5 students selected as informants in order to have qualitative data. The qualitative data were collected after the research was conducted and they are intentionally used for this present paper.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

It is reasonably stated that most students of English Department of NCBC had serious problems and difficulties in understanding content-based learning materials, in this case, reading passages/texts used for *Language Assessment* subject. Then, *are those problems and/or difficulties affected by inferior reading skill or inappropriate use of learning strategies?* In order to answer this question, let's firstly see the following tables as the summaries of data collected showing the learning strategies (or learning style) used by the learners in pre-classroom activities, in-classroom activities, and post-classroom activities.

TABLE 1
STUDENTS' PRE-CLASSROOM LEARNING STRATEGIES

| No | statement | Selected Frequency | | | | | | | |
|----|---|--------------------|------|----|------|----|------|----|------|
| | | TP | | JR | | SR | | SL | |
| | | Σ | % | Σ | % | Σ | % | Σ | % |
| 1 | I read the objective of each studying table before reading the chapter. | 1 | 2.7 | 1 | 2.7 | 7 | 18.9 | 28 | 75.7 |
| 2 | I read the objective of every studying item before reading the chapter. | 0 | 0 | 23 | 62.2 | 13 | 35.1 | 1 | 2.7 |
| 3 | I read the whole chapter from the beginning to the end. | 4 | 10.8 | 16 | 43.2 | 13 | 35.1 | 4 | 10.8 |
| 4 | I understood all the reasons I read. | 2 | 5.4 | 22 | 59.5 | 13 | 35.1 | 0 | 0 |
| 5 | I wrote down what I understand in my own words. | 10 | 27.0 | 14 | 37.8 | 13 | 35.1 | 0 | 0 |
| 6 | I wrote the sentence in the book of understanding. | 4 | 10.8 | 24 | 64.9 | 6 | 16.2 | 3 | 8.1 |
| 7 | I discussed the lecture with my friends before the lecture was conducted. | 7 | 18.9 | 22 | 59.5 | 6 | 16.2 | 2 | 5.4 |
| 8 | I wrote a summary of the course (reading report) as quickly as possible. | 1 | 2.7 | 11 | 29.7 | 19 | 51.3 | 6 | 16.2 |
| 9 | I read the summary I have written. | 8 | 21.6 | 16 | 43.2 | 13 | 35.1 | 0 | 0 |
| 10 | I recorded incomprehensible material to ask at class. | 9 | 24.3 | 15 | 40.5 | 9 | 24.3 | 4 | 10.8 |

The data summarized in Table 1 above tell that in pre-classroom learning strategies, there are three dominant learning strategies applied and/or used by the students. The first one was most students (75.7%) always read every title of chapters before reading the content of each chapter they learned. The second dominant pre-classroom learning strategies applied by the students were that they seldom: (i) read and understand the goals (objectives) of learning; (ii) understand and comprehend the content they read; and (iii) discuss the materials and problems they faced with friends before coming to classroom. These data inform that most students did not have good reading comprehension on main points of concepts and theories. The third dominant pre-classroom learning strategies habitually used by the students was taking notes and writing summary. This good learning strategy is theoretically good and mostly essential for content-based instruction including, of course, *Language Assessment*.

The problem is that such useful strategy was only seldom applied by most students. Moreover, they seldom read the notes and summaries. They also seldom discussed the problematic concepts and theories with peers or inquired the teacher in classroom discussion. The information obtained through short-informal interview reveals that the lack of preparation before entering classroom activities frequently occurred in the teaching-learning processes of this content-based subject.

TABLE 2
STUDENTS' IN-CLASSROOM LEARNING STRATEGIES

| No | statement | Selected Frequency | | | | | | | |
|----|--|--------------------|------|----|------|----|------|----|------|
| | | TP | | JR | | SR | | SL | |
| | | Σ | % | Σ | % | Σ | % | Σ | % |
| 1 | I listened to the presentation from the beginning to the end. | 0 | 0 | 2 | 5.4 | 12 | 32.4 | 23 | 62.2 |
| 2 | I understood all the material of my presentation. | 1 | 2.7 | 18 | 48.6 | 18 | 48.6 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 | I asked the presenter for the material that I do not understand. | 13 | 35.1 | 8 | 21.6 | 15 | 40.5 | 1 | 2.7 |
| 4 | The answer to the presentation adds to my understanding of the subject. | 0 | 0 | 14 | 37.8 | 17 | 45.9 | 6 | 16.2 |
| 5 | I listened to the additional explanations or clarifications given by the lecturer. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 13.5 | 32 | 86.5 |
| 6 | I understood all the additional explanations clarification given by the lecturer. | 0 | 0 | 4 | 10.8 | 22 | 59.5 | 11 | 29.7 |
| 7 | I recorded all additional explanations / clarifications given by the lecturer. | 0 | 0 | 12 | 35.1 | 13 | 35.1 | 11 | 29.7 |

There were also three dominant in-classroom learning strategies applied by students (data in table 2 above). The first one is that almost all students listened to the presentation in classroom presented by their friends. However, some students did not fully understand the materials of presentation; this is of course a serious problem faced by students if the classroom activities were in the form of seminar. The second dominant in-classroom learning strategy used by the students is that they seriously listened to lecturer's additional explanation and clarification after the classroom seminar. It seems that the students were highly expecting to wait for the lecturer's additional explanation and theoretical confirmation. The third dominant in-classroom learning strategy used by the students is noting down all additional explanation and clarification seriously. The data indicate that some students were diligent to take notes and they felt that it was good to have good scores (marks) at the end of semester. In other side, the data and information obtained tell as well that they did not reread their notes or summaries at home. Unfortunately, some others did not make good notes and even few of them made no notes at all.

TABLE 3
STUDENTS' POST-CLASSROOM LEARNING STRATEGIES

| No | statement | Selected Frequency | | | | | | | |
|----|---|--------------------|------|----|------|----|------|----|------|
| | | TP | | JR | | SR | | SL | |
| | | Σ | % | Σ | % | Σ | % | Σ | % |
| 1 | I read back to each lecture after the lecture. | 9 | 24.3 | 20 | 54.1 | 8 | 21.6 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 | I have completed lecture notes. | 2 | 5.4 | 13 | 35.1 | 16 | 43.2 | 6 | 16.2 |
| 3 | I read all the lecture notes as preparation for the exam. | 0 | 0 | 6 | 16.2 | 9 | 24.3 | 22 | 59.5 |

For the students' post-classroom learning strategies, the learning problems obviously appeared. More than 70% students did not reread their notes and summaries after the class. They did finish the activities of taking notes, but they did not reread the notes once the class was over. The data also indicate that all students had lecturing notes and summaries in the forms of individual styles. However, they did not reread the notes in order to build and develop their perception on concepts, theories, and application of *Language Assessment* instruction. Other data tell that almost all students just read their notes for the preparation of examination as the midterm and final-term tests. These ways of the application of learning strategies are not academically and scientifically good and cognitively helpful for content-based instructions.

The data description and analysis as displayed above reveal that learners' problems and/or difficulties in understanding the content-based learning materials can be stated as the logical consequences of both inferior level of reading skill and inappropriate uses (choices) of learning strategies. They had not sufficient reading comprehension yet before they had to read reading passages of the content-based learning materials. Moreover, the learners did not use and apply the appropriate learning strategies in pre-classroom, in-classroom, and post-classroom activities. The conclusion is also empirically supported by qualitative data obtained through short direct-practical interview to the students decided as the informant for qualitative data. The learners did not use the metacognitive approach and metacognitive strategies in reading the content-based learning materials as recommended by Dhieb-Henia (2006) and Masuhara (Tomlinson, 2007).

Additional data used in this paper obtained by means of short direct-practical interview with 5 students tell that they faced serious problems dealing with linguistic features of reading text they were reading. There are, at least, three specific-linguistic features causing the EFL learners to get problems to optimally understand the reading passages of content-based learning materials. Problem of vocabulary is the first specific-linguistic feature which caused the learners' problem in understanding content-based learning materials. It is supposed that the learners did not have sufficient vocabulary mastery to read the passages used for content-based learning materials. The second specific-linguistic features causing the problems in reading the content-based learning materials is grammatical problems. The learners told that grammatical features in the levels of phrasal, clausal, and syntactical constructions in English made them face serious problems when they were reading. The next specific-linguistic feature which raised the problem in reading content-based learning materials is the problem of deriving and drawing relevant conclusions based on reading passages. This is a type of problems in discourse understanding. The learners were difficult to take main information delivered by the text.

The learners' learning strategies and problems in engaging in linguistic features used in the passages of content-based learning materials are logically supposed to bring about the academic problems. It is obvious that the specific-linguistic features used in passages are relevant with the contents and level of the passages. Based on the curriculum and syllabus used for *Language Assessment* subject at the English Department of NCBC Nanchang, it has been academically considered the content-based learning materials are appropriately used. The materials had been well selected to be suitably used for the level of students. As the candidates of EFL teachers, the learners have to read and understand the learning materials well. The linguistic factors are those of problems that should be overcome through academic efforts.

It may be argued in this paper that learners' learning strategies used in pre-classroom, in-classroom, and post-classroom activities gave significant influences to the EFL learners in understanding content-based learning materials. The inappropriate learning strategies habitually used and applied by the learners affected their level of comprehension on the content-based learning materials in two main ways. Firstly, the learning strategies habitually used by the learners cannot build and develop language awareness and textual understanding as the students did not prepare themselves before coming to the classroom. In addition, they did not activate their critical thinking and cognitive processes during the classroom activities because they were just waiting for lectures' explanation and having personal notes. This is more on academic and habitual problems in taking content-based subjects in general. Secondly, the learning strategies they used were operationally based on cultural behaviors of the learners. They did not want to move on other academic-intellectual learning habits. This point is more on problem of socio-cultural features and personal habits which are not relevant to use in the teaching processes at university level.

V. CONCLUSION

The EFL learners' problems in understanding content-based learning materials found at the English Department of NCBC Nanchang, are problems of both reading skill and learning strategies. In relation to the fact, it is necessary for the lecturer to inform to the students that suitable learning strategies give significant contribution to learning achievement. In addition, the students need to be ensured that the appropriate learning strategies should be variously applied in learning, not only for examination and scores, but also for better science and knowledge. This information is highly needed in order that the students gain a better understanding on the relevant concepts and theories of content-based instructions. It may be stated as well that the teaching learning processes of reading and writing skills should be reviewed and greatly developed in order that the students would have had essential reading and writing skills before learning content-based instructions.

The information and discussion about learning strategies, particularly about those which concern with language learning, should be informed and introduced to the students in order that they have perception on (language) learning strategies and are able to select and employ effectively for various learning instructions. It is also suggested to the principals of English Department and the lecturers as well to review, to revise, and to develop better teaching-learning processes of reading and writing skills. It is also necessary to improve students' motivation to learn English grammar and to add vocabularies as the methods to have better understanding on content-based instructions. The lecturers of content-based instructions need to select and use appropriate classroom methods and teaching techniques. The lecturers of content-based instructions have to design and develop structural-systematic tasks, homework, and particular assignments which make students to study seriously at home and in library. In addition, the learning programs assigned should make students learn independently.

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Critical Discourse Analysis of Political Discourse — A Case Study of Trump's TV Speech

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Abstract—Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is an effective method of the discourse analysis. It is aimed at analyzing the special relationship between power and the traditional ideology in implied discourse. Traditional discourse analysis always analyzes the structure and composition of discourse in terms of linguistic features, CDA makes language analysis more creative. It deeply explores the inherent potential of language and systematically interprets the deep meaning of discourse. This paper will take the specific corpus, namely Trump's TV speech, as the language material, Halliday's systematic functional grammar as the theoretical basis, and physicality, modality and personal pronoun as the framework. This paper studies how speakers in political speech use language to shorten the distance between people and win people's affirmation and support from the aspects of transitivity analysis, modality analysis and personal pronoun.

Index Terms—CDA, systemic-functional grammar, transitivity, modality, personal pronoun

I. INTRODUCTION

Political speech is "a kind of speech in which people state one's position, expound opinions and propaganda propositions in the state's internal affairs and external relations" (Li & Zou, 2003, p.29). The researchers showed that "in order to build a good image of the party in the public and create favorable conditions for its future development in the political field, the speaker would skillfully use certain language skills and strategies" (Zhang, 2005). The concept of ideology (Geng, 2012) has been interpreted by Napoleon, Marx, Al Jammeh, Antonio Gramsci and many others since it was first proposed by The French philosopher Destutt de Tracy, but it has a new meaning in today's critical discourse analysis. It refers to a belief and value shared and taken for granted by social groups (Ding & Liao, 2011, p.101).

CDA studies the relationship between language, power and ideology, and expounds how discourse originates from and serves the social structure and power relations (Xin & Gao, 2013). Discourse is a form of social practice in which language reflects power relations and reappears ideology in the social context (Tian, 2009, p.7). It has obvious ideological function. As an important political discourse, political speech is interwoven with power and power operation, so it is a focus of this kind of research. Taking the critical discourse theory as the framework, the critical discourse analysis method as the methodology, and the TV speech of US President Trump as an example, this paper will explore the deep meaning of transitivity, personal pronouns and modality in this political discourse.

II. THE THEORETICAL BASIS AND RESEARCH METHODS OF CDA

A. Critical Discourse Analysis Theory

CDA, also known as critical linguistics, began with the concept of "critical linguistics" proposed by Fowler et al. (1979) in the late 1970s. Fairclough (1989) began to pay attention to the phenomenon of social rights in discourse, which opened the prelude of critical discourse analysis. CDA believes that the essence of discourse is social practice, which is not only restricted by social practice, but also counter-productive. It can actively construct social practice and play a role in constructing social identity, social relations, knowledge and meaning system (Ji & Xin, 2009). There is a close relationship between language and culture. Language is a basic and important part of a specific culture and has an essential and irreplaceable influence on culture (Hu, 2002, p.176). Language can indirectly affect users' thinking and behavior to some extent through a large amount of preset information. Such a conventional language system and its coded meaning system will lead to the "legalization" of ideology (Xin, 2005, p.39). Under the appearance of linguistic form, the subtle relationship between language, power and ideology is implied in the discourse, especially the popular discourse, and how the ruling class uses language to realize ideological control and maintain its dominant position. The core task of CDA is to expose the essence behind the linguistic representation, that is, to enhance people's language awareness, improve their ability to appreciate and criticize the use of language, and deal with the increasingly extensive intervention of language in modern life with a critical eye (Xin, 2002). Therefore, popular discourse and official discourse have become the main research objects of CDA. By exploring the deep ideological meaning of popular discourse, CDA reveals the intricate connections between discourse and social structure and social relations, as well as the bias and potential unequal power expressed by discourse in political discourse, and finally raises people's awareness of resisting the abuse, domination and inequality of social power.

B. Critical Discourse Analysis Methodology

Halliday's systemic-functional linguistics is regarded as the most important analytical tool in critical discourse analysis, and the relationship between the two can be traced back to the 1970s. Halliday's systemic functional linguistics holds that people choose languages according to the social functions carried by language forms when they use them, which is quite consistent with the theoretical hypothesis of CDA. Therefore, CDA methodology is mainly based on systemic functional linguistics. Halliday believes that language has three meta-functions, namely, conceptual function, interpersonal function and discourse function. These three functions meet the three needs of language users, namely, describing the experience of the objective world, constructing social relations and confirming identity, and organizing discourse (Zeng, 2009). The function of concept is mainly reflected by transitive system. Interpersonal function is mainly reflected by mood structure and modal system, modal verbs, adjectives, adverbs, personal pronouns and substantive verbs can all express modal meanings (Xin, 2005).

III. CORPUS ANALYSIS

A. Transitivity

Transitivity is a semantic system whose function is to "enable people to see how the speaker expresses his or her inner world and his or her views of what is happening in the real world through transitivity". Transitivity mainly reflects the conceptual function of language, which expresses people's experience of the real world and the inner world in several processes. Halliday thought that the system of transitivity can divide human experience into six different processes: Material Process, Mental Process, Relational Process, Behavioral Process, Verbal Process, and Existential Process (Hu, 2008, p.75). Which process the speaker prefers to use is ideologically driven, which means that the emphasis in the presentation is different. The six processes are shown in Table 1:

TABLE 1
SIX PROCESSES OF A PHYSICAL SYSTEM

| procedural type | material process | mental process | relational process | verbal processes | behavioral process | existential process |
|-----------------|------------------|--------------------|--|------------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| core meaning | do, happen | sense, thought | Attribution, identification | talk | behavior | existence |
| participant | movement, goal | feeler, phenomenon | Carriers and discriminators; Symbol, value | Speaker, receiver, utterance | | the existent |

Material processes and relational processes more effectively express the reality of the objective world and the relationship between objective things, so they are favored by speakers. The President's speech has a specific political purpose, and the speaker usually uses material and relational processes to enhance the objectivity of his speech content and make it more convincing. There are a total of 116 sentences in the whole text, and each process appears, mainly material process and relational process, with the number of 86 and 30 respectively, accounting for 57.7% and 20.1% of the total clauses. According to statistics, the material process occupies a large proportion, but there are also related processes, the two are interlocked and arranged properly, each material process has to achieve the purpose of the speaker's speech. Through the summary and analysis of the article, it can be seen that the speaker mainly involved in the material process to enhance people's empathy, so as to win people's support and affirmation. For example, when he mentions the member of Congress who was wounded by a gunman, he is careful about his choice of words. He used some words such as "beloved, embody, dedicated, devoted, committed" to embody the spirit of him as a member of parliament, serving the people wholeheartedly and not fearing the sacrifice. Many positive words, such as fight for, pull for, pray for, pledge to him our full and total support, are also used in the description of the attitude of people towards the hero, which highlights that all Americans are encouraging, praying for and giving them fully enough support for the injured people and demonstrates flexibility in language selection.

Relational processes are the most direct means of evaluation or judgment in transitivity systems (Hodge & Kress, 1979, p.113). Examples of typical relational processes in the discourse are selected below for analysis.

(1) what unites us is so much stronger: our love of country, our devotion to its people.

(2) Let us always remember that our job is to serve and represent the whole American People – and that we are all children of the same God.

(3) They will become brilliant technicians who revitalize American manufacturing.

They will become welders who forge from fire, amazing works of iron and steel and art.

And they will become entrepreneurs who revolutionize entire industries.

(4) Today, this is the message I want every young American to hear: there is dignity in every honest job, and there is nobility in every honest worker.

(1) Government defines the relationships that bind us together are the love of our country and the people. (2) A noun phrase defines the job of government is to serve and represent the People of the United States. We are all children of the same God. (3) It is a definition of the financial support and job information that this speech is intended to convey. They will become outstanding technicians, welders who will use fire to create outstanding works of steel and art, and

entrepreneurs who will revolutionize industries. (4) Every job has dignity and every honest worker is noble. It expresses Trump's respect for working people. What he wants to build is a government of the people's sovereignty and full exercise of the power of the people.

B. Modality

A modal verb

The modality system expresses the interpersonal function, the speaker's judgment on the validity of his/her proposition in statements and questions, the obligation demanded of the other party in the command and the personal will expressed in the proposal (Zhang, 2005, p.192). Modality system is one of the important means to express interpersonal meaning by expressing the intermediate degree or state between positive and negative. Halliday believes that modality is often reflected through modal verbs, modal adverbs and a mixture of the two (Halliday, 1994, p.362). Modality reflects the speaker's judgment on the authenticity of his or her proposition, the enforceability of its requirements, and the willingness to be expressed in the proposal (Li & Zhong, 2002). Modal verbs are a way of expressing modal meaning. In this paper, we mainly study the use of modal verbs. There are 643 words in Trump's speech, among which 11 are modal verbs, accounting for 1.7% of the total vocabulary. The usage of modal verbs is as follows:

TABLE 2
FREQUENCY OF MODAL VERBS USE

| modal verb | Will | must | can | need | should |
|------------|-------|------|-----|------|--------|
| number | 9 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| frequency | 81.8% | 9.1% | 0% | 9.1% | 0% |

The use of modal verbs in speeches plays an important role in the presentation of special meanings. Generally speaking, "can" and "will" are mainly used when talking about government preferences or achievable goals that voters in the United States can enjoy, while "should", "need" and "must" are often used to emphasize the position of the United States and what the country is doing for the people. The more obvious examples in the text are as follows:

(1) Under our plan, young Americans will have a pathway to exciting and fulfilling careers.

They will become brilliant technicians who revitalize American manufacturing.

They will become welders who forge from fire, amazing works of iron and steel and art.

And they will become entrepreneurs who revolutionize entire industries.

(2) Every day, as your President, I will be committed to this goal.

(3) Now more than ever, these values must guide us – and bring us closer together.

(4) On Thursday, I signed an Executive Order to launch a groundbreaking new Apprenticeship Initiative that help young Americans learn the skills they need to find a rewarding career, earn a great living, and support themselves and their families.

The statistical results show that the most frequently used modals in Trump's speech are medium-modal verbs, accounting for 81.8 percent of the total number of modals. The high frequent occurrence of medium-modal verbs indicates Trump's political philosophy and lays out a blueprint for future efforts. The modal verb Will was used nine times in this speech. The analysis of the context in which will is used shows that the prediction, on the one hand, expresses the difficult task ahead for the United States, and on the other hand, demonstrates the President's commitment to the people. Underscoring the Trump administration's commitment to economic opportunity for all. The use of Will reflects Trump's firm belief and determination, and continues the keynote of each speech, namely "Make America Great Again". The high-modal verb "must" appears once in the speech, expressing his subjective judgment and reflecting Trump's determination to unite with every American people as the President of the United States.

C. Pronoun

Interpersonal function means that in addition to conveying information, language also has the function of conveying the speaker's attitude towards the listener and expressing the speaker's identity, status, attitude and motivation. For example, how to address someone reflects the attitude of the author (speaker) (Zeng, 2009). Personal pronouns play an important role in connecting the speaker and the audience. Different pronouns can reflect the distance between the speaker and the audience and the speaker's emotion in speech. This paper focuses on the use of personal pronouns in the interpersonal function in Trump's speech.

TABLE 3
FREQUENCY OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

| personal pronoun | first person | | second person | third person | |
|------------------|--------------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|-----------------|
| | I/me/my | we/us/our | you/your | he/she/him/her/his | they/them/their |
| number | 9 | 26 | 3 | 12 | 16 |
| frequency | 53% | | 22.7% | | 24.3% |

Statistics show that the highest frequency of occurrence in this text is the first person, in which "we" appears 7 times, "US" 6 times and "our" 13 times, with a total of 35 times. "I, me my" 9 times; Third person also appeared more frequently, 28 times in total. The second person "you, your" 3 times. Trump rarely uses the singular "I, me, my", and use more "we, our, us," including the audience, create a friendly atmosphere, closer the distance of the President with ordinary people, let people share the same emotion, and form a potential of community and belonging. The use of "we/our/us" makes everyone seem as one, touches the emotions of the audience, and makes people feel that the future and direction of the United States is decided by all Americans, and that everyone should participate in the new initiatives centered on the new administration and the revitalization of the American economy.

It was worth noting that trump repeatedly used the first person pronouns "we, our" in his speech, like "our Nation, our support, our cities, our heart, our plan, our love, our focus, our Job". In addition to creating the mood and getting closer to voters, the words were used to express the theme of people's supremacy and American supremacy and unite all Americans under the banner of patriotism. Third person pronouns are also used a lot. They represent the younger generation of Americans and the hero Steve mentioned in the article. They also have a more profound connotation, conveying the belief that the state exists to serve the people. They represent the best, and we salute to them. It is the love of country and loyalty to the people that tight us together. This kind of power is extremely strong and can gather the people, maintaining trump's power system.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

This paper interprets US President Trump's TV speech from the perspective of critical discourse analysis. The analysis results show that Trump used multiple language strategies in his speech to actively build the image of a new generation of leaders who lead the American people, build people's sovereignty, forge ahead and serve the people wholeheartedly. The extensive use of physical processes in transitive systems makes it stated that American citizens should have exciting, fulfilling careers. The high frequency of relationship processes highlights that every task, no matter how hard, how challenging, how dangerous, should be dignified and noble; the use of modals, especially medium modals, makes the political prospect conveyed by them more acceptable to the public. The frequent use of "we, our" in personal pronouns has brought Trump closer to his audience and won him popular support. Critical discourse analysis excavates hidden information, reveals the relationship between language power and ideology, and shows how language becomes the tool of ideology, which provides a new perspective for the interpretation of political discourse.

APPENDIX

My fellow Americans, this week, our nation was shocked and horrified when a gunman opened fire on a Member of Congress. Five people were wounded in the assault, including a member of House Leadership – my good friend, Steve Scalise. Steve is beloved across Washington, he embodies everything public service is about, he's dedicated to his constituents, devoted to his values, and deeply committed to his country.

I visited Steve, his wife, and his family in the hospital as he continues to fight for his recovery. 435 Members of Congress, and 300 million Americans, are pulling for him, praying for him, and pledging to him our full and total support. We continue to hold all of those wounded and fighting for recovery in our hearts and prayers, including Matt Mika, who was also badly wounded. In that terrible crime, we also witnessed the incredible heroism of Capitol Police.

Special Agent Crystal Griner – who I also had the honor of meeting during my visit to the Hospital – raced into gunfire, along with Special Agent David Bailey. They saved the lives of our Members of Congress and prevented that dark day from becoming a tragedy beyond imagination. They, like so many other courageous police officers, represent the very best of us. We salute them, and we also salute members of Alexandria Police, Fire and Rescue. Though we have our differences, what unites us is so much stronger: our love of country, our devotion to its people.

Now more than ever, these values must guide us – and bring us closer together. Let us always remember that our job is to serve and represent the whole American People – and that we are all children of the same God. This week, my Administration continues our focus on providing economic opportunity for all. On Thursday, I signed an Executive Order to launch a groundbreaking new Apprenticeship Initiative that help young Americans learn the skills they need to find a rewarding career, earn a great living, and support themselves and their families. We are celebrating the dignity of work and the greatness of the American Worker.

American citizens have worked every job, every occupation, no matter what it might be – no matter how grueling, how challenging, or even how dangerous. They wash the windows on our tallest skyscrapers; they create works of art from burning fire and molten steel; they mine the earth and dive the ocean depths to bring energy into our cities and towns; they care for the sick, the elderly, and the wounded; and they lay the bricks, mortar, rebar, and concrete that give us places to live, to work, and to thrive.

Today, this is the message I want every young American to hear: there is dignity in every honest job, and there is nobility in every honest worker. Our Apprenticeship Initiative will make it dramatically easier for employers, industry groups and unions to create exciting new apprenticeship programs that place students into high-paying careers. Instead of being racked with crushing student debt, those who participate will earn while they learn – think of that: earn while they learn. Under our plan, young Americans will have a pathway to exciting and fulfilling careers.

They will become brilliant technicians who revitalize American manufacturing.

They will become welders who forge from fire, amazing works of iron and steel and art.

And they will become entrepreneurs who revolutionize entire industries.

And these striving American citizens, including millions of talented young American women with tremendous potential, will become the programmers who change the world with the next great technological advance. Every American deserves a path to a great job that they truly love. That begins with the right education – one that gives students the foundation for a lifetime of success. Every day, as your President, I will be committed to this goal.

Thank you, God bless you, and God bless America.

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Neologistic Jargon Aphasia: A Case of Akala Gboo

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Abstract—This paper conducts a psycholinguistic analysis of a neologistic jargon aphasic, Akala Gboo (a pseudonym of the patient) who is 52 years old. Neologistic jargon aphasia is a type of language disorder that manifests in the form of fluent speech, production of series of meaningless sounds and formulation of new words. This aphasic condition has not been explored to a large extent by researchers. By adopting the descriptive research design and using oral interview as instrument of data collection, the research finds out that the jargon aphasic exhibits elements of phonemic and morphemic paraphasias; as well as production of new words which are very much meaningful to him but they sound as gibberish to the hearers such as kwotekumakumakakununism, inianimous kalikwokaminolamkamkwuu. The paper finds out that the stimulants of the jargon aphasic symptoms are excitement and excessive intake of alcohol and cigarette. However, the paper recommends that government agencies and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) should set up an aphasia centre where the needs of aphasics will be catered for and which will also make them easily accessible for aphasia researchers.

Index Terms—neologism, aphasia, speech production, psycholinguistics

I. INTRODUCTION

Psycholinguistics is one of the major areas in linguistics that studies the interplay between language, the mind and the environment. In essence, psycholinguistics studies the relationship that exists between language and the mind; and language and the environment. Agbedo and Uchendu (2010) note that psycholinguistics covers the cognitive processes that make it possible to generate a grammatically and meaningful sentence out of vocabulary and grammatical structures, as well as the processes that make it possible to understand utterances, words, texts etc. They further note that an important focus of psycholinguistics is the largely unconscious application of grammatical rules that enable people to produce and comprehend intelligible sentences.

In the study of psycholinguistics, it takes cognizance of the linguistic abilities of normal human beings (language comprehension, language production, and language acquisition) and the language disabilities of human beings. For the purpose of this research, a glance will be taken on language disabilities of man. Language disabilities of man bring about language disorders. The predominant language disorder observed in humans is aphasia. Head (1926) defines aphasia as a disorder of symbolic formulation and expression as a result of brain damage. Agbedo (2009 p. 152) opines, “Aphasia is a communication disorder caused by brain damage and characterized by complete or partial impairment of language comprehension, formulation and use.” He equally remarks that aphasia is also seen as the loss of normal language abilities as a result of some pathological condition.

However, aphasia is a language disorder that hinders the proper production, acquisition and comprehension of speech. Language disorder is a situation whereby the linguistic ability of human beings is not obtainable as required. Bishop and Rosenbloom (1987) aver that language disorders can be either receptive or expressive; receptive disorders refer to changes in understanding or processing language while expressive disorders include difficulty in putting words together, limited vocabulary or inability to use language in a socially appropriate (which neologistic jargon aphasia is a good example). Similarly, Agbedo and Uchendu (2010) contend that language disorders are often the earliest indicators of a learning disability; people with language disorders have difficulty producing speech sounds, using spoken language to communicate, or understanding what other people say, depending on the problem. They further note that the most common types of aphasia result from cerebro-vascular accidents (CVAS) generally referred to as ‘strokes.’ Expatiating on the possible causes of brain (left hemisphere) damage which in turn causes aphasia, Agbedo (2009, p. 154) notes:

Apart from the CVAs, there are other factors that can cause brain damage. These include micro-organic invasion of brain cells, infections leading to infarctatrophied brain tissue, genetic disease typified by an interference with the neural development of the nervous that produces *spina bifida*, abnormal cell growth in the brain resulting in intracranial tumours, infectious diseases that affect the brain such as meningitis (the inflammation of membraneous covering of the brain and spinal cord) and poliomyelitis (the inflammation of the grey matter spinal cord).

Be it as it may, one thing to note is that the damage of the dominant hemisphere for language production manifests in the form of aphasia. It is in line with this that Yule (1996) asserts that aphasia is an impairment of language function due to localized cerebral damage, which leads to difficulty in understanding and/or producing linguistic forms. What

Yule offers here is that there is a particular part of the brain that is responsible for language production and comprehension. The extremist view of the localisation theory avers that there is a strict one-to-one correspondence between the anatomical areas of the brain and functions of the body. Aitchison (1976) debunks the idea of brain localization by noting that all the available evidence relating to localization is derived from brain-damaged patients. He further remarks that direct correlation of wounds with speech defects cannot be made especially as a wound in one area of the brain can generate a ripple of repercussion in other areas. Reacting to this controversy, Agbedo (2009) remarks that further localisation within the left hemisphere remains controversial although certain sections of the brain and their underlying inter-connections seem more likely to be crucially involved in the production and comprehension of speech than other sections. However, the present researcher states to an extent, the dominant language hemisphere is responsible for linguistic activities.

Neologistic jargon aphasia is one of the types of aphasia. According to Bastian (1969), it is the production of series of speech without meaning. For Schwartz (1987), neologistic jargon aphasia is associated with a lesion site in the posterior temporal lobe of the dominant language hemisphere. Buckingham and Yule (1987) observe that the typical speech pattern of a jargon aphasic is fluent, easy articulated, and free of arthric qualities, etc. Agbedo (2009 p. 170) in his contribution on the characteristics of neologistic jargon aphasia, notes, "Nonetheless, the most visible feature of jargon aphasia is neologism, that is, novel word creations that sound bizzare and quite often described as nonsense or gibberish."

Similarly, Agbedo and Uchendu (2010, p. 35) observe, "Patients with present symptoms of neologistic jargon aphasia may substitute words unrelated semantically to their intended messages; and even produce words that mean nothing in the language but mean everything to them." From the research carried out by the scholars above, they equally observe that the patient produces fluent but long strings of jargon that sound like sentences but make no sense; that he makes intense effort to produce many words, that when he starts to talk in his super-fluency manner, he may not stop unless interrupted. They conclude that it is important to battle aphasia as it impacts an individual's life, now and into the future.

Some scholars have tried to classify neologism from the aphasia point of view but the predominant one is the classification provided by Schwartz (1987). According to him, neologisms are of three subtypes: the subtype that is synonymous with phonemic paraphasia, such that any word-like form produced that is not in the lexicon of the speaker's language; the subtype that contains recognizable pieces of real words from the speaker's language as in the monemic or morphemic; and the subtype that refers to a form with no identifiable source in the speaker's native language.

This last subtype is defined by Buckingham (1981) as phonological forms produced by the patient for which it is impossible to recover with any reasonable degree of certainty some single item(s) in the vocabulary of the subject's language as it presumably existed prior to the onset of the disease. The criticism of this classification is that neologism, according to Schwartz (1987), can only occur when the speaker is using his/her native language. But the reverse is the case with the patient under study where instances of neologism were seen when he was speaking in English which is not his native language but his second language.

However, attempts have been made in order to provide a number of possibilities for explaining neologisms. One of these is seen in Ellis (1985). He notes that they result from severe phonemic distortions of the underlying phonological forms of the target words. This implies, according to Agbedo (2009), that the jargon aphasic is able to retrieve an intended word or access its phonemic array before subsequent distortion by excessive phonemic paraphasias. In contrast, Buckingham and Kertesz (1974) postulate an anomia component to jargon aphasia such that a patient may not have in mind the word he desires at the time of neologism production. They note that it is possible that the hesitations (pauses) noted in jargon aphasics prior to neologisms indicate lexical access difficulties given that pausing represents lexical search and mental processing activity. This means that in an attempt to fill the pauses, the patient produces a bizarre sounds or words.

Secondly, another possible explanation to neologism as illustrated by Christman and Buckingham (1989) is the random segment or syllable generator. For them, the generator operated whenever form-based lexical retrieval was blocked and thus would function in conjunction with an underlying anomia. They further illustrate that if for example, a patient was unable to retrieve the phonological form of a word, he might search unsuccessfully until some critical period passed after which the device would begin to randomly construct a word for production in place of the intended lexical item. According to Agbedo (2009), the third proposed mechanism for jargon production considers neologism to be the result of a two-stage error. Phonemic paraphasia explanation assumes that the target word has been correctly selected but with subsequent distortion of that form by varying quantities of phonemic paraphasia leads to neologistic jargon aphasia.

The objective of this research is to identify the types of neologistic jargon aphasia manifested by the patient. The scope of this research is limited to only one neologistic jargon aphasic. This is because it is a herculean task to adopt all jargon aphasic in this research. As such, the chosen respondent represents the population sample. The significance of this work is that it will add to the literature on neologistic jargon aphasia.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section reviews different psycholinguistic theories and related empirical researches carried out by researchers. The review of literature ends with summary of the literature review.

A. Theoretical Studies

1. Behaviourism

Behaviourism as a theory is spearheaded by Skinner (1957) in his *Verbal Behavior*. In his *Verbal Behavior*, Skinner made a large contribution to research into instrumental conditioning, and into directing the learning process. In instrumental conditioning, the learner is much less at the mercy of external stimuli. His actions and reactions, according to him, seem to come from within, as if at random. Skinner called such instrumental reactions ‘operants.’ He further notes that they serve to manipulate the environment in order to affect a change. Skinner believes that a learner can learn if his or her behaviour is shaped in the correct position.

According to the behaviourists, there are no innate ideas in the mind that are not products of the environment because for them, environmental factors condition man to a specific type of behaviour. This implies that a child who is acquiring language is molded by the experiences he/she undergoes. In essence, the standpoint of the behaviourists is that a child acquires language the same way he/she acquires other behaviours. As a result, they see language as a ‘conditioned behaviour’ anchored on the stimulus response process: Stimulus > Response > Feedback > Reinforcement. Thus, language is practice based. This is in line with Yule’s (2010) assertion that during the first two or three years of development, a child requires interaction with other language-users in order to bring the general language capacity into contact with a particular language such as English. Aside this criterion of being in a linguistic environment where the behaviour will be fully learnt, he goes further to stress thus:

The child must also be physically capable of sending and receiving sound signals in a language. All infants make “cooing” and “babbling” noises during their first year, but congenitally deaf infants stop after about six months. So, in order to speak a language, a child must be able to hear that language being used. By itself, however, hearing language sounds is not enough (Yule, 2010 p. 171).

From the above excerpt, it can be observed that the behaviourists believe that language has a relationship with the society. In other words, language influences the society and the society in turn influences language. This stance can be likened to the social approach to language development. Therefore, as it relates to this study, individuals that imitate the speech productions of a neologistic jargon aphasic.

2. The mould and cloak theories of language and thought

There are discussions on the relationship that exist between language and thought. On the one hand, language is said to condition thought. On the other hand, thought is said to condition language. Akwanya (2007) in his *Language and the Habits of Thoughts* claim that language is not primarily made for communication but for thought. Nwaozuzu (2013) contends that man thinks in language more than the way he speaks language. According to her, this explains the reason humans are said to be ‘men of few words’ and not of ‘few thoughts.’ However, within the general context of linguistic theory, the two theoretical accounts of the relationship between language and thought are: the *mould* and *cloak* theories.

The *cloak* theory postulates that language is clothed in thought. This implies that thought conditions language. In essence, language is a product of thought. On the other hand, *mould* theory postulates that language is a mould where thought categories are cast i.e. language conditions thought because man can only think with a language. The Sapir-Whorfian hypothesis, which is currently referred to Whorfianism is a major component of the *mould* theory. Whorfianism is divided into Linguistic Determinism, which emphasizes on the role of language in determining one’s thought processes and difference in language equals difference in thought processes or philosophy and the Linguistic Relativism, which focuses on the cultural symbols embedded in a language.

Language-culture relationship is attributed to Edward Sapir and Benjamin Lee Whorf (1897-1941) which is well known as the ‘Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis.’ Edward Sapir first propounded this hypothesis in his *Language: An Introduction to the Study of Speech* but it was further developed and popularised by Benjamin Lee Whorf in 1929. This hypothesis states that certain thoughts expressed in one language cannot be understood by those who use another language and that the way one thinks is strongly affected by one’s native language. Thus, some concepts are untranslatable.

Sapir proposes that learning to walk is different from learning to communicate through language. As walking is a genuine biological function of all human beings, any individual child would learn to walk irrespective of any cultural background; but the child would learn to communicate ideas only according to the particular system of a particular society. This argument is related to Skinner’s behaviourism. Sapir contends that if the child is removed from his respective society and transplanted in an alien society, his speech would be completely different from the speech of his original society and would be shaped by the new environment. Sapir’s close associate and student, Benjamin Lee Whorf, carries forward the former’s thesis on language and culture. Whorf throws critical light on the relationship between language and thought and suggests that man’s perception of the world and his ways of thinking about it are deeply influenced by the structure of the language he speaks. Whorf’s in-depth study of languages such as Hopi, Aztec and Maya gives him the idea of how the thought process of the speakers of these languages is related to the linguistic structure.

Thus, one's life is shaped by the structure of language into specific ways of approaching reality. Whorf says that fluency in any language does not necessarily imply linguistic knowledge. To understand a language, one has to know its background phenomena, its systematic processes and structure. However, the "Linguistic Relativity" principle suggests that thought and perceptions of a speaker are determined by his language. As such, the Linguistic Relativist principle is for approaching each language entirely on its own terms. Language is constituted by grammar but it goes beyond grammar. In its symbolic organisation of the world, it is a mirror where culture is reflected. Yule (1996) defines Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis as language (that is, grammar) constitutes the means with which individuals think and therefore, especially as stated in its strongest form, language (that is, grammar) conditions or determines cultural thought, perception, and world view. The worldviews that one forms are determined by one's language which implies that every language carries with it the culture's system of values upon which its social, economic, and political discourses are formed.

Therefore, as it concerns neologistic jargon aphasia, the cloak and mould theories come into play because repressed thoughts result in the production of series of incomprehensible speech sounds. Due to the fluency of the jargon aphasic, he decides to speak, even though meaningless, than to pause in his speech. More so, whatever he communicates is conditioned by the linguistic thought processes embedded in his language.

3. Innatist theory

Innatist theory is fall out of Chomsky's review of Skinner's *Verbal Behavior*. In the review of Skinner's book, Chomsky (1959) criticises Skinner's behavioural standpoint. He was the first to express his criticism. He remarks that with a finite number of linguistic rules, we can produce an almost infinite number of correct linguistic utterances. For example, the production of a completely new sentence cannot be explained by referring to acquired stimulus-response relationships. Children are able to produce sentences that they never heard before quite early in language development. He is equally of the opinion that they naturally make grammatical errors, but these errors are not so serious that we cannot understand what they are saying. Linguists believe that human beings may have an innate ability to apply the syntax – the grammatical arrangement of words in sentences – of a language.

This criticism and review led to a new approach of investigating language development which sees language from the standpoint of mental endowment and not behaviour. The cognitive or innatist approach to language development posits that children are born with an innate propensity for language acquisition, and that this ability makes the task of learning a first language easier than it would otherwise be. Chomsky remarks that every child has a Language Acquisition Device (LAD) in his brain, which makes him to generate a lot of acceptable sentences. For him and other cognitivists or mentalists, language learning or acquisition is too complex to be seen as a form of habit formation. More so, meaning to the cognitivists is very crucial to the acquisition, teaching and learning of language. They believe that for the structure of language to be learned, language acquisition and learning should be meaning based.

The position of Chomsky's innatism is not left uncriticised. The concept of LAD, is in controversial manner, and it was not supported by evolutionary anthropology which shows a gradual adaptation of the human body to the use of language, rather than a sudden appearance of a complete set of binary parameters. This criticism led some scholars to form the middle of the road approach as stated by Agbedo (2009). They posit that language acquisition and development take place with both the presence of the innate ability and the environment. It then goes without saying that a lesion in the brain is one of the causes of neologistic jargon aphasia.

B. Empirical Studies

Agbedo and Uchendu (2010) examined language disorders in two children, which neologistic jargon aphasia is one of the language disorders examined. The paper sought to reveal the linguistic properties of aphasics. The study observed that patients with present symptoms of neologistic jargon aphasia may substitute words unrelated semantically to their intended messages; and even produce words that mean nothing in the language but mean everything to them. From the research carried out by the scholars above, they equally discovered that the patient produces fluent but long strings of jargon that sound like sentences but make no sense; that he makes intense effort to produce many words, that when he starts to talk in his super-fluency manner, he may not stop unless interrupted. They concluded that it is important to battle aphasia as it impacts an individual's life, now and into the future. Though Agbedo and Uchendu (2010) and the present work are interested in neologistic jargon aphasia, they differ in the patients used.

Uchendu (2010) worked a psycholinguistic analysis of language disorders in selected aphasics. The study focused on the language impairments of two individuals: Ekene Ifejika and Chukwudi Onuorah aged 22 and 28 respectively. The study discovered that Ekene's overall cognitive disposition is generally characterised by disordered, fluent sound substitutions, and incomprehensible speech, which are symptoms of jargon aphasia. On the other hand, Chukwudi manifested symptoms of Broca's aphasia, is characterised by short, nonfluent speech, meaningful fragmented phrases that are produced with great efforts. Findings from the study indicated that aphasia impacts each individual differently, depending on the causes of the brain damage, the area of the brain that is damaged and produces different side effects in an individual's comprehension and speech; it may be genetic. The study concluded that language impairments, which these individuals present put them at risk for later general academic difficulties and therefore require immediate intervention programmes as well as the therapeutic expertise of the speech language pathologists. Uchendu (2010) focused on jargon aphasia and Broca's aphasia but the present research centres only on neologistic jargon aphasia.

Ezeudo (2019) researched on stuttering and its associated behaviours in a stutterer from the psycholinguistic perspective. The aim of this study was to examine the phenomenon of language use in a male adult stutterer in Anambra state. Specifically, the study ascertained the psycholinguistic features in oral verbal language of stuttering from a phonetic, phonological, morpho-lexical, pragmatics and syntactic perspectives. The data for the study were obtained through observation and interview with the help of the mother and elder sister of the stutterer. The study adopted the Demand and Capacity theory and Packman and Attanasio's Dynamic Multifactorial model for analysis and also adopted a qualitative research design in examining the psycholinguistic effect of stuttering on the stutterer. The analysis of data revealed how the stutterer experiences "shell shocks" (trauma) of varying degrees, which are physically observed as secondary behaviour symptoms. The research also discovered that the respondent's stuttering is predominant in the sub lexical speech errors, (particularly; phoneme repetition, prolongations, blocks), in constituent boundaries. The respondent's stuttering also occurred in relation to initial sound, mostly within words, between words and at times rare at the end of sentences. His stuttered utterances showed reduced verbal utterances; and he stuttered on syntactic complex words, unfamiliar words, long words, and on content words. The study recommended that the federal government shall be involved in funding the training of speech pathologists. Ezeudo (2019) and the present study are related in the sense that they look at aphasic conditions but they differ because the former focused on stuttering whereas the latter is on neologistic jargon aphasia.

C. Summary of the Literature Review

Under the literature review, different theoretical postulations, which are related to the study, have been reviewed. They included behaviourism, the cloak and mould theories of language and thought and the innatist theory. The research also reviewed empirical researches that have been carried out on language disorders. From the review, the lacuna seen in the literature is that there is no research, to the best of the researcher's knowledge that has been completed as it regards neologistic jargon aphasia of a person over 50 years in Nsukka, Nigeria. This gap is what this research intends to fill.

III. METHODOLOGY

In this present study, the researcher with the help of two research assistants interviewed the language impairment of Akala Gboo. Suffice it to note that Akala Gboo is a pseudonym of the patient. This was chosen for security purposes. The research is purely a descriptive survey research design and unstructured interview was adopted as the method of data collection. This data obtained will be analysed qualitatively so as to x-ray the instances of neologistic jargon aphasia symptoms as well as identifying the type of neologism that occurs and to provide possible explanations of the occurrence. Due to the fact that the patient is a retired police officer, the researcher deemed it worthy to discuss police matters with him because it would make him to talk and to showcase jargon aphasic elements.

Akala Gboo is a retired policeman who hails from Opi in Nsukka Local Government Area, Enugu State. At the time of interview, he was 52 years old. His neologistic jargon aphasic condition started manifesting after his retirement. Features of jargon aphasia manifest when he is excited and engrossed in a discussion. With the help of two research assistants, his utterances were recorded, transcribed, and analysed.

IV. ANALYSIS OF SPEECH

As identified by Schwartz (1987 p. 172-173) that there are three types of neologism namely; 'phonemic paraphasia, such that the word-like form produced that is not in the lexicon of the speaker's language; the sub-type that contains recognizable pieces of real words from the speaker's language as in the monemic (i.e morphemic) paraphasias; the third subtype being the 'abstruse' neologism, one that refers to a form with no identifiable source in the speaker's native language.

However, the medium of the interview was English; though sometimes the patient code-mix with Igbo. There are elements of the first subtype, phonemic paraphasia by the aphasic. Examples of these words include: *carriango*, *maliticious*, *tualasimical*, *biamizically*, *linel*, *annoted*, and *cele*. These expressions are not in the lexicon of the English language nor Igbo. On the other hand, they were all coined by the aphasic as manifestations of neologistic jargon aphasia.

In the same vein, manifestations of morphemic paraphasias in the patient's speech were observed. These include: *bulleted* (From the word bullet which was used as a verb to mean shoot), *wrong-fooled* (used to mean disordered), *marriage marricious* (used to denote marriage activities), *endeavourism* (from the verb endeavour), *Nwannemus* (Igbo, used to denote my brother), *givomize* (give), *levelism* (to level), *greasm my enjinol* (lubricate my engine). The italicized words are the new words which were coined by the patient which are recognizable in the English/Igbo lexicon. The point of neologism lies in the addition of unaccepted affixes and functional shifts.

The last subtype of neologism as identified by Schwartz is also seen in the speech of the aphasic. These words or series of speech sounds has no identifiable source in either the Igbo or the English language. As observed, these series of speech sound without meaning may be meaningful to the aphasic but meaningless on the part of the listener(s). Examples of this series of speech sound without meaning include: *kwoitekumakumakakununism*, *inianimous*

kalikwokaminolamkamkwuu, nkwakoritamidokuminuimkwuunum, napinahushim, happininokumnikonuno...zim, mokwemimonokonoonkwikenism, kwichekinemi, kwichenomo, zikenimizim nankwo mi, izikemmino, etc.

The above examples are instances of meaningless series of speech sound. They do not have any meaning either in the English or Igbo languages. In the aspect of phonology, the manifestation of this last subtype tends to comply with the phonotactic rule of the Igbo language. This is so because the series of speech sounds obeyed the law of no consonant cluster and the rule of vowel or syllabic nasal ending in Igbo.

The emergence of neologistic jargon aphasia as observed in the patient is in line with Buckingham and Kertesz (1974) view that neologism has an aspect of anomic aphasia in it. This is evident in the speeches of aphasic because he does not just coin words. Rather, the new words emerged as a result that he has forgotten what he has in mind, thus leading him to creating new words in order to cover in for the silence already created. This anomic element is aphasic because Akala Gboo has passed the language acquisition stage and has acquired an adult language. If this anomic element occurs in a child, then it is not aphasic because the child is still undergoing the process of language acquisition. In all, neologism becomes aphasia of the speaker has acquired language, which presupposes that the words are there for him to use but decides to manufacture a new word.

In addition to the possible explanations of neologisms as discussed in the literature, at this juncture, the researcher observes that neologistic jargon aphasia can be stimulated by excitement and excessive intake of alcohol and cigarettes, thus; leading to the manifestations of the aphasic condition. This then implies that the patient's brain was damaged as a result of accumulated alcoholic and nicotine contents. It also points that his own aphasic condition was acquired and which manifested in the form of neologistic jargon aphasia.

V. CONCLUSIONS

This research has look into the psycholinguistic aphasic condition known as neologistic jargon aphasia with Akala Gboo as a case study. The research discovers that the subtypes of neologism as identified by Schwartz are manifested in the patient's speech. Also, the research discovers that neologism does not only occur in the speaker's native language, it also occurs in the second language of the speaker which is English. In explaining the possible reason behind the aphasic condition, the research discovers that there is an anomic component to it also notes that high intake of alcohol and cigarettes serve as major stimulants of the brain. Also, for the speaker; what he is saying has meaning but to the listener(s), they are meaningless. Inasmuch as neologistic jargon aphasia is seen from the negative point of view, I think that there are positives to be drawn. With the help of jargon aphasic, new words can be created in a given language and most often they are jargon/slang creators which with time spreads through their speech communities.

However, the researcher recommends that Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and the Government should erect a structure where all those suffering from one aphasic condition or another should be kept and placed for rehabilitation. This will also help psychologists and psycholinguists to lessen the risks of going to the individual houses of this aphasic. Most often, threat to life is given when researchers seek to study a patient. On the other hand, these aphasics do not know the implication of their pathological condition, the intervention of NGOs and government will help to sensitize these patients and also find a way to reduce their plights.

Researchers in this area of study should not fail to employ the services of research assistant(s) so as to arrive at an adequate collection of data and provision of result. They should also observe the observer's paradox by making sure that their real identity is not revealed i.e. the main reason of the research so as to enable them gather original data.

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Analysis of Female Masculinity During Wartime in *The Night Watch* From the Perspective of Gender Performativity*

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Abstract—The novel *The Night Watch* (2006) by Sarah Waters, a contemporary British novelist, tells the story of four women whose fortunes were intertwined before and after World War II. By Judith Butler's theory of gender performativity, this paper analyzes the wartime female images in the novel. Women's wartime drag subverts the binary opposition of people's presupposed notion about sex and women's occupation of men's job that breaks the fictitious perception of gender opposition; the lesbian love affairs challenge the compulsory heterosexuality. Through the interpretations of the feminist thoughts conveyed by Waters in *The Night Watch* and Butler's theory of gender performativity, it can be discovered that the nature of gender identity is actually fictional and can be constructed, reflecting the appeal for gender equality.

Index Terms—gender performativity, Judith Butler, feminism, war, *The Night Watch*

I. INTRODUCTION

Sarah Waters (1966--) is a contemporary British novelist who is best known for her novels set in Victorian society and featuring lesbian protagonists, such as *Tipping the Velvet* (1998) and *Fingersmith* (2006).

The Night Watch (2006) is a dark, historical fiction novel by Waters, which has been nominated in the short lists of Man Booker Prize for Fiction and Orange Prize for Fiction in 2006. It tells the story backward through third-person narrative, taking place in 1940s London during and after World War II. The storyline follows the fragmented lives and the strange interconnections between four characters. Especially the female characters in this novel subvert the traditional gender roles during wartime by being writers, workers and ambulance drivers and cutting short hair, wearing trousers and smoking cigarettes, all of whom present masculinity within female bodies that challenges the traditional gender identity.

Judith Butler's gender performativity holds that stable categories of binary oppositions such as man/woman, male/female, can be deconstructed by revealing how "they are discursively constructed within a heterosexual matrix of power" (Judith Butler, 1990, p. 30). In *The Night Watch*, women at wartime behave manly, especially the main character Kay who is always mistaken as a "young man", exemplifying Butler's notion that gender is constructed and performed. Meanwhile, the hostile and unkind attitude toward Kay on account of her masculine physical appearance indicates the restraints and prejudice that heterosexual society imposed on butches. In the novel, Waters frequently describes her female characters as manly and heroic who "carried stretchers" in the wartime (Sarah Waters, 2006, p. 55) to dash the traditional images of female—fragile and maiden-like. Such binary oppositions of gender are also challenged and criticized by Judith Butler. By applying Butler's theory of gender performativity, this paper focuses on the core concepts of drag, gender identity, and compulsory heterosexuality, probing into the relationship between war and women's life, and interpreting the female masculinity in *The Night Watch* to analyze its impact on British society at that time.

II. DRAG: SUBVERTING THE BINARY OPPOSITION OF BIOLOGICAL GENDER

Beauvoir put forward in *Second Sex* (1973) that "One is not born a woman, but rather becomes one" (Simone De Beauvoir, 1973, p. 301), admitting that the biological sex category of human beings, which is an established fact, but his/her gender identity is open and can be changed. Butler questioned this view, thinking that both sex and gender are constructed and are the result of a heterosexual mechanism. In *The Night Watch*, Waters used "drag"—woman wearing man's clothing to reveal the fiction of the dual opposition of masculinity and femininity, exposing the oppression of women caused by gender norms related to femininity, and criticizing the hegemony of masculine discourse on masculinity. And such arrangement in this novel subverts the naturalized sexual differences.

* Notes: This article is sponsored by the Social Science Foundation Project of Hunan Province of China. The number of the project is 17YBA416.

The female characters in *The Night Watch* are often wear men's clothing during the Second World War. In the first place, this kind of cross-dressing is a convenient move. Because in terms of clothes styles, men's clothing is characterized by looseness, comfort and practicality, such as jackets, overalls, etc. Compared with men's wear, women's styles are more diversified, and their designs are more refined, and are mostly characterized by aesthetics, such as dresses and skirts. In terms of materials, there are also differences between men's and women's clothing. Men's clothing is mostly made of coarse cloth and denim, while materials of women's clothing also include cotton, linen, silk and other materials. In 1940s, the war not only destroyed the daily production of the city, but also damaged the transportation system, which made the transportation of materials extremely difficult. The raw materials for women's clothing are more difficult to produce and transport than men's clothing. In this case, it was a common phenomenon for women to change into men's clothing. At the same time, the war forced men to the battlefield, and women have to participate in some daily household affairs that are once performed by men, such as repairing household appliances and water pipes. Out of this consideration, women would also dress men's clothing. In the novel, when Helen was injured in a big explosion and was crushed under a collapsed house, the doctor who came to examine her body "was a brisk, handsome woman of forty-five or so. She was dressed in dungarees and a turban" (Sarah Waters, 2006, p. 380). Waters's detailed description of the female doctor here juxtaposes the two seemingly unmatched images of "handsome woman" and "dungarees" to portray a tough and masculine female image. This image of a tough woman shows that women have the same presupposed masculinity such as courage and calmness in the face of difficulties and crises.

In fact, drag is an ancient cultural phenomenon in most theaters of the world with a long history of men and women swapping costumes and reversing roles, reflecting an expression of identity. Butler clarifies the instability and constructivity of gender identity through the cultural phenomenon of drag. Through drag, subject can imitate the gender that it wants to be. Butler argues that, drag "implicitly reveals the imitative structure of gender itself---as well as its contingency" (Judith Butler, 1990, p. 186). In Butler's context, drag mainly refers to homosexuals distinguishing active and passive roles with different gender clothing styles. For example, in a homosexual relationship, a physiological male who is internally identified with a female role will use lipstick, stockings, wrap skirts, etc. to dress himself up as a female to reflect the difference between his physical appearance and his inner identity. The concept of drag shows that "the inner truth of gender is a fabrication", while "true gender is a fantasy instituted and inscribed on the surface of bodies" (Judith Butler, 1990, p. 186). The heroine of the novel, Kay, is often mistaken for a man because of her neat short hair and men's clothing. "She is often called "young man" or even "son" by older women. As an openly lesbian, Kay performs the male sex by wearing men's clothing and cutting her hair short, in order to openly express her homosexuality and challenge the traditional sex distinction in the heterosexual system. Her appearance of "masculinity" subverts the traditional image of women ---dressed as a lady, with gentle demeanor. According to Butler's notion, Kay's drag reflects the instability of a fixed gender identity presupposed by heterosexual ideology. Kay is biologically female, and she exhibits masculinity, which subverts the presupposition that men should have masculinity and women should have the ideology of femininity, breaking the biological gender opposition. In fact, the use of drag to change or conceal the gender identity standardized by the body blurs the boundary between the anatomical body of the dresser and the gender being performed. The construction of gender identity is a parody of identity politics and the political strategy of feminism to denaturalize gender. This strategy is based on the idea that "the inner truth of gender is a fabrication" (Judith Butler, 1990, p. 186), subverting the gender oppositions of humans in heterosexual society to prove the imitability and contingency of the nature of gender.

At the same time, Kay's "drag" is also a power appeal, in order to obtain equal rights and treatment with men. During the war, Kay worked as an ambulance driver for the emergency rescue team. She often shuttled through the hard-hit streets of London, constantly passing by with death. However, due to Kay's female identity, even if she encounters an accident, her lesbian partner cannot receive any financial compensation. "It's not even as if Helen would get any kind of pension if I was killed" (Sarah Waters, 2006, p. 197). During World War II, if a woman's husband died on the front lines, she would receive financial compensation from the government as comfort. Helen and Kay are same-sex couples and such kind of relationship was not recognized by the law in the United Kingdom at the time. Therefore, Helen could not receive government pensions as Kay's family, which was an extremely painful thing for Kay. She tried her best to show her masculinity by cutting her hair short and wearing men's clothing, reflecting her desire for equal rights.

III OCCUPATION OF MALE'S JOB: QUESTIONING THE DUALITY OF FICTIONAL SOCIAL GENDER

Kay, Mickey, and Julia in *The Night Watch* all took on tasks usually done by men during World War II. This is undoubtedly an externalized embodiment of masculinity in women, questioning the duality of social gender.

Although the cruel and merciless war has caused huge losses to the entire society, it also provided more job opportunities for women in the home front. Since World War II was a modern war, every citizen of the countries participating in the war was closely related to it. In this war, when men went to the front, women were important members of society. They were active in all walks of life and contributed much to the war. From the outbreak of World War II to 1943, the number of women workers from all walks of life who directly or indirectly served the war increased rapidly. As of 1943, 1.5 million women had entered the officially designated "core" industry, that is, industries related to munitions. Female workers in the engineering industry rose from 97,000 in 1939 to 602,000 in 1943, and the proportion of female workers rose from 10% to 34%. Similar changes have occurred in the metal industry, chemical industry,

automobile manufacturing, transportation, petroleum, water supply, electricity, and shipbuilding. Women in these industries rose from 14% in 1939 to 33%. Women in business and government are also expanding (G.M. Beck, 1951). Academic research on women's direct or indirect participation in the war during World War II also shows that women took on "male-dominated" jobs during World War II, and strongly supported working on the front and rear of the war.

Waters subtly incorporated these historical facts into her novels, showing the strong and brave masculinity of female characters, breaking the social stereotype that women cannot hold certain positions. As the ambulance driver of the rescue station during the war, Kay was alert and sober when handling the wounded during rescue work. On the way to the bombed Dolphin Square, although "The van was an old commercial one that had been converted at the start of the war; she had to double-declutch with every gear change-a rather tiresome business. But she knew the vehicle and all its quirks, and went smoothly, confidently" (Sarah Waters, 2006, p. 149). In traditional views, the work of drivers should be undertaken by men, but Kay's proficient driving skills actually dash the traditional gender concepts. At this time, her social gender as a woman is also disintegrated. Because gender is "an identity tenuously constituted in time, instituted in an exterior space through a stylized repetition of acts" (Judith Butler, 1990, p. 140). Kay was engaged in work that was originally occupied by male, showing the masculinity of women, and deconstructing the gender definition in the heterosexual discourse system. During an outing mission, Kay and her colleague Mickey are rescuing the bloody wounded, while the air defense administrator of that street "looked Kay and Mickey, over 'Not much of a job for women'" (Sarah Waters, 2006, p. 338) Because in the view of air defense administrator, women were mostly gentle and fragile, unable to cope with cruel wars. The reason is that in the patriarchal culture, the unjust gender hierarchy has produced fictitious female images and presupposed femininity. In this gender essentialist system, men are considered strong, brave, active, and rational, and therefore occupy a dominant position in society; while women are considered weak, timid, passive, and emotional. This stereotyped image requires women to maintain femininity, to be good wives and mothers, to become "angel in the house"¹ (Coventry Patmore, 1863) and to be in a dominated position in society.

Kay is the most heroic character in the novel, exemplifying female masculinity to a large extent. With her determination and courage, she "attacked" the patriarchal society and "killed" the "angel in the house", enabling the female voice to be heard. Kay and Mickey were bombarded by incendiary bombs when they were on the mission, and the incendiary bombs quickly turned the entire neighborhood into a sea of flames. Facing the horrible street, although they must follow the route according to the regulations of the ambulance station, Kay "made a decision, and stopped the van, as close as she dared get to the spluttering rocket. 'I'm not going to leave this street to catch fire,' she said, opening her door and jumping out" (Sarah Waters, 2006, p. 157). The words "opening", and "jumping" show Kay's psychological state. Faced with wanton burning bombs, it is natural to be afraid. However, Kay overcame the fear in her heart, disregarding the rules and regulations and her own safety, and resolutely chose to rescue the masses in the flames, reflecting her spirit of self-sacrifice. After completing the rescue work, Kay received harsh accusations from the rescue station chief for parking in violation of regulations, but she always insisted on her decision, "You'd like me to leave a street to burn and bring more bombs? We'd have lots of jobs, then" (Sarah Waters, 2006, p. 160). Kay's heroism is obvious. She puts the safety of the masses above self-safety, and fiercely resisted the reproach of the stationmaster, proving that women can also remain brave and rational in the face of disasters, and questioned the fictional images and predictions of women in a patriarchal society.

Julia, another female character in the novel, also worked in a harsh environment that was more suitable for men during the war. She was an assistant to her father, an architect, and was responsible for surveying the bombed house. Julia's working environment was extremely intolerable. She traveled through London's "tall and gloomy, dilapidated" houses all day long. These houses have become "deserted" under the impact of gunfire. In the second meeting between Julia and Helen, Julia invited Helen to see her work. After they entered this empty house, Helen found that the house was "dusty, and heavily marked by flying glass and fallen plaster" (Sarah Waters, 2006, p. 205), "She went to a set of high double doors and carefully pulled them ajar. The room beyond was just as wretched as this one-its window smashed, its velvet curtains marked with rain, spots on the floor where birds had dirtied, soot and cinders blasted from the hearth" (Sarah Waters, 2006, p. 206). Images such as "soot", "cinders", illustrate the destruction of London's urban architecture caused by the war, and also emphasize the uniqueness of Julia's work. As Julia herself said, "we are recording ghosts" (Sarah Waters, 2006, p. 239). Julia followed her father all day long in the crumbling house, doing dangerous and hard work, contrary to the traditional "angel in the house" female image. This job is just as Julia's father said, "Queer sort of job, isn't it? All dust" (Sarah Waters, 2006, p. 214). However, Julia enjoyed herself in this "queer" job. Although she would be smashed and bruised by dilapidated buildings from time to time, she thought this job is suitable for her, "because it's so solitary, so silent" (Sarah Waters, 2006, p. 206). Julia took on such a hard job and enjoyed it. Her masculinity was reflected in this job, which deconstructed the duality of gender. In fact, gender should be regarded as a fluid variant that changes with time and occasions, the gender identity of the subject is the result of "institutions, practices, discourses" (Judith Butler, 1990, p. xxxi) not their causes. And Julia's gender at this time has also become fluid and unstable due to her work.

Not only Kay and her rescue team colleagues, but also Julia, these female figures have served the "male jobs" in the

¹ Following the publication of Patmore's poem, the term "angel in the house" came to be used in reference to women who embodied the Victorian feminine ideal: a wife and mother who was selflessly devoted to her children and submissive to her husband. The term then evolved into a more derogatory assessment of antiquated roles with critiques from popular feminist writers like Virginia Woolf.

patriarchal society during the war, and did their jobs brilliantly, revealing the fiction of social gender. At this time, “angel in the house” is dead, and replaced by new women who have stepped out of the house to take on important tasks. Waters combines the historical facts of World War II with the characterization in her novel, conveying her own feminist thoughts, and showing her questioning of the traditional definition of gender.

IV. LESBIAN AFFAIRS: CHALLENGING THE COMPULSORY HETEROSEXUALITY

The emotional entanglements of Kay, Julia, and Helen run through the entire novel. The romantic and complicated relationship between them not only reflects the masculinity of women, but also challenges the compulsory heterosexuality. Because in the heterosexual matrix, only heterosexual sexual desire and sexual practice are legal, but in Butler’s view, the gender subject based on heterosexuality is unstable because there are diverse forms of sexual desire and sexual practice, such as bisexuality and homosexuality. The lesbian relationship in the novel is the diversified manifestation of sexual desire, challenging the “system of compulsory heterosexuality that clearly operates through a system of compulsory sexual reproduction” (Judith Butler, 1990, p. 150).

The emergence of homosexuality is inseparable from the background of war at the time. War broke the conventions of traditional society and produced a kind of “queer time/space”. American feminist Halberstam put forward the concept of “queer time” in the book *In A Queer Time and Place: Transgender Bodies, Subcultural Lives* (2004). She believes that time is usually “hetero-normative”, in other words, time is governed by “normal” routines, and these routines are composed of traditional gender, sexual orientation and family structure. But when society and culture encounter crises, “alternative modalities of time and place that challenge the hetero-normative arrangements of temporality and material relations emerge” (Judith Halberstam, 2004, p. 2) Time and space become “queer” because it develops ‘in opposition to the institutions of family, heterosexuality, and reproduction’ (Judith Halberstam, 2004, p. 1). The war prompted the original management norms of the society to be changed, breaking the conventions of traditional society. At this time, London can be regarded as a “queer” space, which catalyzed women’s homosexual affection between themselves. The first encounter between Kay and Helen was almost “the hero rescued the beauty” style, showing Kay’s calmness, wit and bravery. Kay found Helen in the ruins during a rescue operation after an air raid. Helen was still crushed in the ruins and was distressed. Kay patiently bandaged her wounds and chatted with her to relieve her anxiety. In Waters’s writing, the brave and fearless Kay rescued the fragile and helpless Helen from the ruins, which is actually a parody and rewriting of the traditional story model of “the hero rescued the beauty”. In classic Western fairy tales, whether it is “Snow White”, “Little Red Riding Hood” or “Sleeping Beauty”, the heroine always suffers from various disasters and sufferings, such as being abused by a stepmother, cursed by a witch, or facing danger to life. At the end of the story, there is often a brave and handsome male figure to save the situation. This male character will use his bravery and wisdom to successfully rescue the heroine in trouble and live happily with her. Waters transplanted this traditional story model into the World War II novel *The Night Watch*, creating a romantic encounter between Kay and Helen, but she cleverly changed the gender identity of the two protagonists of the story to female, giving Kay a kind of heroic and masculine temperament of male, breaking the traditional setting of “the male hero saving a beauty”. Just like the ending of a romantic fairy tale, both Kay and Helen developed a kind secret affection for each other, in Kay’s own feelings to describe, “she does not want to leave her, after all; gazing at her in a sort of wonder; unable to believe that something so fresh and so unmarked could have emerged from so much chaos” (Sarah Waters, 2006, p. 383). In the relationship between Kay and Helen, Kay represents the male side of the heterosexual love model. Kay’s ex-girlfriend Julia once said to Helen, Kay “She wants a wife-someone good, I mean; someone kind, untarnished. Someone to keep things in order for her, hold things in place” (Sarah Waters, 2006, p. 324). The term “wife” means “a man’s official spouse” in a traditional sense. As a woman, Kay “wants a wife” undoubtedly challenges the gender norms of heterosexual society. Butler believes that homosexuality to heterosexuality is “not as copy is to original, but, rather, as copy is to copy” (Judith Butler, 1990, p. 43). Kay and Helen’s lesbian relationship is obviously very different from “heterosexual production and reproduction of desire” (Judith Butler, 1990, p. 123), and in this lesbian relationship, the body becomes a flexible and fluid field. The rigid opposition between gender, gender identity and gender performance no longer exist.

The war not only provided an opportunity for Kay and Helen’s romantic encounter, but also contributed to the unexpected love affair between Julia and Helen. Under the bombardment of artillery, London became devastated and dilapidated. In order to deal with enemy air strikes, city management regulations have also changed. London citizens must accept extraordinary wartime management measures. The authorities required all urban residents to move to air raid shelters when the air defense alarm sounds and shut down all power supply systems to protect the city from enemy bombing. From September 1, 1939, in order to avoid becoming a bomb target of German aircraft, London implemented light control, and London at night fell into darkness for 5 years. In the novel, Julia and Helen walk through the streets of London late at night like “urban wanderers”. While Julia was walking with Helen, the two were attacked by air strikes. At this time, Helen had realized that she had a secret affection for Julia. At the same time, she fell into deep entanglement and pain because she already lived together with Kay. Just as Helen was struggling and depressed, this sudden airstrike became a catalyst between her and Julia, and Helen’s affection for Julia was infinitely spreading. Meanwhile the dark city also created opportunities for the two to open their hearts. Although for Helen, leaving a place she was familiar with during the light control period was always disturbing because “Anyone could come at us out of the dark.” (Sarah Waters, 2006, p. 277), Julia thought this was a good thing, “But if we can’t see them, they can’t see us.

Besides, they'd probably take us for a boy and his girl" (Sarah Waters, 2006, p. 277). Homosexuals who were originally not to be accommodated by the society had temporal freedom under the cover of darkness. Because the gender norms under the heterosexual matrix are defined by society, and gender identity is strictly regulated by heterosexual culture, and any gender identity that violates this gender norm is internalized as taboo. And in a heterosexual society, "gender is a performance with clearly punitive consequences" (Judith Butler, 1990, p. 190), and society often punishes those who "wrongly" perform their own gender. The homosexuality between Julia and Helen is obviously a kind of "wrong" gender performance, which cannot be accepted by the traditional heterosexual society. They will be hindered and criticized by society and their family. As in the third part of the novel, by 1947, however, with peace declared, cultural attitudes to woman's role in society and feminine dress conventions have undergone a dramatic shift" (Paulina Palmer, 2008, p. 81), requiring women to return to the pre-war social division of labor and family role. Facing such a social situation, Julia as a writer had to hide her sexual orientation from the public. As Helen said, "Now that Julia's books were doing so well, they had to be more careful than ever (Sarah Waters, 2006, p. 48). However, in 1944, the war disrupted the normal operation of the city, affected people's daily life, and gave homosexuals temporal freedom. They wandered in the city under the control of the lights and became the "invisible" (Sarah Waters, 2006, p. 286) in the city, and they could be like heterosexuals without covering their sexual orientation.

London under the control of the lights during World War II provided a refuge for the two homosexual desires, allowing lesbians to freely perform their gender and sexual orientation, proving the diverse forms of erotic desire and sexual practice, and challenging the traditional hegemonic society of heterosexuality.

V. CONCLUSION

Regarding the attitude of feminism, Waters once stated that "feminism is part of a wider struggle against all inequalities' only to then retort" (Sarah Waters, 2008). The anti-traditional female role she portrayed in *The Night Watch* under the background of World War II is a questioning of the gender concept of patriarchy, and is intended to convey the idea of gender equality. In the novel, the women in the novel perform the traditional concept of masculinity by drag, undertaking male jobs, and having lesbian affairs during wartime, subverting the distinction between male and female sex temperament and breaking the traditional gender boundaries. Using Butler's theory of gender performativity to interpret *The Night Watch*, explore the background of the times and women's gender performativity, World War II provided the women in the novel with the possibility of performing male gender. The identity of the performed gender is actually a subversion and resistance to the heterosexual gender hierarchy, a demand for the reconstruction of the gender subject, and a manifesto for women to strive for individuality and independence.

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On the English Translation of Cultural Image Words in the Poem *Chun Jiang Hua Yue Ye* From the Perspective of Leech's Conceptual Meaning and Connotative Meaning

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Abstract—Semantic translation is an important link in the translation process, starting with semantic selection. Among various semantic classification systems, Leech's seven linguistic meanings are very reasonable and suitable for translation practice, research and teaching. His conceptual meaning and connotative meaning of the seven types of linguistic meanings can provide guidance for the translation of cultural image words, such as cultural image words in the two English versions of *Chun Jiang Hua Yue Ye*.

Index Terms—semantic translation, semantic selection, Leech, *Chun Jiang Hua Yue Ye*

I. INTRODUCTION

Chun Jiang Hua Yue Ye, a poem by ZHANG Ruo-xu, has always been regarded as one of the greatest poems of the Tang Dynasty. WEN Yi-duo once praised it as “the poem in the poem, the top of the peak”. The poem attracts many readers with its unique beauty. Its translation has also attracted the attention of scholars, because it is an important part of Chinese excellent traditional culture. There are many English versions of *Chun Jiang Hua Yue Ye*, such as Charles Budd's *The River by Night in Spring*, W.J.B Fletcher's *Moon Thoughts*, XU Yuan-chong's *The Moon over the River on a Spring Night*, and ZHAO Yan-chun's *Spring, River, Flower, Moon, Night*.

By July 10, 2020, the author found that there are 20 journals related to the translation of *Chun Jiang Hua Yue Ye* on the CNKI. The numbers is very small, but their research perspectives do cover many aspects. For example, WANG Xiao-ying (2010) explores the loss of cultural meaning in XU Yuan-chong's translation of *Chun Jiang Hua Yue Ye* from narrative perspective. LUO Shun-jiang and WANG Song (2012) represent “Three Orientations” in three versions of French translation of the poem from Eco-translatological perspective. LÜ Zhao-fang & LIU Jun-ping (2015) analyzes XU Yuan-chong's English version of it based on the principle of “Three Beauties”. CUI Xuan (2015) researches means of textual cohesion in XU Yuan-chong's *The Moon over the River on a Spring Night*. ZHANG Tong-tong (2016) compares XU Yuan-chong's and TANG Yi-he's English versions of the poem to demonstrate the practicality of “Relevance Theory” in poetry translation. CHENG Fang-xia & XU Wen-ting (2018) analyzes the original text and different translations of the Tang poem from the perspective of Halliday's theme and rheme. TANG Jun & HE Ting-ting (2019) generalizes structural metaphor, orientational metaphor and ontological metaphor used in the translation of *Chun Jiang Hua Yue Ye*.

At present, there are only three relevant studies on the translation of cultural words in *Chun Jiang Hua Yue Ye*. REN Jing (2015) discusses the differences of cultural vocabulary in the process of translation from the perspective of translation features. From the perspective of cognitive metaphor, SUN Xiao-yan (2018) represents noun metaphor in three English versions of this poem. Based on Nida's functional equivalence theory, YAN Ci (2020) analyzes ZHAO Yan-chun's translation and puts forward that the culture-loaded words can be translated through literal translation, free translation, and transliteration plus annotation. Therefore, in this paper, the writer attempts to explore the translation of cultural image words in XU Yuan-chong's and ZHAO Yan-chun's English translation of *Chun Jiang Hua Yue Ye* from the perspective of Leech's conceptual meaning and connotative meaning.

II. SEMANTICS AND TRANSLATION

Translation is closely related to semantics, because semantic selection is very important in the translation process. To eliminate cultural differences, to convey same feelings of the poem, and to better improve communication, translators must choose the best proper words in translating, especially in the translation of culturally-loaded words and culturally image words.

A. The Concept of Semantics

Semantics is, by definition, “the study of meaning in language” (Hurford et al., 2007, p. 1). It is a branch of

linguistics. And it studies the meaning of words and changes of words meaning, focusing on exploring the reasons and principles of the changes of words meaning from the social and historical perspectives (SHI Bai-li, 2005). Semantics has a long history and its origin can be traced back to the ancient Greek philosopher Socrates (LI Xiang-de & HUA Han-jun, 1990). However, semantics did not develop into an independent science until the end of the 19th century.

In the 17th century, the adjective *semantick* appeared in the form of “*Semantick Philosophy*” in *A Discourse Concerning Prodigies*, which was written by John Spencer and published in 1663, and then the second edition was re-written completely by him in 1665. Read represents that “the phrase ‘*Semantick Philosophy*’ refers to the study of the various types of divination, or, in a more up-to-date terminology, to prediction of the future on the basis of signs” (Read, 2015, p. 78). However, the active usage of semantics did not begin until late in the 19th century, and was coined from the French linguist Michel Bréal. In his article in 1883, Bréal defined the French word “*sémantique*” as “the science of significations” (Riemer, 2016, p. 51). And then another French linguist, Arsène Darmesteter, adopted Bréal’s term in a study of word history two years later. In 1894, an American scholar Charles R. Lanman declared: “The doctrine of the principles that underlie the processes of the development of the meanings of words may be called semantics or semasiology.” In 1897, the word received a great push when Bréal’s full book *Semantics: Studies in the Science of Meaning* was published, which was considered as a milestone in language study. In her English version in 1900, the translator Mrs. Henry Cust used the form ‘*semantics*’ without apology. Therefore, the word semantics gradually became popular among linguists until it became a universally accepted term and was more popular than *semantick* (Read, 2015).

B. The Development Stages of Semantics

The development stages of semantics are divided into different stages. Among them, JIA Yande (1992) thinks that semantics studies can be roughly divided into three stages: from the stage of philology to traditional semantics and then to modern semantics.

The stage of philology mainly focused on annotation of ancient books, which began in the 3rd century BC in Europe. This period has compiled and accumulated a complete set of paraphrasing methods, thus it is of important value for the studies of semantics. However, because semantic studies is not an independent system, but only pays attention to the ancient written language, and its purpose was to annotate ancient languages, so no theory has been put forward in the semantic field.

From the beginning of the 19th century to the 1920s, the semantics of this period belonged to the traditional semantics. At the beginning of the 19th century, the establishment of Saussure’s general linguistics theory made language research an independent science with its own theories and methods. It is precisely in the context of the development of language research that semantics studies can become a branch of linguistics. German linguist Trier proposed the famous ‘*semantic field*’ theory to study the system of vocabulary and word meaning in language and to study their relationship (WANG Shuang-mei, 2009). It is a major leap from philology to traditional semantics. The studies of words meaning is no longer just used as a tool to understand ancient classics and customs. Its object and scope have been expanded. However, the research in this period is still not systematic, and the research scope is limited to the meaning of words.

From the 1920s to the present is the period of modern semantics. With the rise and development of modern information technology, which is extremely closely related to language, the research of meaning has risen to an unprecedented important position. The studies of semantics therefore has been comprehensively developed and made important breakthroughs. Many schools of semantics have emerged, such as structural semantics, interpretative semantics, and generative semantics. The research of meaning of modern semantics is mostly influenced by language philosophy and cognitive linguistics on its words level, while the research on the sentence level is largely influenced by logical semantics (WANG Shuang-mei, 2009). Modern semantics uses the sememe analysis method to reach the micro level of semantics research; from word meaning as the center content to the meaning of sentences and texts; and research methods introduce logical concepts such as presupposition, proposition, and implication (JIA Yan-de, 1992). In short, the development of semantics has broken through the relatively single research level and research method of traditional semantics, showing the characteristics of interdisciplinary, multi-dimensional and multi-level.

C. The Relationship Between Semantics and Translation

The purpose of translation is to understand the original text and express it accurately in the target language. In briefly, the translation process includes two stages: understanding and expression, both of which involve grasping and understanding the meanings. First of all, in the stage of understanding, the translator must thoroughly understand the original text, which is a process of analyzing the meanings of the original text. Secondly, in the stage of expression, the translator should express his or her understanding of the source text in the target language. At this time, what are the intrinsic meanings of the words and sentences chosen by the translator, and whether the meanings of the original text can be accurately and appropriately reflected in the translated language, is a crucial issue.

The meaning of language consists of two parts: semantic meaning and pragmatic meaning. Semantic meaning is the static meaning of expressions, which is inherent in the language system and independent of the language environment and language users (speakers/writers, listeners/readers). Pragmatic meaning refers to the dynamic meaning of discourse, which was generated on the basis of sentence meaning and was varied with the different of language environment and language users (ZENG Xian-cai, 1993). Eugene A. Nida once said: “Translating means translating the meaning.”

(ZHANG Jing-hao, 2000, p. 30) From this it is natural to say translation means to translate both semantic meaning and pragmatic meaning. Therefore, there is a close relationship between semantics and translation.

In view of the importance of semantics in the translation process, it is necessary to make further research of semantics in order to better understand and convey meaning in translation. WANG Dong-feng (2005) believes that the seven types of meaning proposed by the famous British linguist Leech is a very reasonable system, which is more suitable for translation practice, translation studies and translation teaching. The author agrees very much with this point. In this paper, the author intends to take Leech's conceptual meaning and connotative meaning as a guide to analyze how to make appropriate semantic choices when translating cultural image words of Chinese classical poetry.

III. SEVEN TYPES OF MEANING BY GEOFFREY LEECH

Up to now, scholars have classified semantics differently. For example, in the article *Meaning* published in 1957, Grice distinguished between natural sense and non-natural sense. And from the perspective of language use, he divided linguistic meaning into fixed meaning, applied fixed meaning, situational meaning and speaker's situational meaning (HAN Zhong-qian, 2009). Morris divides linguistic meaning into referential meaning, linguistic meaning and pragmatic meaning in his modern semiotics theory (HE Yuan-xiu, 2009). Geoffrey Leech originally divided linguistic meaning into seven types in his *Semantics* in 1974: conceptual meaning, connotative meaning, stylistic meaning, affective meaning, reflected meaning, and collocative meaning and thematic meaning. Meanwhile, the seven types meaning are generalized into three broad types: conceptual meaning, associative meaning and thematic meaning (Leech, 1974). Leech's research on the classification of linguistic meaning has an impact on the linguistics community, and has effectively promoted the development of semantics.

A. Conceptual Meaning

Conceptual meaning refers to the generalization or reflection of the objective world. It is generally fixed in a dictionary and is the basic meaning of a word. Leech believes that conceptual meaning is the core of word meaning and is about the meaning of logic, cognition, and denotation. Conceptual meaning is concerned with the connection between a word and what it refers to. The word expresses what it refers to through concepts (WU Qian-guang, 1992). For example, "woman" means "妇女", "女人", "成年女子".

B. Connotative Meaning

Connotative meaning is the meaning attached to the conceptual meaning, which conveys meaning through what language refers to. Connotative meaning is implicit and needs to be obtained through association on the basis of conceptual meaning. It is the supplement and extension of conceptual meaning (WU Qian-guang, 1992). For example, "women" were oppressed and discriminated against in feudal society, thus the word gained some additional connotations: "frail", "prone to tears", "emotional", and "inconstant", etc. Of course, the word woman has also gained some good connotations: "gentle", "compassionate", and "hard-working", etc.

Leech compared connotative meaning with conceptual meaning, and believed that connotative meaning has the characteristics of instability, which will change with the change of culture, time, society, and personal experience (LI Shan, 2019). In addition, because verbal communicators have different understandings of the subjective and objective knowledge referred to by words, different people will have different understandings of the connotation of the same word.

C. Stylistic Meaning

Stylistic meaning can express the meaning of the social environment where language is used. Leech stated that the actual use of language can be divided into different levels according to different contexts, such as formal and literary, colloquial, familiar, and slang. And the stylistic meaning of language is expressed due to those contexts (WU Qian-guang, 1992). For example, the conceptual meaning of "马" is horse, it is a general term. However, its stylistic meanings are different, "steed" is used in poems, "nag" is slang, and "gee-gee" is a childrenese.

D. Affective Meaning

Affective meaning is a kind of meaning which can express the emotion and attitude of the speaker. It is independent but often depends on other types of meaning (conceptual meaning, connotative meaning or stylistic meaning), or manifested by means of tone, intonation, and interjection etc. And it is most closely related to the expression function of the discourse (WU Qian-guang, 1992).

E. Reflected Meaning

Reflective meaning is the meaning conveyed by associating with another meaning of the same word. It's as if the light hits one point on the mirror and reflects to another point. In other words, because of the role of context, when expressing a certain meaning of a word, it can also make the reader/listener think of another meaning of the word. The puns created by writers in literary works, as well as taboos and euphemisms in every culture, are often related to the mapping of meaning (WU Qian-guang, 1992). For example, the word "intercourse" is related to "communication". However, people tend to say "human language is a tool of social communication" instead of saying that "human

language is a tool of social intercourse". This is because "intercourse" is also related to "sex".

F. Collocative Meaning

Collocation meaning is the meaning produced by the habit of collocation of words. Due to the effect of language habits, in different language systems, the same word will have different collocation habits, and when the same word is matched with different words, it will also cause people to have different collocation associations and convey different messages (WU Qian-guang, 1992). For example, "pretty" and "handsome" are the same in their basic meaning, but their collocation are different, "pretty" can be used to describe "girl", "boy", "woman", "flower", "garden" or "village", while "handsome" are allocated with "boy", "man", "car", "vessel", "overcoat", etc.

G. Thematic Meaning

Thematic meaning is the meaning conveyed by the way information is organized. The theme can be better highlighted by means of word order, arrangement of focal points, and means of emphasis. For example, Leech pointed out that "Mrs. Smith donated the first prize" is different to "The first prize was donated the first prize", for the former is to answer "What did Mrs. Smith donate" and the latter is to respond to "Who donated the first prize" (WU Qian-guang, 1992: 145-146).

IV. APPLICATION CONCEPTUAL MEANING AND CONNOTATIVE MEANING TO THE TRANSLATION OF CULTURAL IMAGE WORDS IN *CHUN JIANG HUA YUE YE*

Conceptual Meaning and Connotative Meaning of Leech's seven types of meaning are of great significance for translation, especially the semantic choices in the translation process. These two meanings almost cover the connotation of culturally image words in Chinese classical poetry, and therefore lead to different translation strategies.

A. An Introduction to the Poem *Chun Jiang Hua Yue Ye* and Its Author

With "spring", "river", "flowers", "moon" and "night" as background, the poem depicts the magnificent scenery in nature, expresses the sincere and moving sentiments of parting, and praises the pure love of mankind. Taking the moon as the main line, the whole poem describes the river, the sand beach, the night sky, the field and so on under the moonlight, and then shows us a picture full of life philosophy and life fun. The rhyme and rhythm are pleasing to the ears and they change with the sentimental ups and downs of the poem.

The author of this poem is ZHANG Ruo-xu, a famous poet in the Tang Dynasty, who is disgusted with etiquette and customs in feudal society and pursues freedom, leisure and comfort in life. His poetic style was deeply influenced by the poetic style of Six Dynasties, but from the perspective of philosophical expression and artistic means, he has inherited many characteristics of Tang poetry.

B. Application Conceptual Meaning to the Translation of Cultural Image Words in *Chun Jiang Hua Yue Ye*

Chun Jiang Hua Yue Ye takes "moon" as its central image, closely following the five characters of "spring", "river", "flower", "moon" and "night". It combines many images such as river, beach, sky, weald, maple, frost, snow, white clouds, mirrors, canoe, swan geese, lonely women, wanderer and many other images, forming a complete and orderly poetic image group. In this image group, the river and the bright moon are the central images, and the canoe, lad and jade curtains are strung into the poem, and various human feelings such as lovesickness, melancholy and attachment are injected into the poem. The "river" and "moon" at different angles in the distance—near and far—give people endless reverie. The poet's emotions are realized through the orderly arrangement of images. The rivers and beaches are from far to near; the sky and the field are from high to low; the maple trees, flower forests and white clouds go from low to high. Canoe, lad, mirror platforms, swan geese, fish, dragons, thinking women, wanderer, etc., are the images imagined by the poets or virtual scenes. The combination of these images, from reality to imagination, from objects to people, from scenes to lyricism, not only conforms to the law of human thinking, but also conforms to the law of vision, forming a beautiful, harmonious and stimulating mood (LI Qing-yun, 2013).

《春江花月夜》

XU Yuan-chong: *The Moon over the River on a Spring Night*

ZHAO Yan-chun: *Spring, River, Flower, Moon, Night*

The title of this poem is controversial, because some scholars only regard it as a poem title, while others believe that the five Chinese characters are five image words. XU's and ZHAO's English version are actually the two kinds of thinking, and the writer here prefers to XU's version. *Chun Jiang Hua Yue Ye* was originally the title of the song. When writing songs at that time, there were lyrics after songs, which were called writing lyrics. The song *Chun Jiang Hua Yue Ye* is to express the love of men and women. The lyrics of the song of the same name were written by CHEN Shu-bao and Emperor Sui Yang. ZHANG Ruo-xu also wrote about the feelings of young women in the boudoir as usual with half of the space (YI Zhong-tian, 2018).

江流宛转绕芳甸，月照花林皆似霰。

XU Yuan-chong: The river winds around the fragrant islet were

The booming flowers in her light all look like snow.

ZHAO Yan-chun: The river winds across a fragrant mead;
The moon snows the blooms with her snowy light.

Both translators translated the two words literally. However, “芳甸” means weald with lush grass, not an island. So the writer thinks that ZHAO’s version is more appropriate.

空里流霜不觉飞，汀上白沙看不见。

XU Yuan-chong: You cannot tell her beams from hoar frost in the air,
Nor from white sand upon Farewell Beach below.

ZHAO Yan-chun: Of hoarfrost in the air one takes no heed,
And on the shoal you fail to see sand white.

“汀” means shoal here. It is also the Farewell Beach of the man and the woman in this poem.

白云一片去悠悠，青枫浦上不盛愁。

XU Yuan-chong: Away, away is sailing a single cloud white;
On Farewell Beach are pining away maples green.

ZHAO Yan-chun: Away, away floats a wisp of cloud white;
On the Green Maple shoal I feel so sad.

“青枫浦” is a place name, and it is located in Liuyang county, Hunan Province. Here it means the place that wanderer lived in temporarily.

谁家今夜扁舟子？何处相思明月楼？

XU Yuan-chong: Where is the wanderer sailing his boat tonight.
Who, pining away, on the moonlit rails would lean?

ZHAO Yan-chun: Who’s rowing a canoe against the night?
Who’s by a moonlit rail missing her lad?

Here the translation strategies the two translators choose are different, but gained equal effects. “扁舟子” refers to wanderer who row a canoe. “明月楼” is the women’s boudoir, here refers to the woman.

斜月沉沉藏海雾，碣石潇湘无限路。

XU Yuan-chong: In the mist on the sea the slanting moon will hide;
It’s a long way from northern hills to southern streams.

ZHAO Yan-chun: The slanting moon looms amid the sea brume;
From him to her stretches an endless way.

The conceptual meaning of “斜月” is “slanting moon”. “碣石”，the name of the mountain, is on the Bohai Sea. “潇湘” refers to Xiangjiang and Xiaoshui, both belongs to Hunan Province. The two names here, the former in the north and the latter in the south, allude to the long distance between the man and the woman and they are therefore hopelessness of meeting each other.

C. Application Connotative Meaning to the Translation of Cultural Image Words in Chun Jiang Hua Yue Ye

Cultural image words include political systems, social customs, historical evolution, traditional etiquette, etc. In addition, there are some words in the language that do not have any emotional color, but because people have long used the words in some social environments, thus it gradually has a deep meaning with special emotional colors (YI Zhong-tian, 2018).

鸿雁长飞光不度，鱼龙潜跃水成文。

XU Yuan-chong: But message-hearing swans can’t fly out of moonlight,
Nor can letter-sending fish can leap out of their place.

ZHAO Yan-chun: But wild geese can never outfly the light,
Nor can fish leap over the ocean’s brim.

In this sentence, the author describes that the wild geese are good at flying, unable to fly out of the boundless moonlight to express the sorrowful feeling of the man and the woman because they cannot reach meet each other. The swan goose is a big migratory bird. It comes to the North in spring and goes to the South in autumn. Therefore, it often bows to wanderers, nostalgic for family and sentimental travelers. As early as in the *Book of Songs*, “鸿雁” was used as a metaphor for the messenger who passed letters between lovers, and it has been used today. In western countries, the wild goose is not common, let alone any sentimental color, and even has any special name. On the contrary, it is called “wild goose”. So we can see here XU’s version better conveys the meaning of this cultural image word and is acceptable for foreign readers.

In addition, the image of “龙” is completely different in Chinese and Western cultures. In Chinese culture, the dragon is a symbol of sacredness, dignity and auspiciousness. The ancient emperor was called the emperor of the true dragon, and the Chinese were also regarded as the descendants of the dragon. In Western culture, due to the baptism of Christianity, people think that the dragon is the incarnation of the devil Satan, the root of evil, and the symbol of evil and ugliness, so it should be avoided as much as possible. Thus the two versions selected to not translate “龙”.

V. CONCLUSIONS

Images are the essence of poetry, because they can arouse the resonance of readers by creating a special scene. Therefore, when translating the cultural image words in Chinese classical poetry, the translators must consider how to express the same emotions in other languages and convey the image of poetry.

Under the guidance of Conceptual Meaning and Connotative Meaning, the author analyzed the English versions of XU Yuan-chong and ZHAO Yan-chun's *Chun Jiang Hua Yue Ye*, and found that there are only a few culturally image words that can be translated with equivalent expressions in the other languages, while many other kinds cannot for the reason of cultural difference.

From XU Yuan-chong and ZHAO Yan-chun's English version of *Chun Jiang Hua Yue Ye*, it can be concluded that translators can adopt different strategies in translating cultural image words of Chinese classical poetry, such as literal translation, literal translation plus annotation, free translation, free translation plus annotation, transliteration, and transliteration plus annotation and so on. However, they must remember that the purpose of translation is to fuel communication, so they should pursue to make target language acceptable while attempting to maintain its cultural features of original language in the translation of cultural image words.

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A Discourse Analysis Study of Graffiti at Secondary Schools in Jordan

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Abstract—This research aims to explore the thematic meanings of graffiti written on the walls and desks at secondary public schools in the Directorate of Education for the Qasabat Irbid District during the second semester of the academic year 2020/2021. The data comprise 207 written graffiti taken from different locations. Braun and Clarke's (2006) Thematic Analysis and Fairclough's (1995) Critical Discourse Analysis are adopted to account for the data thematically and linguistically. The findings of the study show that the qualitative and quantitative data fall into three main discourse themes: Religious, Political, and Emotional. Each one has been classified into subcategories accordingly. The results also show that the highest percentage of the discourse theme domains is related to the emotional one which constitutes the half of data. The lexical features indicate that the language of the graffiti is simple. Yet, it presents a complete thought. Languages and language variations are also identified.

Index Terms—critical discourse analysis, Graffiti, linguistic, Graffiti types, lexical features

I. INTRODUCTION

People use coded languages to communicate between themselves. The message of such languages should be mutually understood. Otherwise, it will be a recipe for chaos. That is to say, neither the sender nor the receiver will comprehend the message and the degree of misunderstanding will be dramatically spotted out. Miller (1963, p.10) notes that when people communicate, they move the information from one place to another. Therefore, the information should be encoded in a set of symbols. He adds that the code "consists of spoken sounds, of written squiggles or whatever other set of symbols is convenient."

Graffiti, as a means of communication, can be dated back to a pre-historic era since different kinds of pictures and symbols were found on the walls or surface of caves where ancient nations established their homes. Tracy (2005, p. 22) views this phenomenon as an important one and regards it as "freedom of expressions" whose writers are often anonymous. Scholars around the world investigate the content of this kind of writing and the motivational factors that trigger using graffiti as a means of interaction between individuals of a particular society. Farina (2014, p.48) adopts Raymonda's (2008) term and views graffiti as "a second diary book" to refer to graffiti where people's voices are represented in either public or private places to convey their anger, instantons thought, love, declaration, political proclamation, outcry, etc." Therefore, the present study sheds the light on the thematic purposes identified on the walls and desks at secondary public schools in the Directorate of Education for the Qasabat Irbid District. Additionally, it tends to explore how students express their feelings and thoughts which will be discussed in details in the next section.

II. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

The language provides the access to other's minds. It also reflects their implicit or explicit thoughts and attitudes towards the diversity and the domains of life. The relationships between language and its social, political or religious implications are the center of linguists' attention. Sociolinguists, for instance, affirm the relationships between language and society. Warndhugh (2006, p.10) points that "there are several possible relationships between language and society. One is that social structure may either influence or determine linguists' structure and/or behavior." The use of a certain expression may be affected by the social norm or class. Thus, it directs and determines people to use a particular use of language.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Trahan (2011) maintains that graffiti has been received particular attention throughout history since it is a cultural phenomenon. Yet, a researcher has to explore how the characteristics of the medium itself influence the graffiti for which it serves as a backdrop. The present study tends to discover the thematic analysis of the used expressions and how graffiti in different contexts serves to air people's attitudes, beliefs, concerns, interest, and feelings about their surroundings. To the best knowledge of the researcher, there are few studies done on graffiti at schools. Therefore, conducting an analysis of this graffiti may bridge the research gap in particular and the types of graffiti in general.

IV. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study derives its importance from the fact that it offers an analysis of the written discourse pictured as graffiti at secondary public schools in the Directorate of Education for the Qasabat Irbid District. In fact, the study is significant because it is hoped that this study may offer a valued source of data to the field of linguistics in particular and other fields of study in general such as politics, sociology, psychology, and religions. It is also expected for the study to explore the themes of such graffiti and inspect the motivational factors that produce people's writings. Furthermore, the study will predictably account for the language of the graffiti concerning society as a prerequisite of Critical Discourse Analysis.

V. QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY

Using the post-structuralist model of discourse analysis framework, the study attempts to answer the following questions:

1. What thematic contents do the graffiti-writings serve?
2. What are the languages, language variations, lexical and syntactic features that constitute the language of graffiti-writings?

VI. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Theoretical Background

The etymology of graffiti originally came from the Greek word "graphein" meaning "to write" and it is the plural form of the Italian word "graffito" to mean drawing, scratched, and inscription. Chilwa (2008, p.274) refers to graffiti as "any form of writing or images on the walls or surfaces of public buildings, parks, toilets, buses or trains, usually bearing some political or sexual contents". Crystal (1979, p.181) affirms this and describes graffiti as any type of public marking that can be seen in the forms of "simple written words to elaborate wall paintings". That is to say, graffiti is considered as a means of communication written in public places or anywhere to deliver a message without any social, political or religious strains that prevent people from doing so. To elaborate this, the intended message of such writings underlines a thematic purpose and reflects one's identity, ideology, thoughts and beliefs about a particular topic.

Scholars hold different attitudes towards graffiti. On the one hand, some of those scholars as Nwoye (1993) refer to them as a means of strike, undesirable annoyance, a sign of rebellion against authorities and a form of defacement and manifestation of vandalism. On the other hand, Obeng (2000) views graffiti as a means of "egalitarian" to express and offer the chance to the marginalized people and help them to "speak the unspeakable". Other scholars also consider graffiti as a valuable source of viewpoints and thoughts of others toward a certain issue. Yeike (2003), for example, maintains that graffiti is "a source of information about significant social issues and problems" (Cited in Al-Khawaldeh et al., 2017, p. 31). In other words, the message revealed from such writings may affect politician's points of view, for instance, and direct their attention toward a certain problem to be solved. According to Abu Eissa and Rababah (2020, p. 201) "Graffiti has value and importance in conveying certain messages as means of communication. It expresses individuals' sense of freedom or revolution they may feel or want to show". Yet, there is another argument hold by scholars like Basthomi (2009) that perceives graffiti as "dominant rhetoric" which blocks the second party to respond positively or negatively. Overall, even though graffiti is considered as manifestation of vandalism by some scholars. It still served as means of communication that infers a message and offers the chance to others to respond or stimulate them to take an action.

The phenomenon of graffiti was the center of attention to many scholars from various disciplines. Cultural analysis such as Bushnell (1990) views graffiti as an important source of information that helps in evaluating the undercurrent developments within a specific cultural group. Psychological analysis like Abel and Buckley (1977) examine the motivational factors that stimulate individuals to produce such writings. Historical analysis such as Shillington (1977) shed the lights on graffiti to explore and understand the history of a certain culture.

Linguists like Gross et al (1997) describe graffiti as a "linguistic phenomenon" that involves both "form and content" and makes use of discourse to mean something other than itself. Because graffiti writings, as mentioned earlier, contain a communicative message and donate a meaning determined by social or political factors, their "forms and contents" can be linguistically investigated in general and from discourse analysis in particular.

Discourse analysis does not only study the language use "beyond the sentence boundary" as suggested by Brown and Yule (1983), but it also accounts for the "naturally occurring language use". Thus, linguists who study graffiti do not only examine the structure of the patterns and their implicit or explicit meaning, but they pay too much attention to the use of that language as a social practice in a particular society.

Fairclough (1989, p.18) proposes that "language is a part of society" and language itself is "a social process" (ibid., p.19). He also argues that language and society are externally and internally related. Therefore, studying the language of graffiti cannot be fully analyzed where the social norms and strains are isolated. Therefore, the discourse of graffiti is seen as a social interaction process where the production of the language of graffiti is affected by external and/or internal factors.

To analyze a certain discourse, Fairclough (1995) also suggests that there should be interrelated processes that are tied to three dimensions, which are:

1. The object of analysis (including verbal, visual, or verbal and visual texts).
2. The process by which the object is produced and received (writing, speaking, designing and reading, listening, viewing) by human subjects.
3. The socio-historical conditions that govern these processes.

To restate, when a linguist tries to account for the "form and content" of any object, graffiti as an example, he/she has to consider the internal process by which that object is produced and then received and the external factors that determine such a process. (i.e. the imposed impacts of both society and history on producing and receiving that object).

Applying the three mentioned processes to consider graffiti as a discourse starts from the text analysis itself which is referred to as a "description" then moving to process analysis which is "interpretation" and finally explaining the socio-historical conditions that direct the producing and receiving that discourse. Janks (1997, p.329) confirms the usefulness of this approach when analyzing as a text. She points out that this method of analysis "provides multiple points of analytic entry" since it accounts for the tied choices (social and historical) that make up the text in the process of production and reception.

B. Empirical Studies

One of the first studies of graffiti from a linguistic approach can be traced back to Girder (1975). He presents graffiti as "a mode of linguistic communication within a community setting and their ramification." In his study, he investigated the cultural linguistic functions of "con safos" graffiti within the Mexican-American community.

Some scholars tend to classify the phenomenon of graffiti into two types: public and private (Emmison and Smith, 2002). As opposed to private graffiti, Reinser (1971) defines public graffiti by explaining that they are done in open areas where there is a greater possibility for the writer to be seen and known (Cited in El-Nashal and Nayef, 2016, p.228). Gadsby (1995) identifies six different types of graffiti which are latrinalia (restroom graffiti as proposed by Dundes (1966), public, folk, epigraphy, historical, tags and humorous. In his study to graffiti in the main library of four different universities in the United States, Dombrowski (2011) finds out the quantitative analysis of the data reveals that insult and remarks about advice, classes, love, the surroundings, school and oneself and sex are the most common ones found in the library.

In a way of identifying the communicative strategies employed in graffiti writing and the influence of learning the language of graffiti on the English language, Mwangi (2012) finds out that students used varied communicative strategies like humor, symbolism, irony, short forms, acronyms, and abbreviation in their graffiti writings. In a study done by Raymond (2008), the researcher analyzes the kinds of register, the functions, and the styles of graffiti art found in Surakarta. The results reveal that there are three types of register that can be classified by their class of word which are noun, adjective and verb. Additionally, seven functions of graffiti art pictures are also found in Surakarta community.

In a way to explore the linguistic aspects in Iranian's graffiti, Shivanda et al.(2015) apply Hall's (1980) fifteen process in defining linguistic features on graffiti. The results show that there are clear linguistic aspects in the collected graffiti. Dialogues were the most frequent linguistic aspect while questions of no answers and punning on re-division of words were the least frequent ones (Cited in Al-Khawaldeh et al., 2017).

In Egypt, El-Nashar and Nayef (2016) follow Fairclough's (1995) Post-Structuralist model of discourse analysis to account for vehicle graffiti on the roads of Egypt. The study is meant to examine the various domains of vehicle graffiti by studying the themes in accordance with the language in use. Lexical features of graffiti and language variations were also tackled. Results show that the religious expressions compose more than the half of data.

A more recent study done in Jordan, Al-Khawaldeh et al.(2017) adopt also the same model of Fairclough's (1995) Critical Discourse Analysis and Braun and Clark's (2006) models to investigate the thematic analysis of the graffiti contents and the communicative features of the graffiti writings on two governmental universities. The data reveals that the linguistic features of these graffiti are simplicity and variation. Moreover, different communicative functions were identified in the language of graffiti such as personal, social, national, religious, political and taboos matters.

It is clear-cut that graffiti writings have been tackled from different domains of studies. That is to say, studies have been appealed to many disciplines such as cultural, psychological, historical and linguistic ones. Researchers of such disciplines account for the data of the graffiti from different angles. Yet, they in general were after analyzing the types of graffiti by classifying them into sub-classifications.

In linguistics, researchers dealt with the corpus of graffiti by adopting approaches like Fairclough's (1995) model of Critical Discourse Analysis and Braun and Clark's (2006) models of Thematic Analysis to investigate both "content and form" of the graffiti. They analyze the various discourse domains that the language of graffiti falls into and then account for the language in terms of structure, discourse markers and other linguistic features concerning domains of life that may affect its use or impose a kind of restriction on it. After reviewing the literature of graffiti and to the best knowledge of the researcher, the present study sheds the light on graffiti at secondary public schools in the Directorate of Education for the Qasabat Irbid District in Jordan. In fact, the study derives its importance from the fact that it will explore the various discourse domains of graffiti through thematic classification to these graffiti writings and discover the lexical and syntactic features and language variations.

VII. DATA COLLECTION AND METHODOLOGY

The population of the study included all the written graffiti (there are graffiti of pictorial and symbols forms. For the purpose of this study, the written graffiti will be only investigated) found in the walls and desks at secondary public schools in the Directorate of Education for the Qasabat Irbid District in Jordan. The sample of the study consisted of 207 written sentences/ phrases/ words in both the Arabic and English languages displayed on walls and desks to represent different aspects and perspectives of language. This is a corpus-based discourse analysis study. Discourses are drawn from graffiti written on the walls and desks. The researcher visited most of these places. For each place, pictures were taken and then classified into a set of categories according to the theme they serve or donate. There were two languages (Arabic and English) used in the graffiti. The norms of the Arabic language were also classified into standard and colloquial. The degree of formality and matters of gender graffiti were also identified.

VIII. DATA ANALYSIS

Data were qualitatively and quantitatively analyzed. The number of written graffiti was counted. Frequencies and percentages of each theme derived from those writings were also calculated and tabulated. In fact, the resultant themes were reviewed by a specialist in the Arabic language to ensure the validity and reliability of the study and the whole set of data goes under the selected theme. This method, as (Braun and Clarke 2006, 77) noted, can "potentially provide a rich and detailed, yet a complex account of data, and make their examination easier." (Cited in Al-Khawaldeh et al., 2017).

The original writings "the raw data" were kept as they are without any intervention. The drawn Arabic sentences used in this study are translated into English. The researcher translates all of them except those cited from the Holy Quran and Hadeeth (the Prophet's Sayings). Ali's (1975) translation of the Glorious Quran is used as well as- Sunnah for Hadeeth translation. Spelling and grammar mistakes, for example, were not corrected. Then, the language of such inscriptions was analyzed in terms of linguistic features such as the lexical and syntactic ones.

To account for the data linguistically and thematically, the researcher adopted the methodology employed by Fairclough's (1995) Critical Discourse Analysis, Braun and Clarke's (2006) Thematic Analysis, El-Nashar and Nayef (2016) , and Al-Khawaldeh et al. (2017). Fairclough (1995) argues that when analyzing a text, various elements like language function, lexicon, grammar, coherence and cohesion, and text structure should be taken into consideration. He also advises extending the analysis to consider the language as a "social practice" that influences or shapes the language. Consequently, the speaker's intention as a product will be clearly identified. Thus, using this approach will offer explanations to Elements that constitute the language of the chosen graffiti.

Thematic analysis widely uses the qualitative analysis method within Psychology. Braun and Clarke (2006) analyze the content of the writing (i.e graffiti) by collecting similar thematic codes or patterns to applicable/ relevant groups of meaning. Hence, following this analysis, the implicit and explicit meanings of such writing can be categorized accordingly. That is to say, the codes of frequencies and occurrences of a particular group of messages can be traced and then common themes can be determined.

IX. VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

The study has independent and dependent variables. The independent ones are represented in the categorized and sub-categorized themes while dependent variables will be the used language (Arabic or English), the norm (standard or colloquial), and the degree of formality (formal or informal).

X. RESULTS

The results of the questions will be answered through statistical analysis. Generally speaking, the presentation of this chapter starts with the questions followed by some comments about the result of each question. Concerning the first question (What thematic contents do the graffiti-writings serve?), the qualitative analysis of the collected data of graffiti being written on the walls and desks shows that they serve different themes. Such themes were categorized based on the meaning of the contents. Each theme then was also sub-categorized based on codes of meanings. Firstly, the overall percentages of all themes will be presented in figure 1. Subsequently, the other sub-categorizations of each theme will be presented in figures 2, 3, and 4.

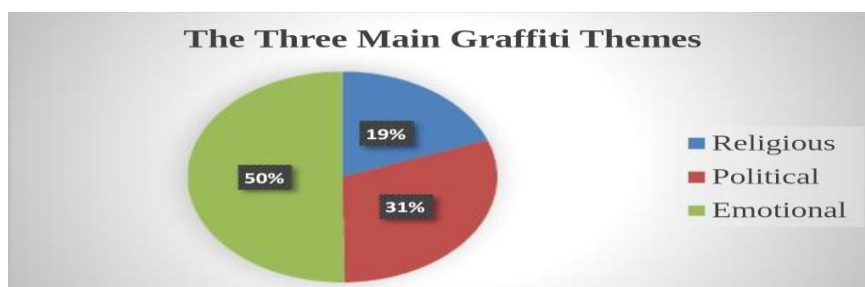


Figure 1: the overall percentages of all themes

Comparing the themes expressed in graffiti yields the following statistical results. It is obvious that the highest percentage of these discourse theme domains is related to the emotional theme. It accounts for half of the overall number of language theme located on the walls. It is considered the most frequently occurring theme in the quantitative data. There were (104) occurrences to this category and its subcategories. The Political theme ranks second with a percentage of (31%). By contrast, the religious theme is the least frequent one with a percentage of (19%) as it constitutes the lowest percentage of the overall themes. Only (40) occurrences of data were recorded for this theme accordingly.

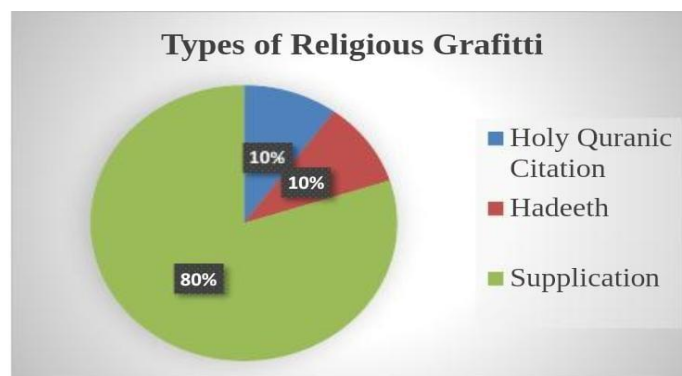


Figure 2: the percentages of religious subcategories

After examining figure 2, it is clear-cut that "supplication" forms the dominant percentage of (80%) as against the other two-subcategories. The results show that the other two types of religious theme namely the "Holy Quranic and Hadeeth (Prophet Mohammad's sayings Peace be upon him). They equally accounted for (10%) of the overall discourse theme.

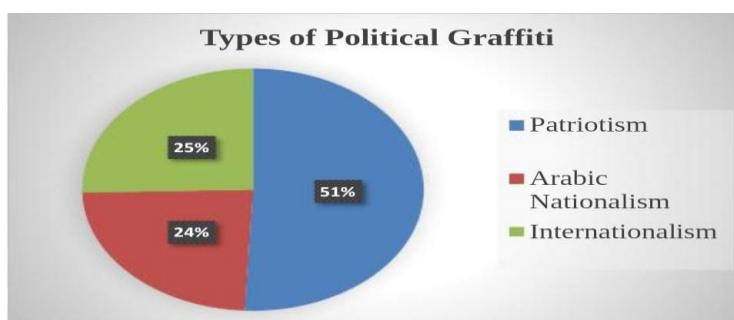


Figure 3: the percentages of political subcategories

Based on the previous figure (3), the data revealed that students' political views of patriotism shaped half of the overall percentages of the political graffiti. There were (32) occurrences as against (16) of "internationalism" and (15) of "Arabic Nationalism" instances of the other two halves of types of this graffiti which both of them constitute the other half respectively.

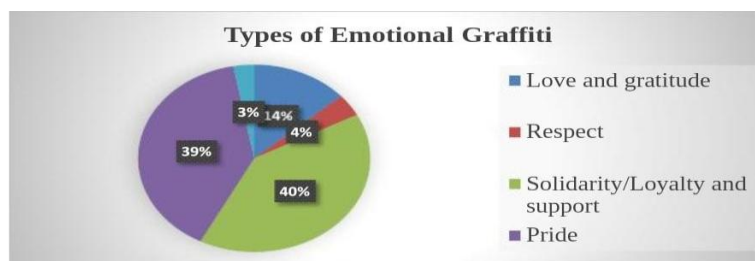


Figure 4: the percentages of emotional subcategories

The discourse domain that constitutes the first and largest number of occurrences in the data is the emotional expressions graffiti scoring (104) occurrences. The data analysis of "Solidarity/ Loyalty and Support" as the main subcategory displays (40%) of the data under investigation and accounts for the first rank among the five types of "Emotional Graffiti". Identically with a slight statistical difference, "Pride" ranked second with a number of (41) instances of occurrence.

"Love and Gratitude" comes in the third rank in this type of graffiti. It has been found that (14%) of "Emotional Graffiti" fall under this domain. People tend to be emotionally more with using expressions of support and pride to

express their love and gratitude. The last two types of this domain include "Respect" and "Advice". They score (4% and 3%) respectively. Predictably, Showing respect and offering pieces of advice are not the center of attention to the students.

To answer the second question (What are the languages, language variations, lexical and syntactic features that constitute the language of graffiti-writings?), the researcher inspected the instances where the Arabic and English languages were used when writing graffiti. Similarly, Modern Standard Arabic and colloquial Arabic were also examined. Numbers of nominal and verbal sentences are also drawn out and calculated in table number 1. Regarding the lexical and syntactic features, they will be fairly discussed in the next coming section.

TABLE 1
THE LINGUISTIC OCCURRENCES AND PERCENTAGES OF GRAFFITI DATA

| No | Theme | Language | | Norm | | Sentence Type | |
|----|-------------|----------|---------|----------|------------|---------------|--------|
| | | Arabic | English | Standard | Colloquial | Nominal | Verbal |
| A | Religious | 39 | 1 | 23 | 16 | 24 | 10 |
| B | Political | 40 | 23 | 26 | 12 | 27 | 12 |
| C | Emotional | 87 | 17 | 39 | 48 | 57 | 27 |
| | Percentages | 97.5 | 2.5 | 57.5 | 40.0 | 60 | 25 |
| | | 63.5 | 36.5 | 41.3 | 19.0 | 42.9 | 19 |
| | | 83.7 | 16.3 | 37.5 | 46.2 | 54.8 | 26 |

Through a close look at Table 1, the two dominant languages used in the students' writing are Arabic and English. The dominant number of occurrences is clearly detected in the Arabic language of all the three main themes. The percentages ranged from the highest (97%) in the writing of religious graffiti to the lowest of (63%) in the political one. By contrast, The English language is frequently used in the political domain with a number of occurrences account for (23) out of (63) in the same domain. Only (2.5%) of students use religious graffiti to express their supplications. A reasonable justification comes from the fact that all students are Muslims and speak the Arabic language.

The language variation is generally classified into two norms: the modern standard and colloquial Arabic. It is clear from the data that people use standard Arabic the most when they use religious expressions. The standard Arabic, particularly in this domain, constitutes (57.5 %) as the highest percentage. Comparing this to colloquial Arabic, people are likely to use this kind of variation when expressing their emotional languages. It accounts for (46.2%) of the overall percentages in that theme.

Regarding the sentence types, nominal and verbal sentences are counted after being examined by a specialist in Arabic. The data shows that in the "Emotional theme" (54.8%) of sentences were nominal in their types. This theme scores the highest occurrences of (57) against (104) of the total occurrences. By contrast, the verbal sentences score the least frequent number of occurrences in the "political" domain of graffiti. Linguistically speaking, nominal sentences tend to be more intimate as they show a degree of informality between interlocutors.

XI. DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the discourse themes of graffiti in secondary public schools in the Directorate of Education for the Qasabat Irbid District during the academic year 2020\ 2021 using mainly Braun and Clarke's (2006) Thematic Analysis and Fairclough's (1995) Critical Discourse Analysis. In this section, the discussion of the two main questions of the study, conclusion and recommendation for future research will be intensively discussed.

Concerning the first question (What thematic contents do the graffiti-writings serve?), the data analysis reveals that there are three main themes detected in the graffiti. Examining the corpus of the data also indicates that there are specific types for each theme. Discussion of each category and subcategory of each theme will be presented in this section as follows:

A. Religious Themes

As shown in figure 1, the Religious theme accounts for (19%) of the overall themes. This theme consists of three main types namely: Holy Quranic citation, Hadeeth , and supplication. The vast majority of the used expressions fall under "supplication". An explanation for this result comes from the fact that students ask for God's mercy, help and support.

Expressions like "اللهم احفظ الأردن والملك عبدالله" , "الله يحفظ الأردن" May God protect Jordan: May God take care of Jordan and our King Abdullah" are the most visible ones on the walls. This asserts that people choose to supplicate or say "dua" as a form of worship as stated in the Holy Qur'an and Hadeeth. Students value the use of supplication as it relates them to the essence of Islam as the prophet Mohammad Says. The other two types of the religious themes are subcategorized into "Holy Quranic" and "Hadeeth (the prophet's Sayings)". The number of occurrences for these types was equal in number (only 4). Graffitiists cite some verses from the Holy Quran to reaffirm their faiths. The following verse (ayah) is cited from Al-Imran "The House of Imran" number (103) ("واعصموا بحبل الله جميعا ولا تفرقوا") And hold fast, all together, by the rope which Allah (stretches out for you), and be not divided among yourselves".

Quoting sayings from Prophet Mohammad is another manifestation of the religious discourse domain. "يد الله مع الجماعة" Allah's Hand is with the jama'ah (Muslims' community)" (This Hadeeth is narrated by Ibn Abbas, Jami` at-Tirmidhi,

Book 33, Hadith 9). The use of this Hadeeth is to emphasize that a Muslim should not split away in the Muslim's community or otherwise he/she will be set on the fire on Judgment Day. Table (2) presents other examples for the three types of religious graffiti displayed on walls.

TABLE 2
EXAMPLES OF RELIGIOUS THEME

| EXAMPLES OF RELIGIOUS THEME | | |
|-----------------------------|--|---|
| Religious themes | Examples | English Translation |
| Holy Quranic | وَلَا تَنَازَعُوا فِيهِ فَنفَصَحُوا وَتَذَهَبَ رِيحُكُمْ | "and fall into no disputes, lest ye lose heart and your power depart:" |
| Citation | فَدَعَا رَبَّهُ أَنِّي مَغْلُوبٌ فَانْتَصِرْ | "Then he called on his Lord: "I am one overcome: do Thou then help (me)!" |
| | (لَا تَخْزَنُ إِنَّ اللَّهَ مَعَنَا) | "Have no fear, for Allah is with us" |
| Hadeeth (Prophet's Sayings) | من كان يؤمن بالله واليوم الآخر فلا يؤذ جاره | Messenger of Allah (ﷺ) said, "He who believes in Allah and the Last Day let him not harm his neighbour;" |
| | المؤمن للمؤمن كالبنيان يشد بعضه بعضا | Messenger of Allah (ﷺ) said, "The relationship of the believer with another believer is like (the bricks of) a building, each strengthens the other." |
| Supplications | اللّٰهُ يحفظ الأردن | May God protect JORDAN |
| | اللهم احفظ الأردن وقيادته من كل سوء | May God protect Jordan and its leader from any harm |
| | اللهم انصر من نصرنا واخذل من خذلنا | Oh Allah be with those who stand with us and let down those who are against us |

B. Political Themes

Figure (3) demonstrates that there are three types of political graffiti. The majority of students use political expressions that donate patriotism. As previously explained, this type accounts for (51%) of the overall percentages of these political themes. Jordanian students have a great sense of belonging, attachment, and responsibility toward their country and leadership. Expressions like "العز عرك با الأردن", "الأردن حلوة وأجمل لوحة في عيني", "وان صار ما صار نبقى للأردن", "Glory is the glory of Jordan", "Jordan is beautiful and it is the most beautiful painting I can see", "whatever happens, we will be very loyal to our country-Jordan" donate patriotic feelings as it is well-rooted in Jordanian's heart. As a kind of dedication, Jordanian students find patriotic expressions a noticeable way to express their loyalty to their nation.

C. Emotional Themes

Emotional languages constitute the highest and the most frequent ones of all themes. There are five main subcategories that fall under the emotional theme namely: love and gratitude, showing respect, solidarity/ loyalty and support, pride and advice. Showing respect and offering advice have the lowest percentages of (4%) and (3%) respectively. Students choose to express other kinds of feeling since the last two types are already included in the major trends of themes. People also quote some words of the king as an indicator to show their respect and attitude to the king's political position for example: "نحن قوم نلتزم بمبادئنا وقيمنا" "We are committed to our principles and values". Offering advice was the least frequent in number at all with only one instance in Arabic and two instances in English.

On the contrary, graffiti of solidarity/ loyalty and support, and pride ranked the highest percentages of all types of emotional themes. The political conditions trigger people to choose sentences full of solidarity/loyalty and support. Graffiti writings like, "نحن جنودك" , "تحت أمرك" "We are under your command" and "We are your soldiers" are expected ones in this political crises. Inscriptions that donate pride are also noticeable. Table (2) presents other examples for the five types of emotional graffiti.

TABLE 3
EXAMPLES OF EMOTIONAL THEME

| EXAMPLES OF EMOTIONAL THEME | | |
|-----------------------------|---|---|
| Emotional Type | Examples | English Translation |
| Love and gratitude | حبيبي عبدالله | My love is Abdullah. |
| | شعب الأردن في قلب عبدالله | People of Jordan are in Abdulla's heart. |
| | نحبك يا عبد الله | We love you Abdullah. |
| Respect | عنوان الحق ووجه الحقيقة | You are the address of rightness and the face of truth. |
| | إن كان لنا وطن فهو أنت وإن كان لك شعب فهو نحن | You are our shelter; we are your |
| Solidarity/Loyalty support | روح وحنا خلفك | Go ahead! We are following your steps. |
| Pride | الأردن أولاً | Jordan first |
| | عبد الله الفخر والعز والوطن يا أعلى وطن | Abdullah, you are the source of pride, glory and protection and you are the precious. |
| | أبشروا بالعز والخير | Take it as a promise of life of prominence and goodness. |
| Advice | كن قويا نحن أردنيون | Stay strong we are Jordanian |

In keeping up with the findings of the present study, the results match the findings of Al-Khawaldeh et al. (2017), El-Nashar and Nayef (2016), and Farnia (2014) in that they view graffiti as a mood of communication through which people express their views freely. Additionally, the study is in line with the previous studies in that the contents of the graffiti carry implicit and explicit meanings and themes (religious, political, and emotional). The findings are also in agreement with the findings of Farinia (2014) and Al-Khawaldeh et al. (2017) who find that graffiti is an act that reflects people's attitudes and concerns of common present-day issues.

Regarding Question two (What are the languages, language variations, lexical and syntactic features that constitute the language of graffiti-writings?), the data reveals that both Arabic and English are used apparently. Yet, the dominant language is Arabic since the current study has been carried out in an Arabic country. Language variation is spotted out by analyzing the data. The graffiti of writings reveals that both Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) and colloquial (another manifestation of MSA) are used. The MSA is used heavily in religious themes. In fact, this can be explained by the fact people cited and quoted the original texts from the Holy Quran and the prophet's sayings. They also used MSA when they supplicate and ask God to help them in different areas. The degree of formality also increases as they address King Abdallah as seen in this example "حفظكم الله جلالة الملك" "May God protect you, His Majesty". The attached morpheme "م" "m" in the word "حفظكم" shows a certain degree of formality so that the social distance between the address and addressee is preserved. It is also found that Jordanian dialect and other forms of Arabic dialects are captured in the forms of their writing. Another point to be raised here is that the excessive use of vernacular Arabic in the writing of graffiti affirms the fact that using colloquial dialects is related to the feeling of intimacy and closeness between interlocutors.

Regarding the lexical features of the graffiti, it is shown from the data that there is a kind of overlap between the contents of the themes. Some sentences share a partial or almost the same meaning. This finding is in correspondence with El-Nashar and Nayef (2016). Yet, some detected features distinguish one sub-category from another. For example, the use of "دام" in "دام عزك يا وطني الغالي" "May God sustain the prominence of this beloved country" has implicit/covert agent who is almighty God so that the sentence reads in MSA "أدام الله عزك يا وطني الغالي". The overlapping between the sub-categories of supplication and the political feeling of patriotism can be clearly seen. Yet, the researcher prefers to categorize this graffiti under the later one since the feeling is more evident as patriotism. The syntactic features of the graffiti of all themes can be discussed as accounting for sentence patterns and the grammaticality of the sentences.

There are nominal and verbal sentences identified in the corpus of data. The nominal ones weigh the verbal in the number of occurrences. A clear explanation to this can be understood by the fact that "verbal sentence is used more for the narration of events because it organizes sentences around verbs, and the nominal sentence is used when there are particular topics under discussion because it sets up the topics as the head of the sentence" as stated by Brustad et al. (2010). Stocker et al. (1972) viewed graffiti as an indicator that reflects people's social attitudes in a particular community. People's attitudes using the nominal sentences here is affected by the social practices of people since they prefer to use nominal ones especially if there is a kind of discussion and the focus is on the doer of action rather than the event itself.

The graffiti writings are inscribed in full sentences that express full thoughts. Yet, there are not typical grammatical sentences in both Arabic and English. For example, in the following sentence, it is used as the accusative case that triggers the sentence to be ungrammatical since it functions as the noun of "ظل" which should be in the nominative one: "سيظل عبد الله تاجا" "Abdullah will always be as the crown". Spelling mistakes are found and no punctuation marks were used in all of the occurrences of the two languages. Another remark observed in the data that the majority of the sentences are simple. Only two occurrences of conditional and relative clauses are examined. Only one occurrence of dialogue as a literary verse. The same findings were mentioned by Al-Khawaldeh et al. (2017, p. 39) "...as simple or syntactically less complex and void of punctuation marks."

XII. CONCLUSION

The study investigates the graffiti writings and their thematic meanings they serve. Linguistic features are also examined using Fairclough's (1995) model of Critical Discourse Analysis. The analysis asserts that graffiti is "a linguistic phenomenon" that can be analyzed in terms of "form and content". The contents of the graffiti suggest different thematic meanings as they are grouped into three main religious, political and emotional discourse domains where the latter one accounts for the highest number of occurrences and percentages. Then, applying Braun and Clarke's (2006) Thematic Analysis, certain codes are detected which helps the researcher to regroup the inscription into sub-categorization namely: Holy Quranic citation, Hadeeth, supplication, patriotism, Arabic Nationalism, Internationalism, Love and Gratitude, solidarity/loyalty and support, pride, and advice.

The syntactic features of the study reveal both the Arabic and English languages are used in the inscriptions of graffiti writings. The dominant language is Arabic. MSA and colloquial dialects are also visible in their writings where the number of occurrences of the colloquial dialects is more. The sentences are simple of a complete thought. The nominal sentences are found to be more than the verbal ones.

XIII. RECOMMENDATIONS AND EDUCATIONAL SUGGESTIONS

Based on the findings of the study, the researcher recommends the following:

1. It is recommended that the graffiti is not only considered as a platform of communication, but it also reflects students' thoughts governed by norms of society.
2. To avoid vandalism of other's property without permission, it is advisable to install legal billboards in special places at schools and educational institutions so that graffitiists can express their thoughts freely.

XIV. SUGGESTION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The findings of this study are limited to the written graffiti on the desks and walls of the secondary public schools in the Directorate of Education for the Qasabat Irbid District Irbid Governorate in Jordan during the second semester of the academic year 2020/2021 that display students' thoughts and opinions. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalized to other types of graffiti displayed in Jordan and other countries.

For future research, it might be valuable to repeat the study with larger samples of graffiti data in general or to other types of graffiti: vehicles, internet blogs and hatch tags as examples. The data can also be analyzed using different linguistic domains or approaches, as this will enrich the literature of linguistics in particular and other scholarly disciplines in general.

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Translation and Spread of Guizhou Batik From the Perspective of 5W Mode of Communication —A Case Study of *Splendid China ·Guizhou Batik**

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Abstract—Nowadays, because the mainstream culture occupies a large number of resources in the communication field, the spread of many intangible cultural heritage has been squeezed, and batik is one of them. Guizhou batik culture, in terms of its development space, in the collision with the mainstream culture, is in a relatively disadvantaged position. However, with the accelerating process of globalization and the rapid development of information technology, we can strive to improve the translation effect by means of the combination of translation theory and communication theory, taking the 5W mode of communication as the macro guidance and "function plus loyalty" proposed by Christian Nord as the principle. The 5W mode of communication proposed by Lasswell not only summarizes communication as five important factors, but also provides new inspiration for translation scholars. Taking the translation practice of *Splendid China ·Guizhou Batik* as an example, this paper mainly expounds the infiltration of 5W mode of communication into the translation strategy and translation skills from five factors, namely, who (author and translator), says what (communication content), in which channel (media research) and with what effect, so as to enhance the spread of batik culture in Guizhou.

Index Terms—5W mode of communication, "Function Plus Loyalty" Principle, Guizhou Batik

I. RESEARCH BACKGROUND

Communication is a science that studies the law of information communication. Since its birth in 1940s, communication theory has made great progress. However, due to the rapid development of science and technology, and network media, it has brought unprecedented challenges to the development of traditional communication. Translation, as a carrier of communication, can give new vitality to communication.

In 1937, Lasswell pointed out in his article *Propaganda and Communication Channels* that American commercial interests basically controlled all communication organizations and had an important impact on the symbolic environment. After looking at this issue from a long-term perspective, he stressed the need to analyze the consequences of communication activities, that is, to consider "who gets what, when and how". This has initially formed his 5W mode. (Harold D. Lasswell, 1937) Based on the 5W mode of communication and the principle of "function plus loyalty" proposed by Christian Nord, through on-the-spot investigation, this paper studies the translation of Guizhou batik, and takes the translation of *Splendid China ·Guizhou Batik* as an empirical study. On the basis of following the style of the original text, we should make a cross-cultural awareness turn and strive to achieve the goal "Let China go to the world, let the world understand China", and then export Guizhou batik to the outside world in English, so that foreign friends can better understand the breadth and profundity of Guizhou traditional handicraft - batik art, and better understand the local cultural value and economic value of Guizhou batik art.

II. THE 5W MODE OF COMMUNICATION

A. Who -- Communicator

"Who" is the communicator, responsible for the collection, processing and transmission of information in the process of communication. Communicators are the starting point and one of the centers of communication activities. The communicator can be a single person, a collective or a special organization, acting as a gatekeeper. The translation of national culture requires the joint efforts of all types of translators in order to convey the voice of national culture in an all-round way. The experience of Chinese culture translation shows that the works favored by foreign readers are often produced by foreigners. However, few foreign translators are proficient in Chinese, and few of them know a certain minority language, which can not meet the needs of national culture translation. Therefore, the need of Guizhou

* This paper is supported by "Research Foundation on Humanities and Social Science of the Education Department of Guizhou Province (2020QN073)"

minority culture translation naturally falls on the Chinese who take Chinese or a minority language as their mother tongue. In this translation practice, the communicators are the authors and the translators. *Splendid China ·Guizhou Batik* was edited by He Chen and Yang Wenbin. He Chen, female, was born in 1976. In 2003, she graduated from Beijing Institute of Fashion Technology with a master's degree and then graduated from the Minzu University of China with a doctorate in cultural heritage protection. Mainly engaged in ethnic costume culture and weaving embroidery dyeing process research, she is now the deputy research librarian of the Central Museum of Nationalities. In recent years, she has published many monographs such as *Miao Batik* and *Folk Costumes*. While the translators are a translation team composed of translation teachers in a university. Before the translation practice, the team members have collected a large number of materials related to 5W mode of communication and Guizhou batik. In the early stage, the project host published a related paper around the 5W mode of communication. The participants of the project include two associate professors, two lecturers and two teaching assistants. Five of them are young backbone teachers of the School of Foreign Languages, with high scientific research ability and rich teaching experience. The other is deputy director of the office, with strong comprehensive coordination ability, writing skills and high computer level. Therefore, both the authors and the translators are well prepared for batik culture translation under the 5W mode of communication.

B. Say What -- Content

"Say what" refers to the content of the message, which is a combination of information composed of a group of meaningful symbols. Symbols include linguistic symbols and non-linguistic symbols. Guizhou is a big province of ethnic minority cultures, so the resources of ethnic culture translation and communication are very rich. The choice of ethnic culture translation content is very important, which should be in line with the fundamental purpose of cultural communication. Through translation, Guizhou's national culture will go to the world, enhance the world influence, and promote the development of Guizhou's tourism economy. The research object of this paper is *Splendid China ·Guizhou Batik*, supported by National Publishing Foundation of China, edited by He Chen and Yang Wenbin, published by Suzhou University Press in 2009, and won the First Chinese Outstanding Publications Book Award and the First China Publishing Government Award. The book has a total of more than 140,000 words and five chapters: Chinese Batik history, Guizhou batik technology, Guizhou batik style, Guizhou batik patterns and Guizhou batik culture. It not only records Guizhou batik ethnic handicrafts with pictures and texts, but also introduces the folk customs and cultural ecology in Guizhou batik. Therefore, the book has great value for international communication.

C. In Which Channel -- Media

"Channel" is the medium or material carrier through which information must be transmitted. It can be letters, telephone and other interpersonal media, and can also be newspapers, radio, television and other mass media. Books and newspapers are the main media of Guizhou ethnic culture translation. However, we should create different forms of translation versions (such as edited version, annotated version and printing version), to adapt to different reader groups, and expand the range of readers and social influence of national culture. In addition, the network is another powerful promoter for the spread of Guizhou ethnic minorities. With the help of network technology, Guizhou national culture can be spread through the establishment of websites, blogs, forums and so on. With the rapid development of mobile media, mobile books, mobile journals, mobile newspapers, mobile radio, mobile TV, etc., can be used as a good communication channel to promote Guizhou ethnic minority culture. Translation is a cross-cultural information communication activity. Based on the translation practice of *Splendid China ·Guizhou Batik*, this paper aims to make the ethnic national culture of Guizhou batik go to the world, and promote the development of Guizhou tourism economy through traditional means such as network electronic media or translated works.

D. To Whom -- Audience

"To whom" is the receiver or the audience. Audience is the general name of all the receivers, such as readers, audience, etc. it is the ultimate object of communication. Audience (target reader) plays an important role in the translation activities. It is the receiver of information spread and the acceptor of translation quality. Without the active participation of the audience, translation can not be carried out successfully. The practical translation experience shows that only those messages that conform to the cultural values, cognitive structure and psychological expectations of the minority cultural, so audience can achieve satisfactory communication effect. Therefore, in the process of translating and spreading national culture, it is necessary to have a full understanding of the history and culture, mode of thinking, values, aesthetic habits and demand levels of the target readers. After this translation practice, we will share the translated works with foreign friends through e-magazine, and adjust the translation based on their feed-backs after reading.

E. With What Effects -- Effect

"Effect" refers to the reaction caused by the information to the audience at all levels of cognition, emotion and behavior. It is an indispensable part of the whole communication process and an important yardstick to test the success of communication activities. The study of Guizhou ethnic minority culture's translation and communication depends on its effect, which refers to the information sent by the main body of translation, and transmitted to the target language

readers through certain media, causing the changes of the audience's ideas and behavior, or the influence and result on a certain society, so as to realize the communication intention of translation. The study of the communication effect of ethnic culture translation should not only focus on the macro analysis of social effect, but also on the micro analysis of individual effect.

III. THE PRINCIPLE OF "FUNCTION PLUS LOYALTY"

In the 1970s, functionalist translation theory emerged in Germany. In 1991, Christian Nord put forward the principle of "function plus loyalty" in discourse analysis in translation, which overcomes some shortcomings of functional skopos theory, comprehensively summarizes and perfects functionalist theory and expands its influence. Nord puts forward the principle of loyalty to solve the relationship between cultural differences and the participants of translation behavior. According to Nord, "function" refers to the translation purpose for the receiver, while "loyalty" refers to the interpersonal relationship among the translator, the author and the receiver. In Zheng Yang's translation practice from the perspective of communication studies, he points out that translation from the perspective of communication studies is no longer the linguistic equivalence between the source language and the target language, but needs a more dynamic and systematic method to study the real connotation of translation as an important way of information and culture transmission. (Zheng Yang, 2015) Therefore, the translation theory and the 5W mode of communication have a high degree of agreement. Combining the two to study the translation and communication of the ethnic culture of Guizhou batik will get twice the result with half the effort.

IV. TRANSLATION SKILLS AND CASE STUDIES

A. *Literal Translation and Annotation*

Due to the great cultural differences between China and foreign countries, many words and expressions with cultural characteristics lack parallel texts. If only literal translation is used, the connotation of some culture loaded words in the source text may be partially missing. Literal translation of some cultural differences can not accurately reflect the meaning and charm of the original text. Therefore, when literal translation is used to reflect cultural differences, annotations can be added to make up for the "blank area" between cultures, so that readers can experience foreign cultures. In addition, due to the uneven understanding of Chinese culture by the target readers, it may be difficult for some people to understand the literal translation, and thus unable to understand its deeper meaning; If only free translation is used, it will be easier for the target language readers to read, but it will lose the purpose of cultural transmission and output. Therefore, literal translation and annotation can be used to achieve the purpose of spreading culture loaded words.

E.g.1 ST: 清雍正时期推行大规模的改土归流。

TT: During the Yongzheng Period of the Qing Dynasty, a large-scale reform of the policy of **Change from Tuguan to Liuguan (Tuguan means the native officers, Liuguan means the officers appointed by the feudal government)** was carried out.

When talking about the environmental factors of Guizhou batik, the author introduces the administrative division and bureaucratic election system of Guizhou in the Yongzheng Period of Qing Dynasty. In this sentence, the author refers to the system of "改土归流", that is, a political measure implemented in southwestern minority areas in the Ming and Qing Dynasties. Southwest China is a place where Miao, Yao, Zhuang, Yi and other ethnic minorities live together. In the early Ming Dynasty, the Tusi system of the Yuan Dynasty was followed. In these areas, the upper class members of ethnic minorities were appointed as officers at all levels, which was called "Tusi". Tusi office includes Xuanwei, Xuanfu, Zhaozhao, Anfu and so on. In order to fight for territory, there were constant wars between Tusi. After calming down the war, the Ming government replaced the Tusi in these areas and sent "Liuguan" who could be transferred at any time to rule. This method is called "改土归流". If literally translated as Change from Tuguan to Liuguan, readers can not understand what are Liuguan and Tuguan, and can not achieve the Fifth W--- With what effect in 5W mode of communication. Therefore, here the way of annotation to explain Liuguan and Tuguan is used, so that readers can have a deeper understanding of the policy of Change from Tuguan to Liuguan to the local government in Yongzheng period, and then further understand the influence of the policy on the development of batik at that time.

E.g.2 ST: 据《后汉书 南蛮传》《搜神记》等记载,秦、汉时期,被称为“盘瓠蛮”、“武陵蛮”的苗族先民“织绩木皮、染以草实,好五色衣,制裁有尾形.....裳斑斓”。

TT: According to the records of *The Book of the Later Han: Biography of Nan Man and Stories of Immortals*, the ancestors of the Miao nationality, known as "**Panhu man**"¹ and "**Wuling man**"² in the Qin and Han Dynasties, "weave wood veneer, dye with grass, dress in five colors, cut in the tailed shape...colorful clothes."

¹ Ancient clan name. Panhu man got its name from the totem of Panhu. During the Qin and Han Dynasties, he lived in Wuling County (now western Hunan, eastern Guizhou and Southwest Hubei), Changsha County (now central Hunan and southern Hunan).

² In Han Dynasty, it was a general term for ethnic minorities distributed in today's western Hunan, Southwest Hubei and other areas. It is named because it is located in Wuling county.

When introducing the return of batik to the southwest after the Song and Yuan Dynasties, the author mentions the migration of ethnic minorities to the southwest, which involves two words “盘瓠蛮”、“武陵蛮”. In translation, if they are transliterated as Panhuman and Wulingman, the readers should not be able to understand the meaning of these two words. Therefore, the translator translates them as Panhu man and Wuling man. Although there is only one space mark between them, the translator lists man as a single word. Readers will know that this represents a kind of people. On this basis, through the annotation of "Panhu man" and "Wuling man", it is pointed out that this kind of appellation appeared in the Qin and Han Dynasties, which got its name from totem or local county name, and especially refers to the minority. This translation not only conforms to Nord's "loyalty" principle, but also enables readers to understand the appellation and dress of the ethnic minorities in the Qin and Han Dynasties, so as to achieve the purpose of cultural communication.

E.g.3 ST: 贵州地貌以高原山地居多,素有“八山一水一分田”之说。

TT: Guizhou's landforms are mostly plateau mountains, known as **"eight mountains, one water and one field"**³.

When introducing the environmental factors of Guizhou batik, the author mentioned the geographical location and features of Guizhou, so as to highlight the fact that Guizhou ethnic minorities live in a relatively closed social environment, so hand-made batik can be well preserved. In describing the landforms of Guizhou, the author quoted the saying of “八山一水一分田”. If it is just translated as "eight mountains, one water and one field", it may cause misunderstanding to readers, which means that there are only eight mountains, one river and one piece of land in Guizhou. Therefore, in order to eliminate the readers' barriers to understanding, literal translation and annotation can be used to further explain that Guizhou is a place with many mountains and few rivers and fields, and the "eight" and "one" in the sentence are only approximate numbers.

B. Transliteration and Annotation

In translation, translator should give full play to the subjectivity of the translator, create a cultural atmosphere for the target audience, and lead the readers to experience the cultural atmosphere between the lines and be in the cultural system described in the text. This means that there is no invariable norm to limit the text in literary translation, and translation itself means the contrast and reconciliation of different cultural patterns. (Nord, 1997) Transliteration can retain the Chinese phonology, while annotation can explain its cultural connotation and characteristics to some extent, so that foreign readers can appreciate Chinese traditional folk customs. It can let readers contact the context, which is conducive to the spread of words with Chinese cultural characteristics. However, only transliteration is meaningless to the readers who do not understand Pinyin, which will cause some obstacles to the readers' understanding. Therefore, transliteration plus annotation can be used to convey the cultural connotation.

E.g.4 ST: 因此人们积极寻找替代品, 从而促使了灰缬的产生。灰缬最早出现在宋代, 早期是直接“灰药”染青。

TT: Therefore, people actively looked for substitutes, which promoted the emergence of **"Hui Xie" (meaning printing and dyeing with alkaline raw materials such as lime and plant ash as anti dyeing agent, so it is also called alkaline printing)**. "Hui Xie" first appeared in the Song Dynasty. In the early period, it was directly dyed with **"Hui Yao" (meaning the paste made of lime)**.

When describing the return of batik to the southwest after the Yuan and Song Dynasties, the author mentions that batik needs a lot of wax. However, the beekeeping industry in Tang Dynasty was still underdeveloped, the production of beeswax was small, and the important raw materials for batik were extremely scarce. It mainly depended on the southwest and other places to pay tribute, so people used “灰缬” as a substitute. In this example, there are two expressions of traditional printing process “灰缬” and printing material “灰药”. Looking back on the development history of textile printing in China, we can see that the ancient printing process has spanned thousands of years. There are many kinds of textile printing in ancient times, and the process is very exquisite, which is still shining. Many printing processes have been listed in the National Intangible Cultural Heritage and become the precious wealth of the Chinese nation. Therefore, understanding the ancient printing process and exporting the traditional printing process is conducive to promoting the spread and development of printing technology. If it is transliterated directly as “Hui Xie” and “Hui Yao”, it is meaningless Pinyin for the audience. In order to achieve the purpose of cultural communication, we should clearly explain the specific reference of “Hui Xie” and “Hui Yao”. After consulting experts, from the perspective of printing process characteristics, ancient textile printing process is mainly divided into direct printing and anti-dyeing printing, “Hui Xie”, as one of the four anti-dyeing printing techniques, has an important position. “Hui Xie” is a process of printing and dyeing with alkali raw material lime and plant ash as anti-dyeing agent, so it is also called alkali agent printing. The process is similar to today's blue calico. The “Hui Yao” in this paper is not a kind of medicine, but a paste made of lime, which is missed on the grey cloth through the pattern. Therefore, in the translation of “灰缬”, we emphasize its raw materials and printing and dyeing methods, which is translated as "Hui Xie" (meaning printing and dyeing with alkaline raw materials such as lime and plant ash as anti dyeing agent, so it is also called alkaline printing; “灰药” is translated as "Hui Yao" (meaning the paste made of lime) to stress that its essence is a paste mixed with lime.

³ Guizhou Province has more mountains, less water and less farmland.

E.g.5 ST: 清嘉庆时甘肃武威人张澍《黔苗竹枝词》中的“蜡绘花衣锦裙裳,振铃跳月斗新妆”。

TT: In *"Zhu Zhi Ci Poem (seven words a line, eight lines) in Guizhou Miao Nationality"*

by Zhang Shu, a Wuwei native of Gansu Province in Jiaqing period of Qing Dynasty,

"With wax painted clothes and brocade dresses, people ring the bell and **Tiao Yue**

(**Tiao means dance and Yue means the moon**)⁴ to compete for beautiful make-up."

When introducing the development history of Southwest batik, the author chooses more poems to describe batik costumes and ethnic customs. For example, 《黔苗竹枝词》 in this sentence, the translator doesn't translate “竹枝” into bamboo branch, but transliterated as "Zhu Zhi", because in the first chapter of the translation of Lusheng, it has emphasized the use of orchestral instruments made of bamboo branch, so here bamboo branch actually refers to musical instruments, so we can use the previous method of transliteration of Lusheng to ensure the consistency of the translation. “词” in 《黔苗竹枝词》 is not the lyric, but the “Ci” in poetry, so it is translated into “Ci Poem” (seven words a line, eight lines), so that foreign readers can better understand the meaning of “Ci” in Chinese poetry. In addition, “月” (the moon) has a beautiful cultural image in Chinese traditional culture, such as “full moon” symbolizes reunion, “Yuelao” symbolizes love; “Moon” especially symbolizes love in Guizhou ethnic minority culture, such as “Tiao Yue” in this example, which refers to a custom of Miao, Yi and other people. On the moonlit night in early spring or late spring, especially on the night of Mid Autumn Festival, unmarried young men and women gather in the field to sing and dance. People who love each other can become husband and wife through various activities. Therefore, the translator chooses the form of transliteration and annotation, which is translated as Tiao Yue (Tiao means dance and Yue means the moon). In this way, foreign readers can understand the meaning of the Pinyin of Tiao Yue. Similarly, the “Yue Chang” in the first chapter refers to the Miao custom, where unmarried men and women woo and jump to the ground. The translator also uses transliteration and annotation, which is translated as “Yue Chang (Yue means the moon and Chang means a site): Miao custom, unmarried men and women journey jump on the ground.”

E.g.6 ST: 在染色技术上, 唐代的夹缬、蜡缬、绞缬等染色方法已成熟并得到普遍应用。

TT: In terms of dyeing technology, the dyeing methods of **“Jia Xie” (meaning indigo**

printing fabric), “La Xie” and “Jiao Xie” (meaning tie-dye) in Tang Dynasty were

mature and widely used.

In introducing the popularity of batik in the Central Plains since the Wei and Jin Dynasties, the author mentions three kinds of batik techniques, 夹缬、蜡缬、绞缬. In translation, the method of transliteration and annotation is adopted, which is translated as “Jia Xie” (meaning indigo printing fabric), “La Xie” and “Jiao Xie” (meaning tie dye), so that readers can not only understand the pronunciation of the three skills, but also understand the meanings behind them. Because La Xie has been annotated and explained in the first chapter, there is no repetition here; at the same time, when translating the three processes, there is no detailed description of their production steps or making process, because in the following chapter “The Making and Dyeing of Indigo”, there are detailed explanations of various processes, so the translator chooses to put the corresponding English in the following chapter. For example, “Jia Xie” is a kind of hollow-out double-sided anti dyeing printing technology. It uses two patterns with the same engraving pattern to clamp the fabric, and then immerses it into the dyeing vat for dyeing. The clamped part can not penetrate the dye solution, and retains the original color. The other parts of the cloth are dyed with color, thus forming a rich pattern. Through the description of words and pictures, there will be a dynamic balance among the author, the translator and the reader, which conforms to Nord's “function” principle and achieves the purpose of cultural communication.

C. Free Translation

In *Ten Lectures on Literary Translation*, Professor Liu Chongde defines free translation as “What is free translation? It may be defined as a supplementary means to mainly convey the meaning and spirit of the original without trying to reproduce the sentence patterns or figures of speech. And it is adopted only when it is really impossible for translators to do literal translation.” (Liu Chongde, 1991, p.53) It can be seen that free translation refers to the translation of content, which emphasizes fluency rather than formality. When it is impossible to translate according to the literal meaning of the original text, and the reader of the target language can not understand it, and can not effectively grasp the deep meaning of the original text, we should break the language form of the original text and adopt free translation. When it comes to different cultures, “According to different cultural traditions, it is also a basic translation skill to adjust the language form in the original text to the language form accepted by the target culture.” (Wills, 2001, p.21)

E.g.7 ST: 当时主要的手工业部门掌握在官府手中,仅官营染色业就细分为青、绛、黄、白、皂、紫六作。

TT: At that time, the main handicraft industry was in the hands of the government. The government-run dyeing industry was divided into six categories: **indigo**, deep red, yellow, white, black and purple.

In describing the development of dyeing industry in Tang Dynasty, the author mentions six categories of

⁴ Tiao Yue refers to a custom of Miao and Yi people. On the moonlit night in early spring or late spring, especially on the night of Mid Autumn Festival, unmarried young men and women gather in the field to sing and dance. People who love each other can become husband and wife through various activities.

government-owned dyeing industry, and emphasizes the diversity of dyeing styles, innovative technology and cultural inclusiveness of Tang Dynasty. In the above example, the six categories are classified according to the dyeing colors of batik, which are 青、绛、黄、白、皂、紫. The color "青" should be paid attention to in translation. In fact, "青" is not just one color. It can be divided into many kinds. For example, "青" is a cool color between indigo and grass-green, which is commonly used in painting. "青" is also commonly used in blue and white porcelain in Qing Dynasty, which is actually a blend of blue and a little green. In Chinese vocabulary, "青" may represent blue, green and black. As an old saying goes, "青" is much better than "蓝" ("青": cyan pigment. "蓝": Polygonum, a kind of grass that can extract pigment. "青" is extracted from Polygonum, but its color is darker than that of Polygonum. It means that people can improve after learning or education. It is often used as a metaphor for students surpassing their teachers or successors.) Here, the color "青" means blue with a little purple. In addition, there are also many classical Chinese, "青" may also stand for black. In most cases, it depends on the context. In the development of dyeing industry in Tang Dynasty, people mainly extracted dyes from plants, so "青" should be translated as "Indigo". According to its English explanation, indigo means "decisive subshrub of southern Asia having pink leaves and clusters of red or pure flowers; a source of indigo dye", so it may be more helpful for target readers to understand the color "青".

E.g.8 ST: 女神高鼻深目,胸怀袒露,颈佩璎珞,臂饰环钏,手持盛满了果实的丰饶角。

TT: The goddess has a **Roman nose** and deep eyes, with a bare chest, a necklace of precious stones around her neck, a bracelet on her arm, and a cornucopia in her hand.

When introducing the existence of batik in ancient China, the author mentions that in 1959, archaeologists in Xinjiang discovered a tomb in the late Eastern Han Dynasty (2nd century A.D.) at the Niya site in Minfeng County, Xinjiang. Two pieces of blue and white calico were unearthed from the tomb, which is the earliest known piece of calico in China. Among them, a piece of cotton cloth has been missing in the center, only half a foot and a lion's tail can be seen. In the lower left corner, there is a 32-cm square box with a bust of the goddess. The description of the cotton cloth is "女神高鼻深目,胸怀袒露,颈佩璎珞,臂饰环钏,手持盛满了果实的丰饶角". In the translation of "高鼻", the translator doesn't translate it into "high nose", because the frequency of "high nose" in search engines is not high. Therefore, it doesn't belong to a high frequency word, so this usage may cause some misunderstanding for foreign readers. Then, the free translation method is adopted here, translated as Roman nose, which is in line with the westerners' cognition of "高鼻". In addition, in the 5W mode of communication, the third W refers to in which channel, that is, media. In order to further promote the translation with the help of technology, the translator has made the translation into e-magazine with words and pictures, so that readers can gain a more powerful visual impact.



E.g.9 ST: 辽阔的疆土和雄厚的国力成就了唐代海纳百川的胸怀,也形成了染织风格的多样性和文化的包容性,其社会经济发展迅速,手工业兴盛发达,纺织业、染色业也得到相应的发展。

TT: The vast territory and strong national strength of the Tang Dynasty made it possible for the Tang Dynasty to **welcome all the diversities**.

In describing the dyeing and weaving style of the Tang Dynasty, the author talks about the diversity of its style with the idiom "海纳百川" to describe it. "海纳百川" refers to a wide range of things with inclusiveness. As we all know, Chinese idioms are also an important part of Chinese traditional culture, so it is particularly important to spread their concepts to the outside world. However, if we literally translate it as "embrace all rivers and seas" or "all rivers run into sea" without considering the "to whom" of the fourth W in the 5W mode of communication, readers may be surprised: why the rivers and seas appear here when talking about the various styles of batik. Therefore, the translator uses free translation to translate it into "welcome all the diversities" to emphasize the inclusiveness.

V. CONCLUSION

Peng Jie (2013) pointed out that, for a country and a nation, cultural soft power is also related to the prosperity of the

country and the rise and fall of the nation. Translation can build a platform for spreading national culture, highlighting national discourse power and enhancing cultural soft power. At the same time, it is also one of the effective ways to publicize China's ethnic minority culture and let the world know and identify with the cultural identity of the Chinese nation. Guizhou Folk printing and dyeing process is an important part of Chinese folk art, and is one of the typical representatives of folk arts that Chinese people have always been proud of. It has a long history, involves many nationalities, uses a wide range of materials, and produces a variety of products, reflecting the wisdom and creativity of the people of all ethnic groups in Guizhou (Zhou Chenchen, 2015). Based on the 5W mode of communication proposed by Lasswell, which includes five factors: communicator, content, channel, audience and effect, this paper attempts to translate *Splendid China · Guizhou Batik* according to Christian Nord's principle of "function plus loyalty". In translation practice, it embodies the interdisciplinary combination of communication and translation, and provides new inspiration for translation scholars.

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A Study of English Phonetic Teaching Strategies From the Perspective of Embodied Cognition

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Abstract—The mastery of language is inseparable from obtaining phonetic knowledge, and forming correct pronunciation is one of the necessary conditions for learning languages. Good English pronunciation can promote the learning of listening and speaking. English phonetic knowledge is so abstract to grasp that in primary schools, combining the characteristics of children's cognitive development, English teachers should mobilize students' body and mind to learn together, and construct embodied teaching situation to guide students to form standardized pronunciation gradually through the process of interaction between their body and environment. So that students will lay a solid phonetic foundation for their oral communication in the future, and the comprehensive development of their comprehensive English quality will be promoted.

Index Terms—embodied cognition, primary English, phonetic teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

As the cornerstone of proficient oral communication skills, phonetic skills play a quite important role in English learning. According to the critical period hypothesis of language acquisition, the age of language acquisition has a critical period which affects the ability of language acquisition, and many studies of immigrants in natural acquisition environments have found the advantages of early acquisition.

In China, students in primary schools are in the initial stage of learning languages systematically, and are also in the critical period of acquiring the second language, English. They are good at imitating, and their concrete thinking skills have been developing stronger than abstract thinking skills, while English phonetic knowledge can be grasped by accumulating much experience from practice. In primary school English classes, however, compared with teaching vocabulary, grammar and other sections, many teachers don't pay much attention to phonetic teaching, and there are still many problems in this part at present. This essay starts from the perspective of cognitive psychology, applying the embodied cognition theory to English phonetic teaching in Chinese primary schools to tackle those problems, so as to let students devote their body and mind together to phonetic studying, and form phonetic skills step by step through their personal experience.

II. BASIC IDEAS OF EMBODIED COGNITIVE THEORY

As an emerging research trend in the field of cognitive science, embodied cognition is also known as “embodiment” and “embodied mind”. Embodied cognitive theory belongs to the research category of cognitive psychology, which refers to the strong connection between physiological experience and psychological state. This theory expounds three main viewpoints (Ye, 2010): (1) the process of cognition is determined by the physical properties of our body; (2) the content of cognition is provided by the body itself; (3) the subject of cognition is our body, which is embedded in the external environment. According to traditional cognitive science, represented by Descartes' mind-body dualism, it is widely believed that cognition is “disembodied”, which means that cognition can exist independently out of our body. That is to say, during the learning process, our body is just the “container” of our mind, and does not directly participate in the learning process. From the perspective of embodied cognition theory, cognition is “embodied”, and the boundary between mental development and our body is not obvious. The process of cognition is not a pure psychological process, but a process of understanding the external environment both psychologically and physiologically, and our body plays an important role in this process (Lakoff & Johnson, 1999). We perceive the environment through our body and gain cognition through the interaction between body and environment (Ye, 2010). It's also mentioned in Piaget's cognitive development theory that our mind originates from actions, which is the source of cognition and the mediator of the interaction between subject and object. In his point of view, Piaget pointed out that individuals and the environment are combined in an uninterrupted interaction, and the formation of cognitive schemata is the result of children's sensory-motor system acting on the world. Besides, it is also reflects the direct impact of the body's action in the environment on mental development from Dewey's “learn by doing” perspective. From his point of view, cognition is closely related to our body. The occurrence of cognition is based on the system of “brain-body-environment”, and our body is the basis of cognition and the core of cognitive process. Cognition is formed on the basis of external experience gained from the connection between the body and the environment. Cognitive development depends on the experience provided by physical behavior.

Compared with junior and senior high school students in China, Chinese elementary school students are not as good at abstract thinking as them, and their perception of external things is more inclined to direct sensory experience. They have strong imitation ability and rich body language, however, who usually need to think in a more specific way, and their thoughts are susceptible to their emotional changes. In consequence, when teaching in primary schools, English teachers can use more intuitive teaching methods to help students understand complex and abstract knowledge easily, in order to improve teaching efficiency. During the natural acquisition process of mother tongue, children usually mobilize both their body and mind to have a complex connection with the surrounding environment, which can promote the formation and development of their linguistic logical thinking. This process reflects the typical characteristic of embodiment. As a result, in English class, teachers often imitate how children acquire their mother tongue to construct language teaching situations artificially, and let students participate in it wholeheartedly to learn English in the interaction between body and situation.

III. PROBLEMS IN ENGLISH PHONETICS TEACHING IN CHINESE PRIMARY SCHOOLS

A. *Negative Transfer Effects of Mother Tongue*

According to the theory of cognitive structure migration and language transfer, language transfer refers to a common phenomenon in the process of second language acquisition in which students attempt to express their thoughts with the pronunciation, structure, semantics, or culture of the mother tongue when communicating in the foreign language. Language transfer can be divided into three cases (Zhang & Xu, 2018): positive transfer, negative transfer and zero transfer. As there has been formed a reaction system of mother tongue, when students learn second language, they need to build up a new one, and these two different reaction systems can effect each other sometimes. For instance, the old one can have positive (or negative) transfer effects on the new one when their language structures are similar (or different). Affected by the living environment that regards Chinese as the mother tongue and the phonetic rules of Chinese Pinyin, the negative transfer of Chinese is quite prominent when Chinese primary school students obtain English phonetic knowledge.

According to the classification of the linguistic system, *Chinese* belongs to the Sino - Tibetan language family, which is a kind of tone language. And *English* belongs to the Indo-European family. It is a kind of intonation language. In Chinese English classes, when elementary school students study how to pronounce phonemes, they often use the pronunciation part of Chinese to pronounce, which leads to nonstandard English pronunciation. In addition, the pronunciation of certain phonemes may be easily confused where people mostly speak dialects in their daily life. For instance, according to the pronunciation of [θ] and [ð], students who come from Sichuan province or Chongqing may easily misread *mouth* as [maʊs] and misread *that* as [zæt]. There are also some students who want to “take shortcuts”: using the pronunciation of Chinese Pinyin to help memorize the pronunciation of English words instead of directly pronouncing it in English. For example, *cat* is pronounced as [karte] instead of [kæt], *face* is pronounced as [feɪsɪ] instead of [feɪs], *pencil* is pronounced as [ˈpensəu] instead of [ˈpensl] etc.. In terms of rhythm, *Chinese* is a language with syllable timing, and its rhythm is expressed as staccato sound, while *English* is a language of accent timing, and its rhythm is expressed as legato sound. As children who have just entered primary schools have formed relatively mature rhythm principles of Chinese speaking, so that it is quite difficult for them to grasp the pattern of changes in stressed and unstressed sounds of English phonetics when reading texts or practicing dialogues.

B. *Lack of Systematicness in Phonetic Teaching*

The main objective of English phonetic teaching is to have students form correct and normative pronunciation, so as to help them communicate in English fluently. In China, it is found that there is almost no systematic phonetic knowledge arranged in primary English textbooks, though the curriculum standards have made clear requirements for phonetic learning. For instance, in *English* published by FLTRP, activities in each unit are mostly set as reading or listening activities. However, only activities like *Repeat the pronunciation of letters*, *Sing the songs* are related to phonetic learning. In *English* published by PEP, each unit is arranged around one theme, setting ten different modules: *Let's try*, *Let's talk*, *Let's learn*, *Ask and answer*, *Let's spell*, *Match and say*, *Read and write*, *Let's check*, *Let's wrap it up* and *Story time*, while there is no module directly related to phonetic knowledge. In *Junior New Concept English* published by FLTRP and Longman Press, there are nine modules in each unit: *Listening and Understanding*, *New words and expressions*, *Notes on the test*, *Guided conversation*, *Pronunciation*, *Pattern practice*, *Written exercises*, *Listening*, *Match the questions and answers*. Only *Pronunciation* is closely related to phonetic knowledge, which just involves comparison between similar phonetic symbols.

Although a large number of listening and reading activities can promote the formation of standard oral English to some extent, in real English classes, teachers hardly plan phonetic teaching in reading or listening activities. And affected by the arrangement of textbooks and special testing mode in China, it is of low enthusiasm for teachers to pay much attention to phonetic teaching. When learning English, it is impossible for students to understand deeper about what they learn only through textbooks. And compared with words and phrases and grammar, phonetic knowledge is more abstract. However, it is observed that teachers in Chinese English classes hardly make phonetic teaching plans systematically, some of who just simply regard phonetic teaching as phonetic symbol teaching, paying too much attention to how to pronounce new words but ignoring intonation, sense group and other parts of phonetic knowledge.

C. *English Teachers' Unequal Phonetic Quality*

Different from vocabulary and grammar, phonetic knowledge is not only conceptual but also strong-practical. In China, students have very limited time and space to learn or use English, most of which is in English class. Chinese English teachers usually use listening training, tape reading, natural spelling and other traditional methods to help students enhance students' phonetic skills. However, only after accumulating enough oral practice experience can students truly master those skills. During language learning process, imitation is one of the necessary procedures. In non-English Speaking countries, represented by China, available English phonetic material is finite, and students may unconsciously imitate their teachers' pronunciation habits in the classroom. But the phonetic quality of English teachers in China varies in different regions. It was found that over half of teachers had hardly received standard phonetic training or normal phonetic teaching training in school. Some teachers' phonetic quality is not high enough to meet the requirements of the new curriculum standard. In addition, compared with oral communicative competence and emotional attitude of learning phonetics, some teachers pay more attention to students' ability to spell words and read texts aloud. In this condition, little effort is spent on training their own phonetic skills. As teachers are the direct mock object of students, their high phonetic quality can lay a good foundation for helping build up students' oral English ability in the future. On the contrary, teachers' incorrect low phonetic quality will easily make students confused, and greatly affect the accuracy of students' pronunciation. The elementary school stage is the enlightenment stage for students to improve their phonetic skills. But it is observed that phonetic teaching methods in real English classes are so monotonous and mechanical that only listening and speaking training are used to help students gain new knowledge, and students will easily get tired and lose interest in obtaining phonetic knowledge. What's worse, it will take much time and energy to correct students' pronunciation in the future once their non-standard speech habits are formed in this stage.

IV. PRIMARY ENGLISH PHONETIC TEACHING STRATEGIES FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF EMBODIED COGNITION

A. *Construct Phonetic Knowledge in Mind Actively by Discovery Learning from Direct Experience*

From the perspective of cognitive assimilation learning theory, whether students can acquire new information or not mainly depends on the existing concepts in their cognitive structure. In language acquiring and studying process, the mother tongue is the earliest language learned by children. When studying other languages, students are affected by their mother tongue to varying degrees. At the elementary school level, teachers should take a full account of students' cognitive level and mental ability and make scientific plans for phonetic teaching. They can take advantage of students' basic familiarity with the pronunciation rules of their mother tongue, presenting both Chinese and English phonetic knowledge from multiple channels (such as auditory sense, visual sense, tactile sense etc.), guiding students to find out and summarize the similarities and differences from direct and personal experience, so as to give play to the positive transfer effects of mother tongue and eliminate its negative effects.

When teaching phonetic symbols, those with similar pronunciation can be listed to make comparisons. Teachers can ask students to prepare a mirror in advance to visualize their pronunciation, so as to experience directly how to pronounce and make corrections timely. When learning the pronunciation of the long vowel [i:] and the short vowel [ɪ], many Chinese students usually equate the two vowels with the pronunciation of "yi" in Chinese Pinyin, and mistakenly believe that [i:] and [ɪ] are only pronounced differently in length. When teaching these two vowels, teachers can use dynamic pictures of mouth shapes and tongue positions to explain how to pronounce. Students can imitate the pronunciation and correct it when looking at the mirror, finding out the shapes of their mouth and tongue positions. Peer correction can also be added when making contrastive practice. After repeated practice and corrections can phonetic memory points be formed on their mouth and tongue gradually, so that students can pronounce these vowels accurately when meeting them in the future. When teaching how to divide sense groups, teachers can make teaching plans from reading, listening and speaking aspects. According to Vygotsky's ZPD theory, there must be a gap between children's current development level and their potential development level, which is named as zone of proximal development (ZPD). Hence, teachers should take into full consideration about students' ZPD, giving proper support to help promote their development. On account of primary students' weak text reading ability, teachers can prepare two editions of one short passage-- Chinese edition and English edition-- to help students understand better about how to divide sense groups. The first step, presenting students with the Chinese one and let them punctuate sentences according to their existing experience. Next, showing them the English one and playing the tape, asking them to divide sense groups while listening to the tape. After correcting answers, teachers organize the whole class to compare the similarities and differences of division of sense groups between the two editions and conclude the rules. Then, students can work in groups to practice reading the short passage by playing the sentence chain, so that they can understand better the rules.

B. *Acquire Phonetic Perceptual Experience from the Common Experience of Body and Mind*

On the basis of embodied cognition theory, the subject of perception is our body, and we acquire perceptual experience from a joint experience of our body and mind. Though in Chinese primary English textbooks there aren't arranged many sections to train students' phonetic skills, teachers should neglect this part. Different from reading or writing, if someone wants to improve his/her phonetic skills, he/she should open his/her mouth and practice repeatedly. As a result, when making teaching plans, teachers need to consider how to mobilize the studying enthusiasm of each

student and lead them fling themselves into studying.

With respect to rhythm, intonation and stress teaching, teachers can integrate them into different teaching procedures. For instance, in the warming-up stage, in comparison to Q&A or free talk, rhythmic English songs or nursery rhymes can be used to form students' rhythm sensation. Students in class should sing songs and tap feet to the music, from which can they have an initial understanding of the new lesson and feel the prosodic features between lyrics concretely. When words and phrases with obvious changes in rhythm, stress and intonation, teachers can sort them out and lead students spell together and make gestures: from unstressed sound to stressed sound, swipe hands down; from stressed sound to unstressed sound, swipe hands up, and so on. When teaching logical stress principles in sentences, similar activities can be organized to help students understand how stress influences the meaning of sentences. In liaison teaching, after explanation of general rules of liaison, teachers can hold role-play competitions: Divide students into two groups, show some words on the slide and ask each student in each group represents one letter of each word. Students in each group can combine into a word are hand in hand. Then the teacher makes a sentence with those words, students whose letters' sound can be linked to each other should join their hands, and which group does faster and more correct can win the competition. Though knowledge in textbooks is fixed, teachers can crystallize abstract knowledge to help students understand intuitively and apply what they learn flexibly.

C. Make Good Use of Digital Teaching Technology and Resources to Help Build up Embodied Teaching Situation

In the era of the fifth-generation, digital teaching methods have matured and penetrate in the area of education in many forms. On the basis of embodied cognition theory, our body is of situationality. That is to say, our body is not isolated, instead, it is "embedded" and is connected with the external environment. In English phonetic teaching classes in primary schools, if digital teaching technology and resources can be made good use of and can be combined with traditional teaching methods to construct embodied teaching situation, the interaction between students' body and external environment will be promoted and to a certain extent, the weakness of phonetic quality of some English teachers will be offset. When teaching students abstract phonetic knowledge, using traditional instructional media like slides and tapes still focuses on input instead of output, as students' body is restrained. In fact, English is a kind of practical subject that aims at training students how to communicate with others in English fluently and accurately in real situations. As a consequence, digital teaching technology and resources can be applied to create artificial situations to narrow the gap between mental representation and actual phenomenon.

In English classes, teachers should pay attention to the interactivity of language learning and make full use of high-tech resources to create language activities that can widely involve children. The state of the body affects the cognitive neural mechanism of the brain. Compared with the lack of connection between the body and the object of discourse, the discourse that represents the high connection between the body and the object is more understandable. Through teaching activities, therefore, teachers should widely add language activities, and let students participate in them and communicate with each other. Only in this way can the body construct the language knowledge learned in language activities further. As teachers' pronunciation is not accurate enough, and it is quite a waste of time and energy to check if every students grasp the correct pronunciation of each words. As a result, during the class, for instance, AI technology can be used to create a 3D phonetic teaching environment that is similar or complementary to the real teaching situation, providing flexible and effective phonetic practices, so as to stimulate students' senses and bring them perceptual and various learning experiences. Also, online teaching platform can be used to establish an online phonetic information database and intelligent scoring system for each student in the classroom. Through this platform, teachers can arrange online phonetic practice tasks appropriately, and students can continuously correct their own pronunciation according to the standard pronunciation provided by the platform, and after that the system will give them scores based on their pronunciation. After class, teachers can use the phonetic evaluation system to create a variety of evaluation situations to test whether students can correctly use the knowledge of intonation, stress and rhythm in different situations.

V. CONCLUSION

In fact, there is no shortcut to form standard pronunciation or grasp adept phonetic skills in a short time, which require students to gradually deepen their studies and accumulate experience in a long term. When making phonetic teaching plans, teachers should take into full consideration about students' cognitive characteristics and mental development principles, leading students' mind and body both participate in the learning process, and have students learn by discovering and construct knowledge in their mind actively through direct experience. Phonetic learning not only needs theoretical explanations, but also needs training repeatedly. At the elementary school level, Chinese English teachers should combine the current situation of teaching and digital teaching methods based on the cognitive characteristics and psychological development rules of children at this stage, making up for their own shortcomings and infiltrating phonetic teaching into daily English classes. Teachers should also enhance the interaction between students' whole body and the learning environment by creating situations that fit the reality of life, and transform the study of "using brain to learn" into "learning throughout the body", which will furthermore effectively give play to the superiority of embodied cognition theory, and guide students to gain a comprehensive perception of phonetic knowledge from their personal experience.

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Examining the Appropriateness of Reiss's Functionalist-oriented Approach to Trancism

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Abstract—Trancism is an activity that is put into Holmes' (1972) applied branch of Translation Studies (TS). The aim of trancism is to make a fair judgment to help improve the translation through the constructive comments provided by the critic. Various approaches have been proposed to achieve an objective judgment in order to avoid making a subjective judgment. The present study investigated the appropriateness of Reiss's (2000) approach to the critique of a translation. To do end, the English version of Rowling's (2000) *Harry Potter and the Goblet of Fire* and its Persian translation were chosen as the corpus of the present study to evaluate the Persian translation on the basis of three categories included in Reiss's model of trancism. This encompasses literary, language, and pragmatic categories. As the results indicated, the translator was successful in accomplishing her translation at almost all levels, except some part of grammatical and punctuation included in language category in which the translation she produced resulted in failure to some extent. In conclusion, Reiss's functionalist approach was mostly appropriate to the critique of a translated text, especially expressive text types, because her model allows the critic to judge two main aspect of the translation: linguistic and extra-linguistic aspects.

Index Terms—trancism, corpus-based translation studies (CTS), functionalist approach

I. INTRODUCTION

Translation Studies (TS) is a complex concept because it is made up of a set of disciplines, such as comparative literature, linguistics, philosophy, and so on., and deals with all aspects of the translation systematically, namely linguistic and cultural aspects. TS is divided into two categories: theories and practices. The former makes us familiar with different types of theories proposed to study various aspects of the translation; whereas the latter teaches us how to make good use of such theories in practice. According to Holmes (1972), translation practices/ applied branch of TS is put into three sub-categories, including translator training, translation aids, and translation criticism; of which the latter was the focus of the present study.

Trancism, the term has been coined by the researcher for Translation Criticism, used to assess translations. Kreiner (2006) states that trancism is frequently conducted by making a comparison between source and target texts. In cases that the ST is not available, it, as she implies, is common to criticize the TT because people whose mother tongue is the language of translation occasionally can recognize awkward phrasing of translations. For Toury (2012), culture plays the main role in trancism because of that the critique of a translation encompassing a careful analysis of the metatexts made in accordance with a given culture.

Holmes (1970) believes that undoubtedly, the activities relating to translation interpretation and evaluation are always mainly far removed from the understanding objective analysis, and therefore reflect the intuitive, critical impressionist attitudes and positions. That is to say, the systematic method is rarely used to analyze translations and the analysis restricted to personal bias. Thus, one characteristic of translation analysis "is indeed the lack of value judgement" (Hewson, 2011, p. 5). This may be due to the misconception we have about the critique of a translated text. In a sense, most reviewers pay more attention to the negative aspects of a translation and do not consider the positive aspects when criticizing a translation. Thus, this image may arise that they intended to make the translation worthless, not help improve it.

Reiss (2000) discusses that the reason of such unfair judgments is that reviewers do not invest enough time and effort to make a comparison between a translation and its source language (SL), even if the language is familiar to them. She further states that it will mostly happen if the SL is either English or French, rarely if it is the language other than European language, and very infrequently if it is any other language. It implies that this is the reviewer who is responsible for improving the quality of the translation by providing his/her valuable comments on it.

In order to achieve a constructive evaluation, the objective judgment needs to be made instead of the subjective judgment. Valero (1995) expresses that the objective of the critic needs to be clear and some parameters must be observed. These parameters, as she clarifies, are "to explore the type of scientific frame of reference and to establish a general model of analysis" (p. 203). In this regard, Reiss (2000) mentions that the translation "should be evaluated by objective and relevant criteria" (p. 4). Thus, making a comparison between the ST and TT, as Reiss emphasizes, is a need for trancism and the translator's work must be characterized.

In the light of Reiss's (2000) approach to trancism, the present study aimed to make a comparison between the English version of Rowling's *Harry Potter and the Goblet of Fire* and its Persian translation to find whether Reiss's approach is appropriate for the judgment of the translation. To achieve the objective of the present study the following question was raised:

To what extent Reiss's (2000) approach is appropriate for trancism?

It is hoped that the findings of the present study help improve the quality of the Persian translation under investigation and other works that are supposed to be conducted by the translator in the future. Furthermore, the results of this study should be beneficial to those who have an interest in this sub-field of TS, and to those who started their career as critics.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. *Trancism from Different Approach*

Trancism, in Hewson's (2011) approach, "involves an interpretative act whereby the basis of the value judgement is explicitly spelled out" (p. 6). According to him, trancism aims to give details of the potential judgment of a translation that is seen under an established interpretative framework originated in the ST. Hewson states that such a critique is far beyond implicit judgements and other approaches search through the translation to highlight its weaknesses. He declares that trancism is "evaluative," because it investigates a potential judgment of the translation and also seeks the extent to which the translation is similar to or different from the ST's potential judgment that is perceived.

For Newmark (1988), trancism is "an essential link between translation theory and its practice" (p. 184). He also considers it informative and pleasurable activity. The evaluation of two or more translations of the ST, as Newmark explains, allows us to become familiar with various translation styles, and be aware of that there can be different translations of a text, depending on what translation method the translator employed. The challenge arises when the reviewer states his own principles unquestionably when criticizing. But it is necessary to clarify the translator's principles as well. New mark believes that in order to achieve a good trancism, the reviewer should provide a summary of the ST analysis, the interpretation the translator expressed about the ST, and the translation method he applied. He also needs to give a representative detail of the comparison made between the ST and TT as well as a judgment of the translation from both the translator's point of view and his own view. In addition, making an evaluation of the likely place where the translation was produced in the TL culture.

Rainer Schulte (2019), who is known as a translator, poet, playwright, essayist, and critic of contemporary international literature, implies that trancism needs to be conducted by the one who is able to recognize the SL, the cultural and aesthetic context of the ST, and the linguistic differences between the SL and TL. According to him, reviewers are to some extent unwilling to provide their comments on the nature of a translation. Schulte further states that such reviewers are not even aware of that they are supposed to review a translation and cause the translation to get better. This is due to that, as he justifies, a very small number of critics are translators themselves. Schulte describes that a good criticism obtained when the translator himself, as the best-qualified person, carries out the critique of a translation; but, this will never happen due to that translators prefer to invest most of their time on the act of translation rather than criticism.

B. *Reiss's Approach towards Trancism*

In her book *Translation Criticism-The Potentials and Limitations: Categories and Criteria for Translation Quality Assessment*, Reiss (2000) proposes three categories, including *literary*, *language*, and *pragmatic* categories, required to objectively criticize a translated work. Literary category, as she states, pays special attention to text types. That is to say, the first step is to determine the text type under evaluation and identify the appropriate translation strategy the translator employed to translate the text, and then to assess the extent to which the translator fulfil the relevant criteria.

Reiss (2000) clarifies that if the text is a *focused- content*, the primary concern is the accuracy of data.; if it is a *form-focused*, the accuracy of information needs to be paid careful attention; if it is an *appeal-focused*, the achievement of intended purpose of the ST should be considered; and if it is an *audio-medial* text, the accommodation of the relevant media and the incorporation of their contributions need to be concentrated.

Language category, as Reiss (2000) discusses, refers to "linguistic features and their equivalents in the TL" (p. 48). It implies a detailed investigation of the representation of linguistic peculiarities of the SL in the TL as she states. In this way, four components of a text should be taken into account, namely *semantic*, *lexical*, *grammatical*, and *stylistic* components, of which the first component is "a critical factor in preserving the content and meaning of the original text" (p. 53). To achieve the best *semantic equivalence*, Reiss recommends examining the linguistic context where the author's intention is obviously seen by what is said.

Reiss (2000) considers *adequacy* the standard for the lexical components. The reason given by her is that because word for word translation, which most often demanded as a general strategy in the TL, cannot be effective as an objective criterion because of that the vocabularies relating to any language-pair simply cannot be completely similar. Thus, determining the adequate transfer of the ST's components to the TL on the lexical level, as she points to, is a need for the critic to take into account. Reiss mentions that *correctness* is a valid criterion for the judgment of the translation in connection with the grammatical components of a source text because there is a great difference between the

grammatical systems of two languages. She makes clear that grammatical correctness is achievable when the translation complies with usage of the TL and when the suitable semantic and stylistic features of the grammatical structure of the SL have been perceived and adequately translated.

The complete *correspondence* between the ST and TT, as Reiss (2000) implies, is a key factor that must be given careful consideration by the critic when evaluating the stylistic component. In other words, the critic, as she argues, needs to look carefully at the translation to see whether it encompasses standard, individual or contemporary usage relating to stylistic components of the ST. She emphasizes that considering this component is of great importance when evaluating the translation of form-focused and appeal-focused texts. Pragmatic category which is focused on extra-linguistic determinates is the last category that the critic should consider it carefully, alongside the two previous categories, to make an objective judgment.

The extra-linguistic determinates relating to the ST and TT play the important role in achieving a good judgment just as much as the linguistic elements do. The extra-linguistic determinants contain a variety of factors. This includes *the immediate situation, the subject matter, the time factor, the place factor, the audience factor, the speaker factor and affective implications*. These factors provide the author with the opportunity to make the best choice from available methods in his mother tongue which would be understandable to the reader or hearer, and also enable him "to ignore certain linguistic means and still be understood by members of his language group" (p. 67).

III. METHOD

A. Corpus

The corpus of the present study consists of the English version of Rowling's *Harry Potter and the Goblet of Fire*, the fourth novel in the Harry Potter series, published by Scholastic Press in the United State on 8 July 2000 in 755 pages, and its Persian translation that was made by Vida Eslamieh (2002) and published by Tandis Publication in 414 pages. It should be noted that the Persian translation of Rowling's *Harry Potter and the Goblet of Fire* was published in two volumes. The first volume included 20 chapters, and the second 17 that this study focused on 10 chapters of the first volume.

J. K. Rowling, a pen name for Joanne Rowling, is a British author and philanthropist. Her famed is for her creative writings of the Harry Potter fantasy book series that caused her to win multiple awards and sold more than 500 million copies. Vida Eslamieh was born in 1967. She graduated in Translation Studies from Azad University. She has been translating since 1991. She began her first translations with Agatha Christie's stories. She worked as an editor for a time, until she began translating Harry Potter book series. She is also an Iranian translator famed for her translations of the Harry Potter book series.

The book is about what happens to Harry Potter, who is a wizard in his fourth year at Hogwarts School of Witchcraft and Wizardry, when he is forced to compete in the Triwizard Tournament. From available novels to the researcher, this novel was deemed to be appropriate to achieve the objective of the present study because not only was it the best-selling book series in history but also written by one of the famous English writers in the field. It also covered various references that posed serious challenges to the translator during the process of translation.

B. Procedure

Reiss's (2000) approach was applied to the analysis of the English version of *Harry Potter and the Goblet of Fire* and its Persian translation because she was a functionalist and his approach was a practice-oriented model lain under Holmes's applied branch of TS. To do this, the 10 out of 37 chapters of the novel and their translations into Persian were carefully analyzed to examine the appropriateness of Reiss's trancism approach within the context of the findings via given examples. The translation of the novel was printed and released in two separate volumes of which the first included the translations of the twenty chapters of the original. The present study was a corpus-based Translation Studies (CTS), which was first proposed by Baker (1993). Hatim (1999) states that CTS offers a really new way of research that not only deals with what is *in* the TT but also with what is *of* the TT. This study also applied a qualitative analysis model. The model allows the researcher to provide a detailed analysis of the text on the basis of Reiss's three levels of trancism, including literary, language, and pragmatic levels.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section provides a detailed description of the appropriateness of Reiss's (2000) trancism approach. In this way, the chosen text *Harry Potter and the Goblet of Fire* and its Persian translation were analyzed on the basis of the three categories included in Reiss's approach to the critique of a translation. In the following, the results of each category alongside related examples are discussed.

A. Literary Category

Literary category defines the text type. In other words, this category enables the translator to decide what text type he wants to translate, and based on his selection, the translator choose the appropriate translation strategies for micro-level and an overall strategy for macro-level. This category, as Reiss (2000) implies, is the starting point for any judgment

because the text type is determined. As the selected corpus *Harry Potter and the Goblet of Fire* is a novel, it is taken into account as an expressive text type. Such a text type, as Reiss argues, is form-focused and concerned with “how an author expresses himself” (p. 31).

B. Language Category

To assess the language category, the linguistic aspects of the text should be probed. This includes the semantic elements, the lexical elements, the grammatical elements and the stylistic elements. A discussion of these elements is provided as follows:

Semantic elements are of great importance because they deal with the content and meaning of the ST. Thus, the translator needs to do his best to provide the target readers with the TT to be understandable in terms of semantic by the exact transference of the meaning and content of the ST to the TT. In order to achieve the desired transference, the role the lexical elements play is highlighted to a great degree. This is because of that lexical elements refer to the adequate use of the ST's components in the TT. If the translator is not able to provide the TT with the lexical elements of the ST adequately, he does not accomplish his task at lexical level. This leads to his failure at semantic level of the translation. That is to say, these two elements are interrelated.

In the use of appropriate lexical equivalent, Eslamieh was not successful in some cases because she provided the ST word with two unrelated Persian equivalents (see example 1 and 2)

Example 1:

“The Little Hangleton all agreed that the old house was *creepy*.” (p. 1)

“از نظر اهالی دهکده لیتل هنگلتن این خانه قدیمی ترسناک و چندانش آور بود.” (ص. ۱)

Example 2:

The story had been picked over so many times, and had been *embroidered* in so many places.” (p. 1)

“این ماجرا را بارها بازگو کرده و به بسیاری از قسمت های آن شاخ و برگ داده اند.” (ص. ۱)

As it shown in Example 1, the ST word *creepy* was translated into *ترسناک و چندانش آور*. According to Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary, the word *creepy* means “strange or unnatural and making you feel frightened.” This definition has nothing to do with the second Persian equivalent *چندانش آور* given by the translator alongside the first Persian equivalent *ترسناک* to the ST word *creepy* due to that the Persian word *چندانش آور* refers to someone or something that is awfully unpleasant.

In Example 2, the ST word *embroidered* was correctly replaced by a Persian expression *شاخ و برگ*. But, the problem is that such a translation is not considered a suitable one for all types of audiences. That is to say, the translator did not take into account all types of audiences. She should be aware of the audiences of this kind of novel, especially main audiences, before translating the text. The main audience of such a novel are teenagers who are mainly not able to understand these kinds of Persian expressions. As the results, the meaning of the above statement will may remain vague for them to some extent due to the incorrect transference of the meaning of it. To cope with, explanatory endnotes, footnotes, or any additional description could be used to make the Persian expression easily to understand to the audiences.

In some cases, the translator employed additional description to make the meaning of a word or phrase clear to the target readers that was successful in doing this (see example 3). The same strategy was employed by Eslamieh in cases that there were no the TT equivalent for the ST expression/word. Thus, the translator preferred to create the appropriate equivalent for such an ST expression/word instead of omitting it (Example 4). This helps enhance the target readers understanding not only of the ST item but also of the sentence/paragraph in which it is used. This implies the success of the translator at semantic level.

Example 3:

“Still in their dinner things!” (p. 2)

“هنوز همون لباسهایی که دیشب سرشام پوشیده بودن نتشونه!” (ص. ۸)

Example 4:

“*Ton-Tongue* Toffee, said Fred brightly.” (p. 51)

“فرد با شوق و ذوق گفت: تافی زبون دراز کن بود.” (ص. ۶۱)

As it is clear from Example 3, the ST phrase was replaced by a Persian sentence. This was because of that the meaning of the ST phrase was not fully understandable to the target reader. The translator correctly transferred the meaning and content of the ST phrase to the TT by adding extra descriptions. This helps the readers to have better understanding of the meaning of the ST phrase.

Grammatical elements deal with the correct use of grammatical structures and punctuations. As two different languages have two different linguistic systems, they will differ in terms of grammatical structures. For example, the basic grammatical structure in English is Subject + Verb + Object which is in contrast to the Persian grammatical structure Subject + Object + Verb. This grammatical structure has been observed by Eslamieh when translating the original novel into Persian (see Example 5).

Example 5:

“They had arrived on what appeared to be a deserted stretch of misty moor.” (p. 75)

“آنها در یک صحرای بی آب و علف وسیع و مه آلود فرود آمدند.” (ص. ۸۹)

In grammatical level, the main problem that was not mostly observed by Eslamieh was punctuations, such as quotation marks, colons, dashes, and other marks (see Examples 6, 7, and 8). It should be noted that the researcher himself used quotation marks in all Persian examples, except Example 6 to show the problem.

Example 6:

"Yeah, I am," said Harry.

"But Dobby talks of you all the time, sir!" she said. (p. 98)

هری گفت: آره درسته.

جن خانگی گفت: دابی همیشه از شما حرف زد قربان!

Example 7:

"Harry never knew whether or not he had actually dropped off to sleep — his fantasies of flying like Krum might well have slipped into actual dreams — all he knew..." (p. 118)

"هری نفهمید که به خواب رفته است یا نه. تصور اینکه روزی بتواند به خوبی ویکتور کرام پرواز کند تبدیل به رویای شیرین پرواز شده بود که ناگهان ... (ص. ۱۴۰)"

As Example 7 indicates, Eslamieh omitted the dash mark "—" and preferred to use full stop/period mark "." instead. It would be better observed the same grammatical rule because of that one usage of a dash mark is not only to insert pauses in a sentence/paragraph but also put emphasis on something written between them. The translator gave not enough attention to this issue via the use of full stop/period instead of the dash.

Example 8:

"The floating people were suddenly illuminated as they passed over a burning tent and Harry recognized one of them: Mr. Roberts, the campsite manager." (p. 120)

"هنگامی که یکی از گروه نقابدار از کنار یکی از چادرهای شعله ور می گذشتند چهره افراد شنور در آسمان روشن شد و هری یکی از آنها را شناخت. او آقای رابرتز، مدیر اردوگاه بود." (ص. ۱۴۲)

In Example 8, Eslamieh employed a full stop/period "." instead of a colon ":" to make the meaning of the statement clear to the target readers. The main usage of the colon is to show and explain the strong and direct relationships between two components in a sentence/paragraph (the relationship between Mr. Roberts and the one who was recognized by Harry in Example 8). Doing this may be appropriate for some cases but not all.

In general, observance of grammatical and punctuations rules of any language gives the indication of validity and aesthetic of the writing, especially in the case of expressive texts. This allows the author to convey better the meaning of what he intends to the audiences. In addition, this also helps the readers to read the text fluently and understand it easily. In rare cases, her ignorance of some punctuations, such as dashes and colons, may have been done correctly because the use of such punctuations in some cases prevents the correct transmission of meaning of a statement, which leads to a decrease in the reader's understanding of that statement.

The stylistic elements, as Reiss (2000) implies, the complete correspondence between the ST and TT that needs to be taken into consideration by the critic when criticizing a translation. Thus, the main focus should be on "whether the translation gives due consideration to the differences between colloquial and standard or formal usage observed in the original" (p. 64). As the results indicate, the rhythmic tone applied by JK Rowling in her writing via the use of "-ing" that this type of style was observed in the Persian translation (see Example 9).

Example 9:

"They were soon caught up in the crowds now flooding out of the stadium and back to their campsites. Raucous singing was borne toward them on the night air as they retraced their steps along the lantern-lit path, and leprechauns kept shooting over their heads, cackling and waving their lanterns." (p. 117)

"چندی بعد به سیل جمعیتی رسیدند که از ورزشگاه خارج می شدند و به سوی اردوگاه می رفتند. هنگامیکه به کوره راه جنگی رسیدند که با نور فانوسهای دوطرف روشن شده بود صدای آوازهای گوشخراشی را از پشت سر می شنیدند. لپرکان ها پروازکنان از بالای سرشان می گذشتند و درحالیکه کرکر می خندیدند فانوس هایشان را تکان می دادند." (ص. ۱۳۹)

C. Pragmatic Category

Pragmatic category is the last level of Reiss's (2000) trancism approach in which the extra-linguistic determinants should be considered from which the first is the immediate situation. This factor includes "expressions are found very frequently in the volatile dialogues of plays and novels" (p. 69). Such texts, as she argues, pose major challenges to the translator in such a way that he should imagine himself *in the situation* of the speaker. This allows the translator to find an appropriate TT equivalent for the ST item to help the target readers to have better understanding of both the words and their context. The performance of Eslamieh in such situations was mainly acceptable. She enabled the target readers to understand the ST items easily via the use of optimal TT equivalent (for example see example 4).

The subject matter is the next factor that refers to "the translator be sufficiently familiar with its field to be able to construct a lexically adequate version in the target language" (p. 70). This factor is of great importance in the translation of technical texts. As the present study investigated the expressive text type, this factor was not the main concern.

In the case of the time factor, there was no difference between the ST and TT in terms of publication time because the ST was published in 2000 and the TT was made in 2002, two years later. Thus, the novel was not an old English and taken into account as one of the best novel in its own time. In addition, the translation was made by the use of modern Persian. The second component of extra-linguistic determinations is the place factor. The novel was written in the context of England with fictional places and wizarding characters that encompassed various references to such places

and characters which can mainly decrease the understanding of the target readers of the text. The translator should do his best to present the esthetic values of the ST into the TT that Eslamieh did this to great extent. The third is audience factor. The central audiences of *Harry Potter and the Goblet of Fire* are teenagers. The same age-range also belong to the audiences of the novel in Iran. Hence, this factor plays the main role in choosing translation strategies by the translator. The last extra-linguistic determination is the speaker factor that refers to the language of the author. The speaker of this novel is J.K. Rowling whose novel includes many unique structures. This is the translator who decides to retain her style and the novel's structure in the translation via the use of translation strategies. Eslamieh almost preserved the author's style at different levels (see Section 4.2). The last factor is the affective implications that not only, as Reiss discusses, affect primarily lexical and stylistic matters, but also extend to the grammatical level of the SL (see the analysis of grammatical and lexical elements in Section 4.2).

The results of the study conducted by Tezcan (2015) had some similarities to the results obtained from this study. In his study, many different trancism approaches were applied to different text types proposed by Reiss's (2000), one of which was Reiss's approach. He reached the conclusion that there is not an acceptable trancism approach to be used for all text types. Moreover, Reiss's approach, as he mentions, was mainly applicable to expressive text types rather than informative and appellative types.

V. CONCLUSION

Trancism aimed to judge a translated text systematically on the basis of an objective criterion not on personal bias. This led to emergence of different trancism approaches proposed to be applied by reviewers/critics in order to achieve a *faire critique* with the aim of improving the translator's production not of making the work worthless. It should be claimed that there is no a unique and an accepted approach/model to be used for the critique of all text types. In this relation, Valero (1995) reminds us that "each text type is in need of "different methods of translation criticism in order to assess its *quality*" (p. 210). The present study examined the appropriateness of Reiss's (2000) approach to trancism by making a judgment on the Persian translation of J.K. Rowling's *Harry Potter and the Goblet of Fire*. According to the results derived from the analysis, the translator had much success in translating the ST at almost all levels of Reiss's model, including literary, language, and pragmatic levels. The main failure of the translator was in some parts relating to punctuations, a sub-level of language level. In conclusion, Reiss's functionalist-oriented approach was mostly appropriate for the critique of expressive text types, because her approach takes into account not only linguistic but also extra-linguistic determinations.

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Adaptability of Teacher's Code Switching in MA's Classes of English Majors

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Abstract—Code switching is a common social phenomenon in the multilingual community. Research on code switching overlaps in many fields, sociology, psychology, linguistics, anthropology, and pragmatic in particular. This paper reviewed code switching and its early research from different perspectives. And then the models of code switching and degrees of salience were discussed on the basis of adaptation theory of Verschueren's in English majors' MA program classes. Eventually, the significance of code switching in language teaching was restressed.

Index Terms—code switching, adaptation, multilingualism, models, salience

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Language Choice in Multilingual Communities

Multilingualism is a natural way of life for millions of people around the world due to a deluge of factors like migration, politics, colonialism, religion, culture contact, education, economy, mixed marriage and so forth. Within a multilingual community, people select to use two or more languages or dialects in their communication. The fact that language users select different languages or varieties for communication in different circumstances mirrors that “not all languages or varieties are equally appropriate or adequate for use in all speech events” (Romaine, 1992, p. 8). With the exception of awareness, each individual is entitled to choose what sort of language he or she wants to use. Members in immigrant families often switch from one language to another. Similarly people in historically colonized areas alternatively use their own dialects and hegemonic languages. Even in a marriage, the spouses from different language background alternately use their own languages and a third language with their kids or parents in such a smaller speech community. Hence it is important to note that code switching may occur among communication of more than two persons. That is, one person may use one language while others respond with other languages. An individual can also use one language first and then jump into another in continuous utterances. Along with the course of education in English teaching as a foreign language in China, code switching can be easily found in English classes. The essay will probe into code switching of teachers and its attachment to adaptation theory in MA's classes of English majors based on some investigations.

B. Code Switching, Code Mixing and Borrowing

Code switching is defined as using two or more than two language varieties in one conversation. It is a change by a speaker or a writer from one language or language variety to another. However, there's no consensus on the definition of code switching. It may vary from different interpretations. Hudson (1996) deems code switching is the inevitable consequence of bilingualism or multilingualism and anyone who speaks more than one language chooses between them according to concrete circumstances. He explained the domain of code switching and confirmed that it was used at least in a multilingual society. Kathryn (2004) mentions that definitions of code switching may vary because this research topic is conducted by both ethnography manias as well as discourse analysts or conversation analysts. As a consequence, different terms are used to refer to the same thing. Generally speaking, it can be defined as an individual's use of two or more language varieties in the same speech event or exchange. From the social aspects, code switching is a kind of language change of varieties. Belazi, Rubin, and Toribio (1994) assert that code switching is the alternate use of two or more languages within the same utterance. All of these definitions have common points in nature. That is, code switching is a type of language choosing process in more than two varieties in one segment of conversation.

If you attempt to get a clear distinction between code switching and code-mixing, it seems to be a hard task. Generally, code switching, code mixing and borrowing are intertwined with each other and a clear line can be never eventually drawn through the communicative atmosphere. Code switching is defined from the changing situation while code mixing without situation changed at all. Code mixing is expounded from the static facet. Code mixing can touch upon different levels of language such as phonology, morphology, grammatical structures or lexical items (Richards, Schimidt, Kendrick, & Kim, 2002). Conversely, code switching is stated in a rather dynamic method. There are two kinds of code switching at the syntactic level. They are intra-sentential code switching that occurs below sentential boundaries and inter-sentential code switching that occurs between sentences. These two types of code switching often impart into one another for many cases. And they also mix up with each other through the process of borrowing which is loaned from other languages to become one part of the language. Language is so complicated that we will not

distinguish these issues in this essay hereinafter. Some other prominent examples of code switching categories are Poplack's inter-sentential, intra-sentential and tag switching, Auer's discourse-related and participant-related alternation, Muysken's alternation, insertion and congruent lexicalization and so forth (Poplack, 1980; Auer, 1990; Muysken, 1995). The distinctions among code switching, code mixing, diglossia, borrowing and once borrowing are discussed to lay a foundation for the research from different perspectives.

C. Early Research of Code Switching

Since the middle era of 20th century, the topic has attracted a great deal of research attention. Scholars have investigated the structural patterns, functional determinants, social correlates, and psycholinguistic processes of code switching in diverse communities. It was welcomed by many researchers including linguists, sociologists, psychologists, anthropologists. And it was branched into many applied linguistic fields such as syntax, discourse analysis, pragmatics, language teaching and learning, second language acquisition.

As early as late 1960s to early 1970s, code switching sparked Blom and Gumperz (1972) with interest. They had studied code switching between dialects in Hemnesberget, a Norwegian fishing village, and outlined the formal and informal functions dialect switching displayed in various social settings and events. Blom and Gumperz (1972) made a distinction between two types of code switching, namely, situational code switching and metaphorical code switching. Situational code switching occurs in response to a change in situation. Metaphorical code switching refers to the switch which has a stylistic or textual function. Its function is to signal a quotation, mark emphasis, indicate the punchline of a joke, or signal a change in tone from serious to comic ones. It is not random but functionally motivated. Myers-Scotton (1993) extols their contributions. Albeit the topic had been discussed before, Blom and Gumperz's chapter received considerably more exposure because it was included in Gumperz and Hymes's sociolinguistics *Directions in Sociolinguistics* in the 1970s. It is a common sociolinguistic phenomenon in bilingual or multilingual societies, which usually signals solidarity. An informal situation between bilingual speakers is normally the settings of this case.

With the increasing focus on codeswitching, the angles of the study had turned its tide from social contexts to grammatical contexts. Previously, Gumperz and his co-author Eduardo had discussed code switching between English and Spanish which was primarily concerned with analysis of conversational events, foregrounding, and the role of switching in the composition of a speech event or situation. However, as Gumperz (1976) addressed in his later work, it was not long before researchers began to take an interest in the grammatical properties of code switching. For some of these researchers, inspired by Wolfram's and Labov's work on African-American vernacular, the search for an underlying structure of code switching was guided by a desire to inform political and social discussion. Those fundamental studies on code switching forge an intermittent scope for the researchers on the horizon. Most of the recent studies are likely to focus on pragmatic function of code switching. Cahyani, Courcy, and Barnett (2016) explored the pedagogical and sociocultural functions of teachers' code switching by investigating a case study in bilingual classroom in Indonesia.

Regarding research on code switching in China, many scholars got caught in the study from different angles. One comprehensive code switching research was reviewed by He Ziran and Yu Guodong (2001). This research provides a silhouette for the oncoming studies on code switching. Yu's research on code switching mainly put its emphasis on adaptation theory from a pragmatic point of view (Yu 2000, 2004). Distinctively, Chen Xinren (2008) discussed the relationship between code switching and national identity in a new direction. Through qualitative study, he concluded that there's a significant difference between code mixing toleration and national identity. Those students who have more toleration towards code mixing less identify national compassion. People involved in several language codes seem to be fluctuated to find the sense of belonging. In TEFL environment, the interest of code switching in teachers' classes seems to be in prevalence during the past few years. In Liu and Xiang's empirical investigations (2020), the functions of code switching primarily lie in the strands of translating, language retrenchment, discipline, personal emotion, task checking and turn taking. They asserted the positive functions of code switching to language teaching. Wang and Wu (2016) pointed out that neither teachers nor students had preferences to mother language or foreign language, just because they wanted to adapt to class communication successfully. Xiong (2019) concluded that teachers' code switching was a kind of purposeful strategy to make up language barriers and explain technical terms. From psychological aspects, she recognized that both teachers and students regarded code switching as a natural language use.

II. A PRAGMATIC STUDY OF CODE SWITCHING

A. Code Choice and Code Selection

Verschueren (1999) admits that using language does consist of the continuous making of linguistic choices, consciously or unconsciously, for language-internal and language-external reasons. In other words, language using is a process of choosing or selecting all the way according to certain situations. These choices can be made at different levels: linguistic structure, communicative strategies, various degrees of consciousness, the speakers and the hearers. Code selection is the selection of a particular language or language variety for a given situation. When someone masters more than one code while communicating with others, that person usually chooses one code for certain purposes and uses another code for other reasons. This code selection is quite regular that its patterns can be investigated (Richards et

al., 2002). A college or university, as a melting pot, is a vivid place where language switching or language selection occurs all the time. Language teachers selecting different languages in the class just display their identities and purposes. Language classes have unique features different from other domains like family, workplace, close friends, or travels. This kind of situation is strongly influenced by education policies, native languages and target languages. In language classes, a teacher may consciously select one code for his or her intentions, or avoid one code for some special reasons. Therefore code switching in language classes can be directly investigated by its own features.

B. Review of Adaptation Theory

Adaptation theory, a shortened term for pragmatics as a theory of linguistic adaptation, was proposed by Verschueren in a working document of the international pragmatics association in 1987. Detailed discussions about it can be found in his book *Understanding pragmatics*. He points out that language has three hierarchical features: variability, negotiability, and adaptability, which have been reckoned as three significant notions in the adaptation theory. The link among the three elements is that the adaptability is embodied in variability and negotiability. Regarding variability, Verschueren (1999) means “the property of language which defines the range of possibilities from which choices can be made” (p. 59). Negotiability refers to “the property of language responsible for the fact that choices are not made mechanically or according to strict form-function relationships, but rather on the basis of highly flexible principles and strategies” (Verschueren, 1999, p. 59). By adaptability, it aims at solving the basic problem of language. The answer it offers is that it enables human beings to make negotiable linguistic choices from a variable range of possibilities in such a way as to approach points of satisfaction for communicative needs (Verschueren, 1999, p. 61).

The adaptation theory attempts to tackle the basic problem as what and how language contributes to life and survival on different levels such as human race, smaller and larger communities, individuals, day-to-day situation (Verschueren, 1987). In other words, the question can be interpreted as follows: what’s the purpose of using a language? How does language function in communicative contexts.

Adaptability is illustrated from four angles of investigation. It can be found the four sectors (contextual correlates, structural objects, dynamics and salience) co-influence and interact through the process of language using. These tasks can be seen as necessary ingredients of adequate pragmatic perspectives on any given linguistic phenomenon (Verschueren, 1999).

III. ADAPTATION MODEL OF CODE SWITCHING IN CLASSES

Code switching in English majors’ MA classes has its fixed features different from other types of code switching. The switching happens between Chinese language and target languages as English, Japanese or other foreign languages. The foreign languages are the target languages we are learning, which belong to the second language acquisition to a very large extent. The language is not the natural language born with us. There’s no denying the fact that people really can’t acquire the same language capacity as those of the native speakers. A large number of students just use the second language in an unnatural way. Code switching of language varieties in such condition bears its own characteristics for one of the language is our mother tongue and the other is the dominant language. A question may arise under such circumstances. Namely, what does code switching adapt to? Language users mainly adapt to linguistic reality, social conventions and mental motivation (Yu, 2000). If you reconsider the definition of pragmatics, you would deeply understand these propositions. Using a totally different code just adapts to various context in a dynamic way. The contexts comprise the linguistic context, the social context and the mental context, just as Verschueren innovates in his conception of context, which is composed of the communicative context (physical world, social world, the mental world, the utterer and the interpreter) and the linguistic context.

A. Adaptation to Linguistic Context

When it comes to adaptability to linguistic reality, two snags in the MA’ program classes of English majors should be noted: First, using a second language to explain a linguistic point or a literature term is quite difficultly understandable to the students. MA students couldn’t fully understand some notions, conceptions, and some terminologies first appear in their textbooks or teachers’ handouts. Second, the language involved in code switching has no equivalence in target language. For example, when a teacher of pragmatics gives the explanation of “Speech Act Theory” to the students, he/she often uses some examples in Chinese language to illustrate the theory hence making it understandable. The author coincidentally found an excellent example, to a proper extent as it can be. When his teacher of Japanese course tried to distinguish “自動詞” and “他動詞” to the English majors, he used the similar terms like “the transitive verbs” and “the intransitive verbs” in English language to make them intelligible because it’s hard to explain according to Chinese grammar. When linguistic teachers introduce some linguists, none of them likes to translate the names of linguists into Chinese. Consequently they keep the original English proper names. Another interesting case is that a teacher once said “下次课做 presentation 的同学做好准备”. Presentation is an awkward word to be interpreted in Chinese. It is not proper to be translated as “演讲” or “表演” or “展示” because the definitions of these Chinese words are slightly different. Therefore it is natural to alternate the code in the class where necessary, even in the middle of the sentence.

B. Adaptation to Communicative Context

Language can only be spoken by human beings. To achieve the communicative goal, a speaker has to choose one proper utterance which is understandable to a hearer. Therefore subjects (utterer and interpreter) are the most important elements in communication. If the two parties speak the same language, it would be less likely to switch codes. When at least one of the two speakers can speak a different language, one of them has to negotiate to the other in order not to fail in the communication. If a teacher speaks English to the students and the student speaks Chinese, both of them will feel awkward until one of them changes the current language. In daily communication you may encounter such experience that you can't utter your dialect to a person who is speaking Mandarin to you. That means before one chooses language varieties, there should be a linguistic situation. Does it belong to the communicative contexts or linguistic contexts? That remains unsolved plausibly because the elements are not strictly separated.

Code switching can also be used to identify situations we are involved in. We use the choice of language in order to define the situation, rather than letting the situation define the choice of language (Hudson, 1996). Code switching can be a sign of cultural solidarity or distance or serve as an act of identity. When you pass by a classroom noticing a teacher speaking a foreign language, you can tell it is a language class or at least an English-related class. If you also hear that the teacher speaks some Chinese words, you can tell they are second language learners. That is the case that code switching defines the situation.

However it is not wise to deem that situation does not influence the language choice and code switching. A teacher will try not to use Chinese language in the English class because he/she knows that it is an English class that he/she should try his/her best to construct an English-speaking environment for the learners. We are highly conscious of our linguistic choice on some occasions. In English classes, we have a deep-rooted thought that we should speak English as much as possible.

Not all linguistic choices are equally salient. Salience (the status or perceptibility of those processes in relation to the cognitive apparatus) is a cognitive term in the adaptation to mental motivation. In this case, the face theory is integrated into the adaptationist-theoretic framework. Look at the following example:

A teacher: 王兵 给我们的 presentation 的题目 很好。但是在具体的讲解过程中, 我们没有看到相关的 lists of issues. 而且讲解的内容也和题目的 relation 不大。Anyway, it is a good topic.

C. Adaptation to Mind

Verbal interaction is no doubt communication from mind to mind. We should never forget that minds are minds in society. When coder and encoder make choices between languages, all aspects of a being can be activated physically, socially or mentally. Language is a production of mind to some extent. The following example may properly illustrate this point. A teacher of pragmatics explained the word "meme" to his students. While explaining the term, he suddenly switched English to a Chinese word "模因" subsequent to the word "meme". He emphasized that the reason he chose this kind of translation just because "模因" could appropriately reflect the mind of Chinese language with its sound and meaning in a perfect way. This Chinese term could be backdated from Zhu Zhifang's opus (1998). He, Xie and Chen (2007) also adopted this term in foreign language pragmatics.

D. Adaptation to Social Conventions

The adaptation to social conventions refers to the adaptation to the culture and actions of performing. When a teacher of sociolinguistics explained the language, culture and thought, he mentioned that it was not polite to say offensive words publicly in Chinese culture. While exemplifying the situations, he only used the words like "damn it" to avoid the embarrassment in Chinese culture because students were not conscious about the foreign words. When people choose a code, they have to obey the rules of society and conventions. Not only the face-threatening should be avoided, but also the taboos. Therefore code switching has something to do with the traditional pragmatical elements like speech act theory, face theory and co-operative principles. Code switching marks the negotiation and cooperative principles to reach an import of conversation (Myers-Scotton, 2000). It is a kind of maxims for language users to generate implicatures about proposed interpersonal relationships.

IV. CONCLUSION

In fact code switching is a complex strategy. You can't expect to predict what they are choosing next when you speak to strangers. Although code switching can be used in an unconscious or conscious way, it is really a positive strategy for the language teachers in the MA's class of English majors. It is good to the second language learners who want to intake the western knowledge from the perspective of adaptation theory because code switching can help accomplish the task of communication. It can help language users adapt to various contexts as well.

This study, benefiting from existing researches, proposes an adaptation model of code switching. It is argued that code switching is the realization of communicators making adaptation. Adaptation is made via linguistic factors, social conventions, and psychological motivations. The present research draws particular attention to pragmatic approach to code switching. Then various approaches to the analysis of code switching are generalized and introduced, namely, the sociolinguistic, grammatical, psychological, and conversational analysis approach. Those four approaches have

contributed to our perception of code switching, but no one is strong and comprehensive enough to cover the complexity and subtlety of the specific linguistic phenomenon. A new approach should be exploited so as to cover the linguistic, social, cultural, and cognitive elements.

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Teaching Features and Improvement Suggestions for Chinese Online Classes

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Abstract—The popularity of the Internet has influenced education profoundly. Teaching methods, teacher–student relationships, and the role of teachers have changed significantly due to changes in communication media. In the case of Chinese language learning, online classes have become a crucial tool to encourage and support international Chinese teaching. With the deepening of China's opening, exchanges between China and other countries are becoming increasingly profound. Against this backdrop, worldwide enthusiasm for learning Chinese has emerged, yet not every foreign learner of Chinese has had the opportunity to attend Chinese lessons and receive systemic training. To give more students the opportunity to study Chinese, online lessons are a viable option for various reasons, from acting as an effective channel for students to learn about both Chinese language and culture to offering classes of both short and long duration, and providing a range of different teaching styles and teaching methods depending on the needs of the students. This paper analyzes teachers and methods after observing many Chinese online teaching videos that have attracted a high “click rate” by users. Moreover, this paper focuses on analyzing MOOC and traditional online lessons published by the Confucius Institute and carries out a comparison between them and overseas online Chinese lessons. Finally, this paper evaluates online Chinese lessons and gives suggestions according to the 5C goals of language teaching.

Index Terms—Chinese teaching, the internet, teachers, teaching methods, 5C

I. INTRODUCTION

Chinese is gaining popularity around the world. By the end of 2020, there were 1170 Confucius Classes and 541 Confucius Institutes in 162 countries around the world, according to the Confucius Institute's statistics.^① Despite this, Chinese teaching resources overseas are still very scarce. Therefore, the Internet has rapidly become a significantly important tool, and even the preferred choice for some overseas learners, due to its ability to be accessible to an enormous number of learners, its convenience and the low costs associated with online learning compared to some traditional learning methods.

Although the history of teaching Chinese as a foreign language is not particularly extensive, it also has followed the development path of other foreign language teachings. Up to now, with the prevalence of functionalism and interaction theory, most teachers have adopted functional, interactive, and task-based methods in Chinese classes (Everson M. & Xiao Y. 2009). However, due to reasons such as students not being located in a Chinese-speaking environment and having low levels of interaction with teachers, different types of online teaching methods have resulted.

II. THE OVERVIEW OF ONLINE OVERSEAS CHINESE CLASSES

To undertake this research, YouTube, the biggest global video website was selected as the data source. After searching for the phrase *learn Chinese* on YouTube, the results showed that there were 17 Chinese teaching videos with more than 1 million views respectively and 4 channels with more than 10, 000 subscribers. The following 4 channels were selected: *Chinesepod*, *Learn Chinese with ChineseClass101.com*, *Learn Chinese Now* and *Learn Chinese with Emma*. Moreover, YouTube displayed 20 videos on the topic of greetings which were all beginner Chinese lessons that had relatively high numbers of viewers; these videos have also been analyzed in this research. Various elements of the abovementioned YouTube videos have been the focus of this study, namely, the length of the videos, their number of views, the background of teachers (i.e., whether the teacher comes from an official organization or is a private teacher), each teacher's nationality, the language of instruction, the language of courseware, and the main topics covered in each video.

A. The Form of Foreign Online Chinese Classes

Based on the researcher's observations, none of the most viewed and most highly subscribed Chinese teaching videos and channels on YouTube can be considered as traditional classroom teaching videos. Instead, they are all short videos recorded by teachers. As such, it can be said that this form is relatively popular and in high demand in the market for Chinese learners.

^① Data source : http://www.hanban.edu.cn/confuciusinstitutes/node_10961.htm

By analyzing the 20 most popular videos that range from 3 minutes to 25 minutes in length, it is found that the number of viewers decreases rapidly for videos longer than 20 minutes. This tendency means that in the current information era, people tend to use the fragmented time for learning. Table 1 below shows a comparison of the main features of the form of the videos.

TABLE I.
THE FORM FEATURES OF CHINESE TEACHING VIDEOS ON YOUTUBE

| | Name of Channels | Length | Views | Praise Rate | The Background of Teachers | Teachers' Nationality | The Number of Teachers | Language of Instruction | Courseware's Languages | Teaching Focuses |
|----|--|--------|-----------|-------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------------|---|---|---|
| 1 | Chinesepod | 9'58' | 381,771 | 97.4 % | Chinesepod Company | Chinese, North America, Europe | 1-2 | English (main); Chinese (complementary) | Chinese (words); English (meaning) | Interaction; Usage; Pragmatic Function |
| 2 | Jane Wang | 5'53' | 912,041 | 97.1 % | Private | Ethnic Chinese | 1 | English (main); Chinese (complementary) | Chinese Pinyin, English | Pronunciation; Meaning |
| 3 | Learn Chinese with Emma | 3'26' | 3,167,837 | 97.5 % | Private | Ethnic Chinese | 1 | English (main); Chinese (complementary) | Chinese (words); English (meaning) | Pronunciation; Meaning |
| 4 | Mandarin Impossible | 17'16" | 343,022 | 97% | Private | Ethnic Chinese | 1 | English, expect reading words in Chinese. | Chinese (words); English (meaning) | Pronunciation; Meaning |
| 5 | CultureAlley | 16'12" | 50,078 | 93.2 % | CultureAlley Company | Western | 1 | English, expect reading words in Chinese. | Chinese (words); English (meaning) | Pronunciation; Meaning |
| 6 | CultureAlley | 21'34" | 68,659 | 93.6 % | CultureAlley Company | Western | 1 | English, expect reading words in Chinese. | Chinese Pinyin (words); English (meaning) | Pronunciation; Meaning |
| 7 | Learn Chinese with ChineseClass 101.com | 13'59" | 2,459 | 98.9 % | ChineseClass101 Company | Ethnic Chinese | 1 | English, expect reading words and sentences in Chinese. | Chinese Pinyin | Pronunciation; Meaning |
| 8 | EverydayChinese - Learn Chinese in Chinatown | 2'52' | 2,716 | 97% | Everyday Chinese Company | Chinese | 1 | English, expect reading words in Chinese. | Chinese Pinyin (words); English (meaning) | Pronunciation; Meaning; Usage |
| 9 | Chinesepod | 2'33' | 7,358 | 98% | Chinesepod Company | Chinese, North America, Europe | 1-2 | English (main); Chinese (complementary) | Chinese (words); English (meaning) | Pronunciation; Usage |
| 10 | ChineseCorner | 14'59" | 11,874 | 92.9 % | Private | Canada | 1 (teaching); 10 (acting in context) | English (main); Chinese (complementary) | Chinese (words); English (meaning) | Pronunciation; Meaning; Usage; Pragmatic Function |
| 11 | eChineseLearning | 3'19' | 3,597 | 89.7 % | eChineseLearning Company | Ethnic Chinese | 1 | English (main); Chinese (complementary) | Chinese (words); English (meaning) | Meaning; Usage |
| 12 | baikeclass | 6'31' | 228,630 | 96.6 % | Private | Chinese | 1 | English (main); Chinese | Chinese (words); Chinese | Pronunciation; Meaning |

| | | | | | | | | (complementary) | Pinyin English (meaning) | |
|----|---|--------|---------|--------|-----------------|------------------------------|---|---|---|------------------------|
| 13 | Learn Chinese Now | 1'21' | 105,619 | 98.7 % | Private | North America、Ethnic Chinese | 2 | English, expect reading words in Chinese. | Chinese (words); Chinese Pinyin English (meaning) | Pronunciation; Meaning |
| 14 | Fluent in Mandarin.com | 4'10' | 2,359 | 98% | Private | North America | 1 | English, expect reading words in Chinese. | Chinese (words); Chinese Pinyin English (meaning) | Pronunciation; Meaning |
| 15 | Fluent in Mandarin.com | 6'09' | 2,968 | 98% | Private | North America | 1 | English, expect reading words in Chinese. | Chinese (words); Chinese Pinyin English (meaning) | Pronunciation; Meaning |
| 16 | PeggyTeaches Chinese | 3'02' | 39,122 | 97.4 % | Private | Ethnic Chinese | 1 | English, expect reading words in Chinese. | Chinese Pinyin English (meaning) | Pronunciation; Meaning |
| 17 | SEEMILE Chinese | 5'58' | 154,461 | 96.6 % | SEEMILE Company | South Korea | 1 | English, expect reading words in Chinese. | Chinese Pinyin | Pronunciation; Meaning |
| 18 | Askbenny | 4'03' | 11,432 | 96.7 % | Private | Chinese | 1 | English, expect reading words in Chinese. | Chinese (words); Chinese Pinyin English (meaning) | Pronunciation; Meaning |
| 19 | Learn Chinese with Yi Zhao | 3'49' | 19,972 | 97.4 % | Private | Chinese | 1 | English, expect reading words in Chinese. | Chinese (words); Chinese Pinyin English (meaning) | Pronunciation; Meaning |
| 20 | Paloma Renee ASMR (ASMR Teaching You Chinese) | 13'15" | 4,461 | 98% | Private | Europe | 1 | English, expect reading words in Chinese. | Chinese (words); Chinese Pinyin English (meaning) | Pronunciation; Meaning |

B. Teaching Features of Online Overseas Chinese Classes

The history of teaching Chinese as a foreign language began with the admission of the first group of foreign students in 1950, however, Zhao Jinming regarded a statement by Zhao Yuanren in 1925 as the beginning of it. Zhao Yuanren pointed out in *Phonograph Course in Chinese National Language* that “teaching languages with gramophone records is not novel, and it is not the first-time teaching Chinese with it, but it is the first attempt teaching Chinese to foreigners with it.” (Zhao Jinming, 2010). Over nearly a century, rapid progress has been made in teaching Chinese as a foreign language, accompanied by an evolution from the grammar-translation method to interactive methods and task-based methods, among others. However, due to reasons such as learners having a lack of context and there being either a delay in communication or complete lack of actual interaction between teachers and learners, two significant differences between overseas online Chinese classes and traditional Chinese international education classes have emerged; one being the language of instruction and the other being teaching methods.

First, online Chinese classes aimed at students located outside of China are taught mainly by teachers who use the students' own mother tongue. For example, English is commonly used as the medium of instruction to teach Chinese to overseas students. Accordingly, Chinese is merely adopted when students need to practice pronouncing characters,

which often severely limits the ability for students to have a high intake of Chinese and is obviously very different from offsetting used in a traditional Chinese language class. In contrast, the Chinese Ministry of Education has underlined on multiple occasions the importance of using the target language (i.e., Chinese) during classes, as opposed to the students' native tongue (Zhao Jinming, 2020).

Second, from functionalism and interactive theory it can be seen in the comments of various scholars that there should be an emphasis on context and usage in language teaching. In their opinion, language is the most crucial interactive tool. The functional method, interactive method and task-based method have become mainstream for teaching Chinese as a foreign language in China. This type of teaching method has as its goal the development of students' communicative competence in the target language, and the teaching materials are developed in terms of communicative tasks rather than there being an overwhelming focus on grammar. Furthermore, classes should simulate an authentic communicative environment as much as possible, and the teaching process should emphasize student-centeredness, with the teacher playing a supportive role and emphasizing oral expression rather than linguistic forms. Finally, in this type of environment, teachers are encouraged to tolerate students' errors to a high degree so as not to negatively influence students' confidence or the flow of the learning experience.

However, few overseas online Chinese classes have applied functionalism theories in teaching due to there being a delay in the communication between teachers and students as well as an overall lack of interaction in such classes. If teachers adopt the target language and interactive method during distance education for an extended period, it may be the case that learners give up because they cannot understand the content of the teacher's classes. Therefore, the student audience is a pivotal factor that dictates how online classes will be structured and to what degree they will differ from traditional Chinese lessons.

III. THE ANALYSIS OF TEACHING METHODS OF OVERSEAS ONLINE CHINESE CLASSES

Because of the features of the Internet, most overseas online Chinese classes adopt a method that combines grammar-translation with the audiolingual method. The grammar-translation method is the oldest method in foreign language teaching, using the students' native language as the language of instruction to translate the focus points of the target language, focusing on written language and grammar, and using the classical works of authors as the main source of teaching materials (White, L. 2003). The translation method does not focus on assisting students with their listening or speaking skills. The psychological foundation of the audiolingual method is the stimulus-response theory of behavioristic psychology (McLoughlin, L. & Lertola, J. 2014). According to this theory, if the stimulus and training are strong enough, students can master the target language. This theory focuses heavily on listening and speaking at the expense of reading and writing.

As previously mentioned, most online Chinese classes adopt a method that combines the grammar-translation method with the audiolingual method. In terms of its main features, teachers use their own or the learners' native language to translate words and sentences taught in the target language. Taking greetings as an example, teachers would translate the Chinese phrase *Zao3 Shang4hao3* word by word as "good morning". In some videos, when teaching Chinese greetings, teachers tend to split up Chinese words and translate them in English, for instance, splitting the Chinese expression *Ni3 hao3* into *Ni3* and *hao3*, and then translating them as "you" "good", or splitting *Bu2 cuo4* into *Bu2* and *cuo4*, and then translating them into "not" "bad". Secondly, most videos involve teachers explaining the meaning of Chinese words and teaching the correct pronunciation, with the aim of having students repeat the words several times to practice their pronunciation. Thirdly, teachers do not spend a lot of time on the usage and interactive function for individual words. Taking Chinese greetings again as an example, many videos tell students that greeting words should be used in the first sentence when two or more people meet. However, very few videos would acknowledge and demonstrate to students that there can be both formal and informal meetings between people, requiring different types of greetings depending on the degree of formality. There is only one video on *Chinesepod* further subdividing the context of Chinese greetings into general communication, acquaintances' communication, and chums' communication. Moreover, except for some simple greeting phrases, such as *Ni3 hao3* ("hello"), *Zao3 an1* and *Zao3 Shang4hao3* ("good morning"), this video also explains some common Chinese greetings. However, the interactive function is not employed as the teacher simply translates them word by word, such as *Chi1 le1ma?* (Have you eaten?), *Ni3 Qu4 na3'er le1?* (Where have you been?). Fourthly, in regards to tone, some videos focus on the different tones in Chinese to help students with their speaking skills. However, overall, there is not a great deal of focus on tonal changes; only one video points out that the total value of *Ni3* in *Ni3 hao3* goes from *Ni3* to *Ni2*. We can conclude that the content for beginner Chinese classes on the Internet is mainly on the topic of greetings. Moreover, due to the lack of actual communication and interaction between teachers and learners, such videos usually involve using the native language as the medium of instruction and employing the grammar-translation method. Such videos highlight the importance of listening and speaking, which is different from the grammar-translation method and closer to the audiolingual method that excludes the learners' first language.

IV. SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN OVERSEAS ONLINE CHINESE LESSONS AND MOOC OF THE CONFUCIUS INSTITUTE

A. *Similarities between Overseas Online Chinese Lessons and the MOOC of the Confucius Institute*

Online lessons provided by the Confucius Institute can be divided into two parts: MOOC and traditional online lessons, the former is the abbreviation of Massive Open Online Course and its rapid development is based on the proliferation of websites and mobile intelligence technologies. MOOC underlines the interaction between teachers and learners, and learners' subjectivity. The latter has most of the features of traditional classes, except that the location is shifted from offline to online. The teaching methods are mainly the expository method, leading students to read aloud, and so on. Some videos just play the recording of offline lessons. Besides, with the popularization of the Internet, there are some other forms of online Chinese teaching, for example, micro-lesson and flipped classes, the former of which are mainly short teaching videos to meet learners' requirements for mobile and fragmented learning. The common feature of these online teaching formats is that they reach a large target audience with people from diverse backgrounds. Another feature of online classes is that they are open, especially MOOC. Their teaching methods, resources, evaluation and other processes are all open to learners, in accordance with the 4Rs open-frame construction (reuse, revise, remix, re-distribute) proposed by Stephen Dansky (Liang Lin, 2016).

B. *Differences between Overseas Online Chinese Lessons and MOOC of Confucius Institute*

1. *Interactivity*

Overseas online Chinese classes are less interactive than MOOC of Confucius Institute, as students can only leave comments to the video publisher at the bottom of YouTube videos or subscribed channels, and a Chinese teaching channel is often operated by a company or an institution. Therefore, the creator of the video, the teacher and the publisher are never the same person, which results in there being a delay and lack of interaction between teachers and learners. In contrast, the MOOC of the Confucius Institute has its own online community that can let teachers communicate with learners or learners exchange with each other. However, despite the online community of the MOOC of the Confucius Institute is more interactive than Chinese teaching channels on YouTube, teachers are still not enthusiastic about mentoring. The lack of interaction is not the focus of this paper, so it will not be discussed below.

2. *Languages Used in Classes*

The language used in the MOOC of the Confucius Institute is mainly Mandarin Chinese, which encourages an immersive learning experience for students and strives to create a real language environment for them. Most of the highly popular Chinese teaching videos on the Internet use students' mother tongue as the language of instruction. Chinese is only used when demonstrating how to pronounce new words. Thus, such a learning environment does not guarantee the significant input of Chinese for learners. At the primary stage of learning a language the learner will only have limited knowledge of Chinese, and so the students' native language can be useful as it helps them ease anxiety. However, excessive use of their first language can make students dependent on it and reduce the likelihood of them resorting to using Chinese and dampen their motivation to practice.

3. *Systematic and Individualized*

Most of the Confucius Institute's MOOC are taught in a series of lessons on a single topic. Each lesson tends to cover one to two language points, with after-class assignments to help learners understand and consolidate what they have learnt. According to students' country of origin, age, interests and purpose for learning Chinese, courses on MOOC have been divided into six categories: language course, literature, history and philosophy course, culture course, special-purpose course, special instructional media and pedagogy course, Chinese teacher training course, which are suitable for students of different stages and levels. Compared with this, most overseas online Chinese lessons are not structured in a systematic way and instead, students merely learn the language in a disconnected manner without any sense of order. Moreover, overseas online Chinese lessons are typically divided lessons very broadly into beginner, intermediate and advanced, and do not further classify videos in any other way. This can create problems as it does not consider learners' individual circumstances.

4. *Cultural Property and Pragmatic Knowledge*

Chinese language learning is not just about mastering a communicative tool. Chinese contains rich traditional culture; if one person does not understand the culture then he/she cannot master the language. In addition, pragmatic knowledge is another important aspect of language learning. Pragmatic knowledge includes the context, emotional overtones, associative meaning, and stylistic differences of a linguistic form. MOOC of Confucius Institute has a specialized cultural lesson that introduces and explains Chinese culture, but there are only a few lessons that combine language and culture. Learners, in order to truly grasp Chinese culture, may need to take additional lessons on culture. Furthermore, linguistic lessons lack enough guidance in terms of pragmatics and genre. Overseas online Chinese videos rarely refer to cultural knowledge and do not cover pragmatics or genre.

5. *Teaching Methods*

The MOOC of the Confucius Institute is relatively flexible in terms of its various teaching methods, such as the grammar-translation method, read-aloud training, questioning method, display (pictures and material objects) method, and the audiolingual method, etc. They also assign some homework, for example, letting learners finish interactive tasks (communicative method, task-based method). Most overseas online videos just adopt one or two methods, mainly using the grammar-translation method or read-aloud training for listening and speaking, which may be repetitive for students and not result in them being enthusiastic about learning Chinese.

V. MAIN ISSUES OF OVERSEAS ONLINE CONFUCIUS INSTITUTE

The convenience, efficiency, ability to target a broad target audience and cost-effectiveness of the Internet are some of the main reasons why methods of teaching have drastically changed, thereby promoting the teaching of Chinese language and culture. However, online teaching is still in its infancy in many respects and this next section outlines some of the ways that it can be improved.

Firstly, there is clearly a lack of sufficient professional Chinese teachers. Chinese learning videos that have been clicked more than 50,000 times on YouTube include teachers who are either individual freelance teachers or who are from training agencies, neither of which have received systematic training on how to teach Chinese as a foreign language. As a result, such teachers may lack comprehensive knowledge of the overall Chinese language system and moreover, do not employ effective methods of teaching. One common problem from such videos is that they rarely explain the reasons behind a linguistic phenomenon. Therefore, it can be hard for students to understand complexities in the language, and instead, teachers rely on merely teaching idiomatic usages or fixed expressions, without providing any greater background context. In addition, these videos are often not designed in any systematic order, that is, complex content may be taught at an early stage, while fundamental knowledge is taught later, disrupting the students' ability to absorb information that is suited to their level of Chinese. Finally, some teachers do not speak using standard pronunciation, which can easily affect students' ability to speak standard Mandarin Chinese using the correct tones.

Secondly, the length of the videos is often too short. Most of the Chinese videos ranked in the top 20 are less than 25 minutes in length, and some of them are even less than 5 minutes. In this era of information, people's attention span has become shorter and shorter, and short videos are beneficial to learning at fragmented spare time. However, due to the lack of professional teachers and systematic structure of the learning process, and the fragmented learning time, the learning effect is not ideal and usually gets half the result with twice the effort. Due to limitations of time and budget, most of them choose to learn online. The lack of context on daily life is another reason why they cannot get an ideal learning effect.

Finally, there is a deficiency in pragmatics, genre, cultural knowledge. These Chinese teaching videos simply explain Chinese greetings on a basic level in order to allow learners to roughly master Chinese greetings in the shortest possible time. However, there are all kinds of factors in a truly interactive scenario that would perhaps impact the appropriate type of greeting that needs to be used by the speaker. In fact, learners using such videos may find that in many cases, what they have learnt cannot be applied in an actual typical Chinese conversation.

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT OF OVERSEAS ONLINE CHINESE LESSONS AND ONLINE LESSONS OF CONFUCIUS INSTITUTE

A. *Recommendations for Improvement on Overseas Online Chinese Lessons*

The standards of the new century proposed by Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century are Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons and Communities (Lin Liang, 2016, p.81). Comparisons refer to the comparison between the learners' first language and the target language, involving both language and culture. Its purposes are to know and understand the features of the target language, cultural beliefs associated with the language and the complex relationship between language and culture.

1. *The Perspective of Communication in 5C*

The standard of Communication is that learners do not simply need to be limited to acquiring language knowledge but can also learn to express their own opinions and feelings in the target language. To enable this outcome, teachers are required to have a relatively high level of understanding of pragmatic and knowledge of the genre. With such skills, these teachers will be able to provide context to learners when teaching different words and phrases and will be able to describe to learners which kind of genre is appropriate. Teachers would then not need to merely focus on pronunciation, words, and grammar, but allow students the opportunity to express themselves in Chinese in a more authentic way, mimicking the language habits of native Chinese speakers.

2. *The Perspective of Cultures and Comparisons in 5C*

Persons who create videos that are used to teach Chinese should pay particular attention to how they can embed their videos with aspects of Chinese culture. In this way, Chinese language does not need to be taught in a "vacuum" context, but rather, the fundamental aspects of Chinese culture can be taught throughout each video, in a way that does not make the video particularly long, but instead enhances the overall educational quality of the video. This is especially important for language learners of Chinese who have little to no access to understand Chinese culture in their own communities. To assist such learners of Chinese, comparisons can be made, highlighting similarities and differences, between the students' own culture and Chinese culture.

3. *The Perspective of Communities in 5C*

Persons in charge of Chinese teaching channels should assign a particular person to take charge of collating messages that are posted by viewers of the videos. By implementing this process, creators of the videos can receive timely feedback and adjust their video content as necessary. Furthermore, creators of videos should use social media platforms that allow for instantaneous communication between teachers and learners, such as MSN and Line.

The Connections in 5C require the target language to be taught alongside other disciplines, rather than being taught

separately. However, this is a particularly demanding requirement for teachers and many professional teachers may struggle to meet this demand. It is too strict for non-professionals; therefore, it is not discussed in this paper.

Finally, to deter Chinese language learners from accessing learning resources of poor quality, online platforms such as YouTube should allow for an integrated assessment system that bans low-ranking channels from publishing Chinese teaching videos on the platform. Moreover, the Confucius Institute should enhance its marketing strategies for MOOC and enable greater access to MOOC created by the Confucius Institute by enabling its MOOC to be viewed on more websites and developing an application for mobile phones. At present, most professional Chinese teaching videos on YouTube are recordings of offline lessons. Although such videos often include extensive teaching of theory and are fairly systematic in their structure compared to other shorter videos, the number of page views and click ratio for recordings of offline lessons are much lower than shorter videos. The reason for this is that the recordings of offline lessons involve many interactive practice exercises between teachers and learners, and such content is not stimulating for long-distant learners who cannot participate. Instead, Chinese teachers should make classes more inclusive for long-distant learners by ensuring that Chinese is used as much as possible to enable sufficient input of Chinese for learners. Moreover, pinyin should be used to support learners' understanding and any use of English should be limited.

B. Recommendations for Improvement for MOOC of the Confucius Institute

By analyzing the MOOC of the Confucius Institute, Lin Liang concluded that more than half of the learners (52%) choose the MOOC due to its relatively short length, while 52.3% of learners merely participated in lessons rather than discussing and finishing their assigned homework. From these results, it can be said that most learners were willing to learn Chinese but they did not want to spend considerable time making such efforts to learn. According to the results, 52.2% of learners learned Chinese because of their strong interest in traditional Chinese culture. Accordingly, that means the importance of enhancing the rate of cultural factors in teaching. Therefore, MOOC of Confucius Institute should reduce duration further, make sure every video is less than 10 minutes and add some cultural background knowledge in it. For the low degree of involvement, MOOC can add online real-time groups based on the current online communities and assign teachers who are at the same time zone with most learners to answer questions. According to the survey, 65.6% of learners tend to join real-time interaction, and 38.2% of learners give up communication with teachers because of different time zones. Besides, the evaluation of learners should be reduced, the learners can be divided into two parts: learners who want to get scores or diploma and learners who just want to have an overview understand of Chinese knowledge or culture, for the latter should not ask them to take part in discussions and finish homework.

VII. CONCLUSION

Chinese is a vital carrier of Chinese heritage and tool to spread Chinese culture that has played a crucial role in expanding Chinese influence worldwide and is an indispensable part of the policy of the Belt and Road Initiative. For some students, a lack of access to professional Chinese teachers and not having the chance to travel to China to study have resulted in the Internet providing important access for learners of Chinese. However, the relatively poor levels of teaching in online classes can contribute to a loss of enthusiasm among students and can negatively affect the progress of learners. With such issues currently, it is suggested that the Confucius Institute realizes the importance of online Chinese lessons for overseas learners of Chinese. The Confucius Institute ought to use its platform as a source of knowledge for learners of Chinese language and culture to improve the opportunities for students, whether they are beginners or more advanced learners, to continue their exploration of the Chinese language and have at their disposal the necessary tools and knowledge to support their learning.

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The Cause of Speaking Anxiety of Pre-intermediate EFL Learners and Its Effects on Their Oral Performance

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Abstract—This study is in the area of teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL). It focuses on the factors causing speaking anxiety to pre-intermediate EFL learners, the direct or indirect effects of speaking anxiety on the overall oral performance, in addition to suggesting possible treatments to this problem. The study was conducted at The Higher Language Institute (HLI) and the data obtained through distributing a questionnaire to pre-intermediate students was analyzed analytically. Results show that all kinds of factors are hardly regarded separately. Yet, the linguistic factors are demonstrated to be dominant in learners' oral performance. Finally, certain treatments are presented depending on the data obtained and the most important was to implement an ungraded speaking test to lower speaking anxiety in oral exams. The research concludes with a brief summary, suggestions for further research, and some recommendations for the EFL context.

Index Terms—speaking anxiety, pre-intermediate level, oral performance, foreign language, willingness to communicate

I. INTRODUCTION

Starting from the early 1980s, the focal point of language teaching methods gradually shifted from focusing on mastering the structure to developing the communicative dimension which concentrates on knowing the language rather than knowing about the language (Brown, 2001). Consequently, the language components are no longer regarded in isolation from their actual use and that requires paying more attention to practicing the language i.e. speaking. This approach is referred to as 'Communicative Language Teaching' (CLT) which started to be applied in many EFL contexts due to its prime goal in developing learners' communicative competence as Richards & Rodgers stated in 1986. They believe that learning any language is only possible through communication. However, applying this approach can form another problem because learners' weakness would be highly exposed through having many opportunities for speaking using the target language.

"Anxiety is one of the most negative psychological hinders for many EFL Learners" (Maouche, 2010, p. 8). It is clear that anxiety is a crucial point to consider in learning a foreign language especially due to its emotional, physical, and psychological impediments on learning and practicing the language. It also hampers learning the language because anxious learners seem to be less willing to communicate and the effects of anxiety are clear especially in the oral activities (Subaşı, 2010). Willingness to communicate (WTC) is associated with anxiety and the way learners perceive their competence in the sense that they might underestimate their abilities and thus, tend not to speak. Likewise, MacIntyre in 1995 detected a cyclical relation between anxiety, competence, and performance. Anxiety affects the cognitive domain and by that performance would be harmfully affected causing "negative self-evaluation and more self-deprecating cognition which further impairs performance" (p. 92). By this process, learners would feel the same situation every time they use the target language.

The use of modern communicative language teaching approach, which focuses on learning the language through speaking, has increased in several countries and Syria is no exception. Many EFL institutes for teaching EFL started to implement the communicative approach as a method for teaching English as a foreign language. This has increased the demand to have solutions for the different sources of speaking anxiety that constitute barriers harmfully influencing EFL learners' willingness to communicate using the target language.

Research questions:

The study attempts to provide answers to the following questions:

1. What reasons are more probable to cause speaking anxiety to pre-intermediate EFL learners?
2. What are the suggestions that can alleviate different sources of anxiety?

Significance of the study:

Since speaking is said to be one of the most important skills reflecting the mastery of a foreign language in our modern world, this study tackles an essential realization and projection of the EFL learners' most important skill: Speaking, and the barriers behind its realization, namely, anxiety with all its aspects through focusing on the causes and effects hindering EFL learners' willingness to communicate and negatively affecting oral performance in the target language.

Literature review:

Lindsay and Knight (2006) believe that "Speaking is a productive skill; it involves putting a message together, communicating the message, and interacting with other people" (p.57). Even though the focus of language teaching process shifted to using language for communicative purposes rather than mastering its structure as Cetinkaya suggests (2005), there are certain linguistic factors that might affect learners' course of conversation as Bach and Harnish (1979) think, and such factors could also affect learners' linguistic competence unconstructively.

Acquiring new vocabularies is considered to be a problem to a great number of EFL learners as they claim to have good thoughts but poor vocabulary to express them truly (Subaşı, 2010). Similarly, Tanveer in his research (2007) stresses the importance of remembering and retrieving words as EFL learners proved to become anxious when they do not have enough vocabs to express their ideas which might result in impeding fluency and thus causing speaking anxiety (SA). A good number of EFL Learners' desired goal is to speak with a native-like accent which means that speaking and pronunciation are strongly connected together in the EFL learners' mind (Derwing & Munro, 2005). However, Brown in 2001 claimed that most FLE learners, especially adults, are less able to acquire a native-like accent. This suggests that not having the desired pronunciation or not knowing how to pronounce words correctly might affect learners' willingness to initiate talks using the language and a good example is presented in Subaşı's study when one participant claims: "I always make pronunciation errors while speaking in the target language and observe a humiliating manner on my classmates' faces; this makes me angry" (2010, p. 43). Furthermore, learning new grammar rules is regarded to be the second linguistic factor causing anxiety to EFL learners according to the results of Tanveer's study in 2007. EFL learners claim to be stressed as a result of being unsure most of the time of what tense to use in their speaking attempts. This gives clear evidence that grammar is strongly related to speaking the language (Tanveer, 2007; Irzeqat, 2010). Thus, having difficulties in acquiring new grammar rules, understanding them, and using those rules in speaking can form one major linguistic factor passively affecting EFL learners' eagerness to speak.

Increasing the competence of EFL learners has the purpose of communicating using the target language (McCroskey et al., 1985a), and speaking is a process that can hardly be seen taking place aside from speakers' psychological and social situations (Bach & Harnish, 1979). So, there is a great interdependence between communication and the psychological readiness of learners (MacIntyre, 2003). Maouche (2010) says: "EFL students may generate negative expectations, harmful beliefs and perception that often affect their performance" (p.20). There are a number of misconceptions EFL learners might have in mind regarding certain domains in the language learning process. One mistaken belief some learners strongly believe in is that they must have a native-like accent in order to speak the language, and such an idea can damagingly affect their performance due to the possibility of lacking what they consider to be the core of learning the language (Maouche, 2010; Irzeqat, 2010). In the psychological domain, anxiety is considered by Kimura (2002) to be the opposite of the two terms 'high self-esteems' and 'willingness to take risks.' In addition, he hypothesizes that successful learners show high self-esteem and have less anxiety in oral communication. Correspondingly, low level of self-esteem means higher level of anxiety as many learners would claim in this case that they have no important ideas to present in conversations (McCroskey & Richmond, 1990; Wilson, 2006).

Several social factors are considered by a number of researchers to cause speaking anxiety to EFL learners. The most reported anxiety provoking social factors are: The general classroom atmosphere (context), teachers' role in classroom concerning the rapport between them and learners, speaking activities presented to learners, error correction techniques, and ways of evaluating learner' oral performance. Another set of social factors are related to learners' fear of making mistakes and negative evaluation in speaking tests, in addition to the potential effect of age and gender differences on oral performance. "The use of communicative methodologies implies greater demands on learners to communicate and therefore higher likelihood of exposure to anxiety-inducing situations" (Ceballos, 2003, p.6), and this can be greatly noticed in the classroom context. Generally speaking, the context of foreign language learning gives EFL learners limited opportunities to practice using the language (Tanveer, 2007). That is why their communicative skills would not be fully developed which might result in experiencing the feeling of anxiety.

The problem of speaking anxiety has several effects on EFL learners' WTC, oral performance, and their marks in oral tests (Cutrone, 2009; Maouche, 2010; Riasati, 2011). Tóth (2011) deduces that learners used to remain silent even if they have something to say and they resort to using the first language instead of the target language with an attempt to save themselves from being in embarrassing situations in front of others. Similarly, Tanveer (2007) affirms that speaking anxiety affects EFL learners' oral attempts which results in having poor performance, less enthusiasm and willingness to speak. McCroskey & Richmond (1990) believe that speaking anxiety affects learners' WTC level. Thus, learners with low WTC level are seen negatively by peer unlike the willing ones with high level of WTC who are more likely to enjoy the experience of learning the language.

The first step to overcome the problem of anxiety in the language learning process according to many researchers is to become aware of its existence, identify the factors, and recognize its manifestations (Ceballos, 2003; Tanveer, 2007). Some researchers acknowledge that teachers rarely do take serious steps to deal with speaking anxiety. Yet, they cannot be blamed entirely because learners can also participate in reducing their own anxiety through preparation and participation (Riasati, 2011). Tanveer's suggestions (2007) focus on two main categories causing speaking anxiety including the linguistic and the social ones. With regard to the linguistic factors, Tanveer presents one solution to the problem of having a native-like pronunciation which is to cease from making it a model to follow. This contradicts

Irzeqat's (2010) suggested way of dealing with anxiety regarding this point as she believes in the importance of having confidence in pronunciation. As a result, she recommends that teachers can speak with a native-like example of pronunciation to be role models to follow by learners.

II. METHODOLOGY

Course description and participants:

The current study was conducted at The Higher Language Institute (HLI) that gives people the chance to enroll in English courses from foundation till advanced levels basically depending on the results of a placement test which does not test the speaking skills. The subjects of the study are 17 pre- intermediate EFL learners taking courses at HLI. Each course at The Higher Language Institute consists of 20 sessions divided into 40 hours, two hours for each session and two exams; one takes place in the middle of the course entitled midterm exam containing four sections: listening, reading, writing, and grammar which means that speaking has no part whatsoever in the midterm exam. The other one is the final exam which includes the same sections of the midterm one, in addition to a speaking test called 'interview.' So, all the four skills are tested twice in the midterm and in the final exams except the skill of speaking which is tested only one time in the final exam and is given 10 marks out of 100 in the pre-intermediate level final score.

The instrument:

Data from real life situations of using the English language is collected, described, and analyzed. The method implemented in this study is analytical in order to investigate speaking anxiety factors, effects on EFL learners WTC, and learners' actual oral performance for communicative purposes. The questionnaire was given to learners after the completion of the course with the aim of investigating the causes leading to speaking anxiety especially the linguistic and the social ones. The items included in the questionnaire followed the closed form instead of the open-ended one as the former proves to be easily analyzed (Wilson, 2006). In addition, the presented choices in the questionnaire were: Strongly agree (SA) – Agree (A) – Neither agree nor disagree (N) – Disagree (D) – Strongly disagree (SD). These variables are included with an attempt to regard different levels of approving or disapproving, but in analyzing the results, and to make them easy to digest and categorize, there will be three main retorts incorporating: agree, neither agree nor disagree, and disagree. The items of the questionnaire were mostly adapted from Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) by Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope 1986 which is described as being valid and reliable by Hashimoto (2002).

Data analysis:

Data collection occurred over a period of two months as the courses, in the time which the study was implemented, used to have 3 sessions per week. That is why the 20 sessions lasted for nearly two successive months.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

This section presents answers to the two questions raised in this study. The answers are based on analyzing data collected from the questionnaire which was distributed to students at the end of the course.

What reasons are more probable to cause speaking anxiety to pre- intermediate EFL learners?

TABLE 1
PRE-INTERMEDIATE QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS ON SA FACTORS

| Factors | Agreement Strongly agree (SA)\ Agree (A) | Neutral | Disagreement Strongly disagree (SD)\ Disagree (D) |
|---|--|-------------------|--|
| 1. anxiety in general | 17.64 % [SA: 5.88 (1) – A: 11.76 (2)] | 0% | 82.35% [D: 35.29 (6) – SD: 47.05 (8)] |
| Linguistic Factors: Items from 2 → 9 | | | |
| 2. language class moves too quickly | 52.94 % [SA: 5.88 (1) – A: 47.05 (8)] | 23.52% (4) | 23.52% [D: 23.52 (4) – SD: 0] |
| 3. be upset upon not understanding everything in class | 64.70 % [SA: 11.76 (2) – A: 52.94 (9)] | 0% | 35.29% [D: 23.52 (4) – SD: 11.76 (2)] |
| 4. overwhelmed by grammar rules | 52.94 % [SA: 23.52 (4) – A: 29.41 (5)] | 5.88% (1) | 41.17% [D: 35.29 (6) – SD: 5.88 (1)] |
| 5. unable to express ideas due to lack of knowledge in the use of the right tense | 88.23 % [SA: 29.41 (5) – A: 58.82 (10)] | 5.88% | 5.88% [D: 5.88 (1) – SD: 0%] |
| 6. good ideas but poor vocabs | 52.94 % [SA: 23.52 (4) – A: 29.41 (5)] | 11.76% (2) | 35.29% [D: 35.29 (6) – SD: 0] |
| 7. unable to remember the wide range of vocabs I have | 41.17 % [SA: 17.64 (3) – A: 23.52 (4)] | 23.52% (4) | 35.29% [D: 35.29 (6) – SD: 0] |
| 8. knowing many vocabs but unsure what to use | 64.70 % [SA: 0 – A: 64.70 (11)] | 5.88% (1) | 29.41% [D: 29.41 (5) – SD: 0] |
| 9. I have excellent pronunciation | 52.94 % [SA: 5.88 (1) – A: 47.05 (8)] | 5.88% (1) | 41.17% [D: 41.17 (7) – SD: 0] |
| Psychological Factors: Items from 10 → 18 | | | |
| 10. having native-like accent is more important than speaking accurately | 47.05 % [SA: 11.76 (2) – A: 35.29 (6)] | 5.88% (1) | 47.05% [D: 35.29 (6) – SD: 11.76 (2)] |
| 11. able to express myself successfully while speaking English. | 47.05 % [SA: 11.76 (2) – A: 35.29 (6)] | 17.64% (3) | 35.29% [D: 35.29 (6) – SD: 0] |
| 12. I'm a very good English language learner | 35.29 % [SA: 5.88 (1) – A: 29.41 (5)] | 23.52% (4) | 41.17% [D: 35.29 (6) – SD: 5.88 (1)] |
| 13. speaking the language is a gift that not everyone has | 58.82 % [SA: 23.52 (4) – A: 35.29 (6)] | 5.88% (1) | 35.29% [D: 29.41 (5) – SD: 5.88 (1)] |
| 14. other learners speak English better than me. | 29.41 % [SA: 11.76 (2) – A: 17.64 (3)] | 23.52% (4) | 47.05% [D: 29.41 (5) – SD: 17.64 (3)] |
| 15. I became very anxious about speaking English in front of all learners | 35.29 % [SA: 23.52 (4) – A: 11.76 (2)] | 5.88% (1) | 58.82% [D: 41.17 (7) – SD: 17.64 (3)] |
| 16. My personality affects my oral performance in the classroom. | 70.58 % [SA: 23.52 (4) – A: 47.05 (8)] | 23.52% (4) | 5.88% [D: 0 – SD: 5.88 (1)] |
| 17. become too nervous when the teacher asks me to speak something I did not prepare in advance. | 52.94 % [SA: 11.76 (2) – A: 41.17 (7)] | 5.88% (1) | 41.17% [D: 23.52 (4) – SD: 17.64 (3)] |
| 18. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English course | 35.29 % [SA: 0 – A: 35.29 (6)] | 0 | 64.70% [D: 58.82 (10) – SD: 5.88 (1)] |
| Social Factors: Items from 19 → 25 | | | |
| 19. The classroom atmosphere is very positive. | 82.35 % [SA: 17.64 (3) – A: 64.70 (11)] | 17.64% (3) | 0 |
| 20. We are not given the appropriate opportunities to speak in the class. | 35.29 % [SA: 5.88 (1) – A: 29.41 (5)] | 11.76% (2) | 52.94% [D: 41.17 (7) – SD: 11.76 (2)] |
| 21. I'm afraid of making mistakes. | 17.64 % [SA: 11.76 (2) – A: 5.88 (1)] | 5.88 (1) | 76.47% [D: 47.05 (8) – SD: 29.41 (5)] |
| 22. The way the teacher corrects my oral mistakes makes me lose face. | 5.88 % [SA: 0 – A: 5.88 (1)] | 11.76% (2) | 82.35% [D: 52.94 (9) – SD: 29.41 (5)] |
| 23. I'm relaxed before and during the speaking tests. | 29.41 % [SA: 0 – A: 29.41 (5)] | 17.64% (3) | 52.94% [D: 35.29 (6) – SD: 17.64 (3)] |
| 24. The more I prepare for the speaking tests, the more I became anxious about it. | 58.82 % [SA: 17.64 (3) – A: 41.17 (7)] | 11.76% (2) | 29.41% [D: 29.41 (5) – SD: 0] |
| 25. My previous experience in learning the language affects my current oral performance in classroom. | 11.76 % [SA: 5.88 (1) – A: 5.88 (1)] | 17.64% (3) | 70.58% [D: 52.94 (9) – SD: 17.64 (3)] |

The results show that all three categories of factors contribute to causing speaking anxiety to pre-intermediate learners. However, linguistic factors proved to be the most anxiety-promoting type of factors especially since learners, who belong to this level, are still relatively at an early stage of learning and acquiring the language. This is also found in Cetinkaya's study (2005) deducing that grammar and vocabulary play a very negative role affecting learners' WTC and oral production. Depending on Cetinkaya's deduction, learners suffer greatly when attempting to speak using the target language as their knowledge about the linguistic elements is still comparatively poor.

Psychological factors are ranked second as some items provide evidence of their ability to affect WTC and speaking attempts. Most of the reported psychological factors by learners are related to misconception regarding the language learning process since a number of them (more than 47%) consider speaking with a native-like accent to be more

important than speaking accurately, in addition to the fact that nearly 59% of learners suppose that speaking the target language is a gift that is not granted to all people. Furthermore, some learners believe in the say that 'they are what they speak' which can influence their ability to truly rank their speaking capabilities. Previous studies such as Ohata (2005); Cutrone (2009) and Ramírez (2010) gave more weight to the psychological causes as well as the social ones. Some focused heavily on the psychological factors thinking that these kinds of causes have the greatest harmful impact that affects learners' speaking attempts. However, in this study, the psychological kind of factors has a less negative effect than the linguistic one as pre-intermediate learners are still not fully aware of the problem of anxiety and its effects on their speaking endeavors.

Contrary to previous studies, the social factors proved to exert a minimal negative impact on pre-intermediate learners' speaking attempts. Only the fear of the speaking test, which can also be a psychological factor since all three categories are related to some extent, proved to have a negative impact on speaking endeavors during oral exams. This contradicts Tanveer's presuppositions (2007) that the social factors are more important to focus on than other types of factors.

What are some possible ways to address these problems?

A number of alleviations were presented in the related literature; however, in this study treatments and alleviations are set taking into account the special context in which the study is conducted. Moreover, remedies to be suggested must go hand in hand with the sources of speaking anxiety. In other words, they should be reflected on the certain factors causing speaking anxiety to EFL learners of pre-intermediate level under investigation in the milieu of HLI.

The prime aim of answering this question is to suggest alleviations to the problem of speaking anxiety parallel to the types of factors learners proved to be more anxious at. Therefore, this study has proposed two types of possible ways that can lessen the level of speaking anxiety. The two suggested kinds of treatment have been divided into two subsections. The first one provides a set of ideas suggested by learners, in addition to the study's contributions based on the results gathered in order to deal with speaking anxiety in the classroom. The majority of the suggested ideas is to deal with the linguistic type of factors, but includes other social and psychological ideas since the problem of speaking anxiety cannot be regarded in isolation from other types of factors. Depending on the data obtained previously from learners, a number of possible remedies are presented in the following table.

TABLE 2
POSSIBLE REMEDIES TO THE PROBLEM OF SPEAKING ANXIETY

| | |
|---|--|
| 1 | Discussing the problem with learners of all levels |
| 2 | Pinpointing the negative influence originated from speaking anxiety |
| 3 | Teachers' role in the classroom |
| 4 | Enhancing the skill of speaking through presenting more speaking chances in classrooms |
| 4 | Choosing interesting topics for discussion |
| 5 | Putting objectives for speaking activities |
| 6 | Implementing the use of grammar in speaking |
| 7 | Taking into account learners' number in every class |

In the second one, the study suggests adding a second 'interview' in the midterm exam which includes no speaking test. The purpose is to lessen the feeling of anxiety which may result from the fear of evaluation and getting low marks. This idea depended heavily on learners' positive reaction toward inserting this ungraded speaking test that might decrease the negative feeling of SA.

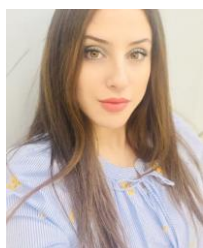
IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Speaking is a multifaceted construct and it is considered to be the most important skill to master in learning the language. Learners regard speaking to be the sign of being knowledgeable about the language. This belief has increased since English is the language of communication internationally (Nazara, 2011). Many features play a vital role in making learners willing to speak; some of these features are learners' psychology and the situation in which they are going to communicate with others (MacIntyre, 2007). Different types of linguistic, psychological, and social factors can negatively affect learners' WTC and speaking attempts. Moreover, Tanveer declares that "students' feeling of stress, anxiety or nervousness may impede their language learning and performance abilities" (2007, p.1). Depending on data analysis, it has been deduced that all factors contribute in making learners of both levels feel anxious while speaking especially the linguistic ones. This contradicts other studies which showed great effects exerted by the social factors (Ohata, 2005).

To conclude, the first step to cope with the problem of speaking anxiety is to identify the factors and recognize the manifestations (Tanveer, 2007). That is why discussing this problem with learners can be highly beneficial assuming that their point of view can play a major role in suggesting specific remedies that may reflect the real type of factors that cause them to feel more anxious while speaking. Another point to consider is not to underestimate discussing the issue of speaking anxiety with the more advanced level, but rather to provide possible treatments to this problem having the same enthusiasm with all different levels.

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