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Cosmopolitanism and Multilingualism in a Globalized World: Perspectives on the Lack of Foreign Language Learning in the US

Kathleen Stein-Smith
Fairleigh Dickinson University, Metropolitan Campus, Teaneck, NJ, USA

Abstract—**Although cosmopolitanism has a long history, it has become even more relevant in the global era and, especially, since the COVID-19 global pandemic has made communication and understanding across cultures more important than ever. Multilingualism is the essential cosmopolitan skill and tool, empowering those who are proficient in one or more additional languages to understand, and to communicate and interact with others more effectively. The United States suffers from a foreign language deficit, and there is an urgent need to build both motivation and interest in other languages along with sustainable skills in other languages in the US. Steps to effectively address this deficit include prioritizing language learning and use, and providing the opportunity to all interested students to learn one or more additional languages.**

Index Terms—**multilingualism, cosmopolitanism, global identity, global citizenship, language learning**

I. Introduction

"We are at an extraordinary moment in human history. Cooperation within and across borders is vital as we work to solve global challenges. Clear and precise communication is more crucial than ever before to the health and security of every nation" (AMACAD, 2020, 1). This powerful call to action by five international academies, representing Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States (in alphabetical order), is the most recent affirmation of the role and significance of languages in a global context. Cosmopolitanism, often thought of as citizenship of the world or global/cosmopolitan citizenship, and described as feeling "at home in the world" (Brennan, 1997, title), has become increasingly important in an interconnected and globalized world, and this importance has been highlighted during the COVID-19 global pandemic, which has underscored both the commonalities of needs and concerns in all parts of the world, along with the need for international cooperation and collaborations in the search for solutions to complex global issues.

While cosmopolitanism may at first seem an abstract concept, it simply means that the idea that all human beings are, can, and should be citizens in a single worldwide community. In a globalized and interconnected world, the ability to communicate with others in our global community is an essential and a critical skill. In addition, in our own local society, knowledge of heritage languages is not only a way to maintain ties to our own personal cultural identity and to communicate with family members, it is also a way to build and strengthen ties among diverse groups in our society, thereby increasing harmony and reducing segmentation, and to build interest in the broader world. Language learning and the use of additional languages in our homes and communities, in the workplace, and in our society, are ways in which we can develop the multilingual skills that can enhance our international mindset and facilitate the development of global citizenship values. "Language skills foster literacy, educational attainment, and a confident mindset that views cultural difference with curiosity rather than prejudice" (AMACAD, 2020, 2).

The call to action by the five international academies is all the more noteworthy in that it comes from the anglosphere, and English-speakers tend to be among the least likely to learn additional languages. US students tend to lag behind those in many other countries in language skills, and this language gap, or language deficit, impacts on international relations, international business, and on the ability of Americans to interact effectively in the world, either as tourists and travelers, or as global citizens on the world stage, as well as on intercultural understanding and harmony in our increasingly multilingual society in the US (Devlin, 2018; Stein-Smith, 2013).

The philosopher Wittgenstein is considered to have led the contemporary conversation on multilingualism and identity, as well as the linguistic turn -- which has focused on the significance of language in the individual rather than on language merely as a system -- writing a century ago that "the limits of our language are the limits of our world" (Gunesch, 2003, 227). However, the relationship between language knowledge and global identity and the significance of multilingualism in the development of an international mindset and global citizenship values, the value of language skills in problem-solving and creativity, and in transnational teams, as well as the role and nature of multilingualism within the individual are still aspects in need of consideration and examination (Kharkhurin, 2012; Livermore, 2016; Gunesch, 2008). The role of bilingualism in the life of the bilingual and bicultural individual is another area where multilingualism and individual cosmopolitan identity meet (Grosjean, 2019).

In an increasingly interconnected and globalized world, effective communication is of critical importance, and multilingualism is an essential skill in developing an international mindset and global citizenship skills. Knowledge of another language offers an unparalleled window into another culture. However, while the United States is a nation of immigrants, remarkably few Americans speak an additional language. The US suffers from a foreign language deficit, with only 1 in 4 Americans able to have a conversation in a language other than English and with fewer than 20% of K-12 students, and 7.5% of college and university students studying another language (McComb, 2001; American Councils, 2017; MLA, 2019). While US students lag behind students in other countries in language learning and language skills, this is all the more surprising in light of our US history as a nation of immigrants. The causes for this are many, including the belief among many US students that English is the global *lingua franca* and that other languages are not necessary, further reinforced by the British narrative through which US history has traditionally been told, learned, and taught.

II. Cosmopolitanism and Multilingualism in a Globalized World

People have always traveled, and their languages have been in contact throughout history -- with Herodotus and *The Odyssey* among the best-known examples from classical history, followed by Erasmus during the Renaissance, along with countless others who traveled for military, political, and economic and other reasons, and the many explorers of different regions and time periods. It is interesting to note, and no coincidence, that the European Union student exchange program is the Erasmus Programme, and most recently Erasmus+. In more recent time, travel has been made easier through technological advances, and has become more accessible -- available to a large segment of the general public, and the "Grand Tours" of yesteryear have become study abroad and study away.

As people have travelled, their languages have been in contact -- to the extent that linguists, most notably Uriel Weinreich, have studied language contact, and the changes that these contacts have caused over time throughout history, with the case of the influence of French on the English language through the Norman Conquest among the best known examples. Over the course of several centuries, this contact resulted in the fact that nearly half of the modern English lexicon, or vocabulary, is of French origin.

Along with this ongoing contact among people and their languages throughout history, the idea of cosmopolitanism has evolved, from the ancient world through the Enlightenment, and into the 20th century and beyond, through institutions like the UN and through the lenses of moral, political, philosophical, cultural, and economic cosmopolitanism. Contemporary author Kwame Anthony Appiah may sum it up best, with “conversations across boundaries can be delightful, or just vexing, what they mainly are, though, is inevitable" (Appiah, 2006, xxi). This inevitability of conversations across cultures forms the foundation for the conversation about the necessity of multilingualism in an increasingly interconnected and globalized world where language skills offer unparalleled access into the world of another cultures, empowering the person who speaks more than one language to communicate directly with those of another culture during travel and study abroad, in international business and the globalized workplace, as well as in our local neighborhoods.

While this interaction of languages in contact has brought about visible changes to the languages in question, with the influence of French on English as one of the best-known historical examples, the interaction of multiple languages within the individual may have varying effects on the personal cultural identity of that individual. This relationship of multilingualism to cosmopolitanism or global identity is of interest not only to educators, but to all who believe in and work toward a better world through better mutual understanding (Gunesch, 2008). An example of the interplay of languages and identities in the educational setting is the discussion of French, American, and global identity at the Lycée Français de New York (Ross, 2019). An example of this interaction among postsecondary students within the context of a global youth forum and a UN activity is the Many Languages One World global youth forum (United Nations, 2017).

Moreover, the very process of language learning generally involves learning a great deal about the culture of the target language(s) through direct exposure to and discussion of authentic texts and media reflecting not only the language, but also the beliefs and values of the other culture. This ability to read both non-fiction, biographies, scholarly journals, and popular newspapers and magazines in another language, as well as fiction and other literature helps the multilingual to develop a more accurate and nuanced understanding of another culture than could be acquired by reading works written by outsiders to the culture and/or translated into English. Listening to or watching the news or a documentary, watching a popular television series, or enjoying a film without needing to depend on subtitles or dubbing which, at best, add an additional barrier between the viewer and the content, are just a few of the many benefits. The good news is that, due to technology, it is easier today than ever before for everyone interested in viewing the world from different perspectives to access news, information, education, cultural events, and entertainment through different cultural and linguistic lenses.

The power of the media, and the role of the multilingual celebrity, are significant. Well-known figures in history around the world have been multilingual, including US Founding Fathers Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, and others. Contemporary US public figures, including John Kerry, Mitt Romney, and Antony Blinken, have been fluent in at least one other language (in these cases, French), as are US celebrities like Serena Williams and Bradley Cooper, with other well-known Americans like Mark Zuckerberg and Sandra Bullock speaking Chinese and German respectively. These examples are just a few of the many which can potentially inspire and motivate language learning among Americans. In addition, non-English language television series like "*Casa de Papel*," "*Dix pour cent*/Call My Agent," and "*Lupin*" have had considerable popularity in the US, and the appeal of popular media and entertainment can also be used to leverage interest and motivation to learn more about other languages and cultures. However, this interest in celebrities and in entertainment media, while invaluable in motivating sustainable language learning, may not necessarily lead to an objective overview of another language and culture, and needs to be supplemented by structured reading and learning across the disciplines.

Migration has always existed, and it is paradoxical that the US, a nation of immigrants, is a nation where relatively few English speakers are able to hold a conversation in a language other than English. Reasons for this include the "melting pot" metaphor prevalent during much of US history, which encouraged assimilation and language loss. However, many Americans are aware of a non-English speaking culture in their family story even if they may not speak that heritage language at this time, sometimes after many generations, or a few, in the US, and at present, over 70M in the US speak another language in the home (Ryan, 2013). Interest in one's family language(s) has the potential to lead to language and cultural learning now and in the future, and to the development of a more international mindset.

III. Multilingualism and Cosmopolitanism in a Multilingual World

"Language is a critical instrument that shapes one's view of the world. Understanding the meaning of the words other people use yields perhaps the most insight into cultural differences" (Adams & Carfagna, 2006, 174). While in the US, the traditional narrative highlights the primary role of English, a legacy of British colonialism, as the *de facto* language of the United States, the global reality is that at least half of the world population speaks more than one language on a regular basis (Grosjean, 2010,2020), and that only 25% of the world population speaks English (British Council, 2013). Bilinguals and multilinguals around the world can also be viewed as those who have been students in schools where additional languages are taught as foreign languages, or those where more than one language has been used as the medium of instruction -- foreign language learning versus bilingual/multilingual education. While cosmopolitanism and the development of a cosmopolitan worldview, identity, and values may not be linked to the number of languages spoken by the individual, the level of linguistic skill, the number of languages -- or which languages --are spoken, "arguably there are limits to an individual's cosmopolitan development if he or she does not have a set of languages to start with" (Gunesch, 2003, 227).

The US lags behind in terms of multilingualism for a variety of reasons -- foreign language instruction begins relatively late, may not be required, and may not be sufficiently intense (Devlin, 2018; Pufahl, Rhodes, & Christian, 2001). Again, reasons for this are varied, ranging from a lack of interest and motivation among many who may consider English, the global *lingua franca*, sufficient, but also a lack of opportunity in the US for interested students to learn another language partially caused by the lack of a language policy, with a decreasing number of an already-small percentage of public elementary and middle schools offering language programs (Stearns, 2008; AMACAD, 2017). It is this lack of opportunity which is the most troubling, and becomes a question of equity, as bilingualism has been shown to benefit especially lower-income and immigrant children and (Izadi, 2014; Hu, 2018).

While the US does not have an official language, many international organizations do, including the United Nations, the International Olympic Committee, the European Union, and many more. Although the specifics of multilingualism may vary, the goals remain communication and understanding across cultures. In the UN, while there are over 190 members, six languages -- Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian, and Spanish (in alphabetical order) are official languages; and English and French serve as working languages of the UN Secretariat. Many UN publications are translated into additional languages, and in order to further support multilingualism, the UN supports individual languages on specific days throughout the year, as well as various initiatives including the Many Languages One World (MLOW) Global Youth Forum (United Nations, 2017). French and English are the official languages of the IOC, along with local language of the Games. Interestingly, the *Organisation internationale de la Francophonie* (OIF) delegates a *Grand Témoin* to the Olympics to ensure that French is being utilized to its full extent as an official language. The European Union, with a core value of multilingualism, considers the official language of all member nations as official languages while using English, French, and German as working languages. Within the context of multilingualism, plurilingualism, or the ability to function in communicative situations in more than one language, is especially important (Lüdi & Py, 2009). In the Brexit era, the continued future role of English in Europe has been a topic of discussion.

Languages have different degrees of influence, based on historical, political, and economic factors, which evolve over time. While many languages are used in more than one country, French and English are generally considered global languages, with France and its language widely known for "soft power," or influence. Artificial or created languages, including Esperanto, have been created, intended to serve as second languages to enhance global communication. Multilingualism also means valuing local languages, ensuring that all students have the opportunity to learn additional languages, and eliminating the commodification of language learning (Holborow, 2018). The most important factor is that "the necessity of foreign-language education could not be clearer right now. The future in America, and everywhere, is multilingual. And so is the present" (Montlaur, 2019, web).

Many Languages One World (MLOW) is an example highlighting "global citizenship and cultural understanding, and the role that multilingual ability can play in fostering these" (UN, 2017, web). Including an essay contest in which college and university students from around the world write essays in a learned second language which is also one of the official languages of the UN on the significance of multilingualism in global citizenship. Essay contest winners -- generally 10 for each of the 6 official languages of the UN -- have been invited to a week-long youth forum on a US campus where they live in a global community and work within their language groups, following a process of appreciative inquiry. This is intended to engage the participants in self-determined change in a positive environment, bringing together a large and diverse group of student winners together to study and build upon their best ideas, as they develop their presentations of action plans to implement the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) that are delivered in the UN General Assembly Hall -- all of this in the learned second language of their winning essay. While the experience has been meaningful for both the student winners and the staff who worked with them to facilitate the development of the presentations, the lasting impact would be the relationships formed among the students and which have been continued through social media, local mini reunions, and informal encounters, and more recently, through online reunions and discussions of future projects inspired by the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), emphasizing the importance of the final goal, Goal 17, "Partnerships for the Goals," which strongly implies multilingualism and communication across cultures.

IV. Encouraging Multilingualism and Becoming Multilingual: The Role of Language Learning and Language Use

"Learning another language offers a different view of the world" (Adams & Carfagna, 2006, 174). While over half of the world population is multilingual, using more than one language on a regular basis, and 75% of the world population is not proficient in English, English-speakers -- including Americans -- remain relatively unlikely to be able to hold a conversation in a language other than English (Grosjean, 2010,2020; British Council, 2013; McComb, 2001). In a multilingual, globalized, and interconnected world, where knowledge of languages is both the means to better understand other cultures and also the tool to communicate and to work together with others, the challenge is to foster and encourage multilingualism in the US.

Two aspects of multilingualism that need to be considered and examined are language learning and language education in order to build and strengthen proficiency, and perhaps even more importantly, language use in order to provide the opportunity to use language in authentic communicative settings and for authentic communicative purposes in the workplace and in our society. Traditionally, the conversation on language and languages in the US has traditionally centered primarily on language learning, but real-life opportunities to use other languages in meaningful ways would not only strengthen skills, but would also incentivize the time-consuming and difficult task of learning other languages.

Central to both language learning and language use is motivation, and creating sustainable motivation is key to successful outcome in language learning. Motivation can be as varied as individual personalities and interests, including interests in history, literature, music, the arts, and the lifestyle of another culture; one's own cultural heritage and family story, or that of a friend or loved one; as well as career and professional plans and goals. Intrinsic motivation, or genuine interest in another culture, is generally considered the most effective motivation (Dornyei, 1994). Areas in need of planning include awakening interest in other languages and cultures, and creating pathways to educational programs with a global and/or multilingual dimension.

The process of awakening interest in other languages and cultures involves us all, as individuals, as members of our communities, and as citizens. Methods can be as varied as are all our communities and their members, including initiatives, events and media intended to appeal to a broad range of interests, to all ages, and -- most importantly -- to all levels of experience with the target language and culture. Heritage languages and cultures have the potential to attract those who may not be considering language learning or international education. While the questions of language use and fluency may arise, at this stage, the most effective events and initiatives are inclusive, with the goal of reaching the largest number of participants. Additional community activities can foster additional development through more targeted activities, language learning, and use of the target language. The power of creativity, either active creativity or enjoyment of media and entertainment, is significant and can form the foundation of sustainable engagement in both language and cultural learning. The 4Cs of global learning -- communication, collaboration, critical thinking, and creativity -- are a useful framework for developing both multilingualism and cosmopolitanism (Pardede, 2020).

In terms of educational programs, which would at the same time build language skills and sustain interest at all levels, it is necessary to consider both curriculum and availability (AMACAD, 2017). For students at younger ages, it is necessary to ensure availability of continued foreign language learning, especially in public schools, in order to reach the largest number of students. At the postsecondary level, it is important to build K-16 collaborations which would strengthen continuity, and to develop programs including not only foreign language and international/global studies, but also interdisciplinary partnerships and joint programs, in order to empower students across the disciplines to develop pre-professional proficiency and skills. Whether in our communities or in our educational institutions, in order to encourage multilingualism, it is essential to encourage both learning and use of additional languages.

V. Current Trends and Future Directions

Multilingualism includes both language learning and language use, which have both commonalities and differences in terms of history, present status, and future directions, and in terms of strategies for advocacy and promotion. While the role of multilingualism as a career, professional, and economic asset has been widely reported, the role of multilingualism in the development of a cosmopolitan identity and global citizenship values in the individual is also worthy of examination (ACTFL, 2019; NAE, 2017; Hogan-Brun, 2017).

Despite the increasing need for multilingualism in a globalized and interconnected world and in our increasingly multilingual and multicultural society, language learning in the US is facing challenges at all levels. In US public elementary and middle schools, the percentage of those offering language programs has declined in recent years, and foreign language enrollment has also declined in colleges and universities. Fewer than 20% of K-12 students study a foreign language, and only 7.5% of college and university students are enrolled in a course in a language other than English (American Councils, 2017; MLA, 2019). In the most recent period, 651 postsecondary programs were lost as defined by the report (MLA,2019).

Challenges to multilingualism have generally included the relative reluctance of Americans, and of Anglophones generally, to learn an additional language, believing that as English is the global *lingua franca*, it is not necessary for them to learn any additional languages. However, this widespread belief is erroneous, with only 25% of the world population able to speak English, and multilingualism the global norm, with at least 50% of the world population multilingual, using more than one language on a regular basis. In addition, it is important to remember that the underlying cause of the US foreign language deficit is actually the lack of opportunity for young Americans to learn another language rather than reluctance to do so. Only 15% of public elementary schools in the US offer foreign languages, and this number has actually decreased in recent years (AMACAD, 2017).

Despite this present situation, the proliferation of immersion programs demonstrates the interest of parents and students in language and cultural learning in an authentic setting where language is the medium of instruction rather than being considered a "foreign" language. In higher education, faculty have taken the lead in encouraging double majors and in developing interdisciplinary, pre-professional, and joint programs (MLA). While the impending decline in enrollment due to the birth dearth, as well as the ongoing crisis in the humanities, have impacted colleges and universities, the most recent Humanities Indicators have indicated significant support among the public and among parents for language learning. While this support is strongest for language learning prior to college, a larger number of students with an interest in languages and the proficiency needed for pre-professional language study will be arriving on college campuses.

In terms of heritage languages, in addition to the increase in the number of immersion programs, communities and organizations have launched programs, events, and initiatives. Examples of these include the *Oui!* Initiative, promoting business use of French in Louisiana, as well as the development of French Language Job Fairs, both of which illustrate the concepts of *francoresponsabilité* and *francodurabilité*, the role of heritage language speakers in developing sustainable language use in authentic settings.

VI. Closing The Gap: Reducing The Foreign Language Deficit and Encouraging Cosmopolitanism

Just as the MLOW student winners developed action plans for implementing the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in the their presentations in the UN General Assembly Hall, it is also necessary for those who believe in multilingualism to become advocates for language learning and use of other languages in the US, and "advocacy means to persuade people who matter to care about your issue" whether this means "getting listened to, being at the table when decisions are made, and being heard by people who make decisions", or "speaking and writing in compelling ways" in order to persuade and to influence (Daly, 2011, 15). Advocacy involves all language stakeholders -- educators and students, parents and communities, and business and government, using whatever means and methods are available -- using face-to-face and online methods, and through research, writing, and professional engagement.

In order to reduce the foreign language deficit and to encourage cosmopolitanism, leadership among multilingual supporters is essential, as is a willingness to engage in social and political action. Supporters of cosmopolitanism, global citizenship, and multilingualism are also called upon to be leaders in their communities, educational institutions, and in our society. Advocates for multilingualism may need to exercise leadership, "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (Northouse, 2013, 5). The resurgence in foreign languages, multilingualism, and global citizenship in the US is also a social movement, meaning that various small groups of language stakeholders and supporters are united by the "shared purpose," of developing multilingualism, an international mindset, and global values in our society (Satell & Popovic, 2017, web).

While the need for an international mindset in a globalized and interconnected world, and the role and significance of multilingualism in the development of global citizenship values are clear, the status of languages in the US is unclear. While many Americans (70M) speak a language other than English in the home, most American students do not learn additional languages in school. Increasing language learning and use in the US is a priority, and it is essential to expand access to language learning so that all interested students will have the opportunity to learn one or more additional languages and for continued language learning beginning in the earliest grades either through traditional foreign language instruction or through immersion programs.

Language advocacy, whose primary goal is to increase access and opportunity in order develop proficiency, needs to be a grassroots effort, including educators, parents and communities, heritage language groups, and language enterprise partners in business and government. In order to be effective, advocacy must incorporate methods from change management, psychology of influence and persuasion, social marketing, and public relations, as well as both traditional in-person and online methods. Advocacy also includes research, writing, and professional engagement, as well as support of advocacy initiatives at the local, regional, and national levels. The campaign for multilingualism transcends traditional language advocacy in its nature as a social movement, including social and political action. The implementation of a national language policy, which would foster and encourage multilingualism and support language learning and use, would be the most effective way to ensure both access and support.

VII. Conclusions

While language learning and language use bring multiple benefits to the individual and to society, the role of multilingualism in developing a cosmopolitan identity and the values of global citizenship is essential, and multilingualism is an essential 21st century skill. "To solve the problems we face, we must increase our capacity to speak with each other as part of a global community. Language instruction to enhance literacy and fluency, including knowledge of multiple languages, is crucial to creating future ‘global citizens’ who can respond to these challenges and support positive impacts on our own domestic politics" (AMACAD, 2020, 3).

Action steps include prioritizing language learning and language use in our schools and in society, through support of existing programs and initiatives and development of additional pathways to languages, "preparing present and future generations of citizens who will be responsible for building international collaborations and fostering harmony at home" (AMACAD, 2020, 3). Opportunity and access are critical issues, as is the cost of language learning for many around the world.

"Multilingualism is freedom" (Maher, 2017, 95), and effective advocacy needs to bring together language and international education advocates and activists from around the world in partnership with language stakeholders in science and technology, in global healthcare, in business, government, and many more, united in the shared purpose of a better world for all and languages for all.

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Kathleen Stein-Smith, PhD, *Chevalier dans l'Ordre des Palmes académiques*, is a dedicated foreign language educator and advocate.

She serves as Chair of the AATF (American Association of Teachers of French) Commission on Advocacy and as a member of the ATA Education and Pedagogy Committee. She is also active in foreign language education associations, including the NECTFL Advisory Council, CSCTFL Advisory Council, and as a SCOLT sponsor.

She has presented at numerous professional conferences at the state, regional, and national level, is the author of five books and numerous articles about the foreign language deficit and the importance of multilingualism, has given a TEDx talk on the U.S. foreign language deficit, has been interviewed by press and radio, and maintains a blog, "Language Matters."

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Multimodal Metaphor Patterns in Documentaries About Plastic Pollution

Yana Vermenych
Department of English Philology, V. N. Karazin Kharkiv National University, Kharkiv, Ukraine

***Abstract*—This article addresses the issue of multimodal instantiation of conceptual metaphors in documentaries about plastic pollution: *A Plastic Ocean* (2016) and *Recycling Sham* (2019). Theoretically, it departs from conceptual metaphor theory (Lakoff & Johnson1980), extending it with the multimodal (Forceville and Urios-Aparisi 2009) and discursive (Musolff 2006) approaches to metaphor. In agreement with the latest theoretical development in this area (Ping Tang, Kelin Quan, Jianbin Zhu 2020), conceptual metaphor is viewed not as a mere correspondence between two conceptual domains, but as a condensed micronarrative that provides a rich understanding of the target domain. The research demonstrates that multimodal metaphors in the documentaries under scrutiny are capable of forming constellations that carry ideological implications, demonstrating temporal variation.**

***Index Terms*—conceptual metaphor, documentary, mode (verbal, visual, aural), multimodality, plastic pollution**

I. Introduction

It is hard to imagine modern life without plastic. It is everywhere: we drink and eat from it, we wear it, shop with it. It is embedded in our everyday life. However, its main property – being durable – is not only beneficial, but also causes trouble. The history of plastic dates back to 1907, when the invention of Bakelite brought about a revolution in materials by introducing a new type of plastic into world commerce (Moore, 2020). By the end of the 20th century, plastics had been found to be a persistent polluter (Moore, 2020). Plastic is mostly nonbiodegradable, and thus, it tends to persist in the environment. In the 21st century, plastic pollution has become one of the most pressing environmental problems. The production of plastic increased exponentially, from 2.3 million tons in 1950 to 448 million tons by 2015, and it is expected to double by 2050 (Parker, 2019). Discarded plastic pollutes every corner of our planet: oceans, forests, beaches. It harms animal and human health. Since plastic pollution is most visible in developing Asian and African countries, quite a lot of people from the rest of the world still ignore this problem. However, it cannot be solved without eliminating this ignorance about the seriousness and urgency of the plastic pollution problem, which can be done, in particular, via documentaries focusing on this problem.

This article offers an analysis of documentaries about plastic pollution, *A Plastic Ocean* (2016) and *Recycling Sham* (2019). The study focuses on the use of multimodal conceptual metaphors related to the topic of plastic pollution.

Theoretically, the study departs from conceptual metaphor theory (Lakoff, Johnson, 1980, 1999), extending it by taking into consideration multimodal instantiations of conceptual metaphors (Forceville and Urios-Aparisi 2009). It also views metaphors not as a mere correspondence of target and source domains, but agrees with the latest theoretical developments in this area (Ping Tang, Kelin Quan, Jianbin Zhu 2020), as condensed micronarratives that can construct certain images.

The aim of this article is to analyze the multimodal instantiations of conceptual metaphors in the documentaries *A Plastic Ocean* (2016) and *Recycling Sham* (2019), which included the following tasks: to find out the patterns of interaction of different modes in the metaphors; to bring to light the micronarrative the respective metaphoric expressions constellate into.

The results of the study demonstrate that target concepts tend to be instantiated in the verbal and / or visual modes, while instantiation of source concepts tend to be more varied and can include verbal, visual, and / or aural mode. The choice of mode also helps express more or less explicit and radical micronarrative that stands behind the metaphors.

Structurally, the article consists of six parts: (1) introduction, (2) theoretical background, (3) research methodology, (4) results, (5) discussion and (6) conclusion. The theoretical part, which follows this introduction, presents the key concepts of conceptual metaphor theory and multimodal metaphor theory. The methodological part describes the sample and process of analyzing multimodal instantiations of the metaphors in documentaries. That is followed by a presentation of results and then a discussion. The conclusion summarizes the findings and outlines prospects for further research.

II. Theoretical Background

In conceptual metaphor theory, the conceptual metaphor is defined as a partial understanding of one concept in terms of another (Lakoff, Johnson, 1980, p. 1). The identified concept is called the target concept / domain; the concept involved for comparison is the conceptual source concept / domain. During the process of metaphorical mapping, some conceptual features of the source domain are mapped onto the conceptual features of the target domain (Lakoff, Johnson, 1980, p. 3). The process also entails certain inferences, or conceptual features that are not directly mentioned but are logically deduced from the conceptual metaphor (Lakoff, Johnson, 1999, p. 47). As a result, conceptual metaphors allow thinking about abstract and poorly defined concepts in terms of more concrete and better defined ones, and thus, metaphors play a central role in the perception and conceptualization of reality (Lakoff, Johnson, 1980, p. 3).

It is obvious that means of actualizing conceptual metaphors cannot be limited to linguistic ones. Conceptual metaphors can also be instantiated in non-verbal semiotic systems, or modes (Forceville, Urios-Aparisi, 2009, p. 20). In our research of ecological documentaries, we focus on the following modes: the verbal mode (written vs. spoken), the visual mode (static vs. dynamic images), the aural mode (sound vs. music). Conceptual metaphors that are embodied in different modes are called multimodal (Forceville, Urios-Aparisi, 2009, p. 24).

In our study, conceptual metaphors are viewed in the spirit of Musolff (2006) and Ping Tang, Kelin Quan, Jianbin Zhu (2020) as condensed micronarratives opposing to the usual understanding of them as correspondence between two concepts (Lakoff, Johnson, 1980). Treating conceptual metaphors in the documentaries under scrutiny helps reveal the underlying stories and the way the problem of plastic pollution is conceptualized in them, and as a result, what image of plastic pollution the viewers might have.

III. Research Methodology

The empirical material was collected from two documentary films, *A Plastic Ocean* (2016) and *Recycling Sham* (2019). Both documentaries are centered on the topic of plastic pollution and have good ratings on IMDb: *A Plastic Ocean* – 8,0/10 and *Recycling Sham* – 7,4/10.

A Plastic Ocean (2016) deals with the plastic pollution in the oceans. *Recycling Sham* (2019) is an episode of the series '*Broken'*. The series consists of 4 independent episodes, each of which tackles with a pressing problem of today. The forth episode, *Recycling Sham,* deals with the problem of plastic pollution, single use plastic and recycling of plastic.

The analysis included three steps: (1) identification of multimodal metaphors in the documentaries, their target, source and the modes in which they are instantiated; (2) interpretation of the metaphorical entailments; (3) explanation of the micronarratives of both documentaries.

The first step dealt with selecting multimodal instantiations of conceptual metaphors with the target related to the topic of plastic, plastic production and plastic pollution (PLASTIC, PLASTIC IN THE OCEAN, A MAN THROWING AWAY PLASTIC, RECYCLING PLASTIC, PLASTIC INDUSTRY, etc.). Then the source concept / domain of each metaphor was defined, and the semiotic modes in which they are instantiated: verbal, visual, or aural. This step also included bringing out the patterns of interaction of the modes. At the second step, metaphorical entailments were considered. Finally, at the third step, the underlying micronarratives of the two documentaries were analyzed as well as their ideological implications.

IV. Results

In the documentary "*A Plastic Ocean*" (2016), the understanding of the concept PLASTIC POLLUTION is structured through a couple of multimodal conceptual metaphors: PLASTIC is AN ULTIMATE WEAPON and A MAN THROWING AWAY PLASTIC is A MURDERER. The metaphors have a number of instantiations that go through the whole film, interweave with each other and create one common meaning.

The conceptual metaphor PLASTIC is AN ULTIMATE WEAPON attempts to question the way most people conceptualize plastic. We buy a plastic product or a product in plastic, we use the product and throw the plastic into the garbage bin, and we think that it is gone. However, it never goes away. It stays somewhere on the planet and dramatically harms our environment, animals on it, and in the long run, people.

This is shown throughout the film in several instantiations of the metaphor PLASTIC is AN ULTIMATE WEAPON. The first instantiation of the metaphor represents the target verbally. The film shows extracts from the TEDx talk by Tanya Streeter, a world champion free diver, who tells about her experience of free diving and how she realized that she wants "to pay the sea back". She says: "*I didn't know that in the last ten years, we've made more **plastic** then we did in the century before that. Half of that **plastic products** are considered "**disposable**". But think about it. How can a **disposable product** be made of a material that's **indestructible**? Where does it go?*" (10:55-11:21). The words suggest that plastic is not disposable, and it must go and stay somewhere after being used.

The next shots answer the question above by another instantiation of both the source and target of the metaphor. They depict a whale dying because of having eaten too much plastic that it found in the sea. Tanya continues the narration: "*It's **dying**, **taking its final breaths**. It was found to have **six square meters of plastic sheeting** inside it. It couldn't eat and it **died** of malnourishment. Its digestive system was blocked and it **died a terrible, painful death**.*" (11:30 – 11:58). The episode is accompanied with tragic sorrowful music. Viewers understand that the whale was murdered by plastic, or in other words, plastic is an ultimate weapon that is easily mistaken for food by marine animals, and it kills them. In this instantiation, the source AN ULTIMATE WEAPON is expressed in the verbal, visual and aural modes, while the target PLASTIC – in the verbal and visual ones.

After that, the documentary resorts to visual-aural instantiation of the metaphor PLASTIC is AN ULTIMATE WEAPON by depicting several sea animals trapped in different sorts of plastic (13:50 – 14:24). The aural mode represents the source AN ULTIMATE WEAPON by anxious beats in the background music, which create a frightening atmosphere. In the end, the image fades into black screen, which also symbolizes death.

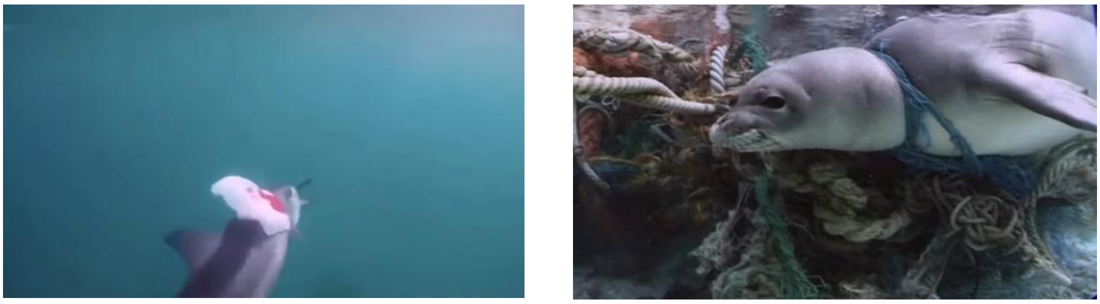

Fig. 1 Visual instantiation of the metaphor PLASTIC is AN ULTIMATE WEAPON

Next episodes bring in the second metaphor. The black screen turns into the image of a human hand unwrapping a plastic pack of bottles, and in the next seconds, this very part of the package falls down to the ocean floor (14:24 – 14:33). The background music is dramatic. Factoring in the previous metaphor, PLASTIC is AN ULTIMATE WEAPON, we subtly realize a new one, A MAN THROWING AWAY PLASTIC is A MURDERER. The target is expressed in the visual mode, while the source – in the aural one.

There follows another episode, which, due to the context, can be matched with both metaphors, PLASTIC is AN ULTIMATE WEAPON and A MAN THROWING AWAY PLASTIC is A MURDERER. It starts with a visual-aural introduction, where a girl takes a big plastic bottle, unscrews the plastic lid, takes the plastic ring off the bottle and throws it into the trash bin (19:02 – 19:10). After that, an oceanographer, Dr. Sylvia Earle, says: "*We think that when we* ***put something in the trash*** *or when we just* ***toss it from a boat or on a beach****, that it "****goes away****". Ah! We're now free of plastic.*" The accepted understanding of plastic as disposable waste, the target of the first metaphor, is shown with the help of the visual and verbal modes, while the aural mode denotes the source, AN ULTIMATE WEAPON, first by tense sounds as if something bad is happening, and then by Dr. Sylvia Earle's intonation. At the same time, this is an instantiation of the metaphor A MAN THROWING AWAY PLASTIC is A MURDERER with the verbal-visual target and the aural source.

The next episode is another instantiation of the metaphor A MAN THROWING AWAY PLASTIC is A MURDERER (49:06 – 51:20). A woman is examining the insides of an albatross bird, which died because of eating too much plastic. She says: "*It's* ***quite a bit of plastic*** *for just one little bird … It's just a shame that every now and then they got it wrong, and got it wrong in a bad way.*" There are a lot of flies buzzing at the dead bird. The next shot shows a toothbrush falling into water, which then fades into the picture of a dead albatross with the open stomach and a pile of plastic in there, including a similar toothbrush. After that, another plastic bottle falls into water, and then "appears" in the dead animal. Then the plastic ring from the bottle that we have seen before also falls into water, and appears in the dead bodies of birds. Thus, we again think of the people throwing away plastic as of those who kill animals. The target of the metaphor here is expressed in the verbal and visual mode, while the source – in the visual and aural ones.

Fig. 2 Visual instantiation of the metaphor A MAN THROWING AWAY PLASTIC is A MURDERER

This way, the main message of the film, that plastic is not a disposable product and is a serious threat for the marine life, is conveyed with the help these two metaphors.

A more recent documentary on plastic pollution, *Recycling Sham* (2019), uses a different set of metaphors to convey a different message about the same problem of plastic pollution. It uses the following metaphors: RECYCLING PLASTIC is SHAM, PLASTIC INDUSTRY is AN ENEMY, PLASTIC POLLUTION is A MAN-MADE ENEMY, PLASTIC POLLUTION is A BURDEN FOR COMMON PEOPLE.

First there comes an instantiation of the metaphor RECYCLING PLASTIC is SHAM (1:01 – 1:23). The visual mode shows different stages of the recycling process, expressing the conceptual target. The verbal narration goes as follows: "*And the **solution** we've always been taught will fix it is actually **a false promise**. We can't recycle our way out of plastic pollution. The **plastic industry** has really sold **us a bill of goods**.*" This is accompanied with a disquieting background music which represents the source.

In the metaphor PLASTIC INDUSTRY is AN ENEMY, the verbal part represents both the target and source: "***We're up against** some of the most well-funded, ruthless, cut-throat **industries** on the planet. And they are actively trashing the planet*." The visual part specifies which industry is meant by showing ExxonMobil plant as a representative of the industry (1:38 – 1:50). The aural mode, in the form of quiet but unsettling background music, symbolizes the source ENEMY by creating a disturbing atmosphere.

Fig. 3 Visual instantiation of the metaphor PLASTIC INDUSTRY is AN ENEMY

One of the episodes to follow presents the metaphor PLASTIC POLLUTION is A MAN-MADE ENEMY (3:11 – 4:20). The visual part shows piles of plastic in the streets: on the ground, falling from overfull bins, in the water. The narration says: "*Why and how something so embedded in our daily lives become such a huge problem for the world? ... How **we created and molded it** [plastic], but even more, how **it has come to mold us**.*" The scene is accompanied with fast anxious background music. The verbal part renders the source A MAN-MADE ENEMY, as well as the aural mode that creates a frightening atmosphere. The visual part represents the target PLASTIC.

The metaphor PLASTIC POLLUTION is A BURDEN FOR COMMON PEOPLE is expressed in the interview of a woman from a developing country (29:00 – 29:40). She stands against piles of plastic waste saying: "***We people bear such a big burden** from **the air pollution and the water pollution** and just benefit to a very small group of people that our minister is saying that they already invest big money in the factory. But what happened to the environment risk and also the health risk to us? **Why we bear this**? Who can answer me this question? **Why we bear this**?*". Her speech is very emotional and vehement. In this metaphor, both the target and source are expressed in two modes: verbal and visual.

Fig. 4 Visual instantiation of the metaphor PLASTIC POLLUTION is A BURDEN FOR COMMON PEOPLE

Thus, the second documentary represents a different view on the problem of plastic pollution. It blames industry for creating plastic, exposing the false promise of recycling plastic which fools people. People suffer while industries earn money.

Both documentaries recognize the urgency of the problem. However, the first one (*A Plastic Ocean*, 2016) emphasizes the role of individuals by introducing the metaphor A MAN THROWING AWAY PLASTIC is A MURDERER and imputing responsibility on each individual, while the second one (*Recycling Sham*, 2019) highlights holds industry responsible (PLASTIC INDUSTRY is AN ENEMY), opposing it to common people who have to fight back.

V. DISCUSSION

Conceptual metaphor is an instrument of thinking that plays a crucial role in the process of conceptualizing the world. It is quite widespread in documentary films on ecological problems, plastic pollution in particular, as such documentaries strive to explain the complex phenomenon by constructing a micronarrative about the problem. Conceptual metaphors in documentaries under consideration are mainly multimodal, instantiated in a combination of the verbal, visual, and / or aural modes.

A. *Multimodal Metaphor Patterns*

The analysis of the multimodal metaphors in the documentaries *A Plastic Ocean* (2016) and *Recycling Sham* (2019) has shown the patterns of mode interaction that are summed up in Table 1 and Table 2 correspondingly.

TABLE 1.
MULTIMODAL METAPHOR PATTERNS IN *A PLASTIC OCEAN* (2016)

Multimodal Metaphor Pattern	Metaphor Instantiation
verbal, visual, aural source – verbal, visual target	PLASTIC is AN ULTIMATE WEAPON (10:55 – 11:58)
visual, aural source – visual target	PLASTIC is AN ULTIMATE WEAPON (13:50 – 14:24)
aural source – visual target	A MAN THROWING AWAY PLASTIC is A MURDERER (14:24 – 14:33)
aural source – verbal, visual target	PLASTIC is AN ULTIMATE WEAPON (19:02 – 19:10); A MAN THROWING AWAY PLASTIC is A MURDERER (19:02 – 19:10)
visual, aural source – verbal, visual target	A MAN THROWING AWAY PLASTIC is A MURDERER (49:06 – 51:20)

Two main conceptual metaphors of the documentary *A Plastic Ocean* (2016) are PLASTIC is AN ULTIMATE WEAPON and A MAN THROWING AWAY PLASTIC is A MURDERER. As we can see from the patterns, the targets of these metaphors, PLASTIC and A MAN THROWING AWAY PLASTIC, are instantiated mostly in a combination of the verbal and visual modes. This accounts for the fact that documentaries usually try to explore their theme explicitly, and this one is not an exception. Thus, the target concepts, which denote plastic pollution, are explicitly designated in both the verbal and visual mode.

On the contrary, the sources, AN ULTIMATE WEAPON and A MURDERER, are mainly expressed in the aural and visual mode. In most cases, the predominant combination of the aural mode with the visual one in explicating concepts related to murder refers to them obliquely, in an indirect way. It creates an impression that the presenters and authors of the documentary do not call people murders or plastic an ultimate weapon. At least not verbally. However, every viewer gets this implication since it is quite strong.

In the other documentary, *Recycling Sham* (2019), multimodal metaphor patterns differ from those considered above.

TABLE 2.
MULTIMODAL METAPHOR PATTERNS IN *RECYCLING SHAM* (2019)

Multimodal Metaphor Pattern	Metaphor Instantiation
verbal, aural source – visual target	RECYCLING PLASTIC is SHAM (1:01 – 1:23)
verbal, aural source – verbal, visual target	PLASTIC INDUSTRY is AN ENEMY (1:38 – 1:50); PLASTIC POLLUTION is A MAN-MADE ENEMY (3:11 – 4:20)
verbal, visual source – verbal, visual target	PLASTIC POLLUTION is A BURDEN FOR COMMON PEOPLE (29:00 – 29:40)

Here the target concepts, RECYCLING PLASTIC, PLASTIC INDUSTRY, PLASTIC POLLUTION, are also explicitly expressed in a combination of the verbal and visual modes. However, the sources, SHAM, AN ENEMY, A BURDEN FOR COMMON PEOPLE, are mainly instantiated in the verbal and aural mode combination, which accounts for a more explicit expression of the source concepts, as compared to the metaphors in the previous documentary. These are not just aurally or visually implied hints, but verbalized statements.

As seen from the patterns, the representation of the targets in both documentaries is quite explicit. However, when it comes to the sources, the documentary *A Plastic Ocean* (2016) resorts to less explicit representation, rather implying certain metaphors without rich verbalization. *Recycling Sham* (2019) explicitly represents both targets and sources of the metaphors.

B. *Micronarrative about Plastic Pollution*

As stated above, this paper considers conceptual metaphors not as mere correspondence between source and target concepts, but as condensed micronarratives. After looking at the entailments of the metaphors in the documentaries, we have been able to single out two micronarratives.

The documentary *A Plastic Ocean* (2016) aims to reconceptualize the concept PLASTIC and to promote a certain image of the concept PLASTIC POLLUTION. Since its creation, plastic has been viewed as a disposable product by most people, which has led to enormous pollution. With the help of the metaphor PLASTIC is AN ULTIMATE WEAPON, the documentary questions the appropriateness of this view of plastic. The metaphor has the following entailments: plastic is not disposable, it is durable; it does not biodegrade and trashes the environment; after that a lot of animals both in water and on land are murdered with plastic waste that is mistaken for food. The metaphor creates negative polarity and understanding of plastic waste as a dangerous weapon.

The introduction of the next metaphor, A MAN THROWING AWAY PLASTIC is A MURDERER, in this documentary has the following entailments: using plastic is using a weapon; throwing away plastic is shooting; every person who uses and throws away plastic, meaning almost everybody in the world, is a murderer. This is a very radical and bold idea. However, the concept A MURDERER is not verbalized in the documentary, it is “explicitly rendered” by visual and aural representation of death.

With the help of these metaphors, the documentary places the responsibility for plastic pollution on every person in the world. By implying the idea that people are murderers of innocent animals, it also makes an appeal to people’s conscience and urges them to minimize the usage of the plastic weapon.

The documentary *Recycling Sham* (2019) presents another view of plastic pollution. The metaphor RECYCLING PLASTIC is SHAM has the following entailments: the idea of recycling plastic as a way to resolve the problem is a lie; plastic industry is an impostor who wants to earn more money by deceiving people. The entailment from the next metaphor, PLASTIC INDUSTRY is AN ENEMY: we have to fight with our enemy and defeat it. The next two metaphors describe the target PLASTIC POLLUTION with the sources A MAN-MADE ENEMY and A BURDEN FOR COMMON PEOPLE, and add other entailments: being deceived by plastic industry, people have created the plastic enemy that now threatens them; common people suffer from it, plastic industry earns money. All the metaphors create a negative view of the industry producing plastic. The documentary blames it for deceiving people and creating a huge problem. It urges people to fight with the main enemy, which is plastic industry.

The two documentaries have a different idea of the guilty party in the case of plastic pollution. The first one implies that usual people are murderers, while the second presents them as victims of a terrible sham. Correspondingly, different actions are required in each situation to resolve the problem. In the first case, people need to minimize the usage of plastic, while in the second, unite in the fight against plastic industry.

VI. Conclusion

The analysis of the multimodal metaphor patterns in two documentaries *A Plastic Ocean* (2016) and *Recycling Sham* (2019) has shown that the target concepts are usually explicitly represented in the verbal and visual mode, as it is the aim of both documentaries to shed light on the problem of plastic pollution. A source concept might be instantiated aurally and visually when the aim of the film creators is just to imply it without naming directly; or it might be also verbalized when the creators of the documentary want to be more direct and radical in expressing a certain idea.

In the article, metaphors are also viewed as condensed micronarratives. The analyzed documentaries have different micronarratives and correspondingly, images of the plastic pollution, which might be due to the time difference between the two films. The earlier documentary of 2016, *A Plastic Ocean*, questions the understanding of plastic as disposable by conceptualizing it as a deadly dangerous weapon that kills animals and birds, and all people who use plastic products and then throw them away – as murderers. By using such metaphors, the documentary makes every person responsible for the problem and urges them to minimize the usage of plastic products. The later documentary of 2019, *Recycling Sham*, points out the issue of recycling plastic. It conceptualizes plastic industry as scammers who in pursuit of profit deceive common people, conceptualized as victims. The industry is responsible for plastic pollution and for pretending to be solving it, while common people bear this burden and they should fight back and defeat the enemy.

Different micronarratives are structured with the help of different conceptual metaphors, and, moreover, they use different multimodal patterns. The earlier film is less radical as it implies its narrative by presenting the source concepts in the aural and visual modes. The later film is more direct in expressing its narrative against the plastic industry and pushing people to fight back and not just stop using plastic products.

The prospects for further research lie in the analysis of documentaries about other ecological problems, like global warming, mega fires, etc. and the corresponding micronarratives.

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Yana Vermenych was born in Ukraine in 1994. She is a PhD student at the Department of English Philology of V. N. Karazin Kharkiv National University.

Her main research interests are in cognitive linguistics, ecolinguistics, discourse studies and multimodality. RESEARCH GATE: https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Yana_Vermenych; ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2179-3906.

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A Survey of the Issue of Generalizability in Task-based Language Assessment

Majeed Noroozi
Florida International University, Miami, USA

***Abstract*—The use of authentic tasks in Task-Based Language Assessment seems to facilitate the extrapolation of assessment performance to the real-life situation. The question arises as to how effective Task-Based Language Assessment is in predicting test-takers' performance in the real-life situation based on their task performance in the assessment settings and what proposals there are to improve the generalizability of Task-Based Language Assessment. The study draws upon Bachman and Palmer (1996) and Douglas's (2000) frameworks in order to identify the fixed and varied characteristics of assessment tasks and conditions in the Target Language Use (TLU) situation. These frameworks function as a template by presenting an organized list of the items to compare and contrast the assessment tasks with the real-life target tasks. The present study proposes standardizing the fixed conditions present in both the assessment and the TLU situation, such as setting and equipment. However, since the standardization of the varied conditions could undermine the extrapolation inferences at the cost of improving the reliability of assessment, the study concludes that the assessment procedure should standardize a set of short tasks or observation conditions that are representative of the TLU domain rather than just one specific type of task or condition.**

***Index Terms*—assessment task, generalizability, reliability, target language use, task-based language assessment**

I. Introduction

Task-Based Language Assessment

After the dominance of psychometric assessment in the field of education, the last decades of the 20^{th} century witnessed a call for an alternative form of assessment that could replace large-scale Discrete-Skills Assessment (DSA) emphasizing rote memorization (Norris, 2016). This call for an alternative assessment gave rise to assessment paradigms such as performance assessment and subsequently Task-Based Language Assessment (TBLA) (Mislevy, Steinberg, & Almond, 2002; Norris, 2002), also known as Task-centered assessment (Brindley, 1998), Task-Based Language Performance Assessment (TBLPA) (Bachman, 2002), and task-based assessment (Brown, Hudson, Norris, & Bonk, 2002). More importantly, due to the fact that discrete-point tests posed the issue of negative wash-back effect to Task-Based Language Teaching's performance-based instruction (Ellis, 2017), it was about time that Task-Based Language Teaching had a framework of assessment compatible with its instructional principles; Task-Based Language assessment filled that gap.

As an offspring of Task-Based language teaching, Task-Based Language assessment stressed the authenticity of testing and learners' ability to use the language rather than having a simple knowledge of the language; as Norris (2016) puts it, Task-Based Language assessment requires language learners to perform with the language to achieve the communicative goals determined by the assessment task. Wigglesworth (2008) holds that Task-Based Language Assessment is a type of performance assessment that stresses the performance of practical skills rather than the mere abstract knowledge of the language. In fact, assessment tasks require language learners to use their 'cognitive skills and domain-related knowledge' in their performance (Norris, 2009).

II. Literature Review

A. Generalizability

Generalizability is an ideal goal that every language assessment, including Task-Based Language Assessment, attempts to achieve. According to Messick (1996), generalization can be viewed through two perspectives, including reliability and transferability. Generalizability from the reliability perspective refers to how consistent language users' performance is across tasks, situations, and raters. On the other hand, generalizability in terms of transferability is the predictive power of an assessment task; in other words, transferability refers to a range of real-life tasks that an assessment task predicts. In this study, generalizability is taken in its latter meaning, i.e., transferability. Ellis (2003) defines generalizability as the extent to which an assessment task could be generalized to a real-life target task or could predict the test-takers' ultimate performance on the real-situation task. As simple as the definition might sound, the achievement of this goal can be challenging.

The issue of generalizability can be twofold, depending on the approach towards the design of the assessment task. Assessment tasks can take the language as their key construct or the performance as their principal reference of measurement; the former is called construct-centered approach by Ellis (2003) or ability-based approach by Bachman (2002), while the latter is referred to as work-sample approach by Ellis (2003) or task-based approach by Bachman (2002). Generally speaking, the assessment tasks that take the language as the construct to be assessed fall into the category of direct system-referenced tests, and the ones using the performance as the criterion for measurement are considered direct performance-referenced tests. Robinson and Ross (1996) argue that direct system-referenced tests can be generalized to a wide range of samples. In the same vein, Ellis (2003) also holds that these types of tests could refer to a wide variety of needs and situations. In this regard, Ellis contends that direct-system referenced tests, or the ones that choose the language as their central point of assessment, gain the breadth of generalizability at the cost of losing their specificity of generalization. He further identifies two aspects of generalizability: breadth and specificity. Ellis holds that breadth of generalizability refers to the language proficiency of language learners, such as their dominance on a certain formal feature of the language; therefore, it can refer to a wide range of situations or tasks that use the particular formal feature to accomplish an outcome. However, the specificity of generalizability refers to the ability of a test to extrapolate to a specific real-world task. In other words, the extent to which a test can predict the performance of a certain target task. Ellis suggests that one approach to improving generalizability could be combining direct-system referenced and direct performance referenced tests in order to take advantage of their features of breadth and specificity of generalizability.

On the other hand, Bachman (2002) has a slightly different view of the two approaches towards the assessment task. He holds that the construct-based approach accounts for both the definition of language construct and specification of the assessment task itself, while the task-based approach solely takes account of the performance of the task. Bachman further argues that regarding the construct-based approach, the construct validity of the language ability should be considered as well as the authenticity and generalizability/extrapolation for the assessment task. As for the task-based approach, solely the content representativeness of the assessment task should be examined. In fact, content relevance and content representativeness are two major factors in the validity of interpretations based on the performance observation of the assessment tasks. Content relevance ensures that the assessment task actually assesses the target ability, while content representativeness ensures that the assessment task is a good sample of the target domain in terms of adequately representing it. It is at this point that Task-Based Language Assessment has a serious claim purporting to be closer to the real-life situation than any other type of assessment; therefore, it could predict test-takers' future performance on the real-life tasks. However, Bachman (2002) takes issue with this claim, given the vastness of the domain of real-life tasks to be extrapolated to.

B. Target Language Use

Bachman (2002) identifies three principal issues in the way of enhancing the generalizability of Task-Based Language Assessment that should be addressed, including (a) content domain specification, i.e., task definition; (b) content-relatedness (identifying and selecting tasks); (c) the relationship between assessment task and real-life tasks. In other words, Bachman argues that a content domain, or Target Language Use (TLU) domain that the task is going to be derived from, should be determined in the first phase. Bachman and Palmer (1996) define TLU tasks as an array of specific language use tasks to which assessment tasks generalize to. Bachman (2002) contends that the TLU domain offers a pool of TLU tasks to be generalized to by the assessment tasks. In fact, this domain is ultimately what the assessment task intends to extrapolate to. Therefore, any ambiguities in the definition or specification of the TLU domain would eventually lead to ambiguities in the interpretation of the assessment results.

Additionally, attempts should be made to make sure that the assessment task assesses the target language ability. In essence, the type of tasks that focus on the language ability to be assessed should be characterized and selected. This phase ensures that the identified, selected task is in line with the specified content domain, which is pretty much pertinent to the issue of validity in Task-Based Language Assessment. Finally, the relationships between the assessment task and the real-life task adopted from the content domain should be highlighted. Any vague relationships between the assessment task and real-life task would result in serious issues in the generalizability and extrapolation to the real-life situation.

The question arises as to how to address the potential issues that these procedures pose on the generalizability of Task-Based Language Assessment. The specification of the TLU domain to design assessment tasks accordingly could be problematic. Bachman argues that having a clear course content syllabus might be effective in mitigating the situation; however, he later contends this solution could also be challenged considering the conditions where test-takers might come from different language backgrounds or where there is no language content syllabus. As far as selecting tasks from the TLU domain is concerned, it even gets trickier due to the difficulty in finding the TLU tasks that cover the language ability to be assessed. In addition, TLU tasks may not be appropriate for or be fit for assessment context in terms of practicality. As mentioned above, the TLU task might also favor a certain group of test-takers who have the background knowledge or familiarity with the topical content of the TLU task. Considering the above-mentioned issues with choosing tasks from the TLU domain, we need a set of criteria to be able to select the appropriate TLU tasks from the TLU domain so that the assessment task would correspond to.

III. The Frameworks of Task Characteristics

In order to address the above-mentioned issue, Bachman and Palmer (1996) put forth a framework of task characteristics that helps describe and clarify the TLU domain in which there are many TLU tasks through identifying a set of criterion that could help determine the degree of match between the assessment task and the TLU task. To be more exact, Bachman and Palmer argue that this framework can be used to describe both the TLU task and assessment task to examine the degree that they converge. It should be noted that this framework not only helps assessment tasks enhance the level of their generalizability, but it also improves the authenticity of assessment tasks as well as the validity of inferences made by them. Therefore, this framework functions as a yardstick to examine the level of correspondence between the assessment task and the TLU task by describing the TLU domain. The framework of task characteristics identifies five rubrics: (a) the setting, (b) test rubric, (c) input, (d) the expected response, (e) the relationship between the input and response. Douglas (2000), drawing on Bachman and Palmer's framework, makes some adjustments to this framework by adding a new category, namely assessment. In addition to the TLU situation characteristic framework, Douglas puts forth another framework for language characteristics in the TLU situation. It seems that the language characteristics framework would be useful for the construct-based or ability-based approach in the type of language ability, which is required in the TLU situation.

Douglas's framework is more inclined towards listing the features of the TLU domain that could be a reference point for the assessment task, while Bachman and Palmer's framework is more predisposed towards specifying the assessment tasks and then describing how they should look like in the TLU situation.

A. Setting

As mentioned above, Bachman and Palmer's (1996) framework takes this category into account, while this category is included under the rubric of input in Douglas's (2000) framework. Bachman and Palmer argue that familiarity with the characteristics of the physical setting, such as the location, equipment, weather conditions, could influence one's language use. They also deem participants and their number as another factor of the setting that could influence the interaction and the use of language. As the last element of the setting, Bachman and Palmer refer to the time at which the TLU or assessment task occurs, which could affect how well one can have a language performance. The physical settings of the assessment must be as close as possible to that of the real-life situation to enhance the extrapolation.

B. Rubric

In Bachman and Palmer's framework, rubric specifies four elements involving: (a) the structure of the TLU or assessment task, that is, its different sections and parts such as the number of tasks, their sequence, and importance; (b) the instructions or procedure of the task which refers to the information as to how one should perform the TLU or assessment task; (c) the duration of TLU or assessment task; (d) the evaluation of the responses or task performance, such as the criteria for the correctness and the scoring procedure. However, Douglas chooses to have a separate category called 'assessment,' in which he dwells more on the assessment factors. Additionally, Douglas's framework lists similar factors; however, he adds the objective of the task, which is the purpose or the TLU or assessment task, as an additional factor in the category of the rubric. All of these three scholars acknowledge the fact that these characteristics are generally implicit in the TLU situation due to the shared information between the participants or their background knowledge; nevertheless, these characteristics must be as explicit and clear as possible in an assessment setting.

C. Input

This category is another point of divergence between the two frameworks. Bachman and Palmer explain the input in terms of two rubrics of format and language characteristics, while Douglas describes input from two perspectives: prompt and input data. Bachman and Palmer refer to the format as the way input is presented, which involves the following features: channel, form, language, length, type, degree of speededness, and vehicle of delivery (see Bachman and Palmer, 1996, p. 53). The framework also highlights the characteristics of the language of input, more specifically, the organizational and pragmatic features. Additionally, topical knowledge such as the academic or cultural type affects the language of input in TLU or assessment tasks. On the other hand, Douglas's framework puts forth prompt as one of the elements that specify features of context such as the setting, participants, purpose, language, tone, norms, genre as well as form/content. He argues that the prompt is used when the input data is not there to specify the context. Input data refers to any materials that language users need to process so as to perform the task. Input data includes format such as oral or written material, the vehicle of delivery, the length, and the level of authenticity.

D. Expected Response

In the assessment task, the input and the rubric determine the response to a great extent; however, in the TLU situation, the knowledge of the expected response will form as the interaction continues. Bachman and Palmer argue that the actual response might not always be the same as the expected response due to the test-takers lack of understanding the instructions or merely responding differently. Their framework lists the same categories and subcategories for the expected response as that of the input except that the vehicle of the delivery is not included. Douglas puts forth the format, type of response such as extended or limited, response content such a language and background knowledge, and the level of authenticity all as determining factors in expected response.

E. Relation/Interaction between Input and Response

Both Frameworks introduce three factors that identify the quality of the relation between the input and response, including the reactivity, scope, as well as directness. Reactivity refers to the extent that language users can modify input or response in reaction to the previous response or input in order to enhance their mutual understanding. Tasks can have various degrees of reactivity depending on how flexible their input and response could be. Therefore, tasks could be on a spectrum of reciprocal and non-reciprocal. Reciprocal means that language users provide feedback to each other so that they could adjust their response or subsequent input, an example of which could be an oral interview. In contrast, there is no place for interaction or feedback in non-reciprocal tasks such as reading or composition writing. The scope of relation/interaction between the input and response refers to the amount or variety of input that language users should process in order to come to a response or accomplish the task. This input ranges on a continuum of narrow to broad. For instance, reading a long passage as part of an assessment task would be considered a broad scope. The last factor is directness, which refers to the extent to which the expected response of the language user is contingent upon the information provided in the input on the one hand and the context or their background knowledge on the other. Tasks could be on a continuum with two poles of directness and indirectness. In direct tasks, test-takers get to the response by using and processing the information in the input. For instance, a task that requires language users to read a reading passage and then list the most important elements in creating air pollution mentioned in the passage would be considered more of a direct task. However, a writing task that requires language users' to express their opinion about a certain topic is more of an indirect task. It should be noted that no task is a hundred percent direct. There is always some background knowledge involved.

F. Assessment

Douglas's (2000) framework has a separate entry for assessment, which is the yardstick for assessing the task performance. He argues that the assessment situation consists of three elements, including the construct definition, the assessment criteria for correctness, and the procedures for rating. The construct is derived from analyzing the language used in the TLU situation. Defining construct is of paramount importance as it determines the criteria for correctness and rating procedure. Douglas further argues that criteria for correctness are also determined through the analysis of the TLU situation based on indigenous assessment criteria, which is a set of standards used by participants in the TLU task to determine whether the task has been successfully accomplished. An example of indigenous assessment criteria could be the perception of task accomplishment, ability to communicate the topic, and the economy of expression, to name but a few. However, these criteria are highly context-dependent and might vary according to the TLU situation.

Bachman and Palmer (1996) argue that their framework could be applied in two different fashions in order to make sure there is a match between the assessment task and the TLU task. First, they propose that the framework could be used to create a checklist of the characteristics of the assessment task and TLU task. In fact, the checklist helps us juxtapose the features of the assessment task and TLU task by using the criteria in the framework in order to evaluate to what extent the two tasks match. Second, the framework of characteristics could be used as a guide to making new task types. In essence, tasks could be identified and described by these criteria and then changed to a new task using a different combination of criteria from the framework. In the same vein, Douglas (2000) contends that his framework should be deemed only as a guiding means for the process of test development; therefore, in order to make the best use of this framework, we still need good and creative skill and judgment on the side of the test maker to translate the TLU characteristics to assessment tasks. It should also be noted that these frameworks do a great job by shedding light on the vague task of comparing the assessment and real-life tasks.

Even though the two frameworks are useful guiding criteria for designing the assessment that shares the same characterization as the TLU tasks, Ellis (2003) posits that this solely ensures situational authenticity. Bachman (1990) holds that in terms of authenticity, both situational and interactional authenticity should be accounted for in assessment tasks. Situational authenticity refers to the extent to which an assessment task replicates the real-world task or, in other words, it has face validity. Ellis asserts that the framework falls short of ensuring interactional authenticity, which refers to the quality of interaction between the test-taker, assessment task, and the testing context. In effect, the interactional authenticity accounts for the degree of correspondence between the interaction arising from the assessment task and the real-life task.

Long (2014) refers to the issue of generalizability with the term 'transferability.' He argues that in order to address this issue, we need to have a clear task-type classification according to their difficulty level so that the performance on a certain task could predict the performance on a similar task of the same type. Long reporting Norris et al.'s (2002) study argues that task difficulty could be determined by examining three underlying cognitive factors: (a) the complexity of processing involved in language codes, (b) the complexity of cognitive operations involved in the task, (c) processing demands related to the required communicative activities. Language users' holistic ability based on the three underlying cognitive factors has been rated and used to examine if their performance could be extrapolated to a different task with the same underlying ability. Long argues that this requires task types to be at the same level of difficulty and systematically sampled from the same discourse domain of interest.

However, the issue of predictability of assessment tasks is just part of a bigger picture; in essence, predictability is the corollary to a set of three interdependent inferences. According to Kane, Crooks, and Cohen (1999), three inferences should be followed to predict the performance in real-life tasks based on assessment task performance, including scoring, generalizability, and extrapolation. Kane et al. (1999) contend that scoring refers to the evaluation of the test-takers' performance leading to an observed score. They argue that the credibility of this scoring inference relies on two factors: (a) appropriateness of scoring criteria, (b) compatibility of the condition under which the performance occurred with the intended interpretation of the score. In effect, the performance condition should be the same as the one we expect to yield a true picture of the students' skills.

The second inference is generalizability, which has more to do with the reliability or consistency of the scores. This step ensures that the observed score could be generalized to the expected performance in the universe of generalization. Kane et al. argue that since the target domain is vast and vaguely defined, there needs to be a narrower domain so that it could be easier to define and specify it. Thus, the universe of generalization is a well-defined subdomain sample of the target domain but at a smaller scale. The score in the universe of observation is called the universe score. Therefore, the observed performances are random or representative samples (universe of generalization) of the target domain. In other words, by generalizing from the observed scores to the universe of generalization, we hope that the observed scores show consistency across all tasks, occasions, and raters in the universe of generalizability, which is a subdomain of the target domain. The third inference, i.e., extrapolation, refers to the expected score in the universe of observation being predictive of the expected score in the target domain. This depends on the extent to which the universe of generalization is representative of or covers the target domain. The larger this proportion is, the higher chances of the score in the universe of generalization to be extrapolated to the target domain.

G. *Standardization*

Kane et al. put forth a couple of recommendations as to improving inferences from each of the three phases of scoring, generalizability, and extrapolation. First, he recommends the standardization of the conditions of assessment. Standardizing means fixing the conditions of observation, such as setting, equipment, etc. This improves the consistency or reliability of scoring across different test administrations as well as the generalizability of scores. Nonetheless, this is achieved at the cost of diminishing the third link of inference, i.e., the power of extrapolation. In effect, the standardization of observation conditions makes the universe of generalizations narrower but at the same time controls some sources of variability. Therefore, as mentioned above, this affects the extrapolation from the universe of generalizations, which is narrow in this case, to the vast target domain. They further claim that standardizing the conditions that are already fixed in the target domain does not tend to affect the extrapolation negatively; nevertheless, it is the standardization of the varied conditions of the target domain in the assessment situation that negatively impacts extrapolation. To avoid standardization undermine the extrapolation inferences, Kane et al. suggest that the assessment procedure use a set of tasks or conditions of observation for standardization rather than just one kind of task or condition. In so doing, we manage to both standardize the assessment procedure by controlling for the variability coming from one task type or condition and, at the same time, manage not to narrow the universe of generalization, further enhancing the extrapolation.

Along with the standardization, Kane et al. hold that the use of high fidelity, i.e., authentic tasks that are as close as possible to the target language situation, is ideal. Nonetheless, these tasks tend to be too long to complete, which is desirable for extrapolation purposes; however, they affect the consistency in scoring. Therefore, we must use a set of short tasks to complete rather than a long task that has high authenticity. This is, in fact, in line with the fact that standardization enhances through the use of a set of tasks or conditions. As a corollary, the use of a set of short tasks helps reach a compromising point between generalizability and extrapolation of the assessment tasks.

IV. Discussion

Task-Based Language Assessment purports to be effective in promoting the generalizability of assessment due to using more authentic tasks. The mere use of tasks in assessment does not guarantee generalizability, i.e., the ability to extrapolate to the target language situation from an observed score. In fact, this claim has been challenged by scholars such as Bachman (2002), and as a set of approaches in boosting the power of generalizability of assessment tasks were put forth by different scholars (viz., Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Douglas, 2000; Ellis, 2003). One of the arguments to enhance the generalizability in Task-Based Language Assessment is to combine the direct system-referenced tests with the direct performance-referenced tests. In doing so, both the breadth and specificity of generalizability would be taken into account. In fact, this proposal attempts to reach a balance between the reliability and generalizability of the assessment tasks. The direct feature of the assessment tasks ensures that the assessment is based on the tenets of Task-Based Language Assessment; the direct performance-referenced tests are holistic and long in nature, making sure that the assessment is authentic and as close as possible to the real-life situation. Even though having a direct holistic test might improve the generalizability assessment, it sure taxes the reliability of the assessment. Considering the fact that the lower reliability might lead to the lower generalizability of tests as they are inextricably intertwined, we need to seek a balance between the level of reliability and generalizability in the assessment. To this end, the system-referenced assessment is able to improve the consistency of scores or the reliability of tests. Therefore, through the combination of these two forms of tests, the assessment reaches an acceptable level in both reliability and generalizability. Although this might theoretically seem possible and immaculate, Ellis (2003) expresses doubt as to how successful the combined test might be in practice in order to obtain an acceptable level of both breadth and specificity of generalizability. More research is needed to delve more deeply into this issue.

There is an approach that emphasizes enhancing the generalizability of tests through first improving the reliability of assessment, i.e., increasing the consistency of score in the test. In fact, the rationale behind this approach is that the ambiguities in elements of assessment emanating from the holistic nature of assessment must be addressed through specifying the factors that act as a template to compare and contrast the assessment and real-life tasks. To this end, Bachman and Palmer (1996) and Douglas (2000) put forth frameworks that specify the characteristics that TLU tasks and assessment tasks should share to increase the confidence with which the performance in the assessment task could be extrapolated to the performance in the TLU task. In other words, these frameworks function as a template to highlight the differences between the assessment task and the real-life tasks. Nonetheless, Ellis (2003) takes issue with this claim, asserting that the matching of the assessment task and TLU task might be effective in increasing the situational authenticity; however, it cannot improve the interactional authenticity. There is also some caveat in this approach as the frameworks per se will not guarantee the enhancement of generalizability; it is ultimately left to the subjective interpretation, judgment, and creative skill of the test maker to translate the TLU characteristics as perfectly as possible to the assessment tasks.

The TLU frameworks may enhance the reliability at the cost of generalizability or extrapolation to the real-life situation. What these frameworks offer is a set of shared elements between the assessment and real-life situation that are then standardized; that is, any variations under which the elements of assessment (e.g., setting, equipment, and time limits) occur will be controlled. In other words, standardization of the conditions of assessment aims to control any source of variation between the assessment task and real-life task. While this has the potential to enhance the reliability of the assessment, it negatively affects the generalizability of the assessment. A closer look at the conditions under which each of these aspects of assessment occurs indicates that some conditions in the target domain are to a great extent fixed, such as the invariable availability of some supplies or equipment in the real-life target situation. Therefore, standardizing the assessment procedures by providing facilities, for instance, making sure that test-takers have access to a computer, will improve the reliability of the assessment without affecting the ultimate extrapolation to the real-life situation. Nevertheless, standardizing the conditions that vary in real-life situation can limit the generalizability of assessment; for example, the task of giving direction in a target language might occur in different fashions through different types of tasks in a real-life situation. Hence, the negative impact of standardizing the aspect of assessment could be addressed through standardizing a representative pool of observation conditions rather than just focusing on one condition. In this way, the categories or types of tasks are standardized rather than a specific task. Thus, standardizing the procedure of the assessment rather than a specific condition or aspect of assessment would improve the reliability of the scores without having a negative impact on the generalizability of the assessment, i.e., the final extrapolation to the real-life target tasks.

V. Conclusion

The review of these studies highlights several essential factors in addressing the issue of generalizability in Task-Based Language Assessment. First, the identification of the fixed and varied TLU situation informed by the framework put forth by Bachman and Palmer (1996) and Douglas (2000) provides an organized list of the items that need to be considered for both designing assessment tasks as well as comparing the assessment tasks with the target real-life tasks. These frameworks highlight the factors that are constantly present in the TLU situation which should be regarded as fixed, such as the presence of a certain setting or the use of certain equipment. Second, standardizing the conditions that are fixed, not the varied conditions, in the TLU situation. Even though standardizing the varied conditions in the TLU situation can have positive effects on the reliability of the assessment, it can at the same time have negative effects on the generalizability. To avoid this issue, test developers should control and fix the testing procedure through a set of different tasks which are representative of the target language domain. In this way, improving the reliability of assessment would be at the service of the generalizability of assessment, i.e., the power of the extrapolation of the test. Third, using two or more sets of tasks in the assessment, the ones using the language as the construct, i.e., tasks from the ability-based approach (Bachman, 2002) or direct system-referenced assessment tasks (Ellis, 2003), and the ones from the performance-based approach (Bachman, 2002), or direct performance-referenced assessment tasks (Ellis, 2003). This would help exploit both the breadth and specificity of generalizability and improve the consistency of the assessment and the standardization procedure, both of which directly affect the ultimate extrapolation to the TLU situation. However, more research is needed to examine how effective the use of a set of performance-referenced and system-referenced tasks is on the generalizability of assessment.

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Majeed Noroozi received his Ph.D. in Language Education from Florida International University. His research interests include Task-Based Language Teaching and Assessment.

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The Application of POA-based Reciprocal Teaching Model in Chinese Senior High School English Writing Class*

Guobing Liu
Faculty of International Studies, Henan Normal University, Xinxiang, China

Hui Cao
Faculty of International Studies, Henan Normal University, Xinxiang, China

***Abstract*—In order to effectively improve the efficiency of English writing class in Chinese senior high school, this paper explores the effectiveness of POA-based reciprocal teaching model, i.e. Production-based reciprocal teaching (PBRT). The research instruments include classroom observation, interview and test. It has been found: (1) PBRT has a positive impact on Chinese senior high school students' interests in English writing. (2) PBRT can significantly improve students' writing abilities. (3) The application of PBRT in writing class need build a teacher-student community. The teachers should design situational teaching activities in class and promote their knowledge application abilities. There are few researches on reciprocal teaching based on POA in senior high school. This study aims to provide new ideas for improving the efficiency of English writing class in Chinese senior high school.**

***Index Terms*—POA, reciprocal teaching, Chinese senior high school, English writing**

I. Introduction

Proverbially, the improvement of writing ability is a difficult issue in English teaching, which is compactly related to students' vocabulary, grammar and discourse analysis ability. Students need promote the internalization of target language knowledge and master the usage of English words, phrases, grammars and sentence patterns. The cultivation of writing ability is a gradual process, which depends on the guidance of teachers and the participation of students.

POA is a teaching theory with Chinese characteristics put forward by Professor Wen in recent years. Based the researches on students' production, Wen (2015) explored and proposed a new theoretical method of classroom teaching based on the current situation of education and teaching in China – Production-Oriented Approach (POA). POA aims at improving the level of English teaching and language output, which tries to solve the current situation of English teaching that pays more attention to input than output. Since the POA was put forward, researchers have done a lot of related researches on it. Under the background of the new area, this theory has formed an innovative foreign language theoretical system with Chinese characteristics (Yang, 2018). Some academic studies have shown that POA is targeted at the researches of advanced English Learners and most POA studies have been applied to college English teaching. Zhang (2017) conducted an action research to explore the feasibility and effectiveness of POA for college English teaching. POA is applied in teaching, which has a guiding significance for all aspects of practical teaching. On a macro level, He (2020) made an in-depth study of curriculum design based on the POA. In terms of unit teaching design, Tang (2020) took the intensive reading course for English majors as a case and compared POA and TBLT (Task-based Language Teaching) in detail.

However, POA theory combined with reciprocal teaching mode is rarely applied in English writing classes in Chinese senior high school. This study follows the teaching process of POA theory — motivating-enabling-assessment, and applies reciprocal teaching to senior high school writing class. Researcher focuses on students' production and explores the effectiveness of production-based reciprocal teaching (PBRT). Two rounds of action researches which have conducted prove PBRT is suitable for English writing teaching in Chinese senior high school.

II. Literature Review

A. *The Concept of Production*

Swain (1985) believed that successful foreign language learners needed not only to be exposed to a large amount of comprehensible input, but also to produce comprehensible output. Krashen (1985) attempted to explain how the learner acquired a second language and proposed input hypothesis. Since the input hypothesis and output hypothesis were

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proposed and introduced into China, many Chinese scholars have applied these two hypotheses to English teaching. Moreover, they have made many research achievements. On this basis, Wen (2008) put forward the "production-driven hypothesis", which was the prototype of POA. In 2014, the "production-driven hypothesis" was revised to "production driven & input driven hypotheses" (Wen, 2014). Wen (2015) put forward the theoretical system of POA, which was mainly aimed at middle and advanced foreign language learners. "Production" emphasizes both the process and the result. The teaching philosophy of POA includes: learning center theory, learning and application theory and holistic education theory. Wen (2020) further explained the teaching process of POA, which was motivating-enabling-assessment. The production task of unit is divided into several small parts. The teacher should first decompose the production task and students need to complete. The teaching for each production task follows the teaching process. After several small production tasks are successfully completed, the completion of unit production tasks will come naturally.

B. The Concept of Reciprocal Teaching

Palinsar (1984) proposed a teaching method aimed at improving students' reading comprehension and self-learning ability. It is a teaching mode developed on the basis of scaffolding instruction. Scholars have not yet made an agreement on the definition of "reciprocal teaching". Reciprocal teaching is a teaching method of equal communication and independent interaction between teachers' teaching and students' learning, which centers on a certain problem or subject on the multi-point teaching platform. It has important educational value. Reciprocal teaching refers to the cooperative relationship of communication and interaction between teachers and students by using rationally diversified teaching methods. So students could complete the transformation from curiousness to learning. Li (2003) considered reciprocal teaching actually was a transformation of modern teaching methods from the teacher-centered traditional teaching methods to the student-centered. The teaching method is to realize that the main body of learning is the student, which gives full initiative of learning in class. Reciprocal teaching is a kind of student-centered teaching thought. This is a platform for students and teachers to communicate freely.

C. Previous Studies on POA

The domestic researches of POA not only stay in macroscopic teaching, but focus on micro teaching steps. First of all, Wen & Sun (2020) put forward five elements that were drive scenes, namely topic, purpose, identity and occasion. Secondly, through the analysis of examples, the design criteria of facilitating links were put forward, named precision, gradualness and diversity. Finally, combined with practical facts, Sun (2020) proposed a new evaluation form – TSCA (Teacher-Student Collaborative Assessment) in the evaluation stage, with the purpose of promoting learning through evaluation. The profound interpretation of the above teaching process is worth each teacher's deep thinking. Teachers should use the latest theories to deepen their own teaching thoughts and guide their own teaching design.

The researches of POA in foreign countries mainly focus on four aspects: comprehensive evaluation, research direction suggestion, novice teachers and practical application. Some scholars have made a comprehensive evaluation of POA. Rod Ellis (2017) highlighted the impact of POA. He thought the theory had a strong theoretical basis, but there were limitations in the completion of evaluation, so we should devote ourselves to the design and implementation of teacher training courses. A wide range of live actions can be added to the end of the unit to create an existing text that can be used by students. There are some suggestions for improvement of POA through practical researches. Alister Cumming (2017), a professor at the University of Toronto, suggested three things. First of all, we should expand the teaching reform for the situation of additional education. Secondly, we must guarantee English beginners to carry out related tests. Thirdly, future researches on POA seem to be prepared for second language acquisition. The theory has made an important contribution. In the practical teaching application of POA, some scholars put forward relevant requirements for novice teachers. According to Charlene Polio (2017) who analyzed the Outcome-oriented Method from the perspective of novice teachers, there is no one method that fits all circumstances and teachers should be allowed to modify their teaching curriculum. At the same time, POA provides a good starting point for the challenges faced by novice teachers.

Based on the reality, POA can solve the problems in teaching practice more effectively. Therefore, this research combines the POA to solve the problem of Chinese senior high school students' writing difficulties and improve their writing abilities. Through two rounds of action researches, the researcher tests PBRT's effectiveness in practical teaching and explores the improvement of class efficiency.

D. Previous Studies on Reciprocal Teaching

Since reciprocal teaching was put forward, scholars have studied it from different aspects, such as innovation, science and technology. The emergence of reciprocal teaching is accompanied by disciplinary tools, among which the reciprocal whiteboard is the most influential. The interactive whiteboard, with its powerful interactive function and flexible subject tools, has triggered a new round of theoretical and practical research on the curriculum reform of basic education. Yang & Ren (2014) deeply analyzed the current situation of interactive electronic whiteboard teaching in the stage of basic education. They put forward the interactive electronic whiteboard application reform strategy. These were constructing the community, excavating the effective method, broadening the subject, improving the application level, designing the teaching application and promoting the teaching application. With the development of science and technology, the form of reciprocal teaching has been enriched. Educational informatization promotes the innovation of technology-supported reciprocal teaching mode. Foreign scholars have never stopped their researches and explorations of reciprocal teaching mode. According to the relevant foreign literature, the researches on reciprocal teaching mainly focus on these two aspects, the artistic characteristics of reciprocal teaching and the influence of reciprocal teaching on the course. Wassermann Selma (2017), an international expert on classroom interactions, set the stage for the relevance of the interactive teaching method in his book. The book draws from the author's long experience of interactive teaching using the case method rooted in the Harvard. He offered detailed and specific help for teachers who were considering embarking on this approach to teaching. Coverage included teaching to the immense ideas and preparing students. It is based on developing good listening, responding, and questioning skills in an interactive discussion. Mohammad and Abbas (2012) used reciprocal teaching strategies to improve students' reading comprehension to handle students' lower comprehension skill. Reciprocal teaching involved four main metacognitive reading strategies: predicting, questioning, clarifying, and summarizing. They stated relationship between reciprocal teaching and reading comprehension. What's more, they indicated that reciprocal teaching had a significantly positive effect on the English reading comprehension of EFL students.

Reciprocal teaching's effectiveness and influence are beyond doubt. The proper teaching method is one that can stand constant examination. Many scholars at home and abroad have explored the influence of reciprocal teaching on reading ability. The researcher will explore the influence of reciprocal teaching on students' writing ability, and try to analyze the effect of a reasonable reciprocal teaching model based on the production. This will probably provide new practical ideas and research directions to English teachers in Chinese senior high school.

III. Research Design

A. Research Questions

Based on the purpose of the research, the research aims to answer the following two questions:

(1) What effect does PBRT have on Chinese senior high school students' attitude in English writing?

(2) What effect does PBRT have on Chinese senior high school students' performance in English writing?

B. Research Instruments

The research instruments include classroom observation, interview and test. Pre-test and pre-interview have been conducted before action research. The whole class, taught by the researcher, participated in the test. Three students A, B and C of different levels from the class were interviewed. Two rounds of action research have been conducted. There are test and interview at the end of each round. During the action research, the researcher observed her own class and four teachers in the same grade acted as observers to assign points to each item according to the class observation scale. Classroom observation data were tested by SPSS reliability and validity. Through classroom observation data, the researcher explores the change of students' interests in writing. Paired sample tests were conducted to explore whether there were significant differences in test scores between pre-test and post-test.

C. Research Procedure

The researcher carried out this research strictly according to the steps of action research. First of all, through daily classroom observation, the researcher had found that there were still some problems in English writing class in Chinese senior high school, such as students' low interests and low class efficiency in writing. Through literature review, the researcher understood the current research on writing classroom. During this period, the researcher focused on the effectiveness of POA and the stimulation of reciprocal teaching. Therefore, the researcher decided to explore the effectiveness of PBRT in senior high school English writing class.

Secondly, the researcher made a research plan and carried out the research in the teaching experiment. The formulation of the research plan included research questions, research subjects and research instruments, as well as two rounds of action research programs. The implementation of action research teaching followed the teaching process of POA and was student-centered. Each round of action research included research plan, research implementation and research reflection.

Finally, the researcher collected and analyzed the research data. After the two rounds of action research, the researcher collected the results of interviews for analysis. The purpose is to investigate whether students could be motivated to learn English writing in PBRT. The results of classroom observation scale and test were analyzed again through SPSS. The data of classroom observation was analyzed whether to stimulate their interests in English writing. The researcher would compare students' writing scores to test whether PBRT can improve students' English writing abilities.

IV. Results and Discussions

In order to explore the application of PBRT in Chinese senior high school English writing classes, the researcher conducted two rounds of action research. Through classroom observation, interviews and tests, the researcher collected and analyzed data, aiming to explore the influence of PBRT on students' interests and performance in writing.

Researcher further explored how to construct well PBRT in writing class. The following are research results and discussion.

A. *The Influence of PBRT on Students' Writing Performance*

Through testing, the researcher analyzes the influence of PBRT on students' writing scores and explore whether students' writing ability has changed. Before the action research, the researcher conducted a pre-test to understand the students' writing performance. After the first round of the action research, the researcher took a test and compared the results of the test with those of the pre-test. After the second round of the action research, the researcher took another test and compared the results with those after the first round of the action research. The experimental data were analyzed by SPSS.

(1) Comparison of Test Results between Pre-test and the First Round Test

In order to explore the changes of students' writing scores after the first round of action research, the researcher made descriptive statistics between the pre-test scores and the scores after the first round of action research. The result is shown in Table I.

TABLE I
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PRE-TEST AND FIRST ROUND TEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error of Mean
Pre-test	50	10.98	4.913	.695
First Round Test	50	12.42	4.504	.637

Statistics show that the average score of the pre-test is 10.98, and the average score of the test after the first round of action research is 12.42. There is a slight difference in the mean value of the two scores. The scores increase slightly after the first round of action research. However, it needs to be further verified by paired sample T test to explore whether there is a statistically significant difference between them.

TABLE II
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST (PRE-TEST AND FIRST ROUND TEST)

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-taile)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pre-test & First round	-1.440	1.716	.243	-1.928	-.952	-5.933	49	.000

Table II shows that, at the significance level of 0.05, there is a significant difference between the test results after the first round of action research and the pre-test results (t=0.00<0.05). What's more, the test results after the first round of action research are significantly higher than the pre-test results.

(2) Comparison of Test Results between the First Round Test and the Second Round Test

After the first round of action research, the researcher has reflected on the problems in the research process, and redesigned the second round of action research program. After the second round of action research, the researcher conducts a test to further explore the influence of PBRT on students' writing scores. The test results after the first action research are compared with those after the second action research. The following are the basic quantities that describe the statistics.

TABLE III
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF FIRST ROUND TEST AND SECOND ROUND TEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error of Mean
First Round Test	50	12.42	4.504	.637
Second Round Test	50	14.58	3.775	.534

As can be seen from Table III, the mean test scores after the two rounds of action research are slightly different. The average score after the second action research is 14.28. The average score after the first action research is 12.42. The average score after the second action research is slightly higher than the first. However, whether there is a statistically significant difference between the two, it needs to be further tested by paired sample T test. The result of paired sample t-test is shown in Table IV.

TABLE IV
PAIRED SAMPLE T-TEST (FIRST ROUND TEST AND SECOND ROUND TEST)

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-taile)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
First Round Test & Second Round Test	2.160	1.822	.258	1.642	2.678	8.381	49	.000

The paired sample T-test shows that at the significance level of 0.05, the sig value of the paired sample T-test between the test scores after the first action research and the second action research is t=0.000<0.05. Therefore, the test scores after the second round of action research are significantly different from those after the first round of action research. And the test scores after the second round of action research are significantly higher than those after the first round of action research.

Through the analysis of test data by SPSS, it can be seen that the application of PBRT in writing class has significantly improved students' writing performance. Through teaching examples, the researcher collected students' modified model essays. It is clear that the students' writing ability has been significantly improved. First of all, the main points of the composition are complete. Through discussion, students can have something to say about the topics they write about. Students can master the main points of the content, with doing not omit and covering all aspects. Secondly, the language expression is fluent. When writing a composition, students should fully mobilize their knowledge base and use the knowledge they have learned to express their opinions fluently. For the Chinese senior student, the knowledge of attributive clause is not a new knowledge, but a difficult point. During learning writing, students can use attributive sentence pattern correctly. When writing, students can consciously synthesize simple sentences into complex ones. Finally, the logical structure of the article is clear. Students can use vocabulary to express the logic sequence of the passage, for example *first of all, what's more, moreover, in addition, at last and so on*. At the same time, students master transitional logical words, such as *but, however*, *on the contrary* and so on. With these words, the whole article is reasonable, logical and clear. Students can express their ideas with rational thinking. To a certain extent, students have improved in writing ability.

Teachers should promote knowledge application and pay more attention to production during class teaching. Teachers present input materials for students to absorb in class, with the purpose of promoting writing by reading and production of written knowledge. In an efficient class, teachers must pay attention to students' output and make it clear that teaching links and classroom activities are all centered on knowledge output. First of all, before class, teachers should pay attention to the students' previous level of writing and prepare teaching material. Teachers should not only have a strong sense of teaching, but also formulate clear teaching objectives and requirements, according to the students' school age stage. Teachers in mind need consider what to practice in this composition class? What will the students learn from the writing training? Only by thinking clearly about these problems can the teacher grasp the key and prepare the composition class. Secondly, in class, the teacher should find the right breakthrough point in the writing teaching, choose a good road and let the students boldly think by themselves. Teachers guide students to build a knowledge framework, who will learn the content of the systematic through the "scaffolding". In the writing class, the teacher presents the examples to the students. In this stage of learning, teachers should consciously guide the students to summarize the framework of the article. If necessary, students can draw mind maps to help them understand. In the process of learning, students are aware of the fun of learning and enhance their confidence in learning. Moreover, teachers should guide students to contact life and select materials from life. Teachers guide the students to approach the life, observe the life, and experience the emotion. Finally, the important part is the task of production. Students make scaffolding by using their own knowledge base to complete a reasonable text. During this period, students are required to focus on language expression, content points, logical structure and writing. Teachers need to walk around the classroom, help students in need appropriately, and give necessary guidance. For the students whose writing is obviously improper, the teacher should remind them in time so as not to deviate from the meaning of the text. After the students finish the output task, the teacher should make a concise comment to promote the students' writing ability to a higher level.

B. The Influence of PBRT on Students' Writing Attitude

The researcher uses classroom observation to better explore the influence of PBRT on students' interests in writing. Researcher observes her own class and commissions four teachers of the same grade to conduct classroom observation during the teaching time. Five observers concluding researcher assign points to each item of the class observation scale during the class. After each round of action research, the researcher collects and sorts out the observation scales. In order to make the scale data reliable and effective, the researcher uses SPSS to test the reliability and validity of the data of the classroom observation scale.

TABLE V
RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

Dimensionality	Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha
Motivating	Scene	10.20	10.400	.580	.504	.903	.889
	Attempt	10.20	10.622	.795	.762	.856	
	Assignment	10.30	11.344	.777	.866	.867	
	Discussion	10.60	10.489	.757	.580	.862	
	Sharing	10.70	7.567	.900	.936	.830	
Enabling	Assignment	10.30	12.456	.771	.906	.913	.923
	Material	10.60	10.489	.868	.872	.893	
	Learning	10.70	12.900	.832	.855	.910	
	Instruction	10.70	11.567	.771	.723	.912	
Assessment	Sharing	10.90	9.878	.855	.935	.900	.920
	Self	5.30	5.344	.826	.685	.898	
	Peer	5.20	5.733	.838	.709	.884	
	Teacher	5.30	6.011	.857	.736	.872	

Table V shows the reliability test of classroom observation data. As can be seen from the table, the coefficients of Cronbach's are 0.889, 0.923, 0.920 in three dimensions (motivating, enabling and assessment). All of them are greater than 0.6, which proves that the data have good consistency and good overall reliability and pass the test. At the same time, the researcher uses SPSS, factor analysis method, KMO value and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx Chi-square to measure the validity of the scale data. As can be seen from Table VI, the cumulative variance after rotation in three stages are 72.663%, 78.480% and 86.497% respectively, all greater than 50%, and the Component Matrixa of each item is over than 0.05. In addition, the significance probabilities of 0.001, 0.000 and 0.001 are all less than 0.05, indicating that the original data have a certain correlation. The values of KMO are 0.718, 0.682 and 0.760 respectively, all greater than 0.6, indicating that the data is valid. The classroom observation scale can be used for classroom observation and its data can be used for analysis and research.

TABLE VI
VALIDITY ANALYSIS

	Items	Component Matrixa	Communalities	KMO	Sig.	Total Variance Explained
Motivating	Scene	.692	.479	.718	0.001	72.663%
	Attempt	.878	.770			
	Assignment	.868	.753			
	Discussion	.840	.705			
	Sharing	.962	925			
Enabling	Assignment	.837	.701	.682	0.000	78.480%
	Material	.926	858			
	Learning	.892	.795			
	Instruction	853	.728			
	Sharing	.918	.842			
Assessment	Self	.922	.851	.760	0.001	86.497%
	Peer	.929	.864			
	Teacher	.938	.880			

Before the action research began, the researcher has conducted achievement tests and interviews. The researcher learns that the writing scores of students are very low. Some students think writing is boredom, or even disgust. Some students have nothing to do in the writing class without thinking, discussing and writing. After two rounds of action researches, through the feedback data of observers, the researcher has found that students participate in writing class more and more actively. Students also try their best to product tasks. There is a positive change in the students' attitude towards writing.

In the first round of action research, students' learning enthusiasm and interests in writing improved slightly. In the motivating stage, the researcher presents close to real teaching situation to stimulate students' interests. Some of the students with good grades have showed great enthusiasm in writing and taken the initiative to participate in group discussions and actively tried to output tasks. However, some students at the lower level are dull in class, unwilling to participate in group activities. If they do participate in group activities, they chat with their peers. These students do not attempt to complete task. In the enabling stage, the researcher presents input materials and students conduct selective learning. Students' classroom performance is also a bipolar phenomenon. On the one hand, some students actively absorb input materials, selectively record key points, and accumulate material for their own writing. On the other hand, some students have difficulty accepting input material, can't distinguish the key points, and do nothing in class. In the assessment stage, the advanced students actively participate in the evaluation and are more interested in class. And the poor students in studying, to participate in the evaluation is very slack. In class, the students are slightly active, and overall they are not very active. In the first round of action research, the design idea is not yet mature. The selection of input materials fails to mobilize students' enthusiasm well. There is less time for group discussion and sharing, resulting in lack of communication among students. After the first round of action research, the researcher reflected and conducted second round of action research.

In the second round of action research, students' enthusiasm in class and interests in writing were greatly improved. In the motivating stage, the researcher starts from the focus of social issues and shifts from the focus to familiar situations around them. This greatly attracts students' interests in learning. Every student vied with each other to express his or her opinion on the social focus issue. In the group discussion, each student has something to say and takes good care of the weaker students. In the enabling stage, the researcher presents input materials on the PPT to facilitate students' memory. The researcher guides the students to summarize the key words, phrases, sentence patterns and logical structure of the article independently. Students at this stage will have a sense of achievement so as to stimulate the motivation of learning. In the assessment stage, interactive multi-evaluation is adopted in the classroom. Students change their identities and become "little teachers" and make comments on their peers' compositions. The composition interchange corrects the error-type question. The students learn not only the writing, but the multi-faceted question type study. In this way, students can pay more attention to their mistakes in writing and correct them effectively.

Teachers should pay different attention to students at different levels. Teachers should build a student-oriented and teacher-led classroom. At present, the mainstream idea of education is to highlight the dominant position of students, in order to change the traditional teaching mode of "filling the classroom", so that students can participate in the teaching. "Community" is composed of students and teachers to promote the growth of all members as the goal, emphasizing the process of learning with the interaction of learning concept as the guidance, through mutual communication. Compared with the traditional teaching mode, the biggest characteristic of this mode is to emphasize the communication and interaction between teachers and students, so as to play a collective dynamic role in teaching. The following points should be achieved in constructing the teacher-student community.

First, teachers should bear intellectual authority. One of the purposes of teaching is to let the students acquire knowledge. As the saying that, to make iron needs own hard. Teachers should have enough knowledge base. In this way, teachers can establish knowledge authority in the hearts of students. If teachers fail to establish the authority of knowledge, the status of teachers in the hearts of students will plummet, which will greatly affect the teaching efficiency of teachers. In the construction of the teacher-student community, teachers will encounter sudden problems at any time. At this time, teachers need to show their educational wit. If the teacher doesn't have a jar of water, how can he scoop out a bowl of water for the students? Therefore, teachers should continue to learn after class, constantly improve themselves, so as to set up their own knowledge authority in class. Then they can build a harmonious teacher-student community under the high mountains of students. Second, it requires equal and harmonious teacher-student relationship. Democracy and equality are not only the need of the trend of democracy in modern society, but also the direct demand of humanism in teaching life and the concrete embodiment of modern personality. It requires teachers to understand students, exert non-power influence and communicate with all students equally. At the same time, it requires students to express their own thoughts and behaviors correctly, learn to cooperate and learn together. Modern education idea advocates "Teachers are not only experts but also friends in harmonious relations". After all, every student has own thinking, feeling from person to person. Everyone hopes to get the teacher's respect and understanding. It is an important state of equality between teachers and students. Only in this way, can the relationship between teachers and students be more harmonious, and further promote the construction of community of teachers and students. Third, it also needs enough communication activities. One of the cores of the teacher-student community is the interaction between teachers and students. Only with sufficient exchanges and activities can the information between teachers and students be circulated. Teachers and students generate resonance, and promote the construction of the teacher-student community. Through communication, teachers can better understand students' learning situation, and then design more effective activities to help students improve their abilities. The construction of a harmonious community can't just stay in the classroom, but extra-curricular activities. The current classroom interaction is more focused on language communication, which is somewhat monotonous. So teachers and students promote interaction frequency in extra-curricular activities. Extracurricular communication activities play a positive role in promoting the construction of a harmonious teacher-student community, so it is also a way that teachers can actively try.

The research also analyzes students' attitude through interview. One purpose of the pre-interview is to understand the students' difficulties they encountered in the process of learning English writing. The other purpose is to know students about their participation in classroom activities. It can be seen from the data of pre-interview that the difficulties encountered by students in the process of English writing are mainly manifested in vocabulary, sentence pattern and structure. First, students lack the accumulation of vocabulary. Students usually accumulate less vocabulary. Students can't think of corresponding English expressions when they are writing. As student C says, his head is empty when he writes. Students should make good use of their time to accumulate vocabulary. In this way a full mind has material to output when writing. Second, students have difficulty mastering sentence patterns, especially advanced ones. Both student A and student B have mentioned that the sentence structure was not clear when writing. The article is dominated by simple sentences and lacks advanced sentence patterns, such as attributive clauses. Students make mistakes when they use attributive clauses. In order to make the sentence patterns varied, students should learn the grammar of sentence patterns well in daily life. Third, students lack attention to the logical relation words. When students write sentences, they tend to ignore the connection between sentences. The result is what Student B calls a "running account." Therefore, students should pay attention to sentence cohesion when learning to read texts. The teacher should highlight the relative words when necessary. Students have not great interests in participating class. There are two main reasons. One reason is the influence of students own factors, the other reason is affected by students around. Because of their poor English knowledge, students are unable to participate in classroom activities. As student C said, "*I don't understand vocabulary, grammar or sentence structure. So I'm usually more of a spectator*." Students lack self-confidence and are afraid of making mistakes in class. This kind of student is often a listener in class. For Student B, he doesn't like to express his own ideas and prefers to listen to others. Students are easily influenced by the classmates around them. Just like the case of student A, if the classmates around him don't answer the question, he will feel embarrassed to participate in the interaction. Students' classroom performance is greatly influenced by the environment around them. Teachers should help students build up their self-confidence so that they can actively participate in class activities.

After the first round of action research, the researcher conducted an interview. The purpose is to understand the progress of students' English writing, class participation and the effectiveness of the writing classroom model. Students have made a certain progress in English writing. The vocabulary used in composition is more precise than before. Students are able to use sentence patterns and connectives correctly to ensure fluency and coherence. Student A has mentioned, "*The improvement of my English performance is mainly reflected in the following aspects: first, writing time is shorter; second, writing ideas are clearer; third, some complex structures are more freely used in writing. Compared with before, they are used more flexibly.*" Student B said, "*My writing scores have improved significantly, about five points higher than before. I use some words to express the transition, so the article structure is more compact*." Student C has said, "*My English writing score is much better than before. The main improvement is that I have something to write, or at least I can link it together into a complete sentence*." As for the participation in classroom activities, students showed a more positive attitude. During the interview, students would use some positive words to express themselves, such as "would rather", "would like to", "want" and so on. From the students' words, the author can see the students' desire to take an active part in class activities. Students reflected under PBRT classroom mode, the classroom atmosphere is relaxed, the classroom situation is real, and the classroom activities are interesting. This is very important for students to learn and master knowledge.

After the second round of action research, the researcher continued to pay attention to student progress and class participation, as well as to further understand the improvement of the PBRT classroom model. The researcher did an interview again after the second round of action research. According to the interview data, students have made great progress in English writing after four months of research. Students use vocabulary more accurately and freely. Sentence structure is smoother and more compact. Students responded well, such as "improved grades", "more comfortable sentence patterns", "advanced sentence patterns" and "complete sentences", etc. Students are more active in class activities. The interviews with students mentioned many positive words, such as "be willing to", "very like", "would like to" and so on. Students generally show preference to the current classroom atmosphere. Student A thinks that this class mode will not feel pressure and embarrassment, and hopes to continue to use it. Student B said, "*The classroom atmosphere is not as depressing as before. Most of the time, the initiative to learn is in your own hands. I am also willing to learn. Learning enthusiasm is very high. I hope this teaching mode can continue to be used in future writing teaching*." Student C thinks the classroom atmosphere is very relaxed. Studying in this atmosphere, He won't have a lot of pressure. In class, he wants to participate in activities and discuss with group members. He can also learn some words and phrases from his classmates, which is very helpful for him to write a composition. In addition, student C expresses his hope to set writing tasks of different difficulty.

Real and interesting teaching situations can bring students into the classroom and catch their eyes. So it is very important to design an effective teaching situation. Firstly, the teaching scene should be conducive to stimulating students' thirst for knowledge. Teachers should create a cognitive conflict between teaching content and students' psychology of seeking knowledge so as to trigger students' urgent desire to make clear the unknown. In addition, teachers make the teaching process based on the psychological basis of students' willing to learn, and promote teaching layer by layer. In this way, students have great interests in learning. Therefore, the teaching situation should be able to stimulate thinking and interesting, so as to stimulate students' thirst for knowledge. Gradually students will be full of interests in the upcoming teaching content and desire to learn. Secondly, the teaching scene should choose the content and way that the student is willing to accept. The teaching scene should choose the content and method that the students fit. The teaching situation should choose the content and method that the students are suitable for, such as body language, partner sharing and so on. In this way, the content of the activity can be fully served for teaching and achieve the best effect. In such a teaching situation, students can easily grasp the teaching content. Students in the completion of learning tasks not only taste the joy of success, but also constantly mobilize the enthusiasm of students to practice. Thirdly, the teaching situation should make the teacher's teaching serve the student's learning. In order to make the teaching scene guide the students' studying, the teaching scene should be conducive to the transformation of teachers' main teaching function into service function. The teaching strategy of learning before teaching has been widely adopted by many teachers. The position of teachers has gradually shifted from the front of the stage to the back of the students. It is a mainstream thinking that teaching serves learning. As the saying goes, "Lookers-on see most of the game".

Students in their own exploration or cooperative learning, teachers are not idle. The teacher should actively look, listen and attentively feel the students' spiritual world. Even at any time, the teacher can grasp, analyze the various information in the classroom with timely and effective guidance. What's more, the teacher should pay attention to giving systematic guidance. The teacher's help is not interference, not to replace, but a kind of heuristic guidance.

According to the interview, to some extent, the application of PBRT in English writing classes in Chinese senior high school has improved students' interests in writing. After four months of practical application, the researcher has found that students' attitudes towards English writing have improved. Students mobilize the enthusiasm of learning through classroom activities. After group discussion, students can broaden their ideas. Practice has proved that the application of PBRT in English writing class can effectively change students' attitudes towards English writing and enhance their interests in writing. When teachers apply PBRT in practice, they should design various classroom activities. First of all, teachers should design the teaching situation close to the reality. Students are able to give specific suggestions and ideas in the context. Secondly, teachers should give students enough time to have group discussion. Students actively participate in the discussion and learn from each other during the discussion. Then, the teacher should present the input material that is a little more difficult for the student and clearly describe the output task to the student. Students selectively study texts and eventually form their own knowledge. Finally, teachers should enrich the ways of composition evaluation. Students realize their mistakes in self-evaluation and mutual evaluation, and notice their mistakes in question-type interaction. It is a long way from the effective use of PBRT in English writing class. In the future, more researchers need to practice and reflect.

V. Conclusion

A. Research Findings

The researcher chooses her own class as research object, so the action research has certain practical significance. This research has some implications for English writing teaching in Chinese senior high school. Firstly, through two rounds of action research, the researcher finds that PBRT can be effectively applied to English writing classes in Chinese senior high school. The results show that PBRT can effectively enhance students' interests in English writing and improve their attitudes towards English writing class. Moreover, the students have significantly improved in English writing performance. In addition, the language expression and logical cohesion of the article have been greatly improved. Secondly, teachers should strengthen their professional development. Teachers should design real situation and promote knowledge application. Teachers should organize teaching effectively and improve class efficiency. Teachers should continue to learn and further research their studies, through education, training and other forms, so that their professional ideals, ethics and knowledge and skills can keep pace with the Times. In practice teaching, teaching adopts the method of theoretical learning, trying to practice, and repeated inquiry to constantly update and expand teaching skills. Thirdly, teachers should set up a correct view of students and build a student-oriented and teacher-led classroom. Teachers design realistic teaching situations based on students' cognitive development to arouse students' attention and thinking. Teachers then think deeply and organize the interesting teaching creatively. In this way, it will make teaching form diversification and raise the student's enthusiasm. In addition, teachers should teach students at different levels according to their aptitude. This requires teachers to carefully spot the differences of students. In view of the differences of students, teachers find relevant data to analyze the reasons, so as to implement the teaching. For students, students should take the initiative to absorb internalized knowledge to achieve a good output effect. In this process, the teacher should do a good job as the guide, do not interfere with students' production too much, but be appropriate to remind and guide. Last but not least, it is important to be a teacher as well as a researcher. Teachers should cultivate the awareness and ability to study the educational objects and educational problems. Only by insight into educational problems, deep reflection and exploration, can a teacher become a research-oriented teacher, who can find problems and try to solve them. For example, in the writing class, students generally have low interest in learning. Teachers should find out the problems, put forward solutions to the problems, and then conduct practical research and verify them to form mature opinions. Only in this way can teachers improve their teaching methods and make continuous progress in professional development.

It is inevitable that teachers will encounter some teaching problems in English teaching. PBRT provides many teachers with a new way to solve the problems. Teaching is a bilateral activity that consists of teachers' teaching and students' learning to pass on and master social experience. Therefore, in the course of teaching, teachers should pay close attention to teaching and learning, and make them fit together through effective teaching organization activities. Here, the researcher appeals to the majority of teachers to do a research-oriented teacher. In the process of teaching insight into educational issues, conduct in-depth research, so as to improve the effectiveness of teaching and personal professional development.

B. Pedagogical Implications

As a preliminary attempt to apply PBRT to Chinese senior high school English writing teaching, the researcher has conducted two rounds of action research for four months. The researcher has found that the results are basically consistent with expectations. However, due to the limited professional knowledge of the researcher and the influence of objective factors, there are still some deficiencies and limitations in this research, which cannot be ignored. Firstly, the research sample is much limited. In this research, the researcher selected 50 students who are taught by herself as research objects of this study. The research sample is small and not universal. At the same time, it cannot guarantee the representativeness of samples. So the results of the experiment remain to be tested. Secondly, this action research only has lasted for 16 weeks, lacking long-term research. As is known to all, English teaching is a long-term process. And students' writing ability also needs long-term learning and accumulation to form. The improvement of students' writing ability also needs to go through a long process. There is not enough time to test the effect of PBRT in this research. The researcher can only analyze the research based on the two rounds research data. Therefore, the researcher does not have more time to collect and analyze data for research. Thirdly, the teacher's subjectivity is stronger when judging the result. Teachers are often influenced by subjective factors when marking compositions. In this research, the scores of students' compositions are all judged by teachers personally according to the Grading Standards for English Composition in Chinese senior high school. Teachers are highly subjective when assigning scores. It is a drawback of the research. This factor is difficult to overcome and inevitable.

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Guobing Liu was born in Henan, China. He received the master's degree in corpus linguistics in 2005. Now he is an EFL teacher at the Faculty of International Studies, Henan Normal University. He received the doctoral degree in corpus linguistics and computational linguistics in 2013. In recent years, he published several books and more than thirty academic papers in the key journals both home and abroad. His academic interests include corpus linguistics and foreign language teaching.

Hui Cao was born in Henan, China. She will receive the master's degree of education in 2021. Now she studies at the Faculty of International Studies, Henan Normal University. She is interested in English teaching and her master's thesis is also related to it.

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Subtitling as a Didactic Tool for Relating Exactness of Information and Cultural Preservation: The Igbo Language Mediascape Example

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

Olaide Oladimeji
Department of Linguistics and Languages, Federal University, Oye-Ekiti, Ekiti State, Nigeria

Obiora Harriet Chinyere
Department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria

***Abstract*—Translation is a language activity that involves intercultural activities. The study's focus is on subtitling as a didactic tool for relating exactness of information and cultural preservation: The Igbo language Mediascape example, by looking at the correctness of the subtitled expressions in context, in the movie used for the study. Language is a human form of communication in his sociocultural environment as well as culture which is people's way of life. The study adopted the frameworks of Gotlieb's strategy and Nida's equivalence to tackle the study's problems. It also adopted the methodology of description and emergent design approach in the study. For the correctness of the source information expressions in context, it is discovered that by the use of Gotlieb's strategy and Nida's translation equivalence, the study was able to transfer right messages in the context in which they are used. It is discovered that the research objective of the study is achieved thereby attaining the signification of the study.**

***Index Terms*—language, culture, context, translation and subtitle**

I. Introduction

Translation is an exercise that involves cultural documentation and cross fertilization of different cultures of the world hence, playing active and important roles of crossing through different cultures and communication. This cultural documentation in the context of translational exercise is what Nord (1997) sees as a process of linguistics and cultural adaptation to the original information. Based on this ground, the idea of translation and its relationships are not to be misunderstood thus; a free translation is that type of rendering of the original information into the target and still retains the taste of the source text with the culture and language of the target audience. In this study, it will be taken to be that translation that is free in the sense that there is always a clear connection or relationship between the original information, culture and source audience, hence, the value of the sort is still extended to the relationship that exist between the information, culture and target audience. However, for Fawcett (1996) this kind of translation that involves cultural acceptance by the target audience during the information transfer can said to be sociolinguistic based because, its involvement revolves around how the different translators who engages in cultural related form of translation can adapt the source text in the target language and culture, acceptable by the target audience. This is to say that translation is an essential, fundamental and adequate way of interchanging cultures. In doing this, Munday (2001) believes that the process will involve adapting the lexicon, grammar and cultural references of the target language in order to attain naturalness in the translated information.

In connection with the above information, translation is not an action that exists in isolation rather, use of language and other forms of techniques that is known by the translator. Upon this, language, it is a form of human expression that is very important to mankind in his sociocultural environment. According to Gelavizh, Saman, Elenaz, Arezoo and Siamak (2012), languages phenomenon and factors links different cultures of the world, including the ways feelings are expressed and conveyance of people's thoughts and ideas. The thought of translation in this study is not limited to only textual form of translation rather, paratextual. It is called paratextual form of translation in the sense that it involves a non book transfer of information. This non book transfer is what this study sets to call a media translation or audiovisual translation (AVT) wherein, it is divided into two thus; dubbing and subtitle. Audiovisual translation (AVT) is what Szarkowska and Wasylczyk (2018) believes to be how films and TV programmes are translated from one language to another viz dubbing or subtitling. Dwyer (2017) added that subtitling and dubbing are subfields under translation. So, from the two subdivisions of the media translation or audiovisual translation, the focus of the study dwells on subtitle alone. Based on the sense that the subtitle is used in this study, it is taken to be the substitution of the spoken utterances of a particular movie device with its written equivalence on the screen. Subtitle is an exercise different media houses of the world are using in relating particular information to a particular target audience. In the process of transferring this information, it can be discovered that there are lots of subtitled movies with wrong expressions in terms of grammar and context, poor punctuation, capitalization, non alignment with the spoken and the written utterances on the screen – the African Magic Igbo movie example. Based on all these problems discovered of the media houses that adopt subtitle, this study sets to use these problems as the studies problem of the study.

In connection with the above information, in looking at subtitle in this study, the exercise shall dwell only on the selected Igbo movie of the Nollywood industry while the Igbo movie that will be used for the study is called *Aka azụ di ya*. In studying this movie of the Nollywood industry, the scope that this study sets to cover is only on 'the correctness of the subtitled expressions in context' in order to get down the information to the target audience. However, the movie is in Igbo language and as such, English language is the language that was used to adapt the Igbo movie and culture into another culture. In line with this, in order to make sure that there are no meaning losses in the transferred information, the researcher, through this exercise will help make sure that the original information is retained functionally in the target language through ensuring that the correctness of the subtitled expressions of *Aka azụ di ya* is rightly rendered – grammar and context based. In this study, the grammar is taken to be the internalized knowledge the owners or speakers of a particular language have about the inherent different units and rules of their language that touches the rules used for combination of speech sounds into word formation, making sentences and assigning meaning to words, sentences and phrases. This is to say that when a sentence is discovered ungrammatical in a linguistic sense, it implies that the sentence construction has broken the rules of the shared mental grammar of the language which will definitely affect the exactness of the meaning of the intended information.

A. Language

Due to the level of the importance of human communication in his sociocultural environment, it is very pertinent to state the relevance of language with culture and translation as valuable issues. Upon this, due to the many languages of the world with different cultures that allows communications in the human life, it then make the process of transferring information to be a very effective factor in information exchange, transferring cultures, belief systems, knowledge and ideas. This is to categorically say that language and culture are much related and as such, very crucial to be taken into consideration during any form of translation exercise. According to Gelavizh, Saman, Elenaz, Arezoo and Siamak (2012), language is an exercise that is used to maintain and convey culture as well as cultural ties. In different human environments, people communicate with each other and as such, opinions, knowledge, beliefs, wishes, threats, commands, thanks, promises, declarations and feelings are exchanged. However, one can carry out this communication form as one can frown to express hatred, joy or happiness. Again, one can smile to show that he or she is happy as well the act of approving of something. It can also be use in the situations of hard feelings; one can actually shriek face in order to express anger. More so, based on this communication role of language, one can clench his or her fists to express determination, anger or a threat as well as raise his or her eyebrows to express surprise or disapproval – language. In line with the following, in this study, any form of communication by means of language may be referred to as linguistic communication while the other forms outlined earlier, thus laughing, smiling and shrieking are called non-linguistic communication.

Based on the above, Gelavizh, Saman, Elenaz, Arezoo and Siamak (2012) state that ideas are borne out from the differing language use in one's culture which its relationship start at one's birth. Due to the fact that language exist only with men and no other form of being or animal, it can on that ground be called a human capacity that acquires and uses different complex systems of communication in mans sociocultural group. This is to clearly say that the part of the human brains that works on language is basically greater than that of other forms of species in an ecosystem because; language in its entirety is rule based. So, based on the relationship that exist between translation, culture and language, it can be seen that languages and culture are complimentary of each other in the sense that the cultural features of every region is different and as such, one who translates the original information will be able to render exactly the meaning of the ST and at the same time strike a balance by showing the discrepancy between the culture of the ST and TT.

B. Concept of Culture

Culture can be seen as the way a group of people sees life. For Newmark (1988), culture is defined as the way a group of people live their lives in a way that is very good to them, although shares semblance in language as it is used for communication. However, this implies that language is not regarded as a component or feature of culture which is in direct opposition to Vermeer (1998) propositions of language being part of a culture. For Gelavizh, Saman, Elenaz, Arezoo and Siamak (2012), culture means the designed life pattern and belief system of a group which in other words will extend to the form of child rearing practices. In relation to the previous propositions, it can be said that culture is the general way of living that is designed to govern a group of people that is generational in its essence because it is touches belief system, art, morals, law and customs. According to Parson (1949), culture is taken to be the integral part of every society of the world in the sense that it can be seen as a learned way of behaviour as well as the style in which one lives his or her life. In every sociocultural group, it is very important to state that culture is very pertinent for the existence of a society, since it binds a group of people together. Explicitly, the term culture encapsulates or embodies the music, food, arts and literature of a society.

In consonance with the above discourses, it can be seen that a group of people have a form of life and beliefs acceptance towards the way they live their lives. In speaking with the same language, it can be said that it is because of an effective communication which could be in form of linguistic or non-linguistic form of communication. Categorically, Newmark (1988) believes that translation involves effective understanding towards the source text in order to communicate well the original information in the target text since the transferring of the ST information is done through having its equivalent target language text. For Gelavizh, Saman, Elenaz, Arezoo and Siamak (2012), translation involves language and culture. Based on the following discourse, it can be said that there are two important things that will take place before there will be a good translation (Larson 1998). Upon this, they are adequate understanding of the source text and culture as well as adequate command of the language into target language and culture. Based on the foregoing, Larson (1998) postulates that translation is a process that is complicated; being complicated in the sense that any translator who is involved in any form of meaning transfer will definitely find out that there are norms and values in what that is involved in the target language. However, the target language has a way in which the desired meaning is expressed, not considering the form of the textual materials of the original information but the content. This is because, the act of transferring information from one language to the other is no longer seen as an ordinary cross-linguistic activity, rather, a significantly form of cross-cultural communication. So, in order to maintain a peaceful atmosphere in the human’s communities, Gelavizh, Saman, Elenaz, Arezoo and Siamak (2012) postulate that there is a form of culture that is seen universal that enhances communication as well as change of ideas in order to achieve progress in all life domains. However, in the spiritual and material life of the human race, concentration of mutual efforts in different directions, change of ideas and communication among different peoples in different ways are very important. On the contrast, there can be discontinuity of cultural acts at certain times, in the sense that the breach of cultural act is based on the existence of models and not to a state of nothingness. So, within the human regions, cultures are transferred through the languages by the strong relationship between culture and language that gets manifested through translation. So, upon this, this translation accentuates the process and the possibility of transferring sense and meaning from one language to the other by means of the word made manifest through translation.

II. Theoretical Framework

Translation as used in the study involves information transfer. The different entertainment industries of the world have used this process to relate much information to people. The focus of this study is on media study of the Nigerian Igbo Nollywood movie. According to Giwa (2014), the Nollywood is a film industry that is owned by Nigeria to oversee the entertainment activities in Nigeria that involves music, songs and drama which equally extends to cinema. Translation, according to Schaffner (2007), is involved with bringing across information from one language to another language. However, this process makes the translational exercise to be involved with the movement from one position to another. So, the language that owns the source information is the source language (SL) while the language that is used to receive the ST into the TT is the target language (TL). Additionally, the TL can as well be called the receiving language since it is the language with which translation is done. On the other hand, Bassnett (2008) sees translation as a form of meaning transfer that that enables the message of the original text to be the same with the rendered information, such that one who reads the two works will perceive same sense of meaning, thereby making the structures of the SL to be well preserved as closely as possible but not so closely that the TL will not be understood. During rendition exercises, the translator understands perfectly well the content and the intention of the author whom he is translating his work, and this is done by reading all the sentences or the text properly, and have a firm grasp of the source text information in order to translate properly, since translation focused on clarity of meaning and meaning retention. In line with this, Hatim and Mason (1990) state that translation is a process that is involved with negotiation of meaning between producers and receivers of the text. For Jiraphatralikhit, Kaewjan, Klinpoon, Visitwanit (2005), translation enhances the reproduction of meaning that is natural or approximately similar to the target language in content and form. However, if translation is involved with information transfer, it can then be said that it has a big role to play. So, the act of proper cross fertilization of ideas and cultures is being done effectively through translation in the period where the interactions among disciplines are involved. This is to say that those who engage in translation activities helps to break down or decodes information from language A to language B so that those who lack mastery in the source language will be able to understand a text written in a language different from their own (Nwike, 2021). However, the focus of the study is on a literary form of translation where the study is ‘subtitling as a didactic tool for relating exactness of information and cultural preservation: The Igbo language mediascape example’. This is to say that in looking at subtitle as a didactic tool for relating exactness of information and cultural preservation: The Igbo language mediascape example, the study then adopts the movie titled – *Aka azụ di ya*, a dramatic translation that shares semblance with literary elements like literary textual translation. In preserving culture of a particular language, the translator makes sure that the right principles are adopted in other to have faithful translation and translational acceptance by the target audience.

In line with the above discourses, Newmark (1991) came up with the working connection between semantic and communicative translation. For him, translation should be more or less semantic as well as more or less communicative. However, according to him, a particular part or sentence can be treated in a more communicative way or less semantically. This is to say that both approaches seek for an equivalent effect. On the other hand, strategies are applied on cultural translations in order to faithfully produce the original information of the source language in the target language. These strategies are for translating culture-specific concepts (CSCs). According to Graedler (2000), they are to:

i. Make up new words.
ii. Explain the meaning of the SL expression through translation.
iii. Preserve the SL term.
iv. Used of words in the TL which seems similar to or has the same relevance in TT as the SL term.

From the above outlines, Harvey (2000) states that in explaining the culture-bound terms (CBTs) like institutions and personnel, which are specific to the source language culture that there are approaches to them. However, Harvey put forth four techniques for translating culture-bound terms, and they are as follows:

i. **Functional Equivalence:** This type of equivalence is involved with replacement of the SL information with that which is similar to that of the source language referent and this is the reason why Weston (1991) says that functional equivalence is the ideal method of translation.
ii. **Descriptive Translation:** This form of translation involves the definition of the SL terms with the TL terms and phrases in order to avoid meaning loses and ambiguity of words during translation. This is a method that is seen to be appropriate in situation where there is lack of replacement of the SL information in a formal equivalence form of translation. So, for the information that is aimed at specialized readers, this method can assist in adding the original source langue term to avoid ambiguity (Harvey, 2000).
iii. **Transcription:** This can be called transliterating the original term. It stands at the far end of source language oriented strategies. This is to say that in a situation where terms and phrases are explained in context, transcription can definitely be used especially where there is lack on the knowledge of the source language on the part of the target audience. Categorically, transcription is substituted with an explanation or a translator's note.
iv. **Formal Equivalence:** Translation of this kind means a word-for-word translation (Harvey 2000).

Based on the different realizations on how well to go about having a good translation, Nida (1964) came up with the idea of dynamic equivalence. This form of information transfer is based on the rendition that enables the original information to be transferred sense for sense from language A to language B in the sense that the original meaning of the Language A information is maintained in the language B with dropping or meaning loses. According to Nida (1964), the step that is involved in this type of translation is involved with taking each term, sentences or phrases thought from the ST and transposes it in a form that is same with the original piece in the TL text. The idea behind this dynamic equivalence is to improve readability by rephrasing constructions that could be confusing when literally translated. This is to say that the process that is involved in the dynamic equivalence tries to retain some originality of the source information in the target than creating a complete paraphrase. Again, in achieving a more natural translation, the dynamic equivalence sacrifices faithfulness to the original text since it is formed in order to be used when priority is on the content and not the form. A dynamic equivalence is useful when the original language is very different from the target language because, it helps in understanding better the literal translation.

A. Concept of Subtitle

Based on the above discourses, Gottlieb (1992) sees subtitle as a written, additive, immediate, synchronous and poly-media translation. In line with this, one can say that the subtitle is a subordinate translation that has a restriction of time and space which directly affect the final result on the screen towards the information transfer. However, subtitle is not just an embodiment of relating information of the original to the target audience, rather, it support viewers in the image and the audio with determined time and space on the screen. Upon this, the work of Fawcett (1996) postulates that this audiovisual translation has gained momentum in the scope of translation studies due to the role it plays in relating information, possibly, to the foreign language learner of Igbo language or one who suffer hard of hearing as well as one who is hearing impaired. On the part of Shuttleworth and Cowie (2007), subtitle and dubbing is one of the two modes of audiovisual translation that can be seen as terminologies that are used for transfer in media pieces. On this, subtitle can be called condensed written information of the spoken utterances of the actors on the screen which is written on the foot of the screen. In line with this, subtitles are set to appear and disappear to match in time with the corresponding portion of the original dialogue. In other words, it is always added to the screen image at a later date as a post-production activity. According to O‘Connell (2007), they are cinema, television, video, DVD, LaserDisc, CDRom, computer games, Internet and live performances. On the contrast, it receives more benefits over dubbing because; it is foreign-culture friendly, quick, inexpensive and a bit politically correct mode of screen translation. Again, on the systematic basis, subtitling stands as a challenge to the traditional or cultural translation because of space and not much time involved in the visual conventions as well as the possible shift of the methodologies from spoken to written information in the process. Upon this, challenges are not categorically hinged on the multitude of the types of subtitling but on the fact that it has a lot to do with technology and not only with language.

B. Classification of Subtitling

On the basis of subtitling classification, Gottlieb (1992) is of the view that subtitle can be divided into intra-lingual and inter-lingual subtitling on the basis of linguistic. Upon this highlight, the intra-lingual subtitle can be referred as the production of subtitles that remain in the same language as the original. So, on the act of rendering the words of the source information to another language, the intra-lingual subtitling aims at changing the mode of speaking and not the language itself – dialect variety of Igbo language to standard Igbo orthography. In line with this, it is discovered that it is obvious that the class of people that use it most often are the people who are deaf or have hearing impairment, or for language learners, except on special cases where it is strictly for fun. On the other hand, an interlingual subtitle is the change on both the language mode, where the original sound is retained from ST the TL thus, through spoken dialogue to its written equivalence on the screen – standard Igbo to Yoruba language. Sequel to the classification of subtitle, Gottlieb (1992) maintains that those who engage in subtitling transposes the spoken utterances of a media piece through writing on the screen so that those who suffer hard of hearing or are hearing impaired as well as foreign language learners will be able to have a firm grasp of the original information of the actors on the screen.

In alignment with the information above, Liu (2014) postulates that there are some other approaches to the guiding principles of classification in subtitle study. So, upon this classification of subtitle, Ivarsson (1992) proposes a subtitle classification in which linguistic and technical parameters as well as other parameters are involved. The classifications are based on the areas of application, audience, writing skills and time. In line with these parameters, there are six types of subtitle. According to Liu (2014), they are subtitle for cinema and television, multilingual subtitle, teletext subtitle, reduced subtitle, subtitling live or in real time; although, one can say that there are theatrical works and conference subtitles. In line with the following, there are characteristics of subtitling according to Liu (2014).

i. **Time and Space restrictions:** The major feature or characteristic of subtitle is not much time and space on the screen which determines and affects the standard and forms of rendition (Liu, 2014). However, during subtitling, the spacing is to be limited to two lines at the bottom of the screen of the television or cinema without interfering with the image. In doing this, it is expected that no line on the screen will contain more than 35 characters. Again, a minimum period of a second and maximum duration of six seconds is the limits of time on the screen in order to enable the viewers to quickly read and comprehend the presented message. So, in the subtitling process, those who are involved with the exercise should try as much as possible to align properly the image and the audio.

ii. **Instantaneity:** The focus herein is being immediate with the presentation of the written information on the screen alongside with its spoken utterances. According to Gottlieb (1992), subtitling is an instant form of rendition as it combines with an image that helps the viewers to comprehend the media piece.

iii. **Colloquialism.** Subtitles in this sense suggests that the process should be real in the sense that it will be life-oriented with eye-catching with some simple expressions on the screen as movies pursue the authenticity of life schema and not just life inspired literature (Liu, 2014).

On the contrast with the exactness and intricateness of the above Liu (2014) information, Bartoll (2004) differentiated his types of subtitle based on meticulous parameters. Upon this, there are nine parameters of subtitling and they are placing, the filing of subtitles, localization, mobility, optionality, time, audiovisual product to be subtitled, channel/means of broadcast and colour (Bartoll, 2004). For him, placing involves centered and non-centered subtitles while filing involves inseparable and separable parts like electronic subtitles. Another is localization and on this, it involves intertitles and surtitles. More so, mobility connotes mobile and fixed subtitles while other prosody is optionality while involves optional or closed subtitles and non-optional or open subtitles. Again, time is involved with pre-recorded and simultaneous subtitles while the other classification is audiovisual product to be subtitled. Herein, it involves cinema, television, video, DVD, LaserDisc, CDRom, computer games, Internet (Streaming Video), and live performances. For channel/means of broadcast, it involves the audiovisual product itself through electronic teletext display that is projected on top of the product**.** More so, colour is another classification that depends on the interlocutors. However, the colour of the film whether in black and white or coloured is used on the products to be subtitled.

Based on the above information concerning the classifications of Liu (2014) and Bartoll (2004), the two approaches exhibit the same drawback which implies that the both tries to take all, although, by the of the process, they turn out to overlap and become applicable. Irrespective of the principles, there are two distinctions of subtitle which are the traditional classification and the new classification. Under the traditional classification, there are two forms of classifying subtitles on the basis of two different parameters. The parameters are linguistic and technical.

C. Subtitle Strategy

In order to have a good transfer worthy of acceptance by the target audience in a particular movie device, it is good to consider all the factors that necessitate it. On this, according to Gottlieb (1992), there are strategies of subtitle and they are:

i. **Expansion:** This is used for the source information when it requires explication due to gaps in the involved cultures.

ii. **Paraphrase:** This involves reconstruction in the same syntactic way in the target language, especially where the phraseology of the original is not same in the target language.

iii. **Transfer:** The idea in this strategy is involved with rendering the ST same in the TT.

iv. **Imitation:** This form of strategy retains exactness of the forms in the ST into the TT.

v. **Transcription:** This strategy is used to give clarity to a source language terms and phrases that are unusual even in the source text but needed to have a semblance of the information in the target language**.**

vi. **Dislocation:** This can be called a step the source text information adopts in a case where it involves some kind of special effect.
vii. **Condensation:** The adoption of this method results to shortening of the source information in a noticeable way.
viii. **Decimation:** This is similar to condensation where potentially and important elements are omitted due to speed in discourse of the source information.
ix. **Deletion:** This is involved with total elimination of parts of a text.
x. **Resignation:** This form of strategy is used when no translation solution can be found and meaning is inevitably lost.

From the above outlines, Gottlieb (1992) provides a general typology of the various forms of audiovisual translation which remains a cornerstone for subtitling analysis. Condensation is different from paraphrase as it compresses the message while the paraphrase quickly rearranges the sentential structures and also precedes and necessitates paraphrase. Haven looked at the different views of people concerning language, culture and translation, it is discovered that in order to have a clear judgment and better outcome in the study of 'subtitling as a didactic tool for relating exactness of information and cultural preservation: The Igbo language Mediascape example, the strategy of Gotlieb (1992) and the view of Nida (1964) on equivalence are suitable for the study and as such forms the frameworks of the study.

III. Methodology

In order to carry out the study well, it sets to work with a methodology suitable for it. This study employed the emergent design approach as well as description in its methodology. Its analysis involves the progressive focusing on the data in order to identify and develop themes. So, in order to properly analyse the subtitles gotten from the movie, the researcher follows a three-step procedure. Firstly, by playing and viewing of the Igbo movie. Secondly, re-playing same and determining the strategies used in their subtitling - this is what the researcher did by following the strategy of Gotlieb (1992) and the view of Nida (1964) in order to provide a more comprehensive picture of the study which in turn, reveals a larger variety of translation and subtitling strategies employed by the translators. Thirdly, the researcher played the movie again in order to extract the subtitles so as to enable the researcher to have the correctness of the subtitled expressions of *Aka azụ di ya* in context since the basic unit of a movie in this study is a frame - subtitle. On the significance of the study, the findings of the study shall provide solutions on the following research problems thus, wrong expressions in terms of grammar and context, poor punctuation, capitalization, non alignment with the spoken and the written utterances on the screen which will in turn lead to a better subtitle of Igbo movies in media industries.

IV. Data Presentation and Discussion

The movie *Aka azụ di ya* is a movie produced by the Realnollywood TV entertainment industry of the Nollywood house. It was exclusively licensed to the Realnollywood movies international AG LTD. It is an Igbo movie subtitled in an English MP4 format with 20 characters. However, the purpose of the study is to look at subtitling as a didactic tool for relating exactness of information and cultural preservation: The Igbo language Mediascape example. Specifically, the objective of the study is to have the correctness of the subtitled expressions of *Aka azu di ya* in context in order to fit in well in the target audience's language and culture. Categorically, the analysis of the study will strictly be done on the objective of the study as pointed out already.

Discussion of Wrong Expressions in Context

1. Table One
Showing the use of *transfer* in '*Aka azụ di ya*'

Igbo language/Asụsụ Igbo	Movie English language subtitle	Correct expressions in context
Nna m gbaghara m, biko gbaghara m, ọgaghị emezi ọzọ	Please forgive me it won't happen again	Father please forgive me, it will not happen again
Ma chekwara o, kedụ ihe ị bịara ebe a I mee?	But wait *a minute,* why are you here	But wait, what have you come here to do?
Ọ bụ na ọ bụghị ọsa bụ ihe a	Is that not a *squirell…?*	Is that not a squirrel…?
Kee ka m ga-esi gwa gị?	Why should I tell you?	How can I tell you?
…ihe a abụghị etu ndị nne si eme	…this is not mothers behave	This is not how mothers behave

Based on the table above, transfer strategy was adopted to suit the purpose of the information rendition. Transfer strategy refers to the strategy for translating the source text completely and accurately. It can be clear in the above statements in the table where the message was transferred as the message seems in the source language into the target language. It tries to take the stylistic pattern of the source information while transferring the frames – subtitles. The information above bears witness to this claim. For instance, in the examples of "*Nna m gbaghara m, biko gbaghara m, ọgaghị emezi ọzọ"* was rendered correctly following transfer method as "Father please forgive me, it will not happen again" Also, "*Ma chekwara o, kedụ ihe ị bịara ebe a imee?"* for "But wait, what have you come here to do?". Following the tenets of this transfer method, it can be seen that it is in consonance with the theory of Nida. This strategy however retains the original information in another language without meaning lose by allowing the same pattern of expression to be retained while maintaining its senses. This is also in conformity with Nida's theory. Since this study adopts the message of Nida's equivalence in form and content because of the target audience, the study sets to achieve it because the two aligns with each other in the form and meaning retention. Categorically, the theory of Nida and strategy of Gotlieb match in the rendering of the movie message in the target language.

2. TABLE TWO
SHOWING THE USE OF *PARAPHRASE AND IMITATION* IN '*AKA AZỤ DI YA*'

Igbo language/Asụsụ Igbo	Movie English language subtitle	Correct expressions in context
Amaara m onye a ọfụma	I know him	I know him very well
…a hụrụ m ya n'anya, ọ ga-amasị m ka mụ na ya bie ka di na nwunye	I love him and will like to *leave* with him forever	I love him and it will please me to live with him as husband and wife
Adaeze, achọrọ m ka ị kpọpụta ndị a kịta	*My princess,* I want those people released right now	Princess, I want those people to be released right now
Ọ bụ Gozie bụ onye kwuru na ọ bụrụ na mụ akpọpụtaghị ha na alụm di mụ na ya agaghị enwe isi	It was Gozie who said he wouldn't marry *me if didn't* release them.	It was Gozie who said that the marriage will not go on if I did not release them.
Adaeze ịmụzịkwa anya, ịmazịkwa omenaala?	*princes* are you sure you're with your senses?	Princess are you sure you are with your senses, do you not know the custom?
Nna m gbaghara m, biko gbaghara m, ọgaghị emezi ọzọ	Please forgive me it won't happen again	Father please forgive me, it will not happen again
Ọ kakwara gị mma na ị hapụrụ agwa ọjọọ gị a ma biwe ndụ ọhụrụ	I advise you turn a new *leaf* today before its late	It is better for you to leave this your bad behaviour and turn to a good way of life
…nwa gi nwoke emetala ihe igwe na ọha obodo ga-eji chụpụ gị n'obodo	Now, he's done what will makethe community to banish you	…your son has committed what the king and the community will banish you from the land
Ọ bụ Chike ka ị na-ajụ, ajụjụ adịghịrị ya. Kee nke q ma ọ ga-ekwu?	No, don't ask him. the question is not for him. what can he say?	Is it Chike that you are asking, question is not for him. What does he know to say?
Jonathan nwa m, ahụ ahụna gị ahụ. Ọ bụrụ na ọ bụ ihe gbasara ego, hapụrụ m ego, ezuru m ka emee na ya …	Don't panic Jonatha*n.I* will take care of anything that involves *money.I'm* equal to the task…	Jonathan my son, do not worry. If it is issue of money, I will take care of it…

Based on the table above, it can be discovered that in order for the researcher to render a correct subtitle in context, the dynamic equivalence of Nida (1964) is adopted as well as the strategies of Gotlieb (1992). The idea of Nida's equivalence is to maintain sameness in the meaning of the source information with its equivalence in the target language even when there is language difference thus, interlingual subtitle. The translator followed it in order to have a replica of the original information in another language such that there will be no meaning lose. In the use of equivalence, the translator tried as much as possible to use it in style and content based on the reason that an audiovisual study which is actually focused on the use of terms based on context. It does not actually look at the sameness based on having just correct utterances of the source information in the subtitled form rather; having a clear transfer based on the situation that prompted up the utterances of the actor or the source speaker and why such utterances are made hence, its mannerism. For instance, in the table above an expression goes thus: *Jonathan nwa m, ahụ ahụna gị ahụ. Ọ bụrụ na ọ bụ ihe gbasara ego, hapụrụ m ego, ezuru m ka emee na ya…* Herein, '*ahụ ahụna gị* postulates the fidgeting nature of Jonathan when he was asked to render help while in another context, there would be meaning loss. However, '*ahụ ahụna gị* 'is replaced with 'do not worry' thus, 'Jonathan my son do not worry. If it is issue of money, I can take care of it… So, the employed strategies are paraphrase and imitation. Paraphrase as used in the table states that the translators who undergo subtitle exercise resorts to its use in a situation where same syntactic way in the ST cannot be reconstructed in the target language so that the original meaning will be retained. The translator equally used imitation which is one of the strategies. This is involved in the subtitle because; it maintains the same forms, typically with names of people and places unaltered. However, since the focus is on expressions in context in this segment, it tries to capture all the rudiments of the utterances of the source speaker in order to suit the intended message set for the target audience to have.

3. TABLE THREE
SHOWING THE USE OF *CONDENSATION* IN *'AKA AZụ Dị YA'*

Igbo language/Asxsx Igbo	English Language	Correct expressions in context
… a sịrị m ka m kelee unu maka etu unu si zụọ m wee zuruo m etu a m ha…	…I thank you and my father for everything and for *traing* me till now…	I want to thank you for training me up to this stage
Amara m na o nweghi ka ị ga-agwa nne m na I bu nwa nwa ya n'afọ ọ chụpụ gị	…and I know my mother can eject you if you told her this	…I know that there is no how my mother will chase you away if you tell her that you are carrying her grandchild.
Nneọma gbaghara m, amaghị m ụma.	Please forgive me *Nneọma. It* was not *intentionally*	Nneọma please forgive me, it was not intentional
…nwatakịrị unu gụrụ gụnye na osu n'enweghi ihe ọbụla o mere unu	The person you all *term* an outcast without any offenses	A child you termed an outcast without any form of offense

Based on the above table, the translator adopted the principle of condensation in order to have the same effect of the Igbo language information in the target language English. Condensation is the subtitling strategy that results to shortening of the source information in a noticeable way.

4. TABLE FOUR
SHOWING THE USE OF *EXPANSION AND TRANSFER IN* '*AKA AZỤ DỊ YA*'

Igbo language/Asụsụ Igbo	Movie English language subtitle	Correct expressions in context
…ụdị ego e ji ebido ahịa building materials abụghị ihe mmadụ ji ọnụ akọ…em, mmadụ adịghị abụ onye a kwọ n'azụ ọ kwọrọ mmadụ ibe ya.	…the capital with which to start up the building materials business is so enormous and *byou* know a beggar does not feed a beggar	The kind of capital for starting a building material business is too much…em a beggar cannot be a benefactor

This rendition in the above table as done in the two strategies, from the Gotliebs strategy used for the study are transfer and expansion. Transfer refers to the strategy of translating the source text completely and accurately while expansion is used for the source information when it requires explication due to gaps in the involved cultures. However, the original information was actually transferred following the stylistic effect of the source language while the expansion was used to explain, thus making the information of the original to be explicit to the target audience. This is to say that more explication to the original message was used, and examples can be seen from the above table.

V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

In conclusion, it can be seen from the study that culture, language and translation seriously work together in the sense that the help of one brings about the beauty of the other. This study focused on 'subtitling as a didactic tool for relating exactness of information and cultural preservation: The Igbo language Mediascape example' by making sure that the exact expression of the source movie is rendered well in the target language based on the context it was used - this is what the study did. However, from the study, it is discovered that culture plays vital role in the lives of the target audience as it determines how they will react to the translated information especially when it involves a literary translation. It is also discovered that language is important in any translation exercise as what happens in a particular language is so much dependent on the culture and belief system of the receptor language. More so, it is discovered that in literary translations, culture is not separated from translation because, whatever the translator will render into the target language will solely be dependent on the culture that will receive it or else, the translation will not be functional in the target culture that received it. On the part of the correctness of the source information expressions, it is discovered that by the strategy of Gotlieb and Nida's translation equivalence, the researcher was able to correctly transfer the right messages aright and in context in which they are used. More so, by doing this, it is discovered that the research objective is achieved thereby attaining the signification of the study.

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Christopher C. Nwike is a native of Onitsha, Onitsha North Local Government Area of Anambra State. He was born in Ogidi, Anambra State on the 3rd of May. Christopher C. Nwike is a trained translator. Mr. Nwike belongs to the Association of Translation Studies in Nigeria. He also obtained an academic Merit Award in Honour of Aknu-ibiam As the Best Graduating Student Who Produced the Best Long Easy in Igbo Language in Linguistics Department, University of Nigeria, Nsukka. His areas of specialisation are Translation, Interpreting, Semantics and Studies in Igbo language.

Olaide Abduwaheed Oladimeji was born in Ibadan, Nigeria in 1969. He received his PhD degree in Linguistics from the University of Ibadan. He is a lecturer 1 in the department of Linguistics and Languages, Federal University, Oye-Ekiti, Nigeria. His research interests include Phonology and Syntax of African Languages. Dr. Oladimeji is a member of Linguistics Association of Nigeria (LAN).

Harriet Chinyere Obiora bagged BA in Linguistics from Ebonyi State University and MA in Linguistics from the University of Nigeria, Nsukka. Harriet specialises in Discourse Analysis and Pragmatic. She has published in Journal of language Teaching and Research,Vol 12,No.3,pp.494-500,May 2021. Mrs obiora is a member of the Linguistics Association of Nigeria. She is also a PhD student in the Department of linguistics, igbo and other Nigerian languages, University of Nigeria Nsukka.

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Analysis on the Translation of Mao Zedong's 2nd Poem in "送瘟神 'sòng wēn shén'" by Arthur Cooper in the Light of "Three Beauties" Theory*

Pingli Lei
Guangdong Baiyun University, Guangzhou 510450, Guangdong, China

Yi Liu
Guangdong Baiyun University, Guangzhou 510450, Guangdong, China

***Abstract*—Based on "Three Beauties" theory of Xu Yuanchong, this paper conducts an analysis on Arthur Cooper's translation of "送瘟神"(2nd poem) from three aspects: the beauty of sense, sound and form, finding that, because of his lack of empathy for the original poem, Cooper fails to convey the connotation of the original poem, the rhythm and the form of the translated poem do not match Chinese classical poetry, with three beauties having not been achieved. Thus, the author proposes that, in order to better spread the culture of Chinese classical poetry and convey China's core spirit to the world, China should focus on cultivating the domestic talents who have a deep understanding about Chinese culture, who are proficient not only in Chinese classical poetry, but also in classical poetry translation.**

***Index Terms*—"Three Beauties" theory, "Song When Shen(2nd poem)" , Arthur Cooper, English translation of Chinese classical poetry**

I. Introduction

China has a long history in poetry creation, however, the research on poetry translation started very late in China Even in the Tang and Song Dynasties, when poetry writing was popular and when culture was open, there did not appear any relevant translation researches.

The deficiency persisted until China's modern history. Only then did scholars gradually pay attention to the topic of poetry translation. In 1925, the famous writer and translator Xu Zhimo put forward the theory of "combining form and spirit" in his paper "An Issue about Poetry Translation", arguing that "the greatest difficulty for translation lies in the translation of poetry, because the difficulty of translating poetry is not only in its 形 (x ńg, meaning form), but also in its 神. "(Here 神 is an abstract concept in traditional Chinese literature and aesthetics, which can be roughly understood us "spirit".) He insisted that "the perfect combination of 形 and 神 is the life of poetry translation" (Liu Xiaoyun, 2006, p. 82). In 1944, another Chinese scholar Zhu Ziqing(1988), while talking about the translatability of poetry in his article "Translation of Poetry", pointed out that a good poetry translation shall have "the ability to create" and "can give readers some new things, new artistic conception and language sense." (p.371). In this sense, he suggested that a translated poem should be a new poem.

In the middle of the 20th century, Wang Zuoliang(1992), brought about the ideas of "translating poetry into poetry and translating poetry by poets", who claimed that "it is only poets who can grasp the poems well" (p.19), because he believed that only poets can grasp the requirements of the original poem, deeply understand the poetic style of the target language, adjust the target language according to the culture of the target language, and play the role of mutual communication between two cultures and literatures. He also held that language is essentially a part of culture, and the study of translation should be conducted by means of connecting the text with the relevant social and cultural background. (Wu Wen'an, 2013, p. 32)

Although the above mentioned theories have expounded the principles of poetry translation from different perspectives, they were not specifically concerned with the translations of Chinese classical poetry since Xu Zhimo and Zhu Ziqing. As the representatives of the new culture movement after the May 4th movement, they merely focused on the study of new style poetry, and Wang Zuoliang was mainly engaged in the study of English classical literature, especially in English poetry's translation into Chinese.

Xu Yuanchong (1921-), a famous translator and translation theorist in China, based on the claim of Lu Xun(1973),

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who originally argued that "Chinese characters have the beauty of sense to move human hearts, the beauty of sound to attract the ears and the beauty of form to catch the eyes" (p. 2), together with his own translation experience for many years, summarized and refined a theory of "Three Beauties" in poetry translation. The so-called "Three Beauties" refer to "the beauties of sense, sound and form", which requires that the translated poetry should achieve the same artistic conception and sound as the source language, and moreover, the target poems should have a form similar to the original. That is to say, "the translated poem should be as touching as the original poem, which is the beauty of sense; the rhythm should be as ear-pleasing as the original poem, which is the beauty of sound, and the form of the original poem (such as length, antithesis, etc.) should be kept as much as possible, which is the beauty of form. "(Xu Yuanchong, 2016, p. 77)

Xu Yuanchong's theory of "Three Beauties" has a strong practical guidance for literary translation, especially for poetry translation, which, compared with many previous theories, sets more specific standards and more realistic principles for poetry translation.

II. Arthur Cooper and His Works

Arthur Cooper (1916-1988), a British linguist and translator, did not receive a formal education in the Chinese language and Chinese-English translation. However, his experience in information decoding in Hong Kong and Japan during World War II, gave him a fine understanding of Chinese language. And, in his later years, he had a deep interest in Chinese language and culture, on which he did a considerable research. He wrote a number of influential works, such as "The Creation of the Chinese Script"(1978), "The Deep Woods' Business: Uncollected Translations of Arthur Cooper"(1990), etc.. Moreover, he is recognized as the best translator following Arthur Waley by the British translation circle (Li Yiyin, 1993, p.56). His translation of elected poems of Li Bai and Du Fu has been reprinted many times since its first edition in 1973. And in his book "The Other Greek" (by this title he deems that Chinese was as mysterious as Greek), Cooper analyzed Chinese characters in detail. He acknowledged Mao Zedong and his poems, so that in this book, he specially involved Mao's poems and translated the second verse of the two poems "送瘟神 'sòng wēn shén'". (2018, p. 345)

III. Mao Zedong and His Poems

Mao Zedong (December 26, 1893-September 9, 1976), although he lived in the vernacular era after the May 4th movement, created more than 100 poems in the classical style. His poems closely correlate with the historical reality, showing Chinese revolution and construction.

The poem "送瘟神'sòng wēn shén'" show the achievement of eliminating schistosomiasis in 1958, just 9 years after the founding of new China.

Schistosomiasis, commonly known as "big belly disease" or "blood-sucking parasite", was a major infectious and parasitic disease that seriously endangered people's health. It had been prevalent in China for more than 2000 years. Before the founding of new China in 1949, schistosomiasis was prevalent in 350 counties of 12 provinces and cities in the south of the Yangtze River, with 10 million patients and more than 100 million people under threat of infection, accounting for a quarter of the total population at that time. The serious situation has been described in the first verse of the two poems: "千村薜荔人遗矢，万户萧疏鬼唱歌 'qiān cūn bì lì rén y íshǐ, wàn hù xiāo shū guǐ chàng gē'(Hundreds of hamlets saw men waste where weeds o'ergrew; Thousands of dreary homes heard vampires sing their fill.)(Xu Yuanchong, 2006, p. 92)". After liberation, the government attached great importance to the prevention and control of schistosomiasis. In the winter of 1955, Mao Zedong ordered that "schistosomiasis should be eliminated within a SHORTEST time".

Through the efforts of the party and the government, remarkable results had been achieved. People in Yujiang County, the epidemic area, with the slogan of "half a year to prepare, one year to fight, and half a year to clean up", had made great efforts to fight against this epidemic. Hence, on June 30, 1958 after he learned from The People's Daily that schistosomiasis had been eliminated in Yujiang County, Mao wrote these two verses of "送瘟神 'sòng wēn shén'", the reason for which was like these: "When I read The People's Daily of June 30, 1958 that schitosomiasis had been wiped out in Yujiang County, thoughts thronged my mind and I could not sleep. In the warm morning breeze next day, as sunlight falls on my window, I look towards the distance southern sky and in my happiness pen the following lines."(Xu Yunanchong, 2015, p. 87)

However, due to different values and ideologies, the western world generally regards Mao Zedong as an autocrat and dictator, and deliberately ignores his artistic achievements as a litterateur, contributing to inadequate research on his literary works. The western world's understanding about Mao Zedong's poems is quite limited. Western translators have not pitched sufficient enthusiasm on the translations for Mao Zedong's poems, so, even if there are a few translations, the quality of them is not satisfying.

IV. The Analysis on Cooper's Translations of the Second Verse of "送瘟神'sòng wēn shén'"

Between the two verses of "送瘟神 'sòng wēn shén'", the first describes the old society, when schistosomiasis was rampant and the population in the epidemic area was suffering, desolating vast rural areas; the second describes the new society, creating a moving scenery how the people were conquering the nature, managing mountains and rivers, and filling trenches to eliminate oncomelania(the intermediate host of schistosome). However, it is due to that Arthur Cooper has only translated the second poem that only the second one is analyzed below.

The original verse is as follows:

送瘟神（其二）
sòng wēn shén (q í èr)
春风杨柳万千条，
chūn fēng yáng liǔ wàn qiān tiáo
六亿神州尽舜尧。
liù yì shén zhōu jìn shùn yáo
红雨随心翻作浪，
hóng yǔ suí xīn fān zuò làng
青山着意化为桥。
qīng shān zhuó yì huà wéi qiáo
天连五岭银锄落，
tiān lián wǔ lǐng yín chú là
地动三河铁臂摇。
de dòng sān hé tiě b ì y áo
借问瘟君欲何往，
jiè wèn wēn jūn yù hé wǎng
纸船明烛照天烧。
zhǐ chuán míng zhú zhào tiān shāo

This is a seven-character regulated poem. As a type of Chinese classical poetry, a seven-character regulated poem contains strict regulations in length, rhyme, tone and antithesis. In the book “汉语诗学律‘hàn yǔ shī lǜ xué’ (Chinese Poetics)”, the scholar Wang Li summed up four characteristics of seven-charactered regulated poetry: First, fixed length: eight lines per poem, seven characters per line, totally 56 Chinese characters. In the poem, the first and second lines are combined to be named as the “head couplet”, the third and fourth lines altogether make a “chin couplet”, the fifth and sixth sentences are called “neck couplet”, and the seventh and eighth sentences “tail couplet”. Second, antitheses: Although there are no compulsory antitheses in the first couplet and the last couplet, the chin couplet and the neck couplet are bound to contain antitheses. Third, the balance of the tones: In Chinese language, there are four tones, first and second tones making the level tone, named as “平‘píng’”, and third and fourth tones making the relaxed tone(as per Arthur Cooper, 2018, p.54), named as “仄‘zè’”), that is, two neighboring syllables (two characters) must be kept in either level tone or relaxed one, and the tones are alternate in arrangement.(Wang Li, 1979, p. 449) Fourth, the strict rhymes: In the whole poem, there must be four or five rhymes, with the last characters in the even-numbered are strictly rhymed, namely, the fourth, sixth and eighth lines should be rhymed with the same vowels of a Chinese syllable. Generally speaking, the Chinese characters at the end of each above line should keep the identical rhyme, without any change. (Wang Li, 1979, p. 44)

This paper analyzes the translation of the second verse in the poems “送瘟神 ‘sòng wēn shén’” by Arthur Cooper, and focuses on the successes and failures in his translation based on “Three Beauties Theory” proposed by Xu Yuanchong.

Translation of Cooper
Farewell to the God of Plagues
Spring winds move willow wans, in tens of millions;
Six hundred million we shall be Sage-Kings!
Our red rain to the mind translates as torrents,
Green hilltops are at will turned into bridge.
So silver spades, sink skyscraping Five Ranges.
While iron arms sway earthquaking Three Rivers.
Tell us please, Prince of Plagues, your choice of journey?
Candles and paper boats blaze the skies for you!

A. Beauty in Sense

The basis of “sense beauty” is “similarity of meaning”. The mission of translation is to convey the artistic conception of the original in another language. This kind of translation is not a purely technical language transformation, but requires that the translator really understand the original, deeply grasp the spirit of the original, find resonance in his own thoughts, emotions and life experience with those in the work that he deals with, and then use the literary language suitable for the style of the original to reproduce the content and vision of the original. “The pursuit of iconicity is to convey the content of the original text, without wrong translation, omission and over translation”. (Xu Yuanchong, 1984, p. 52) When there is a contradiction between “similarity of sense” and “beauty of sense”, we should seek the latter instead of the former, because “similarity of sense is only a surface structure, but beauty of sense a deep structure”. (Xu Yuanchong, 1984, p. 64).

As for the title of the poem, the emotions expressed in their translations are slightly different. Cooper translated it as “Farewell to the God of Plaques” and in his book “The Other Greek”, he used the method of explaining the original of Chinese words, equating “送‘sòng’” within this poem as “送别‘sòng bié’” with that in the past Chinese farewell poems (2018:346), such as “于易水送人一绝 ‘yú yì shuǐ sòng rén yī jué’”(Farewell to a Friend in Yishui, by Tang Dynasty poet Luo Binwang (626? -687?)), “晓出净慈寺送林子方 ‘xiǎo chū jìng cí sì sòng lín zǐ fāng’”(Seeing Lin Zifang off Jingci Temple at Dawn, by Yang Wanli (1127-1206)), a poet in Song Dynasty). However, he did not realize that the ones who were seen off in these poems were all close relatives and friends of the poets, with the word “送” expressing the feeling of reluctance to part, while in this poem, “送” is to show self-confidence and heroism of Mao. Besides, Cooper understood the expression “瘟神” as a god in Chinese mythology who was in charge of the plague department, which, he thought, could be translated into “God of Plaques” or “Prince of Plaques”(2018:346), which was a misunderstanding about Chinese culture, because in Chinese legend, “瘟神” is actually the devil spreading the plague, and Mao referred schistosomiasis as “瘟神” to show his deep-rooted hatred to this illness. Therefore, Cooper’s translation of the title seems to be too euphemistic and insufficient, which does not express the people’s ambition to drive away schistosomiasis.

Xu Yuanchong (2016) believes that “Chinese poetry features its concise form and intensive intention.” Moreover, “from the literal point of view, it is the combination of words; from the artistic conception, it is the combination of images. In Chinese classical poetry, images can be combined”(p. 86). However, English images are determined by logical relations. About the head couplet “春风杨柳万千条，六亿神州尽舜尧”, Cooper(2018) correctly explains the images of spring breeze and willow in Chinese classical poetry, that is, a spring full of vigor and vitality(p.356). Admirable to say, in the translation for “春风杨柳万千条”, Cooper, as a foreigner, understanding about the scattered style of Chinese poetry, adds the word “move” in his targeted line, producing “The vernal wind awakens myriads of willows”. However, he fails to understand that this line was actually praising the spirit of the people and showing their new spirit. Therefore, his word “move” is not as vivid, because it literally talks about the spring wind blowing thousands of willows, but has not made willows alive, not reproducing a vivid scenery that all things were awaken and reviving like the original poem. The expression of “尽舜尧” in the line “六亿神州尽舜尧 ” comes from a Chinese ancient philosopher, Mencius, who said “人皆可以为舜尧 ‘rén jiē kě yǐ wéi shùn yáo’”(“everyone can be as good as Shun and Yao”) (1987:281). According to Cooper, here “舜尧” refers to the two wise emperors in the far ancient Chinese history(p. 357), which, therefore, is translated by him into “Sage-Kings”. Thus, his translation merely delivers the declarative sense of “舜尧”, and fails to express its revelatory sense. When talking about the senses of declaration and revelation, Yuan Xingpei(1998), the Chinese linguist, once argued: “the sense of declaration is clear and apparent, without ambiguity; whereas, an expression may contain a revelation sense that is slightly different from its declaration and that is challenging for the readers to understand...”(p. 6) The declarative sense is equal to the literal meaning, while the revelatory sense is often the extended meaning implied within the core culture, which requires readers to explore based on the context. Xu Yuanchong(2006) believes that Chinese classical poetry often has revelatory senses, here the revelatory sense of “舜尧” overweighs its declaration, because Mao Zedong(1991) holds the belief that “It is the people, only the people, who are the driving force to create world history”. (p. 1031). It was Mao Zedong’s consistent thought that the people are the creators of history and the whole world, which can be evidenced by many of his other poems. In “七律 到韶山 ‘qī lǜ ·dào sháo shān’”(Seven Regulated Poem-Shaoshan), Mao(1963) described the farmers who came back late after finishing work as “遍地英雄下夕阳 ‘biàn dì yīng xióng xià xī yáng’”(Here and there heroes come home at dusk as smokes rise)(Xu Yuanchong, 2006, p. 98). Therefore, it can be said that Cooper’s “Sage-kings” is not as close to the original poem. In addition, Cooper uses the first person to translate this line, which expresses a self-praise and boast. However, actually Mao Zedong did not mean to praise himself, but to praise the 600 million people of his China.

In the chin couplet “红雨随心翻作浪，青山着意化为桥”, “红雨 ‘‘hóng yǔ’” refers to the falling flowers, which comes from a line of Li He(790-816), a famous poet in the Tang Dynasty, “况是青春日将暮，桃花乱落如红雨 ‘kuàng shì qīng chūn rì jiāng mù，táo huā luàn luò rú hóng yǔ’”(when the spring day is getting late, the peach blossom falls like the red rain.). Traditionally, mourning for spring and autumn was common for ancient Chinese poets, and fallen followers were a frequent metaphor of mourning for spring. There are many examples, such as in a piece by Zhou Duanchen’s(a poet in Song Dynasty) “流水落花，夕阳芳草，此恨年年相触 ‘liú shuǐ luò huā, xī yáng fāng cǎo, cǐ hèn nián nián xiàng chù'" (flowing water and falling flowers, setting sun and fragrant grass, this hatred touches each other year after year),, and we see it also in a poem by Bai Juyi(772-846): "落花不语空辞树，流水无情自入池。'luò huā bú yǔ kōng cí shù, liú shuǐ wú qíng zì rù chí'"(Falling flowers don't speak, empty trees, flowing water mercilessly comes into the pool), and Lin Daiyu (the heroine in the Chinese classical novel "红楼梦 'hóng lóu mèng'"(Dream of Red Mansions)) "葬花吟 'zàng huā yín'" (Funeral Song of Fallen Flowers). Cooper Arthur(2018) keeps this cognition. In his book, he explains that "Spring Breeze, willow catkins, and falling peach blossoms are so often associated that the meaning of 'red rain' in the next verse is well warned in advance; even for the reader who does not know the poetic allusion."(p. 356), by which he thinks, it is a realistic description. However, as introduced previously, it was in July that Mao Zedong wrote this, so it is imaginary instead of realistic, for it is a common sense that flowers should not fall in July. It was Mao Zedong's technique to cite the image-rich language of the ancient poems, but as a revolutionary poet, he, frequently and unexpectedly uses the imagery differently from that of the ancient poets, and he turned individual sorrow into fighting spirit. Consider this comparisons: Cao Cao(155-220, a famous militarist, statesman and poet in the Three Kingdoms period), uttered the lament of "萧瑟秋风，洪波涌起 'xiāo sè qiū fēng, hóng bō yǒng qǐ '"(bleak autumn wind, surging waves), Mao wrote "萧瑟秋风今又是，换了人间。 'xiāo sè qiū fēng jīn yòu shì, huàn le rén jiān'" (The autumn wind is blowing now as bleak as then, but changed is the world of men). (Xu Yuanchong, 2006, p. 76) And in his poems, the plum blossom of being "寂寞无主 'jì mò wú zhǔ'"(lonely and ownerless) in Lu You's poem (1125-1210, a famous poet during the Song Dynasty) has become the flower "Though sweet and fair, with other flowers she won't rival, but only heralds spring's arrival."(Xu Yuanchong, 2006, p. 114) (Mao Zedong and Lu You each wrote a poem by the name "卜算子 咏梅 'bǔ suàn zǐ ·yǒng méi'"(Ode to the Plum Blossom Tune: "Song of Divination")) Similarly, in this poem, "红雨", "翻作浪" and "青山", "化为桥" vividly depict the then China bustling with activity by the heroic people, people who were fearless, revolutionary, romantic yet realistic, who were fighting against the harsh natural environment, by transforming mountains and rivers and by building bridges. And Cooper's "torrents" for "浪'làng'" is too straightforward, because Mao intends to say that even if "红雨" falls, it can make the land richer, which gives an effective resonance with the latter sentence, "青山着意化为桥". For the word "青山", Cooper uses "green hills", whose translation lacks momentum.

About the pair of lines in the neck couplet, namely, "天连五岭银锄落，地动三河铁臂摇", according to Cooper, "normal Chinese order is inverted to object-verb-subject", and his understanding is that "the 'skyscraping Five Ranges' and the 'earthquaking Three Rivers' are made the 'logical subjects' and the syntax might be translated as: 'The skyscraping Five Ranges silver spades will sin them.' , and so on." (p. 359) With regard to the two concepts of "五岭" and "三河" mentioned in this couplet, Cooper believes that the former refers to the general name of Guangdong and Guangxi mountainous areas, and that the latter to the Yellow River, Huaihe River and Luohe River in China. These three rivers were "the birthplaces of Chinese civilization." however, they have caused "the destruction in Chinese history". Therefore, he literally understands the word "地动" as "land moving, a term for an earthquake". (p. 359) It is true that "五岭" originally referred to the five mountains between Hunan, Guangdong and Guangxi, which are from west to east Yuecheng Mountain, Dupang Mountain, Mengzhu Mountain, Qitian Mountain and Dayu Mountain. And there are also different versions regarding "三河 'sān hé'" in Chinese historical documents. In the Han Dynasty, "三河" included Hanei, Hedong and Henan, namely, the three counties in Luoyang City, Henan Province to the north and south of the Yellow River. "史记 ·货殖列传 'shǐ jì ·huò zhí liè chuán'(Historical Record· the Legend of Huozhi)" reads: "（爰剑）与劓女遇于野……遂俱亡入三河间 '(yuán jiàn) yǔ yì nǚ yù yú yě ……suí jù wáng rù sān hé jiān '(Yuanjian met a woman without nose... they fell in Sanhe and died)". Now "三河" generally refers to three rivers: Yellow River, Huai River and Luo River. In this poem, "五岭" and "三河" are just two general terms for the former meanders in the south of China, and the latter winds in the north. Therefore, with these two geographical concepts, the poet uses the rhetorical device of synecdoche to refer to the whole country. And in this couplet, Mao Zedong also uses the rhetoric skills of antithesis and exaggeration to outline the spirit of the whole nation that were fighting against the rush nature. Moreover, this couplet, with more specific description, is to respond to the statement in the head couplet "六亿神州尽舜尧", answering why the people can be called "舜尧". In Cooper's translation, the first letters of the two words "Five Ranges" and "Three Rivers" are capitalized, which means that he understands the two expressions "五岭" and "三河" as two proper nouns, referring to the specific places, but his translation is inconsistent with the artistic conception and emotion that the poet intends to convey. And "银锄 'yín chú'" and "铁臂 'tiě bì' in Mao's poem are also rhetorical devices of synecdoche, which are used to refer to various tools and machines used by the laboring people. Cooper translates these two lines "天连五岭银锄落，地动三河铁臂摇" into "And silver spades sink sky-scraping Five Ranges//While iron arms sway earthquaking Three Rivers." which is a misdelivery for the meaning of the original poem, because they express the poet's praise to the heroism of laboring people and wrote about the great potential of the people who are determined to change the world, so they should be translated into "On five sky-scraping Ridges fell our mattocks silver-bright; O'er the land with three streams our iron arms hold sway"(Xu Yuanchong, p. 1994).

As for the tail couplet "借问瘟君欲何往，纸船明烛照天烧", Cooper explains that "借问, literally 'to borrow a question', is a polite and diffident way of 'May I enquire...'"(p. 360). However, the poet is never "diffident", because he has seen the victory, and the people have eliminated schistosomiasis through united efforts. Therefore, in this couplet, he has actually changed his perspective: he is now standing in the position of the public, expressing the people's contempt for all dangers, to show their daring, firm belief and motivation to fight and win. Therefore, for the sentence "借问瘟君欲何往", Cooper's translation "Tell me please, Prince of plaques, Your choice of journey?" seems too euphemistic. Through the efforts of the people, the plague was finally driven away. As for the last line "纸船明烛照天烧", Cooper's "Candles and paper boats blaze the sky for you!" is far from clear for expressing the meaning: Why to burn candles and light the sky with paper boats? The original poem means that people light up the sky road for the plague to drive it away and let it escape! It should be noted that the word "瘟君 'wēn jun'" is used here has the same reference as "瘟神 'wēn shén'" in the title, while Cooper uses two different appellations, "god of plagues" and "prince of plagues", making the readers confused.

B. Beauty in Sound

Xu Yuanchong(1984) believes that, when translating the poem, the beauty of the original poem should be preserved as far as possible. And the beauty of sound refers to the beauty in "melody and rhyme, which should be read smoothly and sound good." (p. 65). In his opinion, poetry translation must embody rhyme and rhythm. "If the rhyme which is used in the original poem has not been used in the translation, then the 'image, artistic conception and mood' of the original poem can not be transplanted in any case, because the content and form of the poem are inseparable." (p. 58).

The last characters in the second, fourth, sixth and eighth lines in a seven-character regulated poem must be rhymed. The original poem uses a rhyme, namely "ao" illustrated in "条'tiáo' ", "尧'yáo'", "桥'qiáo'", "摇 'yáo'" and "烧 'shāo'". It is extremely difficult to translate poems with such strict requirements of rhyme. Though the rhymes in the first part of Cooper's translation are fine, such as "miles", "kings" and "torrents", "bridge" and "ranges", he fails to keep the rhyme, for which "rivers", "journey" and "you" are examples. There are many alliterations in Cooper's translation, such as "will wands", "red rain", "silver spades", "sink sky scraping", "Prince of plagues", "boats blaze", which shows his advantage as a target language translator.

C. Beauty in Form

Beauty of form mainly involves the "length" and "symmetry" of translated poems. "It's better to create a 'similarity in form', or at least an approximate similarity of form" (Xu Yuanchong, 1984, p. 74). As has been explained previously, the original poem is a seven character regulated verse, which has relatively strict requirements, especially in the chin couplet and neck couplet, which require antitheses, that is, "红雨随心翻作浪，青山着意化为桥" and "天连五岭银锄落，地动三河铁臂摇". In these two couplets, "红雨 'hóng yǔ'" vs. "青山 'qīng shān'", "随心 'suí xīn'" vs. "着意 'zhuó yì'", "翻作 'fān zuò'" vs. "化为 'huà wéi'", "浪 'làng'" vs. "桥 'qiáo'", "天连 'tiān lián'" vs. "地动 'dì dòng'", "五岭 'wǔ lǐng'" vs. "三河 'sān hé'", "银锄 'yín chú'" vs. "铁臂 'tiě bì'" and "落 'luò'" vs. "摇 'yáo'", all are perfectly matched in meanings and types of speech. We hardly see the form beauty in Cooper's translation. For the chin couplet "红雨随心翻作浪，青山着意化为桥", Cooper translates the upper line into 9 words and the lower line into 8 words, and the word "our" that he adds in front of "红雨 'hóng yǔ'" is unnecessary. In the following two lines, "天连五岭银锄落，地动三河铁臂摇", Cooper adds two conjunctions "so", "and", which, reduces the rhythm of the poem a lot.

V. Conclusion

To conclude, though he has a certain understanding and cognition of Chinese classical poetry culture, as a British translator, Arthur Cooper, he fails to truly understand Mao Zedong's feelings as a revolutionist and Chinese people's leader because of cultural differences and lack of empathy, Therefore, Cooper's translation is unsatisfactory measured by the beauties of sense, sound and form.

The understanding of poetry requires not only rich imagination, but also empathy. Poetry translation requires not only concise translation skills, but also profound literary heritage, high appreciation ability and sensitivity, extensive knowledge reserve and rich social experience. If a translator lacks empathy for the author of the original poem, even if he has a certain understanding of Chinese, he can not fully understand the inner meaning of the poem and convey the charm of the original poem in the translated poem. Therefore, the author suggests that in order to make Chinese culture go global, especially the Chinese classical poetry culture, China should train a group of professionals who really understand Chinese classical poetry and the art of translation, so as to realize Mr. Xu Yuanchong's long cherished wish of "making the beauty of China the beauty of the world"(2006, p. 72).

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Pingli Lei was born in Anlu, Hubei Province, China in 1978. She received her master degree in English Linguistics and Literature from Sun Yet-sun University in 2009. She is currently a lecturer in the Faculty of Foreign Languages, Guangdong Baiyun University.

Yi Liu was born in Bijie, Guizhou Province, China in 1977. He received his Master degree in English Language and Literature from Sichuan International Studies University in 2010. He is currently a lecturer in the Faculty of International Programs, Guangdong Baiyun University.

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Chinese Emotional Two-character Word Processing in Sentence Reading*

Jiaming Fang
School of Foreign Language, Dalian University of Technology, China

Degao Li
College of Chinese Language and Literature, Qufu Normal University, China

Shuo Cao
School of Foreign Language, Dalian University of Technology, China

***Abstract*—Compared to the processing of the words alone, the processing of Chinese two-character words in sentences will be closer to a natural scenario, and the understanding of the sentence will be influenced by both linguistic contexts and the non-linguistic contexts. This study, in a moving-window self-paced word-by-word sentence reading task, experimentally explored the processing of Chinese sentences with emotional two-character words using reversible words and reaction time as materials and index respectively. The experimental results showed that emotional words may facilitate the processing of its following two words; there might exist subsequent processing in the third word behind the emotional word; there might exist lexical access and whole-word access, processing of morpheme positioned information in the processing of Chinese two-character words in sentence reading; the processing of Chinese two-character words may be similar with that of word alone. This study expands the research of Chinese emotional two-character words processing.**

***Index Terms*—emotion, affective sentence, Chinese two-character word, reversible word**

I. Introduction

Researches on the processing of Chinese two-character words can further study the structure of Chinese mental dictionaries (Peng, Li & Liu, 1994), and there have been many researches about it. However, concerning the structure of the access representation of Chinese two-character words, there are different views. And there are less studies on the structure of the access representation of Chinese emotional two-character words, which are closely related with human life. This study researched the processing of Chinese emotional two-character words in sentence reading context.

A. *Chinese Two-character Words*

According to Sandra (1994), multi-morpheme words refer to words that can be decomposed into two or more morphemes in word formation. The two-character word refers to a word that can be decomposed into two morphemes in word formation. According to Caramazza, Hillis, Rapp and Romani (1990), there were currently three main points of view on the processing of multi-morpheme words: the view of whole word accessibility, the view of morpheme accessibility and the view of mixed accessibility. The view of whole-word accessibility held that multi-morpheme words were represented in the whole-word form in mental dictionaries, with no separate morpheme representation. This type of lexical process involved directly activating the corresponding word representations by stimulus input. The view of morpheme accessibility believed that multi-morpheme words were represented by decomposed morphemes in mental dictionaries. For recognition, the input of the whole word was first decomposed into morpheme units before the processing was completed by the accessibility of morpheme representation. In comparison, the view of mixed access claimed that both morphemes and whole words may be units in the representation of accessibility. Peng, Ding and Wang (1999) mentioned that the processing of morpheme units played a certain role in processing, but it was not a necessary stage for lexical processing. They pointed out that the access to familiar words was achieved through whole words while the access to unfamiliar words was achieved through decomposed morphemes.

For the processing of multi-morpheme words, many studies have been carried out. For example: Bian, Cui and Yan (2010) claimed that if recognized in sentence reading, words would be processed in a more natural reading scenario. And they also found evidence in two experiments on multi-morpheme morphological representation to support the view of morpheme access. Peng et al. (1999) suggested that for lexical processing, there was indeed an activation of morpheme units, but this was not a necessary stage for lexical processing. The lexical access and the whole-word access had different functions in the processing. The lexical access mainly played the role of activation, while the whole-word

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access performed fine processing of words. Peng, Li and Liu (1994), by using the repeated activation paradigm, demonstrated the research model of Chinese compound words and simple words. The experimental results supported the hypothesis of morpheme storage.

Studies on the processing of Chinese two-character words are generally carried out by comparing with reversible words. Ding and Peng (2006) defined reversible word as a special form of Chinese word formation, and its structural form is AB-BA (such as "工人 worker", "人工 manual"). Peng et al. (1999) presented that Chinese reversible words are characterized by two characters that make up a two-character word which are identical in shape and pronunciation, but oppositely positioned, thus causing a change in the meaning of the morpheme or the whole word. Based on the characteristics of Chinese reversible words, using reversible words as research materials can control the morpheme frequency, word frequency, stroke number and parts of speech, and facilitate the exploration of the role and relationship between morphemes and whole-words in word processing. Shi et al. (2016) suggested that cognitive conflict would cause the state of tension and imbalance, which may show additional factor in processing of reversible words. This study, following this research line, used reversible words to explore the processing of emotional words in sentences.

A wide range of studies on word processing in sentence reading context were also conducted. Li (2000) argued that compared with the word alone, if placed in a sentence, the processing of the word will be fundamentally changed due to the rapidly emerging linguistic context. In this kind of language processing, the promotion effect of higher-level processing on lower-level processing or previous processing on subsequent processing was reflected in the contextual effect. As can be seen, in the research of the processing of multi-morpheme words in sentence reading, the context is a significant factor.

B. Sentence Reading and Emotional Context

Zhao (2009) pointed out that in sentence reading, the factors that influence lexical processing can be divided into two categories: linguistic context factors and non-linguistic context factors.

Regarding these two factors, there were a lot of discussions. For example, according to Zhu (1991), there were two distinct views on the stage in which context information exerted an influence on the processing of lexical processing. "Before the processing", that is, context information played a role in the processing before the extraction of mental lexicons completed, thereby facilitating the completion of these processes; the other was "after the processing", that is, context information played a role after the extraction of mental lexicons was completed, and it would only further select and refine the word information before being integrated into the meaning of the sentence. Moreover, Zhu (ibid.) also studied the contextual effect of Chinese sentence on lexical processing. The results of the study indicated that the type of sentence context, the intensity of the context's restriction on the target word, the word frequency of the target word and the number of strokes all had a significant effect on lexical processing; Gong (2009), exploring the effects of emotional activation in the reading of Chinese sentences using rapid emotional activation paradigm, confirmed that there was indeed an activation effect of emotions which was shown by a shorter fixation time. Zhang and Li (2005), expounded their research on the emotional initiation effect by evaluating the classification task with color pictures as the initial stimulus and Chinese two-character words as the target stimulus. The results confirmed that there was still a significant emotional activation effect when the activation and target stimuli were different in terms of material type. Kintsch and Mross (1985) followed the classical language processing model believing that the processing of newly emerging words in sentence understanding required three stages: lexical access, lexical selection, and lexical integration, and more importantly, lexical processing needed to reach the stage of word integration before establishing a unified meaning of sentences. As Wang et al. (2007) mentioned that the processing of a single word may be more biased toward the processing of words and less emotionally processed. This experiment explored the processing of Chinese two-character words in sentences reading in order to balance the processing of word and emotion.

Based on the above, two questions need to be further explored: (1) In what ways do emotional words in sentences influence sentence comprehension? (2) with which path is the processing of Chinese two-character words in sentence reading achieved? Morpheme access or whole-word access? To answer these two questions, this study used a behavior experiment, with a moving-window self-paced word-by-word sentence reading task. For the experiment, there are two hypotheses: (1) the participants have a stronger reaction to emotional words; (2) the processing of Chinese two-character words in sentence reading includes morpheme access as well as the whole-word access.

II. Methodology

To identify the processing mechanism of Chinese emotional two-character words in sentence reading in a contrastive manner, sentences without emotional words and reversible words such as "医生检查了他的眼白，发现上面布满了红血丝(The doctor examined the whites of his eyes and found that they were covered with red blood)" were employed. The experiment used a moving-window self-paced word-by-word sentence reading task. A 2 (words, reversible words) × 2 (emotional words, non-emotional words) within-subject experiment was designed. E-prime 3.0 was used to present stimuli and record the participants' key-press reactions.

A. Participants

Ninety six（male=36; female=60; mean age=19.5）undergraduates from the Translation Department of Qufu Normal

University participated in this experiment. They were divided into 8 groups, with 12 in each group. Their eye sights or corrected eye sights were within the normal range, and no one had dyslexia. After the experiment, each participant received 20 yuan as a reward.

B. Materials

In the experiment, seventeen pairs of Chinese words were selected, as shown in Table1.

The word frequency, character frequency, and strokes of these Chinese reversible words were all controlled. Three of 17 pairs were emotional words, namely “爱心(love), 心爱(beloved)”, “醉心(obsessed), 心醉(enchanted)”, “虚心(modest), 心虚(afraid of being found out)”. For the selection of the Chinese emotional words used in the experiment, this study referred to the study by Wang et al. (2007), and the words used in this experiment were emotional words—describing the state of emotion directly, instead of affective words—judging the emotional colors through the meaning of words. Among all the Chinese reversible words used in this experiment, there was a pair of Chinese reversible words with different pronunciations, “长生(chang sheng)” and “生长(sheng zhang)”. The difference in pronunciation of a pair of Chinese reversible words is due to the polyphonic characters in Chinese. As for the issue whether the different pronunciations produced after this word order was reversed during the reading of the sentences had additional impact, this experiment did not take corresponding measures. This research retained this pair of words and believed it would not affect the result because the sentences containing such situations accounted for a very small proportion (only 0.033%) of the total experimental sentences.

TABLE 1
EXPERIMENTAL MATERIAL

number	word	reversible word
1	膏药(medicinal paste)	药膏(ointment)
2	头骨(skull)	骨头(bone)
3	皮肉(skin and flesh)	肉皮(pork skin)
4	长生(long life)	生长(grow up)
5	口气(tone)	气口(gas port)
6	口疮(aphthous stomatitis)	疮口(sore-opening)
7	脉动(pulsating)	动脉(artery)
8	国民(national)	民国(the Republic of China)
9	子弟(children)	弟子(disciple)
10	民居(dwellings)	居民(inhabitant)
11	药方(prescription)	方药(the Chinese medicine)
12	眼白(the white of the eye)	白眼(supercilious look)
13	酒药(Chinese yeast)	药酒(medicinal liquor)
14	近亲(close relative)	亲近(be on intimate terms with)
15	爱心(love)	心爱(beloved)
16	醉心(obsessed)	心醉(enchanted)
17	虚心(modest)	心虚(afraid of being found out)

These 17 pairs of Chinese reversible words formed a total of 60 Chinese sentences, with the sentence length being basically the same. Among the sentences used in the experiment, the target words in 42 sentences (70% of the total experimental sentences) were at the end of the first half of the sentence. Zhong et al. (2012) pointed out that in the processing of sentence reading comprehension, readers related an incoming Chinese two-character sentence-end word to the preceding input about 150ms after its presentation before establishing the sentence meaning. Just and Carpenter (1980) presented that the end of the clause was where semantic integration of words within the clause and integration with prior discourse was made. The structure of the sentence used in this experiment did not exclude the following case: the establishment of sentence meaning at the end of the sentence caused the reaction time of the target word being longer. Simon and Sascha (2018) reported that syntactic boundaries may trigger the allocation of additional attention resources, thus extending the reading time and possibly leading to rereading of earlier parts of the text. However, this experiment aimed to make different types of horizontal comparisons for each word. Therefore, the structure of the experimental sentence will not affect the experimental results.

Fifteen college students rated the experimental and filling sentences for readability (1 was for the lowest readability, and 7 for the highest readability). The retained sentences were all rated higher than 5 (see Appendix).

Li et al. (2015) mentioned that the position and way of showing emotional words on the computer screen will influence the processing of emotional words. In this experiment, all Chinese two-character words were presented in the center of the computer display, with the same font, color, and size on the same background, effectively avoiding the possible influence of the presentation position and presentation method.

C. Experimental Procedure

After the participants entered the laboratory and sat down, they were shown the following instructions on the computer display screen:

同学你好！

请你集中注意力阅读句子。

句子中的词汇将逐个在屏幕呈现。

在充分理解所看到词语的前提下，尽可能快速地按 f 键，或 j 键呈现下一词。

阅读句子后，有两种情况：

1、该句后面没有问题，按 f 键或者 j 键进行下一句子阅读即可。

2、该句后面有一个关于句子的选择题，如果选择左边的答案，按 d 键；右边的答案，按 k 键。

（如果没有疑问，请按 q 键开始）

Hello classmates!

Please read the sentences carefully.

Sentences will be shown word by word in the screen.

Fully understand the word, and press “f”, or “j” as soon as possible to go on reading. After reading the sentence, there are two situations:

1. If there is no question, just press “f” or “j” to see the next sentence.

2. If there is a multiple-choice question about the understanding of sentence you have just read before, press “d” to choose the answer on the left of the screen, or “k” on the right.

(If you have no questions, please press “q” to start.)

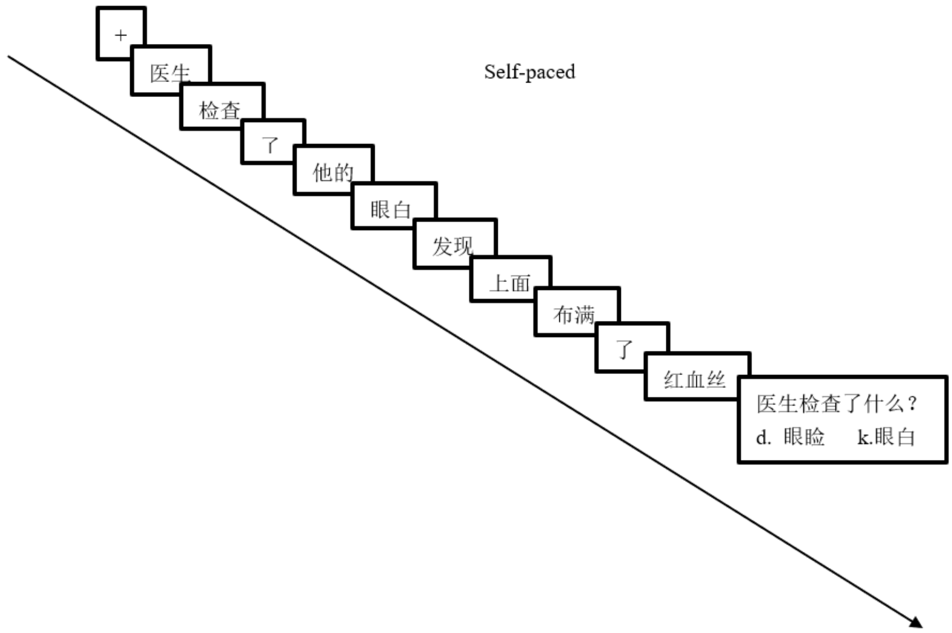

Figure 1. the Procedure of One Trail in Experiment

The participants were instructed to concentrate on the task to understand the sentences as quickly as possible, before answering the questions that would appear after the sentences (Answering the questions will draw the participant’s attention on the sentence reading.). As shown in Fig. 1, the experiment procedure was as follows: a "+" fixation point was first displayed in the center of the computer screen for 800ms. Then, a Chinese word (Courier New, black, No. 12) appeared in the center of the screen (all experimental materials were presented on the computer display in black on white background). Each time after the participant finished reading a word, he or she pressed the “f” or “j” within 5000ms. Then the next word appeared, and at the same time, the previous word disappeared. After responding to the final word of a sentence, there was a multiple-choice question (the probability of occurrence of a choice question was 50%). The participant pressed “d” to select the answer appearing on the left of the screen, and pressed “k” to select the answer appearing on the right of the screen. Before the experiment formally began, the participants had twelve sentences to practice. The whole experiment lasted about fifteen minutes.

The experimenter collected the reaction time when the participants read the target words and the following words separately. The accuracy of the participants’ answers was also recorded.

III. RESULTS ANALYSIS

SPSS20.0 was used for statistical analysis. Data were excluded for incorrect answers, and for the time of single fixation less than 80 milliseconds or more than 1200 milliseconds. The average and standard deviation of the participants' reaction time on each word was shown below (see Table 2).

TABLE 2

		TW		FWBTW		SWBTW		TWBTW	
		M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
NEC	Word	311	79	375	130	333	72	348	130
	Reversible word	339	95	397	147	371	100	340	86
EC	Word	303	82	301	79	294	72	303	79
	Reversible word	308	75	292	60	331	127	382	226

PARTICIPANT'S REACTION TIME ON EACH WORD (MS)

Notes: TW=target word; FWBTW= first word behind the target word; SWBTW= second word behind the target word; TWBTW= third word behind the target word; NEC= non-emotional condition; EC=emotional condition.

After the screening of the data, participant analysis was conducted. The analysis of TWs and the first three words behind TWs was shown as follows: for TWs: the main effect of emotion was significant (F_1 (1, 31) = 5.83, p = .022, η_p^2 = .158); the main effect of the word was significant at edge (F_1 (1, 31) = 3.07, p = .090, η_p^2 = .090); the interaction between emotion and word was not significant (F_1 (1, 31) = 2.38, p = .133, η_p^2 = .071). Participants' reaction time to TWs under non-emotional conditions (NEC) (（*M* = 325 ms, *SE* = 14 ms) was significantly longer than that to TWs under emotional conditions (EC) (*M* = 305 ms, *SE* = 13 ms). Participants' reaction time to word under the word condition (WC) (*M* = 307 ms, *SE* = 13 ms) tended to be shorter than that to word under reversible word condition (RWC) (*M* = 323 ms, *SE* = 14 ms).

For FWBTWs: the main effect of emotion was significant ((F_1 (1, 31) = 37.53, p = .00, η_p^2 = .548); the main effect of words was not significant (F_1 (1, 31) = .19, p = .665, η_p^2 = .006); the interaction between emotion and word was not significant ((F_1 (1, 31) = 1.17, p = .287, η_p^2 = .037). Participants' reaction time to FWBTWs under NEC (*M* = 385 ms, *SE* = 20 ms) was significantly longer than that to FWBTWs under EC (*M* = 296 ms, *SE* = 11 ms).

For SWBTWs: the main effect of emotion was significant (F_1 (1, 31) = 6.80, p = .014, η_p^2 = .180); the main effect of word was significant (F_1 (1, 31) = 11.68, p = .002, η_p^2 = .274); the interaction between emotion and word was not significant (F_1 (1, 31) = .005, p = .946, η_p^2 = .000;). Participants' reaction time to SWBTWs under NEC (*M* = 325 ms, *SE* = 14 ms) was significantly longer than that to SWBTWs under EC (*M* = 312 ms, *SE* = 15 ms); the reaction time of the participants to SWBTWs under WC (*M* = 314 ms, *SE* = 11 ms) was significantly shorter than that to SWBTWs under RWC (*M* = 351 ms, *SE* = 16 ms).

For TWBTWs: The main effect of emotion was not significant (F_1 (1, 31) = .00, p = .947, η_p^2 = .000); the main effect of the word was significant at edge (F_1 (1, 31) = 2.94, p = .097, η_p^2 = .087); the interaction between emotion and word was significantly marginal (see Figure 2) (F_1 (1, 31) = 4.06, p = .053, η_p^2 = .116). Statistical analysis of simple effect showed that there was no significant difference between the reaction time to TWBTWs under the non-emotional word condition (NE-WC) and that to TWBTWs under non-emotional reversible word conditions (NE-RWC) ($t_{(31)}$ = 0.345, p = .732); the participants' reaction time to TWBTWs under the condition of emotional word (E-WC) was significantly shorter than that to TWBTWs under the condition of emotional reversible words (E-RWC)($t_{(31)}$ = -2.199, p = .035).

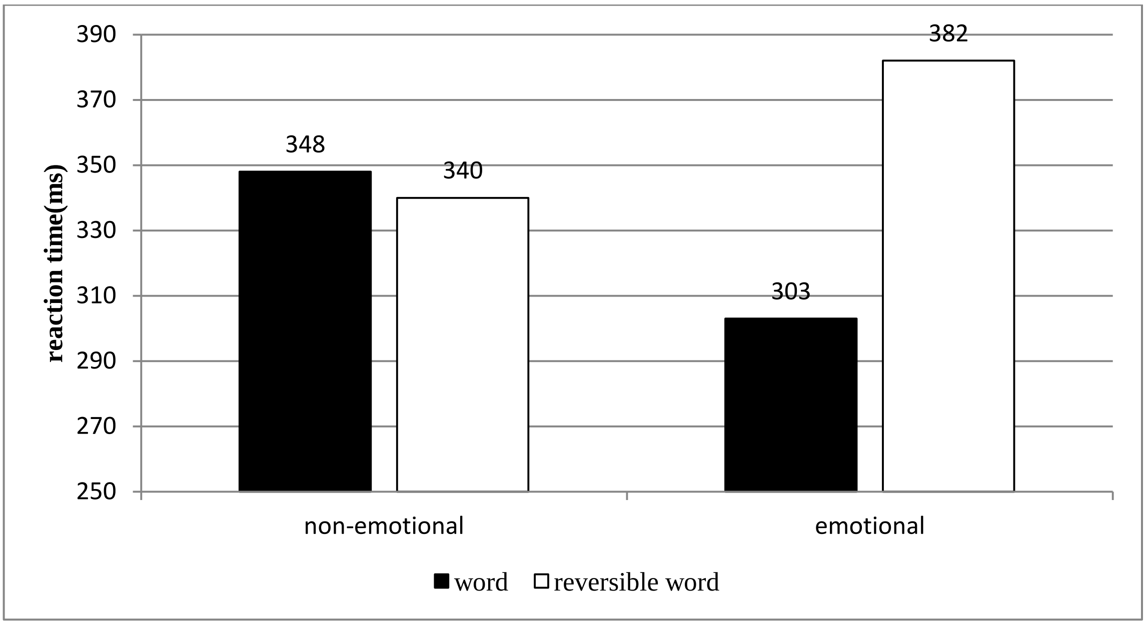

Figure 2. Reaction Time of TWBTWs in EC

IV. Discussion

This experiment explored the processing of Chinese emotional two-character words in sentence reading. Through statistical analysis of the reaction time of the participants to target words, and its following three words, this paper researched the influence of emotion on sentences comprehension and the processing path of Chinese two-character words in sentence reading.

The experimental results confirmed the hypotheses that (1) participants have a stronger reaction to emotional words; (2) the processing of Chinese two-character words in sentence reading includes morpheme access as well as the whole-word access. In addition, this study also found that there may exist subsequent processing of emotional words in TWBTWs and the processing of morpheme's position information.

A. Emotion Effects

Data analysis showed that the main effect of emotion of TWs, FWBTWs and SWBTWs was significant; meanwhile, the main effect of emotion of TWBTWs was not significant.

Analysis in terms of the main effect of emotion confirmed the hypothesis (1) the participants have a stronger reaction to emotional words. Human beings belong to emotional creatures. For the emotional words located in the target word position, the participants will be more sensitive to them than to other words. Emotional words can affect people's emotions, thereby accelerating the information extraction process of word processing, resulting in shorter reaction time than that of non-emotional words. For FWBTWs and SWBTWs, emotional word provided stronger expectations than non-emotional words, so the participants' reaction time to FWBTWs and SWBTWs was shortened. For TWBTWs, the expectation provided by the emotional word was not so strong when it arrived here, so it did not bring about a shortened reaction time.

To sum up, emotional words may have a promoting effect on the processing of the Chinese two-character words following the target word, but this facilitating effect may only exist in the following two words behind the target word.

B. Word Effects

Data analysis showed that for the target word, the main effect of word was significant at edge; the main effect of word of FWBTWs was not significant; the main effect of word of SWBTWs was significant; the main effect of word of TWBTWs was significant at edge.

Analysis in terms of the main effect of word confirmed the hypothesis (2) the processing of Chinese two-character words in sentence reading includes morpheme access as well as the whole-word access. During the processing of TWs, the participants were not strongly aware of the difference between the word and the reversible word and therefore, the participants were not aware of the difference between the word and the reversible word when they processed FWBTWs. It may prove that morpheme access was the main processing path during this period when words are processed in these two positions. Zhou, Wang and Luo (2007) supported the theory of emotional intervention through experiments, claiming that the attention to emotional information will weaken the processing of the semantic information. According to him, the attention to emotional information interfered with the processing of the semantic information with the result that participants did not distinguish between words and reversible words when reading TWs and FWBTWs. However, the present study didn't provide supporting evidence, because there was no significant interaction between emotion and word in TWs and FWBTWs. Furthermore, the proportion of non-affective sentences was higher than that of affective sentences in the experimental sentences, which means there was no strong evidence to prove that the attention to emotional information weakened the processing of semantic information. Therefore, in the processing of TWs and FWBTWs, the main process of TWs was mainly accessed by morpheme access. When the participants processed SWBTWs, the reaction time to the Chinese reversible word was longer than that to the word, an indication that the participants mainly processed the words by whole-word access in this period, or processed the positioned information of the morpheme. When the participant processed TWBTWs, there was no significant difference in the reaction time between the reversible word and the word. At this point, the morpheme access was mainly performed or the processing of TWs has been already completed. According to the processing of SWBTWs and TWBTWs, this study believed that the positioned information of morpheme was processed at the time when the SWBTWs were processed. If the whole-word access was performed at the time of processing SWBTWs, there was no reason that the participants were not aware of the anomaly in the position of the target word when reading TWBTWs. According to Peng et al. (1999), the processing of morpheme's position information lagged behind that of morpheme unit itself. Therefore, this paper suggested that the participants might process the morpheme's position information when reading SWBTWs.

Another finding of this research was that the processing of the Chinese two-character words in sentences may be similar with that in word form alone. Peng et al. (1999) used Chinese reversible words as the priming material in the semantic priming paradigm, to explore the processing of Chinese reversible words. In contrast, the experiment in this research was conducted under the condition of sentence reading. However, based on the analysis of the processing of these four words, the target word and its following three words, the order in which the whole-word access and the morpheme access playing the main role in sentence reading was basically the same as that in words alone, as shown in Peng's study, that is, morpheme access occurred first (then the processing of the position information of the morphemes optionally) before finally the whole-word was accessed. Based on the above discussion, it can be concluded that the processing of the Chinese two-character words in sentences was similar with that in word form alone. It means morpheme access was the main access initially before whole-word access begins to play its vital role.

C. The Interaction between Emotion and Word

Data analysis showed that for TWs, FWBTWs, SWBTWs, the interaction of two factors (emotion and word) was not significant; only the interaction between the emotion and word of TWBTWs was significant. The participants' reaction time to TWBTWs under E-WC was significantly shorter than that to TWBTWs under E-RWC. With regard to the reaction time to TWBTWs under NEC, no significant difference was identified between WC and RWC.

According to Shi et al. (2016) this happened as a subsequent processing due to the state of tension and imbalance. So, emotional words in this experiment may trigger such tension and imbalance state, leading to a subsequent later processing. The difference between the processing of the TWBTWs under E-WC and E-RWC could be explained in this way: the conflict caused by the reverse order of words led to an increased imbalance and tension state brought by emotional words. In this study, the participants faced and solved the conflict caused by such a reversed order of words. This was in line with the study by Peng (1999) who found that in the late stage of word processing, the processing of morpheme's position information played a role in word confirmation.

To sum up, there existed subsequent processing of emotional Chinese two-character words in TWBTWs, and the subsequent processing mainly involved the processing of the morpheme's position information.

V. CONCLUSIONS

This study attempted to examine the role of emotional words in sentences reading and the processing path of Chinese two-character words to further expand the research of processing of emotional Chinese two-character words. This study had several findings: in sentence reading, (1) emotional words may facilitate the processing of its following two words; (2) there might be a subsequent processing of TWBTWs; (3) morpheme access, whole-word access and processing of morpheme's position information were performed; (4) the processing of Chinese two-character words may be similar to that in word alone.

This study is conducive to people's interpersonal communication in daily life when Chinese emotional two-character words used, and it expands the research of Chinese emotional two-character words processing.

However, the emotional words used in this experiment all have the character "心(xin)". Whether this special structure has an influence needs to be further explored in the future with more lexical expressions of emotion.

APPENDIX

1	他在伤口敷了一些膏药，不一会便止痒消肿了。
2	考古发现了一个完整的头骨，考古学家将对其进行仔细研究。
3	医生开完了最后一个药方，便收拾好下班了。
4	他去药店买了几贴药膏，贴在肩上缓解关节疼痛。
5	她看着自己松弛的皮肉，忽然感叹起岁月的流逝。
6	古代很多帝王都渴望长生，但这是有悖于自然规律的。
7	他着急上火生了口疮，现在疼得只能喝米粥。
8	他在车祸中伤到了肉皮，所幸并无任何大碍。
9	他观察了石缝中幼苗的生长，不禁感叹它旺盛的生命力。
10	人体有个部位叫做口气，是中医为病人诊脉的一个地方。
11	老中医数着病人的脉动，不由得暗自担心起来。
12	他患有严重的气口，每天要刷很多次牙。
13	这首诗创作于国民时期，具有极高的研究价值。
14	人民子弟兵对祖国和人民无限忠诚，是我们的骄傲。
15	中青年民居忙于事业，朝九晚五。
16	只要人人都献出一份爱心，世界将会变得更加美好。
17	他很虚心地跟在后头，不愿意抢任何人的风头。
18	他心醉于搞学术研究，无暇顾及任何其他事情。
19	我心虚地向他解释，这件事情与我毫无关系。
20	那蔚蓝的大海令人醉心，似一片一望无际的宇宙。
21	他去药店买了几贴膏药，贴在肩上缓解关节疼痛。
22	考古发现了一个完整的骨头，考古学家将对其进行仔细研究。
23	桌子上的那瓶酒药，是女儿从城里带回来的。
24	他在车祸中伤到了动脉，经过抢救捡回了一条命。
25	医生为他开了一剂方药，并叮嘱他按时按量服用。
26	古代很多帝王都渴望生长，但这是有悖于自然规律的。
27	他着急上火生了疮口，现在疼得只能喝米粥。
28	他患有严重的口气，每天要刷很多次牙。
29	医生检查了他的白眼，发现上面布满了红血丝。
30	人体有个部位叫做气口，是中医为病人诊脉的一个地方。
31	他动不动就冲人翻眼白，这一点着实令人厌恶。
32	它正在用舌头舔口疮，看起来十分痛苦。
33	他是陈式太极拳第 26 代嫡传弟子，至今还每日向师傅请教。
34	中青年居民忙于事业，朝九晚五。
35	人民弟子兵对祖国和人民无限忠诚，是我们的骄傲。
36	这首诗创作于民国时期，具有极高的研究价值。
37	由于是亲近结婚, 他们的孩子都有遗传病症。
38	奶奶是我极其近亲之人，我对她无话不说。
39	这是她最心爱的洋娃娃，就连睡觉都要抱着它睡。
40	那蔚蓝的大海令人心醉，似一片一望无际的宇宙。
41	他醉心于搞学术研究，无暇顾及任何其他事情。
42	医生开完了最后一个方药，便收拾好下班了。
43	他在伤口敷了一些药膏，不一会便止痒消肿了。
44	桌子上的那瓶药酒，是女儿从城里带回来的。
45	他在车祸中伤到了皮肉，所幸并无任何大碍。
46	她看着自己松弛的肉皮，忽然感叹起岁月的流逝。
47	他在车祸中伤到了脉动，经过抢救捡回了一条命。
48	医生为他开了一剂药方，并叮嘱他按时按量服用。
49	他动不动就冲人翻白眼，这一点着实令人厌恶。
50	它正在用舌头舔疮口，看起来十分痛苦。
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53	他观察了石缝中幼苗的长生，不禁感叹它旺盛的生命力。
54	由于是近亲结婚, 他们的孩子都有遗传病症。
55	他是陈式太极拳第 26 代嫡传子弟，至今还每日向师傅请教。
56	奶奶是我极其亲近之人，我对她无话不说。
57	我虚心地向他解释，这件事情与我毫无关系。
58	只要人人都献出一份心爱，世界将会变得更加美好。
59	这是她最爱心的洋娃娃，就连睡觉都要抱着它睡。
60	他很心虚地跟在后头，不愿意抢任何人的风头。

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Jiaming Fang was born in Shandong, China in 1998. She received her bachelor’s degree from Qufu Normal University, China in 2020. She is currently a first-year graduate student majoring in linguistics in Dalian University of Technology.

Degao Li received his Ph.D in Psychology from South China Normal University, China in 2007. He is currently a professor in College of Chinese Language and Literature, Qufu Normal University, Shandong Province, China.

Shuo Cao received her Ph.D in Technologic Economic and Management from Dalian University of Technology, China in 2019. She is currently a professor in the School of Foreign Language, Dalian University of Technology, Liaoning Province, China.

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Analyzing Discourse of Saudi Speakers Using the Integrative Approach (Goffman, Gumperz & Grice)

Thanaa Alhabuobi
Department of Languages & Translation, Taibah University, Almadinah Almunawarrah, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

***Abstract*—Approaches of discourse analysis, however, are at variance regarding their perspectives to discourse definition and its relationship with language and society. Based on such variance, each approach posits certain tools and applications consistent with its main principles. For instance, some approaches devote efforts to describing discourse itself and avoid accounting for underlying motivation and speakers' intentions such as "ISA"[1] developed by Gumperz and Goffman, Schiffrin (1994). On the other hand, Grice's theory devotes concerns to both speaker's intention and hearer's interpretation and gives no or little attention to the effect of societal factor on linguistic stereotype, Haji-Hasan (2010). This paper is an attempt to use the integrative approach in discourse analysis. The integrative approach mainly presents critical results of a contrastive analysis by which the two approaches are mutually used to discourse analysis. Thus, this paper attempted to make use of the repertoire stemmed from the integrative approach to data analysis. The outcomes showed that socio-linguistic level taken from ISA and pragmatic level taken from conversational implicatures provided a very good tool to discourse analysis.**

***Index Terms*—discourse analysis, interactional sociolinguistic approach, Gumperz, Goffman, Grice**

I. Introduction

In recent years, there has been an increasing attention to discourse analysis by sociology, anthropology, and sociolinguistics; all work was dedicated to how people interact in social life. On the one hand, it is to study how people use language to express their identities, culture, and society. The perspective is to study the reflection and influence of socio-cultural background, ethnographical identity, and contextual presuppositions on the construction of language in interactional events. The main purpose of discourse analysis is to find out how people use language structurally and functionally in a social environment. In this sense, language is not only a linguistic phenomenon but social phenomenon as well.

Whether it is a monologue speech or interactional dialogue, language cannot be thought as an autonomous entity that works apart from social frame. Thus, discourse is necessarily discussed and analyzed within sociology, linguistics, and anthropology.

II. Purpose of the Study

The main aim of this paper is to utilize *Interactional Sociolinguistic Approach* as a tool for analyzing discourse data. However, the current research paper also aimed at analyzing discourse from the perspective of the *Integrative Approach* developed by Haji-Hasan (2010) through which he proposes a newly methodological approach to discourse analysis. The integrative approach is a rich repertoire to discourse analysis since it pays a considerable attention to *local vicinity* posited by Grice's "analyzing interpretation and intention at specific context", and similar attention to *global vicinity* posited by Gumperz's "analyzing specific context within socio-cultural context".

III. Research Methodology

The current paper adopts analytical and descriptive research methodology. The analysis of data mainly depends on two approaches to discourse analysis: *Interactional Sociolinguistic Approach* and *Grice's Theory* to implicatures. For the purpose of the research, the researcher recorded a dialogue among three persons using face-to-face interaction, see Kasper (1999). The data is in the Arabic language; however, each portion taken for analysis was translated into English. After transcribing and reading the data carefully, certain segments of the data were selected for analysis and aspects of discourse were explored in depth. Review of literature to ISA was detailed whereas description of Gricean pragmatics was embedded in comparative analysis of the two approaches. The major base of analysis depended on the discourse strategy "speaking for another" stemmed from ISA at four levels: 1- alignments of chipping in and butting in, 2-

[1] ISA refers to Interactional Sociolinguistic Approach

solidarity and micro-identity, 3- speaking for another and taking the role of the other, 4- types of *wants* and face threatening. The paradigm used in the analysis was to start with a neutral description of each example according to the unit of analysis mentioned above. The next step is to provide evidence to such description to validate the analysis and to pass final judgment. Doing so, the analysis attempted to examine and study all potentials related to discourse understanding to avoid as much deficiency as it could exist.

IV. Review of Literature

A. *Interactional Sociolinguistics Approach (ISA): The Principles*

First to be streamed is:

> "This approach shares a great deal with the ethnography of communication framework from which it developed; But an interactional sociolinguistics approach pays particular attention to the clues people use to *interpret* conversational interaction within its ethnographic context" (Holmes, 2008, p. 372)

In her broad and underlying view to discourse, Schiffrin (1994) proposes this approach to analyze discourse. Several principles have been based as a ground from which specific strategies considerably used to discourse analysis. That is how to build an approximately comprehensive framework which includes contextualized cues with association to linguistic elements; specifically, the integration among 1- anthropology, 2- sociology, 3- language; including elements of linguistics, society, and culture. An important query to discourse analysis is how to found a base from which we could build language structures, and then function these units to release information about our identity, society, and culture. There is always a sort of emphasis on two broad concepts "interpretation" and "intention".

The two concepts imply that all parties involved in the situation where discourse takes place recognize the messages as they are intended. In order to achieve such goal, the researcher should bear in mind the followings:

A- Contextual Factors: cultural background, characteristics of the society, structure of the society "ethnicity & nationalism", and social customs.

B- Current factors: mutual knowledge of the participants due to the event in which discourse takes place, face-to-face correspondence, time, and place.

C- Participants' factors: identity, gender, psycholinguistic & intellectual characteristics, cognitive level, background knowledge "presupposition", and social relationship.

D- Linguistic factors: syntactic-phonological features, lexicon and morphological levels, language characteristics, semantic vs. pragmatic use (relationship between structure and function), verbal vs. non-verbal cues, cohesion-coherence level, and metaphorical use.

The above factors are based on the work of (Levinson, 1983, p. 4-23), (Jorgensen & Philips, 2002, p. 60-70), (Cutting, 2002, p. 2-5), (Johnstone, 2002, p. 3-5), (Schiffrin, 1994) (Holmes, 2008, p. 364-373).

In her explicit discussion to discourse analysis, Holmes (2008) identifies, based on Dell Hymes' framework, the main elements underlying the analysis of communicative events which seems very similar to the interactional sociolinguistics approach. These elements are as follows:

1- Identifying the type of the event: phone call, conversation, business meeting, lesson, and interview.
2- Identifying the topic and purposes of the conversation; for example, sport, politics, social interests, business plan.
3- The place where the event happens: home, class, public places, office.
4- Participants' characteristics and identities: age, gender, status, relationship among them.
5- Roles of the participants: speakers, hearers, audiences, bystanders.
6- Identifying the sequential speech acts: sequence and order of speech.
7- Identifying the contextualized cues: presuppositions, background knowledge, shared cultural background.

B. *Gumperz's Work*

To shed light on the current approach" interactional sociolinguistics approach", it is essential to scan Haji-Hasan (2010) and Auer & Luzio (1992) contribution from a more explicit perspective to discourse analysis. The claim posited by his work depends on the principle of integrating "pragmatic" and "interactional sociolinguistics" in order to originate interpretive framework to discourse analysis. He maintains that depending on such framework would lead the analyst to the rationale beyond successful communication. Viewing Gumperz's work to this approach, he asserts that the participants resort to "co-occurrence" tools that involve linguistic patterns and non-linguistic patterns to convey interactional messages. More importantly, while presenting Gumperz's theory, Hajji-Hassan makes a critical account for the main distinction between Grice and Gumperz's theories to discourse analysis. Unlike Grice's theory whose main principle is to integrate between the speaker's intention and hearer's interpretation, Gumperz's theory focuses on the message interpretation within social frames. In other words, Gumperz concentrates on analyzing the message from the hearer's perspective; on the other hand, Grice accounts for analyzing factors of failure and factors of success to communication depending on the roles of both the speaker and the hearer.

According to "discourse strategies" stated by Gumperz, the participants in an interactional frame use different techniques to convey their message. In social interaction, the parties make us of all contextual cues available at all points of their serial conversation to pass communication deficiency. How to understand discourse strategy? An important query discussed by the author. The claim dedicated to this perspective indicates that the process of interpretation and production of messages are stemmed from the use of discourse strategies. In other words, people usually and subconsciously make use of contextualization cues. In this regard, Holmes (2008) identifies contextualization cues as a strategy to which language users resort to infer the “most likely interpretation of an utterance” (p. 373). Contextualization cues are linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge that play the basic role in message interpretation, termed as “pure indexicals” by (Eerdmans, Prevignano & Thibault, 2003). It can be said that when speakers from different cultural background interact, the opportunity of misunderstanding increases which proves the significant role of contextualization cues. This means that the social homogeneity among people originates contextualization cues that could effectively support the conversational inference. Thus, distinction between Gumperz and Grice's can be summarized as:

Grice focuses on speaker's intention and hearer's interpretation "processed consciously"; within pragmatic principle, it focuses on local and narrow interpretation (Birner, 2013). Gumperz, on the other hand, focuses on the interpretation of the hearer "inferences" with regard to contextualization cues taking into account verbal and nonverbal signals "processed subconsciously". Hereby, Haji-Hassan (2010) posits the "Interactive Approach" to discourse through which he joins Grice and Gumperz's approaches and states its main principle:

> "Therefore, by joining these two approaches together, the interactive approach focuses both on the speaker's meaning and the hearer's interpretation of the intended meanings." (p. 4)

It can be said, then, Gumperz seeks an interpretative sociolinguistic approach that presents a frame through which culture, use of language, meaning, and linguistic structure are influential factors to discourse analysis (Schiffrin, 1994). Most of Schiffrin's analysis to Gumperz's theory was dedicated to applying the principle of contextualization cues. She maintains that utilization of contextual cues which encompasses utilization of background knowledge "contextual presuppositions" is the way to mechanism of inferencing. Hypothetically, the speaker's intended meaning and the hearer's interpretation emanate from a package that includes several elements ranging from the broader scope *"cultural-anthropological structure of the society"* to the narrower scope *"language aspects, participants' characteristics, communication type (verbal, nonverbal, spoken, written, face-to-face interaction)".*

C. Goffman's Contribution

Goffman adopts the same approach with its main concepts and implications stated by Gumperz. However, Goffman posits that understanding the form and meaning of the context figures out the contextualization cues from which the hearer could evaluate and inference the speaker's intentional meaning. It seems, then, Goffman's contribution is top-down and bottom- up; whereas, Gumperz's theory is top-down. Goffman gives distinctive characteristics to the participants involved in any interactional situation. His classification is based on the role each one plays in the event; the animator is the presenter of the talk, the author is the creator of the talk, the figure is described through the talk, and the principle is responsible for the talk. Thus, the concept of “identity” and “self” and “gender” are three important concepts in discourse analysis. This is one way to explain identity with “macro level social meaning “group, identity, status differences”, (Schiffrin, 1994, p. 102).

D. Speaking for Another as a Discourse Strategy

The following lines of thoughts put “speaking for another” as a discourse strategy in a spot. Since discourse is organized and processed within a large number of mixed elements, the concept of interaction is an intricate process for analysis process though the parties of the conversation do their jobs automatically. Through interaction, participants manipulate talk in an unstable movement. In other words, at any point of the talk, the roles may change from; for instance, being a speaker to a hearer or vice versa. As indicated by Schiffrin (1994), “in an interactional conversation, mostly two roles are identified, language-user(s) who sends the message and language-user (s) who receives the message” (p. 102). Nevertheless, there is another role occupied by another participant who is often the “mediator” of the message; he mediates a specific point of talk between the sender and the recipient through *interruption*. In other words, the “mediator” or the spokesman- labeled as *animator* according to Goffman- is the presenter of the talk on behalf of another participant; explicitly to speak as a representative of other people. The referential code to this strategy is known as “situated meaning”. This interactional strategy (speaking for another) or what is called *turn-taking structure* is basically performed through *interruption* when one’s utterance is produced simultaneously with another one’s. Interruption is distinctively classified into two main categories: 1- interruption most likely has negative connotation, 2- overlap most likely has either neutral or positive meaning.

1-Adnangnments “chipping in” or “butting in”

Speaking for another can either be “polite interruption: chipping” or “rude interruption: butting in”. Of course, this refers to the nature of relationship among participants and the meaning as situated in context. In other words, interruption has two different roles depending on situation; referring either to deferential or demeaning situated meaning the interrupter has to the speaker. Factors that help in distinguishing between the two types are 1- social relationship between the participants, 2- social identities, 3- speech act, 4- speech event, Schiffrin (1994).

V. Data Analysis

Example 1

a. Mohamad: University instruction is optional.
b. Noor: No, it is not, three-quarters of the courses you study is compulsory.
c. Mohamad: Excuse me?
d. Noor: Three-quarters of the courses you study↓INT [2]
e. Adnan: We are Arabs.
f. Noor: compulsory, and if you go back to the plan, it is stated that you must finish 136 hours.

Before approaching the analysis, it is essential to highlight some information about the context of this example because interactional sociolinguistic approach to which discourse is analyzed necessitates such information. As mentioned in the previous assignment this conversation includes three participants: Noor, Mohamad, and Adnan. The participants belong to the same cultural background and well-educated.

First, the topic of the conversation is convenient to all participants in the sense that all of them have had at least reasonable knowledge concerning the universities curriculum. Mohamad is under-graduate; fourth level, Adnan is a graduate; BA degree, Noor is a lecturer. So, they are sharing common background knowledge to this particular issue. More importantly, all participants belong to the same society in the sense that their cultural background is identical with regard to social customs, ethnicity, and nationalism. The conversation is of an interactional event, face-to-face correspondence.

The participants at this point of discourse are discussing the educational system in Saudi universities in general and syllabuses in particular. In this example, we will analyze (1-e) *"We are Arabs"* to describe "speaking for another" as one strategy to discourse analysis. On the one hand, the speaker in (1-b) violates the *maxim of manner* according to Grice's theory in the sense that she uses an ambiguous lexical item "compulsory" by code-switching. In other words, all participants speak Arabic, at one point of her utterance in (1-b), the speaker inserts an English word that is (compulsory) in:

compulsory 3/4 لا مو اختياري انت المواد اللي تدرسها

According to Grice, the focus is on both speaker's intentional meaning and hearer's interpretation. On the other hand, considering the sequences of utterances, we claim that the hearer fails to interpret what is meant by "compulsory". The response of the hearer in (1-c) "excuse me?" gives a clear evidence of misunderstanding; the non-verbal contextualization cue "using final rising intonation in this case" refers to the use of some linguistic features to show uncertainty. For example, if S asks H to bring him something with unclear voice, mostly the expression *"excuse me?"* is used by H to implicitly express that he does not get the message. The explicit response could be *"I am sorry I couldn't hear you clearly"* or *"excuse me I didn't hear well; would you mind repeating your question"*. There are two more evidence prove that the hearer does not interpret the utterance (1-b); 1- the repetition in (1-d) and 2- the utterance (1-e). First, the repetition of the same utterance by the same speaker in (1-d) right after the hearer's response in (1-c) proves that the speaker, who turns to be a hearer, interprets (1-c) "excuse me" according to contextualization cues posited by Gumperz who focuses on the message interpretation within social frames. As mentioned above, contextualization cues according to interactional sociolinguistic approach are linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge that play the basic role in message interpretation. The same cultural background with regard to language use in social interaction increases the opportunity of interpretation between S and H; in other words, both of them know that one of the functions of *"excuse me"* is to express misunderstanding in a polite way. In regard to signals of contextualization cues, saying *"excuse me"* along with raised intonation is part of social practice used among people in Saudi. That is why ISA pays more attention to the clues people use to understand the social interaction and makes use of cultural background to interpret language function. In our case, because H considers the presupposition behind the use of such expression, she can interpret S's intentional meaning in "excuse me". In turn, S uses such clue depending on his own presupposition that he and the hearer share the same interpretation of the use of such signal.

There is, however, argument to ISA in regard to its focus on hearer's interpretation. First, the approach itself entitled as interactional approach, so the interaction necessarily means to fulfill the idea of "exchange messages" otherwise it cannot be said interaction. This means the communication event has two sides S and H who interchange roles. Second, if we focus on hearer's interpretation, <u>the question is that: interpreting what?</u> Simply there cannot be vacuum from which interpretation is gained. So, it is beyond dispute that H is to interpret what S says, and "saying" per se has nothing to do with interaction because we should look beyond semantic level; that is pragmatic level, (Thomas, 1995). One could not say that he understands what is said unless he understands what is intended; otherwise, no successful communication takes place. In this regard, understanding refers not to saying as an action; rather refers to what is meant by what is said. Therefore, we move in stages, from describing speech acts "Austen & Searle's" to interpreting intentional meaning behind such act "Grice's" within the social context "Gumperz & Goffman's". In sum, any analyst cannot ignore speaker's intention when approaching discourse analysis; therefore, it can safely be posited that the integrative approach posited by Hajji-Hasan (2010) is more efficient for such task than ISA. Without using the

[2] ↓INT refers to the point of interruption

integrative approach, my analysis will certainly have shortfall. How could I analyze *"excuse me"* for instance without considering hearer's interpretation, speaker's intention, and contextual clues?

We come now to analyze (1-e) *"we are Arabs"* from two perspectives; evidence stemmed from Grice's theory of conversational implicatures, and evidence of "speak for another" as a discourse strategy stemmed from ISA established by Gumperz and developed by Goffman. Consistent with Grice's theory, Altieri (1981); Holmes (2008) & Haji-Hasan (2010), S of utterance (1-b), as just proved, has not observed the maxim of manner by using ambiguous lexical unit; that is "compulsory" in English instead of Arabic. Such utterance is met by the response in (1-c) which shows that H does not interpret the utterance by saying *"excuse me"*. At this point of discourse, the roles of participants are Noor and Mohamad are exchanging speech; each one once being "author" of the talk and once being "recipient" of the talk, whereas Adnan is a bystander. At this point of discourse, interruption as a strategic tool to manage social interaction takes part. The bystander interrupts the conversation by saying *"we are Arabs"* in (1-e). From the cooperative principle point of view of Grice's theory, the response of the hearer in (1-e) shows that he infers the intended meaning of S of (1-c). Although *"excuse me"* has no literal reference to misunderstanding, the H could interpret the non-literal meaning (intentional). By saying *"we are Arabs"* is a vivid indication that the S of *"Excuse me"* wants to say for instance *"I am sorry I didn’t understand what you meant by <u>compulsory</u>"*. This also supports the previous claim in which we posited that the speaker "Noor" interprets the intended meaning of the hearer so that she repeated her utterance *"Three-quarters of the courses you study"*. On the one hand, we may say that although utterance (1-d) implicitly shows that the speaker recognizes that the hearer has faced difficulty understanding the point, but it seems she couldn’t infer the exact point of misunderstanding so she only resorts to repetition. On the other hand, example (1-e) indicates that the speaker activates the intended meaning of *"excuse me"* in the sense that he interprets that the hearer (Mohamad) could not understand the English word "compulsory"; therefore, he says, *"we are Arabs"*. Utterance (1-e) is a very impressive example of Grice's theory in its practical phase. The speaker of *"we are Arabs"* seemingly resorts to breaching all maxims: quality, quantity, relevance, and manner. Even though the hearer could infer the meaning, and her response in (1-f) evidence this claim. More explicitly, in her utterance (1-f) *"compulsory, and if you go back to the plan, it is stated that you have to finish 136 hours"*, the speaker switches the word "compulsory" over to the Arabic language to maintain linguistic understanding.

Returning to discuss the same example *"we are Arabs"* from the other perspective, according to ISA. As mentioned above "speaking for another" can be thought as a discourse strategy. Before digging a solid ground to analysis, it is essential to mention this strategy with another perspective. When interruption takes part in a frame of "speaking for another", it means that there is responsibility for such interruption. In other words, is the responsibility for taking someone's part in speech given or taken? Of course, this depends on the relationship between the participants, identities, social status, the topic, and the social nature of the event. It can be thought of a rude way one uses against another in participation; for example, S takes H's part interruptedly to maintain an idea, change the subject, correcting the same idea, or deliberately trying to impose the idea that H is unable to fulfill appropriately, so he (S) is more suitable to accomplish the idea of speech. Also, it could be that the speaker wants to enforce a subject on the hearer himself as Schiffrin (1994:109) exemplifies "one is so invasive of another that she is unable to allow her to maintain her own position in conversation (cf. you are always putting words in my mouth)". In this case, responsibility is taken forcefully not given, and interruption could be considered demeaning. In contrast, let's think of a situation when one person is previously given the responsibility to speak for another. For example, a manager usually gives the responsibility to his secretary to reply phone calls, and of course the latter can talk on behalf of his manager whether for instance he can accept the call, receive a visitor, or do nothing of all. In this way, speaking for another, without disputation, is given and even if there is a sort of interruption, it will be characterized positive and polite. Given the two types of responsibility, it could be said that there are factors governing the condition summarized as

1- Whether or not the person who takes the responsibility offers to do the act.
2- Whether or not the person asks someone else to do the act.
3- Whether or not the interrupter has the right to the act.
4- The status of the two persons.

Based on the above (factors affecting responsibility and factors determining the sort of interruption), we may say that "speaking for another" changes over the conversation. Back to our example *"we are Arabs*"; we can claim that the participant takes part interruptedly to speak on behalf of another participant. By saying *"we are Arabs"*, Adnan takes the responsibility and attempts to identify the problem that Mohamad is facing. He wants to say that *"being Arabs, we can't understand English, sometimes at least"*. More explicitly, the speaker at this point is trying to draw his mother's attention to the English word she uses and indirectly he is asking for more explanation. In addition, he wants to transfer the meaning that his cousin does not understand what the word "compulsory" means. Now, does the speaker in (1-e) take the responsibility and speak on behalf of his cousin forcefully? In other words, is the speech act positive or negative? In order to answer the question, we should consider the *1-social relationship* between the two participants, their *2-social status in general* "social identities", and their *3-status in this conversation;* variables posited by Schiffrin (1994); Fairclough (2003) & Holmes (2008) in ethnography of speaking. Given the relationship between them, the two participants are cousins and having a very good relationship, their ages are almost close to each other, and they were brought up in the same family. They share a lot of things and always show respect when speaking to each other. No restrictions or distance occurring between them. Interestingly, both of them know English and approximately their levels are same. Given their social status, both of them are of the same position; no one is higher or superior to the other; for example, father-son relationship or teacher-student relationship. Likewise, there is no great distinction between them via education and career. On the other hand, the role they have in the current talk "participation framework; *status in this conversation*" does not necessitate one be in superior position so that he has the upper hand to take the turn forcefully. Why? Because the current talk itself reflects sort of social interaction within friendly discussion rather than imposing one's idea using forceful authority.

The following lines of thoughts discuss another important issue regarding the "responsibility of speaking for another" through which "interruption" is activated. Let's start with this argument *"whether or not the person who takes the responsibility offers to do the act"*. Apparently, there is no linguistic evidence for that; in other words, according to the locutionary level "Austin's theory" the speaker "Adnan" in *"we are Arabs"* does not explicitly offer to take the responsibility and speak for the other participant "Mohamad". For instance, Adnan didn't say *"may I say something on your behalf to explain what you meant by: <u>excuse me</u>?"* The second argument is *"whether or not a person asks someone else to do the act"*. Likewise, the participant "Mohamad" does not ask Adnan explicitly to do the act; there is no question at level of linguistic unit. The third argument is *"Whether or not the interrupter has the right to the act"*. The latter argument will be illustrated under the discussion of the two previous ones. We could say that the responsibility of "speaking for another" is taken and given implicitly not explicitly. Given the discussion about the relationship between the participants; social, status, identities, and all arguments presented in the above lines, we could claim that although there is no explicit offer, nor is there explicit question; the speaker "Adnan" takes the responsibility and does the act on behalf of "Mohamad". Consequently, the speaker has an embedding right to do the act and this right has a connotative sense within his social relationship with the other participant.

In sum, we may safely end up this part of discussion by what was early hypothesized; that is the *"interruption"* embedded at this point of talk is a discourse strategy used to *"speak for another"*. Secondly, we have underpinned the assumption that "turn-taking" is acted by the speaker politely, having positive sense "chipping in" via the social relationship between the two participants, social status, participation framework, and their social identities. Contextualization cues also support our result, prosody and language rhythm used in the interaction; more specifically, at the current point of talk under discussion. Responsibility of *turn-taking* and "responsibility of speaking for another" through "interruption" is given and taken implicitly. However, there are other potentials in this regard:

1- Adnan takes the turn to speak for Mohamad because he depends on contextualization cues signaled by Mohamad in the sense that the latter does not know the word. In this case he is an animator of the talk.
2- Adnan takes the turn to speak for Mohamad to serve "self" and "other" in the sense that he also does not know the word and he wants to know. In this case, Adnan is both animator and author of the talk.
3- Adnan takes the turn to speak because he does not know the word and he wants to know the word and has no knowledge whether Mohamad knows or does know the word. In this case, we cannot assume that Adnan speaks for another, and he is only introducing himself and plays the role of the author and principle of the talk.

2- Solidarity and micro- identity

Supporting the previous argument, let's consider the role of "solidarity" as a level of "speak for another" in situated meaning. We will return to the same example:

a. Mohamad: University instruction is optional.
b. Noor: No, it is not, three-quarters of the courses you study is compulsory.
c. Mohamad: Excuse me?
d. Noor: Three-quarters of the courses you study↓^{INT*}
e. Adnan: We are Arabs.
f. Noor: compulsory, and if you go back to the plan, it is stated that you have to finish 136 hours.

Before proceeding our discussion, let us highlight how "speak for another" reflects the identities and solidarity of the participants. Let's put it in a more solid ground by presenting personal information about the three participants. Both Adnan and Mohamad are males so first they share the same gender. In addition, their levels of education are approximately the same. More importantly, they are very close to each other due to their level of the English language proficiency. On the other hand, the third participant is a female; she is higher than them regarding the level of education and, particularly, the level of language proficiency. On the one hand, the variant level between the two males and the female reveals a sort of interactional disruption; I want to say that the ambiguity of the word "compulsory" seems like "threat" to communication from the perspective of Adnan and most likely to Mohamad. On the other hand, to maintain *solidarity* in the sense that both of them are equal in language interpretation, both of them are Arabs, and both of them fail to elicit the word meaning, Adnan resorts to strategy of interruption, and he takes the turn of speech in order to minimize *"threats*". The speaker in *"we are Arabs"* wants to state fidelity and solidarity with his peer "Salam" by using the linguistic unit <u>"we"</u> referring to "self" and "other". The "plural" pronoun "we" is indicating the role of linguistic structure in situated meaning. The two examples *"excuse me"* and *"we are Arabs"* reveals two important concepts. One: the speakers (Mohamad and Adnan) are trying to besiege and control the conversation by not allowing the other participant continuing her talk while both of them have difficulty understanding her speech. This can be clearly figured out in (1-f) when the speaker translates the word from English into Arabic "she could infer the meaning of 1-e" depending on contextualization cues "contextualization cues thus allow participants to infer the most likely interpretation", (Holmes, 2008, p. 373). We can also say that this utterance (1-f) is one of constitutes of Austin's model to speech acts "perlocutionary act", the force or effect the speaker makes on the hearer.

Significant here is that the speaker in example (1-e) violates all maxims of Grice's theory; his utterance has no relevance to the previous utterance, and he provides inadequate information with respect to quality and quantity. However, the response of the next utterance shows how the H resorts to conversational implicatures to get the intentional meaning with regard to context. Second, can we consider *"we are Arabs"* as a request based on speech acts theory? My answer is "yes". Almost all approaches and theories to discourse analysis urge that utterances cannot be evaluated in isolation of context and the sequences of speech. If we consider the sequence, we will obviously discover that example (1-f) is a response to a previous request. S in (1-f) translates the word, the question is why?

If example (1-e) was not referring to a request through which the speaker wanted the hearer to translate the word, the speaker of (1-f) wouldn’t do so. By saying "*we are Arabs"* the speaker wants to reveal a situated meaning in which he would say for example *"would you mind translating the word "compulsory?"*. According to Austin's theory, the performative in this example carries indirect force, and the H resorts to infer such implicit effect which is labeled "indirect speech act", Levinson (1983:264). We argue that although the utterance has no linguistic feature of a request *"the structure is a declarative mode"*, the hearer could infer the conversational meaning. Thus, we cannot deal with one theory or approach in isolation; for instance, in this example we may start with "speech acts theory" at the surface level of analysis. Then it is inevitable to use Grice's theory to implicatures to describe for example the speaker in *"we are Arabs"* could infer the intentional meaning of *"excuse me"*. On the other hand, using Grice's theory to evaluate "interpretation" and "intention" per se is insufficient without considering the role of context; variables suggested by the "interactional sociolinguistic approach". Therefore, the integrative approach suggested by Hajji-Hassan (2010) is no doubt a very effective approach to discourse analysis.

In sum, the utterance *"we are Arabs"* is an attempt to set micro identity in that the two males have the same background knowledge, and this knowledge is a part of their educational level. Micro identity includes characteristics of similarities and differences among the parties who are participants of the current talk. Similarities are set between the two males with respect to cultural and educational background which in turn in variance with the third participant. Moreover, such educational level is part of their cultural identity that reflects the broader level. The broader level is "macro identity" which refers to Arab people who live in this society and they are members of the same society. We can also argue that the deictic expression "we" refers to all parties because it is in its symbolic use; by monitoring the speech even, S of (1-e) does not use gestures to refer to (himself and Mohamad); therefore, it can be an evidence to the exclusion of *distance* between the parties in regard to nationalism. The speaker likely wants to generalize his idea that all of them including his mother belong to the same society that speaks the same language, if this is true, then the speech act carries a sort of positive politeness. I may posit that the positive politeness has an evidence at this point in the sense that the speaker instead of being rude to his mother which is morally unacceptable like for example saying *"don’t use English, we all are Arabs"* that carries a function of order in an imperative form, he resorts to figurative language to convey his message. Taking another perspective of politeness theory, it can be claimed that the speaker could follow the principles stated by Robin Lakoff and illustrated by (Holmes, 2008). These principles are

1- Don’t impose: e.g., using models or hedges "I am afraid that we don’t understand the word, would you mind translating the word?"
2- Give options: e.g. "I guess compulsory means…." " I don’t think that I have heard this word before, it would be nice to explain it"
3- Be friendly: e.g., using informal cues "Dear mother, we would like to know the word".

Based on the above assumption, one could claim that saying *"we are Arabs"* may carry a threat in its apparent surface or a strong cue in which S likely wants to impose force that it was unacceptable to use English. However, the speaker was not rude to the extent of being threatening; of course, such judgment is a biased perspective to scientific analysis, but not to personal beliefs.

According to gender perspective, it could not be claimed that the speaker takes the role to talk to support his cousin because of gender similarity. In other words, is this issue related only to males? To my best knowledge this issue "someone is incompetent in one language" can be a matter to both males and females. So, I have no evidence for approval or disapproval.

3-Speaking for another and taking the role of the other

When one talks, he potentially selects another one to take the role and move on or resuming his talk. Speaking for another can be used in a deeper way to interpret one particular utterance in different ways. Put in another way, speaking for another is achieved by two ways: taking the role of one's *self* or taking the role of *another* who is sharing the speech event by monitoring the *sequential coherence*. Schiffrin (1994) suggests that the situational event does not constitute speakers' utterances per se; rather, the participants are resources of the construction of particular language structures that suit that situation. Put in another way, the interactional situation imposes the parties to select what makes their communication consistent with the situated meaning, but these parties don’t respond blindly; they have their choices to construct the situation and make it useful for particular interactional function. To illustrate the idea in a more explicit way, example 2 reflects how one utterance, even if it is created, is a result to a prior recourse and it can be another resource to sequential and different utterances that carry different interpretations. It is said that each utterance is stemmed from a previous one and stemming is both context bound and text bound, and in turn it provides an area for another stream to originate and take part; we may express it as "each utterance is an effect to a prior one and it is a prior cause to a coming one".

Example (2)

In this example the speaker narrates what happened at work

a. Guys: There is a lecture?
b. Adnan: Yes, No, no I am a technician.
c. Guys: <u>Ok, come on in and have coffee.</u>
d. Adnan: <u>No, no thank you.</u>

Let's discuss how sequential coherence provides different context interpretation. We will draw on "take the role of the other" as a strategy to explore the potential sequences stemmed from one utterance. As mentioned above each utterance is considered as a resource from which a slot is available to the other utterance; the void is to be filled with a response. Back to our example, utterance (2-c) is speech act in which an offer of having coffee is done by the speakers. At a level of perlocutionary act, the force of (2-c) is activated on (2-d) in which the hearer responses to their offer by saying *"No, thank you"*. Here, the exchange of utterance reflects the sequential coherence. Put another way, (2-c) is a source from which a slot is built for (2-d) to take part, in turn (2-d) itself is a prior base from which another slot is to be built for the next utterance. What important is that how to build different interpretations based on one resource with reference to contextual understanding. We will consider example (2-d) to show how it can be a resource "basis" for 1- context representation and 2- different responses. The offer prepares for effect which is the existence of the response "refusal", and the refusal prepares for other effects understood within context, these effects can be for example:

1- Why? You don't like coffee?
2- You are busy?
3- Potentially you don't drink coffee before breakfast.
4- Turkish?
5- We always welcome new friends.
6- It would be our pleasure if you join us.
7- We've just arrived, coffee is still hot.
8- Have some rest.

The above examples are only some potential responses to speaker's rejection. These potentials stand for two notions of "speak for another" these are "self" and "other". Let us start with "self"; it means that the participant makes a package of responses based on what he understands form his point of view that is "self" reflection. On the one hand, examples (5-8) reveal that the speakers resort to "themselves" as a resource from which they can posit further and different responses; however, the context is still in activation. On the other hand, examples (1-4) the speakers take the role of the "other" as a base from which they suggest the potential responses. In other words, the speaker(s) takes the role of the animator who is not basically the resource of the talk but the one who transfer the talk. Noted here is that in examples from 1 to 4 "you" is used, for instance, in *"you are busy"* means as if the speaker ***wants*** to say *" I can't join you because I am busy"*, although he does not say that, but the others say it on his behalf; in other words, they infer *one potential **intention***. In the same vein, in example *"Turkish?"* they assume that the hearer may prefer Turkish coffee, so it is the base of his refusal. In this regard, the researcher may posit a critical point to what Schiffrin (1994) suggests in her discussion " Interactional sociolinguistics tries **to avoid imputing intentions** to speakers…. this approach thus uses to account for why someone says or does something is **not** the construct of "motivation" but "discourse strategy"" (p. 132). If so, how can we analyze "speaking for another" in the sense of "other" without the involvement of participant's "intention"?

Return to our analysis, examples 5-8 give indications of how one frame within context can be a base to different responses. For example, the refusal of the offer makes the inviters think of other ways to impose upon their offer by saying *"It would be our pleasure if you join us"* that is another way to convince him of having coffee, *"coffee is still hot"* carries the same perspective. On the other hand, *"we always welcome new friends"* is an attempt to minimize distance and strangeness. If the last explanation is true, the inviters assume that the hearer feels he has less familiarity and so he is hesitant to accept the invitation; however, these different interpretations of the refusal are based on context and inferencing speaker's intention. Thus, it causes deficit in analysis when we attempt to deal with speaker's intention in isolation from discourse strategies.

4- Two types of "wants" and "face threatening"

Under this section, we will shed light on how discourse can be analyzed from two perspectives that are "wants" and "face threatening". To base for such analysis, we will draw on the principles of speech acts theory; especially acts of commissives that include offers (Schiffrin, 1994). Theoretically, offer requires that S does A for H; this means that the act is to be done for the benefit of H. Thus, there are stages to be considered: 1- S does not know if H wants A, 2- S is to find out if H wants A, 3- when S knows that H wants A, 4- S commits to do A. Thereupon, two types of "wants" are suggested:

1- H wants A, but S is uncertain what A that H wants, so S should resort to guessing to know the A that H wants. The problem with this type is that guessing may cause a threat to H because he may be conservative to his needs and wants in the sense that he does not want S to interrupt his own desires. So, hearer's negative face like "rejection" is threatened by the S's offer. In other words, hearer's negative face is an attempt to hide internal state, so when guessing is made it may uncover that internal state; that is why it is considered as a threat to H's negative face. Instance is that: I as (S) try to uncover your want as (H) although you try to hide it through negation "negative face".
2- S wants to do something for H. The problem here is when H rejects the offer. Rejection means that H does not want what S wants. In this case a threat is directed to S's desire. In other words, by offering something S wants to do A to H but H's refusal is considered as a threat to his desire "S's desire" in the sense that his want and H's want are not alike. That is why it is described as a threat to "positive face". Positive here refers to S's desire to do A to H, so when this offer is met by H's rejection it may cause a threat to his desire.

In sum, when H rejects S's offer this means that 1- S fails to guess what H wants, and 2- S's want and H's want are different. Hence, and based on offer refusal, threats are classified into two categories, self and self-other relationship. Threat to self means "you as H does not want what I want as S". Threat to self-other relationship means "I as S fail to make the right guess about your want as H because there is not enough familiarity between us". The previous lines of thoughts may give us background knowledge of why H sometimes refuses S's offer.

Trying to apply what is just posited, we could claim that the refusal of the offer in examples:

a. Guys: <u>Ok, come on in and have coffee.</u>
b. Adnan: <u>No, no thank you.</u>

reveals that what S wants does not meet H's want. So, we assume that this want "offer" in *"Ok, come on in and have coffee"* is S's desire. The rejection indicates that the guessing the Ss draw on fails to interrupt the internal state of the H; that is what the latter wants. In other words, Adnan's refusal to have coffee with them is evidence that the speakers wanted to do an action for the hearer "they thought it was for H's benefit", yet they could not uncover the H's real want. We can safely say that the refusal of that type of "want" is a threat to S's positive face, to the desire of the speakers. Thus, since the offer is met by rejection "the hearer does not want what the speakers want to do for him" it is self-threat. Can we assume it is also a threat to self-relationship? I suggest "yes" we can. My justification to that is the unfamiliar relationship between the speakers and the hearer. He met them by accident, and they do not know each other. On such bases, it would be very evidence that the speakers are unable to guess hearer's favorites, habits, and personal needs and wants. This can be known by returning to the context; the story that was told by Adnan about those students. Consistent with the goal of analyzing types of wants mentioned above that they give us background knowledge of why H sometimes refuses S's offer; can we justify Adnan's refusal in this context? Potentials are posited as follows

1- He does not like coffee
2- He does not drink coffee at that time
3- He has had enough before meeting them
4- He lacks familiar relationship with them
5- He is busy

In fact, neither of the above can be proved because the context lacks the sequential arrangements. In other words, no related utterances follow the utterance of refusal to evaluate which of the above potentials suits the offer refusal; lack of perlocutionary act.

VI. SUMMARY

A- There can be no doubt that no single approach per se is comprehensive by its own to discourse analysis.
B- The integrative approach used in this paper can be thought of a highly effective tool to discourse analysis in the sense that it considerably strikes two sub-integrative levels: socio-linguistic context stemmed from ISA and pragmatic context stemmed from Conversational Implicatures. However, what applies to all approaches as mentioned in (A) above, also applies to the integrative approach.
C- Interactional sociolinguistic approach provides a highly effective repertoire to discourse analysis. Principles of ISA open the doors through which one could investigate how people communicate in two levels, macro- and micro-interaction (Gumperz, 2012). It also enables analysts to explore how people use their background knowledge "presuppositions" and translate them in contextualization cues to activate their intentions, needs, and feeling. On the other hand, Grice's theory to pragmatics presents a pool of tools analyst can use to overlap between two critical processes in any discourse that are speaker's intentional meaning and hearer's interpretation (Yule, 1996), (Cruse, 2010) and (Horn & Ward, 2006).
D- Both approaches crystallize variables and dimensions surrounding any interactional event to present potential understandings of participants' messages. It is an attempt to read the performance that we can see based on thoughts and intentions which we cannot see.
E- Analyzing data of discourse can never be delineated; in other words, the analyst should go backwards and forwards to cover all potential interpretations of discourse. Using background knowledge and socio-cultural information of the participants is the key to interpret discourse in its social aspect "contextualization cues". On

the other hand, contextualization cues are the gate through which one can enlighten the social context to which participants belong.

F- Speaking for another assumed by ISA proves its potential to serve as a discourse strategy. It can be a key to understand communicative goals behind some interactional processes such as: turn-taking, taking the role of another, parameters of responsibilities. In addition, speaking for another changes in regard to structure of the conversation, participation framework, and setting of the conversation.

G- Outcomes posit two important issues to ISA; macro-interactional level of Goffman's and micro-interactional level of Gumperz's. The latter focuses on the social interaction of discourse in a specific event of communication, whereas the former focuses on a broader concept that is the social organization of the society. The relationship between the two levels which is critical to interactional discourse and critical to discourse interpretation is posited by Goffman.

H- The results of the current research can be used for further investigations on i.e. why speakers use certain speaking strategies? On the other hand, the results can give an opportunity to criticize the principles of ISA from two perspectives that are weaknesses and strengths. Although the samples used in this paper are limited; however, it can be a good start for researchers to duplicate the research methodology to explore more insights of ISA specially in corpus pragmatics.

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Thanaa Abdulrazzaq Alhabuobi is Saudi and living in Saudi Arabia; Almadunah Almunawarrah. She is an Assistant Professor and working as a staff member at Languages and Translation Department / Faculty of Arts and Humanities / Taibah University. The email address is thamar_5@hotmail.com.

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An Empirical Study on Application of Frequent Quizzes to Business English Courses

Ping Chen
School of Foreign Languages, Sichuan University of Arts and Science, Dazhou, Sichuan, 635000, China

***Abstract*—The purpose of this study is to explore the effectiveness of frequent quizzes applied to subject-based business English courses designed for students in Sichuan University of Arts and Science in China. Besides, this study investigates students' views on design, administration, optimizing of quizzes. A total of fourteen quizzes were administered in the teaching practice of a business English course called International Settlement and Documentation, which was offered to two classes of business English majors in one semester. Then, a questionnaire survey was conducted online and 45 students responded to the questionnaire. Findings and analyses were based on the 45 respondents' feedback. The study results show that the students had a positive attitude to the application of quizzes on the whole and the quizzes were effective to a large extent in facilitating their acquisition of relevant business knowledge and language items. The vast majority of students were satisfied with the amount of items in quizzes and administration of quizzes. What needs to be improved on in their views focused on diversity of question types. Recommendations on application of frequent quizzes to English teaching, future research and optimizing quizzes were put forward in the end.**

***Index Terms*—empirical study, quizzes, business English courses, effectiveness**

I. INTRODUCTION

In 2015, the Education Ministry of China issued *The National Standard for Teaching Quality of Business English Major at the Tertiary Education Level* and it stipulates that the core courses for business English major encompass courses in English language knowledge and skills, business knowledge and skills, cross-cultural communication and humanity (Lifei Wang, 2015). According to the national standard, it can be safely inferred what distinguishes business English major from English major is，to a great degree，the courses in business knowledge and skills. Therefore, teaching of courses in business knowledge and skills plays an important role in ensuring that the teaching quality of business English major meets the national standard.

Teaching quality can be guaranteed if the teaching objectives are met. Whether teaching objectives are attained is determined to a great extent by teaching process. M. Sercan Uztosun (2006) mentions that testing is the only way to see the efficiency of the teaching process. Besides, Chastain (1988) points out testing enables teachers to understand what can be done to facilitate students' learning. Arthur Hughes (1989) discusses 4 kinds of tests, say, proficiency tests, achievement tests, diagnostic tests and placement tests. He divides achievement tests further into final achievement tests and progress achievement tests. And he proposes that teachers should feel free to set their "pop quizzes" to have a rough check on students' progress and keep students on their toes. J. B. Heaton (1990) discusses 4 types of testes, namely, achievement tests, proficiency tests, aptitude tests and diagnostic tests. Achievement tests can be further divided into class progress tests and standardized achievement tests. He points out class test is a teaching device, its backwash effect on teaching and motivation being important features. In a word, testing and teaching are closely related and testing can be applied to the teaching process to enable the teacher to achieve teaching objectives.

Only a few teaching practitioners both in China and other countries have conducted empirical studies on application of class progress tests or quizzes to college English courses and other college-level courses. Fan Xueying (2013) applied classroom dictation tests to college English teaching in China and found that the tests were effective in enhancing students' linguistic competence to some degree. Ayanna K. Thomas et al (2020) applied frequent quizzes to Cognitive Psychology courses at Tufts University during the Fall 2014 semester and they found that frequent testing promoted long-term retention of college-level course material and they proposed that educators should consider employing this approach. According to these studies, it proves that class progress tests or quizzes are effective in achieving teaching goals and facilitating learning.

However, up to the present, the empirical research in this field is limited in number. As business English has been a relatively newly authorized major in higher education in China and grasping business knowledge and business terms contained in subject-based courses are a challenge for business English majors, it is necessary to conduct research on the application of class progress tests or quizzes to the teaching process to see if the tests will also be effective in promoting students' learning business knowledge as well as English.

II. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research aims to address the following 4 research questions.

1. Are frequent quizzes effective in promoting student's learning business knowledge in subject-based business English courses?
2. Are frequent quizzes effective in promoting student's learning English in subject-based business English courses?
3. What is students' feedback on the design of tests, such as length of time for testing, methods of tests, amount of items, etc?
4. What are students' suggestions for optimizing the quizzes for future use?

III. Research Method

A. *Participants*

The participants were the students majoring in business English who took the course in International Settlement and Documentation at Sichuan University of Arts and Science during the second semester of 2018- 2019 academic year. They finished the course in July 2019. The students taking the course were juniors from Class 6 and Class 7, totaling 65 students. 45 students out of them responded to the questionnaire which was distributed through Wenjuanxing (literally questionnaire star), a Chinese online questionnaire survey platform, by the instructor of the course at the beginning of 2020. The main reason for the rest 20 students' not responding to the questionnaire was the large time gap between finishing the course and taking part in the questionnaire survey, which may have resulted in their dwindling enthusiasm in participation in the research. Besides, they may have suffered from anxiety due to the outbreak of COVID-19, so that they ignored the questionnaire survey online. As a result, all analyses were conducted on the 45 students who responded to the questionnaire.

B. *Design and Procedure*

The teaching objective of the course in International Settlement and Documentation is to enable students to acquire the relevant business knowledge and business English language items, and master the skill of making out various documents involved in international trade. The teaching content focused on relevant business knowledge and business English language items from Week1 to Week14 and the practice of making out documents from Week15 to Week17. In order to promote students' learning of the relevant business knowledge and business English language items, the instructor prepared 14 quizzes and made students take the 14 quizzes from Week 2 to Week15, one quiz per week. Each quiz was designed to check on students' understanding and acquisition of the relevant business knowledge and language items they had been taught in the previous week. For example, the quiz they took on Week 2 was to check on their understanding and acquisition of business knowledge and language items they had been taught in Week1.

As for the testing methods, the 14 quizzes consisted of 4 types of questions, namely, blank filling for business knowledge, true or false questions for business knowledge, blank filling for process of various payment methods, Chinese-English or English-Chinese translation for business English terms, with each quiz composed of some of the four questions. Each quiz consisted of around 30 items in total, depending on the amount and difficulty of teaching content and all the items were kept on one sheet of A4 paper. Sample Quiz 1 is available in Appendix. As Heaton (1990) mentions that a good class progress test should encourage students to perform well in the target language and to gain additional confidence, the total score for each quiz was designed to be 100 points, of which each item was 2 points and the rest points were assigned to students automatically with the purpose of encouraging students to learn and making them have additional confidence. Take Quiz 1, there are 25 items accounting for 50 points and the other 50 points are assigned to students automatically. If the student gets one item wrong, the student will get 98 points.

As for the procedure of quiz taking and marking of quizzes, the students took each quiz in the paper-and-pencil form at the very beginning of each lecture for 8 minutes from Week 2 to Week 15, and after they finished each quiz, they would immediately exchange the quiz papers with their deskmates to mark the quiz papers, with the instructor giving explanation of each item to the students for about 7 minutes. Then the instructor would collect all the quiz papers and see what the students did well and poorly in the quiz after class and offer corresponding feedback in the following week.

IV. Findings and Discussion

There are seventeen closed questions and one open-ended question in the questionnaire. These questions are divided into five types regarding students' demographic information, their overall view on and attitude to quizzes, effectiveness of quizzes, their feedback on the design and administration of quizzes, and their suggestions on optimizing the design of quizzes for future use.

A. *Students' Demographic Information and Their Overall View on Quizzes*

As for the gender ratio of respondents, the result shows that 40 female students and 5 male students responded to the online questionnaire. With regard to students' overall view on quizzes, all the students thought it was necessary to take quizzes. 46.67% of the students thought the degree of necessity of taking quizzes was very high, 37.78% of them thought the degree was high, and the rest of them thought the degree was moderate. The main reason for this result is to a large degree related to the new and difficult business knowledge and terms of the subject-based business English course, International Settlement and Documentation. By taking quizzes, students may better grasp the teaching content. Besides, quizzes can add some variety to teaching process, which may stimulate students' interest and enhance their initiative. As a result, the students thought it was necessary to take quizzes.

B. Students' Attitude to Quizzes

Three questions about students' preparation for quizzes, their participation in quizzes, and their propensity for recommending quizzes for future use were designed to determine students' general attitude to quizzes. As for their preparation of quizzes, the vast majority of students prepared for quizzes. 62.22% of students prepared for most of the quizzes, 15.56% of them prepared for all the quizzes, another 15.56% of them sometimes prepared for quizzes, and only 6.66% of them hardly ever or never prepared for the quizzes. The data demonstrates the vast majority of students took the quizzes seriously and had a positive attitude to quizzes. The main reason is that most of students had a positive attitude to study on the whole based on the instructor's regular observation of the students' performance in class. And they knew the importance of this course, for it is closely related to their future career development. It is natural and understandable for them to transfer a positive attitude from study to quizzes. However, not all the students prepared for all the quizzes mainly because some of them have a tight schedule for after-class activities and therefore have no sufficient time for preparation for each quiz. Furthermore, very few students hardly ever or never prepared for quizzes mainly because such students had a negative attitude to study on the whole or the quizzes might have been too difficult for them, so they gave up trying.

With regard to their participation in quizzes, the result shows all the students took quizzes. 64.44% of them took all the quizzes, 33.33% of them took most of the quizzes and only 2.22% of them took less than half of the quizzes. It can also be inferred that the vast majority of students had a positive attitude to quizzes. The fact that some of students missed some of quizzes is largely accounted for by their asking for sick leaves or personal leaves. What's more, very few students with a negative attitude to study skipped classes occasionally, so they missed some of the quizzes. As for students' propensity for recommending quizzes for future use in classroom instruction, all the students recommended the instructor apply quizzes in future classroom instruction. 44.44% of the students very strongly recommended quizzes for future use, another 44% of them strongly recommended so, and the rest 11.11% of them moderately recommended so. The result further indicates that the students had a positive attitude to quizzes, which may due in a large part to their experience in benefiting from taking quizzes and their recognition of the effectiveness of quizzes in facilitating their acquisition of business knowledge and their English learning as well.

C. Effectiveness of Quizzes

In respect of effectiveness of quizzes, six questions were designed to solicit the students for their opinions. Firstly, as for their scores in the quizzes, 91.12% of students' scores usually ranged from 100 to 80, and the rest 8.8% of students usually scored below 80. The data indicates that the vast majority of students did well in the quizzes, which can be accounted for by their positive attitude to and preparation for the quizzes to a large extent. However, very few students scored relatively low marks, which may be due mainly to their negative attitude to the quizzes and lack of preparation. Secondly, as far as the overall effectiveness of quizzes is concerned, all the students thought the quizzes were helpful for them to learn the course. 33.33% of the students thought the quizzes to be extremely helpful, 44.44% of them thought the quizzes to be very helpful, and the rest of them thought quizzes to be moderately helpful.

Thirdly, when it comes to effectiveness of different types of questions in facilitating students' acquisition of business knowledge and English learning, four questions were designed to solicit students for their opinions. As for the question type of blank filling regarding business knowledge, the percentages of students who considered this question type extremely and very helpful were 48.89% and 42.22% respectively. Only 2.22% of the students thought this question type to be somewhat helpful. The result shows this question type was very effective on the whole. As for true or false question regarding business knowledge, 37.78% of the students thought it to be extremely helpful, 42.22% of them thought it very helpful and the rest students thought it moderately helpful. The data obviously indicates that this question type was also effective.

With regard to the question type of blank filling regarding procedures of various payment methods, 42.22% of the students thought it to be extremely helpful, 35.56% of them thought it to be very helpful and only 2.22% of them thought it to be of little help. Evidently, the data demonstrates that this question type was effective. As for the question type of Chinese-English or English-Chinese translation of terms, 53.33% of the students considered it to be extremely helpful, 37.78% of them thought it very helpful and the rest students thought it moderately helpful. The result also shows this question type was effective.

Of the four questions types mentioned above, the question types which the students thought to be extremely and very helpful were Chinese-English or English-Chinese translation, blank filling regarding business knowledge, true or false question regarding business knowledge and blank filling regarding the procedures of various payment methods in descending order of percentages. This result may reflect that students still attached great importance to English language learning when taking this course even though they knew the focus of the course was more on acquisition of relevant business knowledge and mastery of relevant business skills.

D. Students' Feedback on the Design and Administration of Quizzes

When it comes to the students' feedback on the design and administration of quizzes, three questions were designed to collect students' opinions. As for the diversity of questions types, the largest number of students who accounted for 46.67% thought that the degree of diversity was moderate, with 22.22% and 31.11% of the students thinking the degree to be extremely high and very high respectively. This result is very likely caused by the fact that there were four question types only in quizzes. As is mentioned in research design section, each quiz consisted of around 30 items in total, depending on the amount and difficulty of teaching content and all the items were kept on one sheet of A4 paper. The result shows that the vast majority of students accounting for 68.89% thought the amount of items was moderate, with the rest students thinking the amount was extremely large or very large. As for the administration of quizzes, it is mentioned above that eight minute were allowed for students to finish each quiz and seven more minutes were for students' marking the quiz with the instructor giving answers and explanations when necessary. The result shows that 28.89% of the students thought the amount of time for administration of quizzes was extremely appropriate and 31.33% of them thought it was very appropriate, with the rest students thinking it moderately appropriate. It is evident most of the students were satisfied with the time allocated for administration of quizzes. This result may be accounted for by the fact that administration of each quiz only accounted for about 16% of the total teaching time for two periods of this course per week from Week 2 to Week 15. The time for teaching new content each week was still guaranteed.

E. Students' Suggestions' on Optimizing Quizzes for Future Use

When it comes to the students' suggestion on optimizing the design and administration of quizzes, 3 questions were designed to solicit students for their opinions. As for the suggestions on question types, the students agreed with adding some question types, such as, short-answer question, matching, making out documents, sequencing question, etc. And the question types the students preferred to add focused on making out document, matching, and short-answer question. The data shows 66.67% of the students preferred to add the question type of making out documents, with 60% of them preferring to add short-answer question and matching. It is understandable that greater diversity of question types can better hold students' interest in quizzes and draw their attention to quizzes. Besides, the reason for students' preference for making out document is mainly due to the fact that making out documents is a vital business skill for them to master even though making out documents is the teaching focus of the final stage of the course from Week 15 to Week 17. As for the amount of items, the vast majority of the students accounting for 86.67% thought there was no need to alter the amount, with the rest 13.33% of them agreeing with moderate reduction in the amount of items. The reason for a few students' supporting reducing the amount of items may be that very few students with relatively weak English proficiency found it hard to finish all the items in a quiz on time or that very few students with superior English proficiency found it unnecessary to maintain the amount of items and thought fewer items would not impact the effectiveness of quizzes. As for time allocated for administration of quizzes, 68.89% of the students agreed to keep the arrangement unchanged, while 28.89% of them agreed to reduce the time moderately, with the rest 2.22% agreeing to increase the time moderately. The result shows for most of the students the allocated amount of time was appropriate. The reason for some students' suggestion of reducing the time may be that their English proficiency was relatively high, they prepared for the quizzes fully, and they could finish the quizzes sooner. And the very few students suggested increasing the amount of time probably because their English proficiency was lower and they did not understand what was taught in class to a large extent. Besides, they may not have prepared for quizzes fully. Therefore they may have found it a bit hard to finish the quizzes within given time periods and preferred to be allowed more time for quizzes.

V. CONCLUSIONS

The study shows that frequent quizzes applied to subject-based business English course were effective on the whole. All the participants thought it necessary to take quizzes and the vast majority of them had a positive attitude to the quizzes, which was to a large degree reflected by the fact that most of them prepared for the quizzes. Also, the vast majority of them did well in the quizzes, which shows they acquired relevant business knowledge and language items. All the participants considered the quizzes to be helpful for them to learn the course. Of the four questions types in the quizzes, blank filling regarding business knowledge, blank filling regarding procedure of various documents, true or false question were effective in facilitating the participants' acquisition of business knowledge to a great degree, and the Chinese-English or English-Chinese translation helped them master the English language items a great deal. The participants' stronger preference for the question type of translation showed that they attached great importance to English language learning to some degree despite the fact that the focus of this course is more on the relevant business knowledge and skills. As for the design and administration, the vast majority of participants were satisfied with the amount of items and time allocated for the quizzes. What's worth improving on is the diversity of question types.

In a word, application of frequent quizzes in subject-based business English courses is effective in facilitating business English majors in acquiring relevant business knowledge and language items to a great extent.

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS

Some recommendations on application of quizzes to English teaching practice, future research on application of quizzes, and optimizing quizzes are put forward as follows:

A. Recommendations on Application of Quizzes to English Teaching

As is shown in the results of this study, quizzes are effective ways to help students acquire both subject knowledge and English language items. It is suggested that quizzes should be applied to a larger variety of subject-based English courses especially designed for business English majors, such as, English for International Marketing, English for International Negotiation, International Trade Theory and Practice, etc., because these courses are interdisciplinary and contain lots of subject knowledge which is totally new to business English majors and it is highly challenging for them to understand and acquire the relevant knowledge. By means of quizzes, the teacher can better achieve teaching objectives and students can better acquire the subject knowledge as well as relevant language items, because by designing quizzes, the teacher will be more conscious of the teaching objectives and the focus of teaching content, and by preparing for and taking quizzes, the students can pay more attention to the focus of teaching content and consolidate the subject knowledge and language items as well.

The recommendation above also applies to the knowledge-based English courses especially for general English majors, such as, general linguistics, English lexicology, English stylistics, American Literature, British Literature etc. The reason is that these courses contain lots of knowledge regarding English language itself or literature, part of which is new to English majors and difficult for them to acquire, even though these courses are not interdisciplinary. With the use of quizzes, students can acquire the relevant knowledge better.

B. Recommendations on Future Research on Application of Quizzes

In view of the fact that there have been a very limited number of empirical studies on application of quizzes to English teaching in so far, firstly it is strongly recommended that more empirical research on application of quizzes to English teaching should be conducted. Secondly, research methods can be diversified in future research. For example, more qualitative and quantitative methods can be applied, such as, interview, focus group survey, experiment, etc. As a result, findings of research will be more comprehensive and provide more insights into the application of quizzes. Thirdly, as this study only focused on the effectiveness of quizzes, future research can focus on more diverse topics, such as the backwash effect of quizzes on English learners. What’s more, it is recommended that future research be conducted based on a larger sample of subjects. As long as more empirical research on application of quizzes is conducted, more insights into application of quizzes can be available and provide English teaching practice with implication and better frame of reference.

C. Recommendations on Optimizing Quizzes

As for recommendation for optimizing quizzes, it is suggested that the general principle that quizzes should be based on the teaching content and objectives should be followed. In terms of question types, diversity should be taken into consideration and it may be advisable that students should be involved in determining the question types before the actual application of quizzes to teaching practice. In this way, students’ needs can be better met and their initiative can be better stimulated. As for the amount of items of quizzes, it is desirable to keep all the items on one sheet of A4 paper. In this way, both the teacher and the students can focus on the core teaching content and the essential knowledge and language items, which may also keep the workload for teacher’s design of quizzes and students’ preparation for quizzes at a reasonable level. Finally, the decision on time allocated for administration of quizzes can be made collaboratively by the teacher and the students before actual application of quizzes and the decision may be adjusted according to students’ feedback after the actual application for a couple of times. In other words, when it comes to the times allocated for administration of quizzes, flexibility and dynamic adjustment should be taken into account.

APPENDIX

Sample Quiz 1
Class:
Student’s Name:
Date:

I. Fill in the blanks with proper information.

1. International settlement refers to ________________ activities among _____________ countries in which _______________ are made and _____________ are transferred in order to settle accounts, debts and _____________.
2. Payments for goods fall into the category of international ____________
3. Settlement while payments for services fall into international ____________ settlement.
4. Overseas remittance is categorized as transfer of ____________.
5. Methods of payment include remittance, collection, L/C, bank ____________, factoring and _____________.
6. In the 18th century, banks began to engage in ________ exchange transactions.
7. Bill of lading is an important document because it can serve as a cargo receipt, a _____ contract and ________ to goods.
8. SWIFT is a message ____________ or communication system, CHIPS is a private ___________ clearing system, and _______ is a real-time _________ clearing system.

II. Translate the following terms into Chinese.
   1. cash on delivery
   2. cash on shipment
   3. factoring
   4. forfaiting

III. Supply English equivalents for the following terms.
   1. 完税后交货
   2. 工厂交货
   3. 船上交货
   4. 到岸价

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Ping Chen was born in Dazhou, Sichuan, China in 1979. She obtained her Master's Degree in Foreign Linguistics and Applied linguistics from Chongqing University in China in 2012. She is currently a lecturer in School of Foreign Languages of Sichuan University of Arts and Science. Her current research interests include cognitive linguistics and English teaching.

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A Cognitive Approach to Semantic Disorientation in Mandarin I —Theoretical Prerequisites and a Case Study*

Ting Yang
School of Foreign Languages, Chongqing College of Humanities, Science & Technology, China

***Abstract*—Semantic disorientation refers to the phenomenon where sentence constituents with direct syntactic relations have no direct semantic linkage. The phenomenon is ubiquitous in Mandarin and related structures have been frequent research topics in the field of Chinese language study. However, there's no systemic description of their syntactic and semantic features, nor in-depth exploration of the linguistic and non-linguistic motivations. From the perspective of cognitive linguistics, the current study approaches this phenomenon with a usage-based and non-derivational language view. The phenomenon is defined and categorized on the cognitive and psychological basis and a descriptive and explanative frame-work is built for a more accurate and adequate account of the phenomenon. The syntactic and semantic features, as well as the linguistic and non-linguistic motivations of the disoriented verb-complement constructions are addressed as a case study.**

***Index Terms*—semantic disorientation, cognitive linguistics, description & explanation frame-work, verb-complement construction**

I. Introduction

Generally speaking, syntactic forms have corresponding relationships with their semantic structures, and congruent[1] pairs between forms and meaning are formed as a result. Therefore, the ultimate goal of language studies is to explore this form-meaning correspondence (Shao, 2007). However, syntactic forms and semantic structures may not correspond with each other in a completely neat way. For example,

(1) Xiaoming duguo le yige manchang de shujia.
Xiaoming pass-ASP ASP one-CL long LK summer holiday.
Xiaoming passed a long summer holiday.

(2) Xiaoming duguo le yige kuaile de shujia.
Xiaoming pass-ASP ASP one-CL happy LK summer holiday.
Xiaoming passed a happy summer holiday.

The syntactic patterns of (1) and (2) are exactly the same. But close examinations of their semantic structures show that they display different ways of form-meaning correspondence. Generally speaking, attributes modify their head words, just like "manchang" (long) in (1) does. The modifier provides temporal information for the summer holiday. However, the attribute "kuaile" (happy) in (2) does not modify the head word as the attribute in (1) does, even though they both have the same syntactic relation. Different from (1), "kuaile" (happy) and "shujia" (summer holiday) do not have direct semantic relation despite of their attribute-head syntactic formations. Instead, the attribute has close semantic linkage with the subject "Xiaoming". There seems to be a "mismatch" between the syntactic form and semantic structure in (2). Another similar example is as follows,

(3) Xiaoming kuaile de duguo le yige shujia.
Xiaoming happily LK pass-ASP ASP one-CL summer holiday..
Xiaoming happily passed a summer holiday.

Example (3) differs from (2) in that the adjective "kuaile" (happy) functions as an adverbial instead of being as an attribute. Still, the adverbial does not modify the verb "duguo" (pass) but has a modifying linkage with the subject "Xiaoming". The attempt to remove the modifier back into the syntactic slot that it seems to be belonged turns out to be a failure as the restored sentence can hardly be acceptable.

(4) kuaile de Xiaoming duguo le yige shujia.
Happy LK Xiaoming pass-ASP ASP one-CL summer holiday.
Happy Xiaoming passed a summer holiday.

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[1] The concept of congruence is borrowed from Systemic-functional Grammar.

As is shown by (2) and (3), for the adjective “kuaile” (happy), no matter whether it functions as an attribute in (2) or as an adverbial in (3), its modifying relation with the subject “Xiaoming” never change. It seems that the attribute or the adverbial “belongs to” the subject and, because of certain reasons and syntactic managements, it is relocated. However, the restoration of the modifier back to its seemingly original place turns out to be a failure, as is shown by (4). The meaning changed dramatically from (2) and (3) as Xiaoming’s happiness is irrelevant with his holiday, while in (2) and (3), Xiaoming’s happiness is closely related with the summer holiday.

The “mismatch” as is shown in (2) and (3) caught linguists’ attention and has been a frequent research topic since then. Scholars have proposed the *Attribute View* (Pan, 1981), *Adverbial View* (Zhu, 1982; Dai, 1982; Lu, 2001; Shao, 2002), *Movement View* (Lv, 1986) and *Grammatical Metaphor View* (Cong, 2013) for the syntactic and semantic gap as is shown by the sentences above. However, these views are easily falsified by examples like (4). The core belief of the views is that syntactic forms can be changed with their meanings being untouched. Therefore, all the views can be subsumed as a *transformation view*.

Structuralism holds that different morphological sequences represent different syntactic patterns, while cognitive linguistics believes that different sentences form different cognitive images in people’s mind. Both of the linguistic approaches disagree with the *transformation view*.

The present study approaches this phenomenon from a psychological and cognitive perspective. The research shows that semantic disorientation is a pervasive linguistic phenomenon and the structures instantiating this phenomenon have been the research topic of various linguistic trends. The phenomenon will be defined and categorized on cognitive and psychological basis, and a descriptive and explanative frame-work will be built for a more accurate and adequate account of the phenomenon-related structures. The syntactic and semantic features, as well as their linguistic and non-linguistic motivations, of verb-complement constructions will be addressed as a case study.

II. Definition and Categorization of Semantic Disorientation

It is proposed that semantic disorientation refers to the non-congruence between syntactic forms and semantic structures (Zhang, 2005). The phenomenon is defined in the view of traditional linguistics, and it resides in the interface of syntax and semantics. Since cognitive linguistics holds that meaning is conceptualization and that syntactic forms correspond to conceptual structures, there is no “mismatch” or “non-congruence” between form and meaning. However, semantic disorientation indeed reflects a special linguistic phenomenon and has been the target of linguistic study for quite a long history. Therefore, the current paper tentatively defines semantic disorientation as a syntactic-semantic phenomenon where sentence constituents with direct syntactic relations have no direct semantic linkage. The definition follows the research tradition of the phenomenon and enables the current study to be a continuation and development of the previous studies in a consistent manner.

The definition limits the research area of the phenomenon within the interface of syntax and semantics, but it does not mean that it happens everywhere in the interface. Studies show that it most frequently occurs in the modifier-head and verb-complement constructions.

The definition of the phenomenon is based on cognition and psychology. Psychological researches show that when people are observing an object in the environment, they tend to single the object out as a perceptually prominent figure standing against the ground (i.e. the environment). Gestalt psychologists name it as the *Figure-ground Theory* and the introduction of the theory into linguistic researches produced profound effects. Two prominent features of the theory, figure-ground segregation and figure-ground reversal, are closely related with people’s choice of linguistic structures and the subjective manipulation of syntactic sequences.

Figure and ground differ from each other when people are perceiving the world around them. The figure is singled out against the ground. It is coherent, structured, and has a form and shape. On the contrary, the ground is formless and unstructured. Visually, the figure stands out as an object against the background. Furthermore, the figure of perception might be changed on the condition that the candidate figure fulfills the *Principles of Prägnanz*, i.e., the principles of proximity, similarity, closure and continuation (Ungerer & Schmid, 2006). Figure-ground segregation sheds light on the structures of language in that no matter on what syntactic level the units might be, some part may stand out as the figure, being more prominent than the others. Also, people may switch their emphasis based on communicative purposes and, most importantly, their ways of construal of the events or scenes in the world. It is important in the study of semantic disorientation in that the phenomenon is in fact a way of prominence switch and also reflects people’s way of construal.

Figure-ground reversal is also the psychological foundation for semantic disorientation in that related structures are the linguistic manifestations in language. People may change their focuses of perception and, correspondingly, change the objects of prominence. Language structures follow the same principle of prominence. Semantically disoriented structures reflect people’s change of profile in the construal of the events or scenes through syntactic managements.

It is true that semantic disorientation is pervasive in languages, but it does not mean that it exists in every aspect of language. As for Chinese, it is mainly about verb-complement constructions and modifier-head constructions. According to Bloomfield (1933), if the form-class of a constituent is the same with that of the structure, then the structure is an endocentric construction and that constituent is the head of the structure, otherwise, it is an exocentric construction. For verb-complement and modifier-head constructions, it is evidential that both of the constructions are endocentric because the verbs in the verb-complement constructions, and the nouns or verbs in the modifier-head constructions have the same form-classes with the whole constructions.

The function of the complements in the verb-complement constructions is to provide supplementary information for the verbs (Zhu, 1982; Ma & Lu, 1997; Lu, 2016). They illustrate the location, time, extent and completement of the actions. For example,

(5) xiaoming chiwan le mifan.
Xiaoming eat-ASP ASP rice.
Xiaoming has finished the rice.

In (5), the complement "wan" indicates the completion of the action "chi" (eat). It semantically links with the verb. However, there are also cases where the complements do not link with the verbs directly but associate closely with other syntactic constituents.

(6) xiaoming dapo le huaping.
Xiaoming hit-broken ASP vase.
Xiaoming hit and broken the vase.

"dapo" (hit-broken) has been considered as a prototypical verb-result construction in Chinese and, thusly, been a repeated research topic. One of the most important points of the researches are the semantic orientation of the complement "po" as it directly links with the object of the sentence instead of the verb as the complement in (5) does. According to our definition, such kind of complements belongs to the semantic disorientation phenomenon.

The modifier-head constructions mainly consist of two types, attribute-noun constructions and adverbial-verb constructions. The constructions are considered as endocentric constructions as the modifiers in the constructions modify the heads, i.e. showing properties of the nominal heads or the way, extent, time, strength of the verbal heads. Usually, the modifiers directly link with the heads of the constructions, but there are cases where the modifiers are semantically linked elsewhere, which can be illustrated by example (2) and (3).

Semantic disorientation is not only pervasive in Chinese, it is also ubiquitous in other languages like English and Japanese. Jackendoff (1972), Keiichiro (1982), and Masayuki (1987) have noticed the semantic disorientation of the adverbials in the two languages. Although different languages differ in some aspects, the semantic disorientation could be categorized as follows,

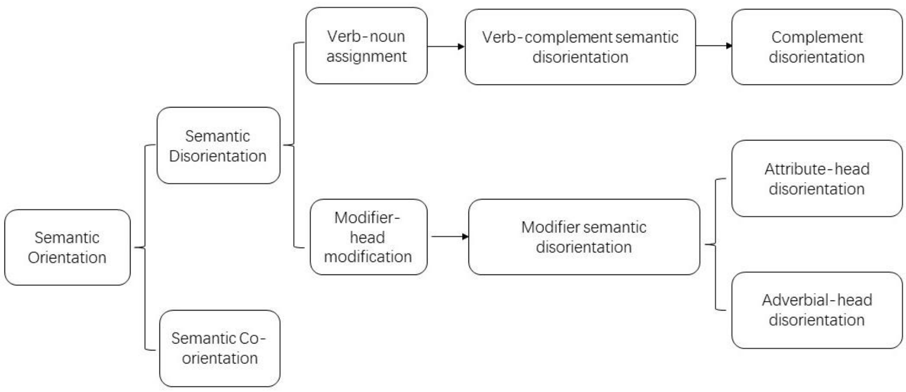

Figure I: Categorization of Semantic Disorientation in Mandarin

It can be easily told from Fig. I that there are two types of semantic disorientations, namely, verb-noun assignment and the modifier-head modification. The typical instantiation of the first type is the complement disorientation as illustrated by (5), while the prototypical modifier-head modifications are the attribute-head and the adverbial-head disorientation. It should be noted that the full picture of semantic orientation is far more complicated than what's shown by Fig. I. At least there are four types of semantic orientations as listed by Shen (2008), but only two of them are relevant to semantic disorientation. For convenience and clearance's sake, only the most relevant parts are listed here.

III. The Justification and Cognitive/Psychological Basis of the Categorization

A. Justification of the Semantic Disorientation Categorization

The concept of semantic disorientation originates from the ingrained understanding of language being consisted of three levels, i.e. syntax, semantics and pragmatics. Through the long and slow evolution, languages developed a relatively stable syntactic-semantic correspondence. Different meanings are transferred by different syntactic forms and, vice versa, different syntactic configurations convey varying meanings. The phenomenon of semantic disorientation seems to be an exception in this regard since it demonstrates a kind of "mismatch" between form and meaning.

Usually, the complements and modifiers (including attributes and adverbials) provide supplementary information for the heads of the verb-complement and modifier-head constructions. However, as illustrated by (2) and (3), there are numerous cases where the complements and modifiers do not directly link with their syntactically adjacent elements.

According to their syntactic roles and relation with the oriented parts, the current study classifies semantic orientation phenomenon into different categories as illustrated by Fig. I.

The categorization can be tested by word collocation requirements, sentence transformation and syntactic generalization.

The most straight-forward method is the judgement based on word collocation requirements, or simply, the language intuition by native speakers, no matter whether they are professionally trained for linguistic analysis or not.

(7) laowang xizizi de zha le pan huashengmi.
Laowang happy LK fried ASP CL peanuts.
Laowang happily fried a plate of peanuts.

(8) laowang cuicui de zha le pan huashengmi.
Laowang crisp LK fried ASP CL peanuts.
Laowang crisply fried a plate of peanuts.

People can easily tell that the adverbials in (7) and (8) do not semantically link with the verbs. Instead, the “xizizi” (happy) in (7) is semantically oriented to the subject, because the only human being, i.e. laowang, could have the feeling of happiness in the sentence. While the adverbial “cuicui” (crisp) in (8) can only link with the object “huashengmi” (peanuts). These judgements are simple, but deeply root in people’s basic conceptualization of the selection and restriction of word collocations.

The second method of test comes from the transformation of the sentences. This method is based on the relevance of syntactic patterns (Lu, 2013). Different syntactic patterns may be internally linked despite of their sequential and formal differences.

(9) xizizi de laowang zha le pan huashengmi.→*laowang zha le pan xizizi de huashengmi.
happy LK Laowang fried ASP CL peanuts. →*Laowang fried ASP CL happy LK peanuts.
Happily Laowang fried a plate of peanuts. →*Laowang fried a plate of happy peanuts.

(10) laowang zha le pan cuicui de huashengmi. →*cuicui de laowang zha le pan huashengmi.
Laowang fried ASP CL crisp LK peanuts. →*crisp LK Laowang fried ASP CL peanuts.
Laowang fried a plate of Crispy peanuts. →*Crisply Laowang fried a plate of peanuts.

Syntactic elements cannot move freely in a sentence and it is clear that the sentences marked with “*” in (9) and (10) could hardly be accepted because of their semantic weirdness. Also, there are other ways of syntactic transformation tests, like the *Ba* (把) sentences, *Bei* (被) sentences, verb-copying sentences, etc. The successful transformations from disoriented sentences are quite effective in the confirmation of the oriented targets of the complements or modifiers.

The third way of testing disorientation is from the perspective of sentence generalization. For transformation-generative linguists, the same surface structure may be generated from different deep structures. Therefore, sentence generalization can be employed as a way of disorientation test.

(11) na shou ge chang de Zhangsan leiliumanmian.
That CL song sing LK Zhangsan full of tears.
That song moved Zhangsan into tears. / Zhangsan sang that song and cried.

(11) is an ambiguous sentence because it can be understood as Zhangsan being the singer of the song or someone else being as the singer. The ambiguity can be analyzed as follows,

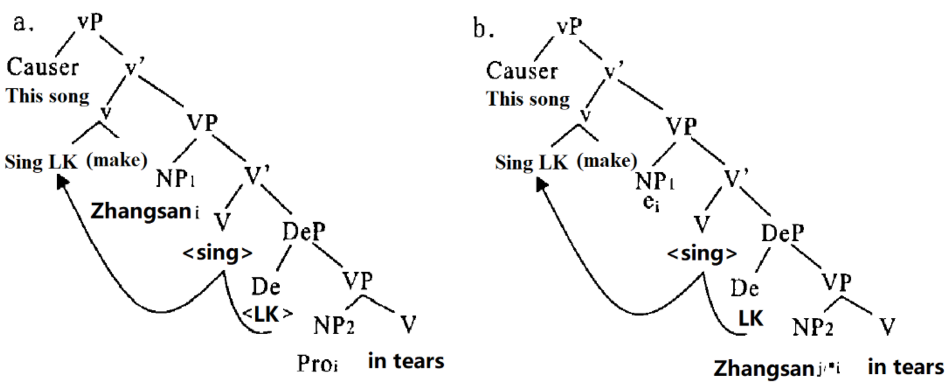

Figure II: Two Ways of Generalization
(Adapted from Jiang, 2006.)

From Fig. II, it is easy to tell the differences between the two ways of generalization and locate the root of the ambiguity. Comparatively speaking, this method is far more complicated than the previous two.

B. The Cognitive and Psychological Basis of the Categorization

Figure-ground Theory provides the psychological base for semantic disorientation. Gestalt psychologists find that when people are perceiving the world, they tend to single the things which catch their attention out against the environment. For example, when we are in a piano concert, our attention follows the sound of piano and, more often than not, neglects other musical instruments. Also, when we are watching high-jumping, our vision follows the track of the athlete and ignores the environment at the same time. People can also change their focus by switching their attention. These findings are illustrated by the vase/face illusion as follows.

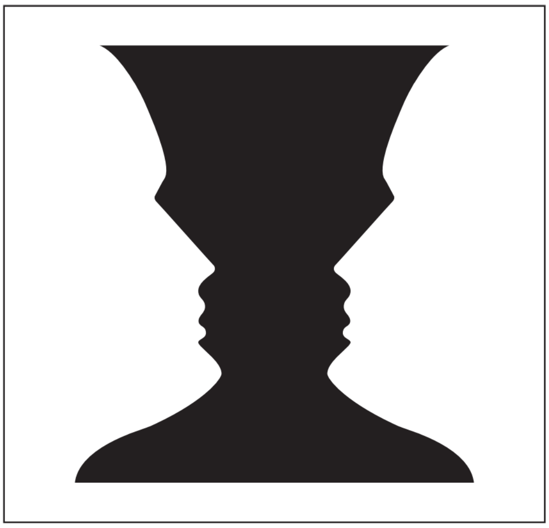

Figure III: The Face/vase Illusion

As is shown by Fig. III, if people focus on the black part, they will see a vase while if they switch their attention to the white part, they will notice the two faces. However, people cannot focus on the vase and faces at the same time. This psychological discovery is named as the figure-ground reversal. Its effects are also pervasive in language structures.

The current study categorizes semantic orientation into semantic disorientation and semantic co-orientation and points out that verb-complement, attribute-head and adverbial-head constructions are most likely to be semantically disorientated. The division of semantic disorientation and co-orientation is cognitively based.

As descriptive elements, complements provide supplementary information, e.g. time, speed, scope, extent, state, frequency, for the verbs (Zhu, 1982; Ma & Lu, 1997). Therefore, it is an unmarked usage for action-related adjectives to be complements (Zhang, 2005, 2006; Shen, 2008). Similarly, as typical modifying elements in Chinese, attributes and adverbials are meant to provide descriptive information for their constructional heads.

The *Endocentric Construction Theory* proposed by Bloomfield (1933) holds that if the form-class of a certain constituent is the same with that of the construction, then the construction is endocentric and that constituent is the head of the construction. In actuality, the theory is founded on the *Theory of Distributional Equivalence*. Obviously, all of the three constructions are endocentric and, cognitively, the heads in the constructions are more prominent than other constituents as is shown by Fig. IV.

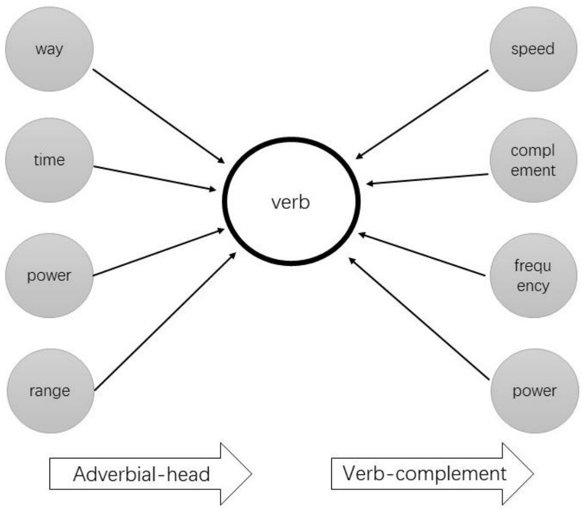

Figure IV: The Profile of Semantic Co-orientation Constructions

As is shown by Fig. IV, no matter whether they are adverbial-head or verb-complement configurations, the heads stand out as the figures (marked with bold-lined circle) of the semantic co-orientation constructions and the other elements act as the ground (marked in grey).

With the development of Chinese study and especially with the introduction of cognitive linguistics, the above-mentioned view is questioned by scholars like Li (1984), Gu (1992), Yuan (2001), Croft (2001) etc. With regard to the heads of verb-complement constructions, the scholars hold that, instead of the verbs, the complements are more likely to be the heads. *Complement Head Theory* and the *Division of Syntactic-semantic Head Theory* are proposed to explain why the complements bear higher information density. Croft (2001) and Shen (2004) also questioned the plausibility of the application of the *Endocentric Theory* to the confirmation of the heads in the verb-complement constructions.

The above-mentioned questions are in accordance with native speakers' language intuition and the core of the problem lies in the ubiquitous distriution of disoriented constructions. From the perspective of cognition and psychology, the essence of semantic disorientation is the reversal of the figure-ground relation in the constructions as is shown by Fig. V.

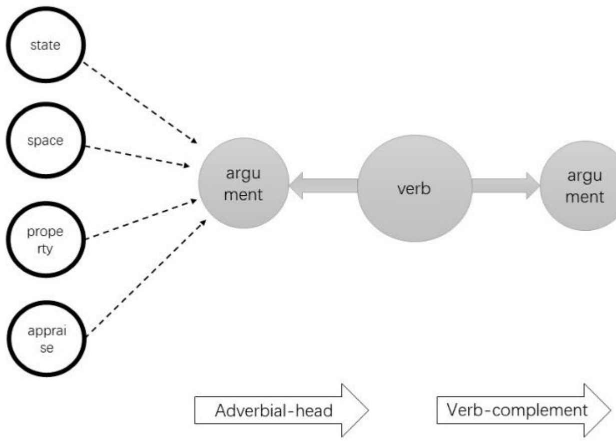

Figure V: The Reversal of Figure-ground Relation in Disoriented Constructions

As is shown by Fig. V, the original figure (i.e. the verb) becomes less prominent and acts as the ground in the relation (marked in grey), while the disoriented adverbials and complements function as the figures in the relations because of their higher information density and cognitive prominence. They are heavily loaded with information like speaker subjectivity, intention, evaluation, etc.

As for disoriented complements, they have their own argument structures, and dominate or share arguments with the verbs. Instead of providing supplementary information for the events being constructed by the verbs as the co-oriented complements do, disoriented complements construct resultative or evaluative events by themselves and, in terms of prominence, they are far more important than the causitive or conditional events constructed by the verbs. In Talmy's terms (2000), the disoriented complements build a framing event while the verbs only construct a co-event, whose main function is to provide environmental or supplemental information.

IV. Constructing a Descriptive and Explanative Frame-work

A. *The Basic Principles of Constructing the Frame*

The current study follows the research paradigm of cognitive linguistics and, at the same time, combines traditional semantic analysis with *frame semantics*, *event structure theory*, *figure-ground theory*, and *construal theory*. Based on the usage-based approach, and the *surface-generalization* and *non-derivational view* from construction grammar, it intends to construct a frame-work capable of accurate description and efficient explanation.

1. Usage-based Approach

Since the middle of last century, linguists have been concerned with the influence of language use on language structures. They attached great importance to real world utterances and their impacts on language evolution, grammaticalization, and children's language acquisition. These linguists include T. Givon, S. A. Thompson, P. Hopper, R. Langacker, L. Talmy, G. Lakoff, G. Fauconnier, J. Taylor, etc., and their research paradigms can be collectively referred to as a *Use-based Model*.

The usage-based approach or usage-based language view believes that language knowledge is built on the basis of human physiological conditions, cognitive mechanisms and the high frequency of linguistic events; language knowledge is the sum of linguistic structures, which are symbolic units of form and meaning with different levels of complexity and abstraction. The core of the claim is that language is a usage-based, complex, and dynamic cognitive adaptation system. There are five major tenets as listed below.

(1) The fundamental purpose of language is communication;

(2) Natural language is used in and affected by context, e.g., the relationship between the speaker and the listener influences the choice of words;

(3) Language is acquired, and there is no innate language acquisition mechanism;

(4) Meanings do not only come from morphological terms, but also from linguistic structures;

(5) No differentiation is made between syntax and morphology. Each syntactic structure has its unique meaning, and there is no conversional relationship between each other, e.g., passive sentences are not converted from active sentences.

The major difference between the usage-based language approach and previous research views or paradigms is the ultimate emphasis on natural utterance and its relation with grammatical structures.

2. Surface Generalization and Non-derivation View

Goldberg (2006, 2013) points out that surface generalization and non-derivation are the two important principles of Construction Grammar. Surface generalization emphasizes the importance of surface form and believes that each grammatical form has its unique function. The generalization of surface form is more extensive than generalizations derived from deduction or conversion. On the other hand, the non-derivation view negates all formal conversions and derivations, and holds that conceptual structures are directly projected to syntactic structures.

Surface generalization and non-derivation views are mainly used in the study of linguistic constructions, and are also considered as the basic views of cognitive linguistics at large. They function as the cognitive basis for semantic disorientation too. The current study holds that sentences stand as holistic structures with unique meanings and form different images in people’s mind. The claims are incompatible with the *transformation view* proposed by other research schools. From the dynamics of cognitive construal, different linear sequences mean completely different conceptual structures and psychological access paths, which are the consequences of different ways of construal on the same events.

B. A Framework for Semantic Disorientation Description and Explanation

In line with the research paradigm of cognitive linguistics and based on the usage-based approach and surface generalization and non-derivational view, the article intends to build a descriptive and explanative framework for semantic disorientation phenomenon.

Linguistic description methods can be divided into three categories: Classified Description, Layered Description and Feature Description (Du, 2020). These methods cannot be used freely since they have specific requirements on the research objects. The objects described by Classified Description must have collective features and high degrees of homogeneity within the group and sufficient discrepancy from adjacent categories. While the Layered Description method can only be applied to subjects whose collective inner structures are hierarchical. As for semantic disorientation phenomenon, all the three methods are applicable.

Scientific explanation mainly includes deductive explanation and model explanation (Du, 2020). Linguistic explanation is an explanative method based on both deductive explanation and model explanation. Linguistic explanation can be carried out from three dimensions, namely, historical, grammatical and functional. As to semantic disorientation, model explanation is mainly used in the exploration of its cognitive motivations.

Therefore, a description and explanation framework can be proposed as is shown by Figure VI.

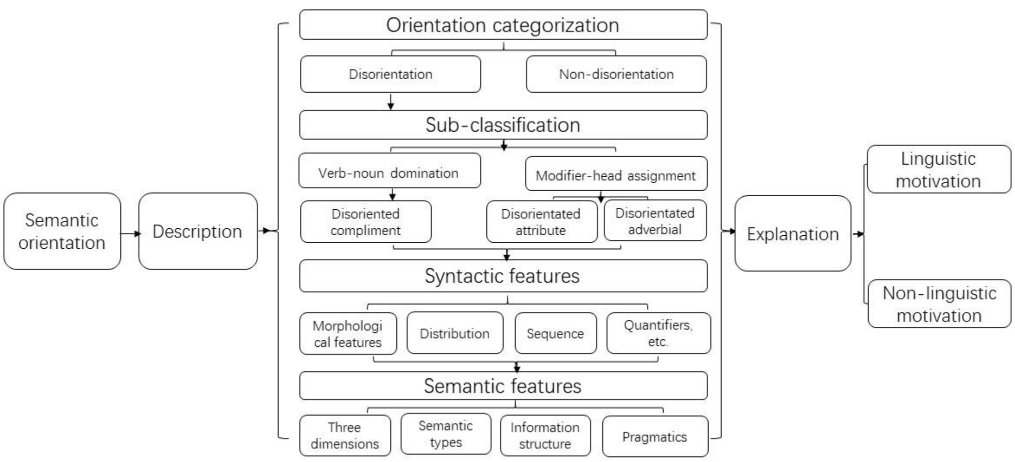

Figure VI: The Descriptive and Explanative Framework of Semantic Disorientation

As is shown by Fig. VI, the framework starts from the judgement of orientation types which are classified into two categories and three sub-classes. Then the syntactic and semantic features are examined successively. As for the syntactic features, the disorienting elements are surveyed from their morphological features, distribution, syntactic sequences and quantifiers etc. for contrastive purposes. Then, the semantic features of the disoriented constituents are examined. "Three dimensions" refer to the targets, the number of targets and the collocation with the targets. Furthermore, their semantic types, information structures and pragmatic effects are surveyed in this regard.

The accuracy of description and adequacy of explanation are the ultimate goals of linguistic study, with the former being the premise of the adequate explanation. Therefore, the motivations of the disoriented structures are explored from linguistic and non-linguistic aspects. The usage of the disoriented structures may be motivated meta-linguistically, pragmatically, socially, or cognitively, and it is also possible that different types of motivations may function together.

V. Verb-complement Constructions in Mandarin: A Case Study

A. Syntactic and Semantic Descriptions of the Verb-complement Constructions

Based on the descriptive and explanative frame-work as constructed in Part IV, verb-complement constructions are described and explained as a case study. In a verb-complement construction, if the semantic orientation target of the complement is the verb, then it is a semantic co-orientation construction, otherwise it is a disorientation construction. Co-orienting complements are investigated and it is found that they have unique syntactic and semantic features, e.g., having looser restrictions on the syllables and being more likely to be grammaticalized. For example,

(12) Disyllables: zou shangqu (walk-up), pao chulai (run-out), kan xiaqu (watch-downward)
Monosyllabic: pao diao (run-lose), tuchu (vomit-out), chiwan (eat-over)

In (12), both disyllabic and monosyllabic complements are used in the verb-complement constructions and provide information, like direction, completeness, etc. for the verbs. It is also found that the co-orienting complements are more likely to be grammaticalized than the disorienting ones. Despite of their different degrees of grammaticalization, they have higher possibilities of losing their concrete meaning and taking on abstract grammatical functions.

Let's turn to the syntactic and semantic features of the disorienting complements. Despite of the differences as listed previously, the information structures and argument structures of the disorienting complements are dramatically different from those of the co-orienting complements.

As for the information structure, disorienting complements do not provide any periphery information to the verbs. The complements denote a framing event while the verbs build a co-event. Therefore, two events are expressed through one disorienting verb-complement construction rather than only one event as in a co-orienting verb-complement construction. It can be safely concluded that disoriented verb-complement constructions have higher information density than co-oriented verb-complement constructions.

As for the argument structures of the verb-complement constructions, co-orienting complements are more likely to be grammaticalized and take the verbs as their semantic orienting targets. Co-orienting complements can hardly dominate any argument. Things are different with regard to the disorienting complements as they construct framing events and have their own or share arguments the verbs.

The survey of the argument structures (mainly the number of the arguments) of the disorienting complements shows that the number of arguments in the sentences is exactly the same with the valence of the verbs or adjectives that function as the complements. The findings also justify the value of the reductionist view of argument structure analysis in verb-complement constructions.

B. Motivations of the Verb-complement Constructions

The motivations of the language structures can be grouped into linguistic motivations and non-linguistic motivations as is shown by Fig. VI. Verb-complement constructions are motivated both linguistically and non-linguistically.

Linguistic motivations can be explored both diachronically and synchronically. Diachronically, Chinese language has gone through a process of disyllabicalization and monofocallization. In ancient Chinese, there can be two focuses in one sentence. For example,

(13) <u>gong</u> er <u>po</u> zhi.
<u>attack</u> LK <u>break</u> it (the city)
<u>Attack</u> and <u>break</u> the city.

(14) <u>ji</u> er <u>sha</u> zhi.
<u>hit</u> LK <u>kill</u> it (the people)
<u>Hit</u> and <u>kill</u> the people.

As is shown by (13) and (14), ancient Chinese sentences usually have two focuses. With the linguistic evolvement, the two verbs link together and some of them even become compound words. Still, the inner structure of the words can be told easily. Language evolvements are slow and it is estimated that the verb-complement constructions come into being about hundreds of years ago (c.f. Shi, 2003).

Non-linguistic motivations are more complicated. The most common non-linguistic motivations are social motivations (like politeness, tradition, etc.), psychological motivations, and cognitive motivations. Not every language structure is motivated by all the factors and the motivations do not function in the same way. The psychological and cognitive motivations of the constructions are analyzed as a case study.

Gestalt psychologists find the intriguing illusion of the face-vase picture as is shown by Fig. III and people's special way of perceiving the world. People may single one thing out from its environment, and focuses on it. The thing that is being singled out is named as the figure. It is structured, has closed line and stands against the background, which is usually unstructured, uniform and formless. Psychologists call this as the figure-ground segregation. Also, people may change their chosen figure, and focus on other things in the background on the condition that the new figure fulfills the *Principles of Prägnanz*. It means that the figure-ground relation is reversible.

The psychological findings motivate the emergence of disoriented verb-complement constructions. It is true that the verb-complement constructions are form-meaning pairs, still they are reductive in the reductionist view. From the co-oriented constructions to the disoriented constructions, people change the roles of the verbs and complements in the figure-ground configuration. In the co-oriented constructions, the verbs are the figures of the configuration while the complements provide supplementary information for the verbs. While in the disoriented constructions, the complements dominate arguments by themselves and, most importantly, they construct the framing events of the sentences while the verbs denote the causative or conditional co-event. Of course, result is far more important than the reasons and conditions. Therefore, the complements in the disoriented verb-complement constructions step out from the background and are being perceived as the figures.

VI. CONCLUSION

The current study explores the theoretical prerequisites for the analysis of semantic disorientation phenomenon in Mandarin. It is an all-new attempt to take this phenomenon as a research subject despite of the fact that the relevant structures have been repeated research topics with quite a long history. It is demonstrated that the categorization of the disorienting structures is cognitively and psychologically based and there are syntactic as well as semantic methods to test the validity of the categorization. Based on the usage-based approach and with the surface generalization and non-reductionist view, a descriptive and explanative framework is constructed for the systemic description and explanation of the phenomenon. To test the validity of the frame, verb-complement constructions are analyzed as a case study. It turns out that the constructions with disorienting complements have varying syntactic and semantic features from those with co-orienting complements. It also shows that the disorienting verb-complement constructions are motivated both linguistically and non-linguistically.

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Ting Yang received her Master's degree in English Language and Literature from Southwest University, China in 2012. She is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Chongqing College of Humanities, Science and Technology. Her research interests include Cognitive Linguistics, Second Language Acquisition and higher education.

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Pragmatic Analysis of Presidential Campaign Manifestos of Muhammadu Buhari and Donald Trump

Chioma Juliet Ikechukwu-Ibe
Department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria Nsukka, Nigeria

Sopuruchi Christian Aboh
Department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria Nsukka, Nigeria

Christopher Uchenna Agbedo
Department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria Nsukka, Nigeria

***Abstract*—The study examines the presidential campaign manifestos of Presidents Muhammadu Buhari of the Federal Republic of Nigeria in 2015 and Donald Trump of the United States of America in 2016. Specifically, it sets out to analyse these presidents' campaign speech promises on security using the cooperative principle, ascertain the conformity of their promises on job creation to the theory of cooperative principle. The study also sets out to examine the two presidents' campaign promises on health care using the theory of cooperative principle. Using the secondary source as method of data collection, the analysis is based on one of the tenets of the Gricean (1975) Cooperative Principle- maxim of quality. The study, therefore, adopts Paul Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle (CP) as its theoretical framework. The findings of the study suggest that both Presidents Muhammadu Buhari and Donald Trump observed the conversational maxim of quality at some point in their presidential campaign speech promises on security, job creation and health care, but violated it at some other point. In all, the maxim of quality as a conversational rule was not fairly observed by both presidents in their presidential campaign manifestos in 2015 and 2016 respectively.**

***Index Terms*—cooperative principle, Muhammadu Buhari, Donald Trump, political campaign, maxim, manifesto**

I. Introduction

In most organised societies, there is need for one who will be recognised as the leader. Becoming a leader in such a gathering takes due processes, one of which is political campaign (www.openelectiondata.net). Political campaigns in the opinion of Ike-Nwafor (2015) are the means by which candidates and political parties prepare and present their ideas and positions on issues to the voters in the period proceeding election day. It is, therefore, an organised effort which seeks to influence the decision making process within a specific group.

Delivering speech during political campaigns is an interesting part of the entire campaign exercise as it involves the use of well-structured and constructed linguistic items to convince the electorates. Campaign speeches are series of talks given during the official declaration of intention to run for a political position, which are capable of exciting and motivating the electorates. Donella (2010), in an attempt to define campaign speech, looks at it as having meaning only as emotional triggers. This, Donella (2010) says, is based on the claim that words are misapplied out rightly in campaign speeches to hide truths. In the opinion of Addy and Ofori (2020), campaign speeches are strategically crafted to convince the electorate of various policies, programs, and ideas. Through the speeches, politicians surreptitiously influence and control how their audience receive and perceive the information being given to them (Addy & Ofori, 2020, p.1279).

Like other speech acts, campaign speeches are meant to be governed by some principles or rules to facilitate communication, which is the ultimate goal of every conversation. When campaign speeches are delivered, one notices elements of digression on the part of the speaker (election candidate) or misunderstanding among the listeners (electorates). While digression could stem from the speaker giving out contributions that are more or less than required at the point of delivery, misunderstanding could arise from untrue information. It is expected that while electioneerers are delivering their campaign speeches, they should not only give out adequate information or speak on relevant issues, but also speak on subjects they have observable evidences or proofs.

A. Campaign Speech Message

The message of any political campaign contains the ideas that the candidates want to share with the voters (en. wikipedia.org). It is to get those who agree with their ideas to support them when running for political positions. The message often consists of several talking points about policy issues with well-constructed language. The points summarise the main ideas of the campaign and are repeated frequently in order to create a lasting impression with the voters. In many elections, the opposition party will try to get the candidate *off point* by bringing up policy or personal questions that are not related to the talking points (en. wikipedia.org). Most campaigns prefer to keep the message broad in order to attract the most potential voters. Addy and Ofori (2020) aver that the main intention behind a political message is to legitimise a political position believed to be more credible than the other. For example, in the 2008 American presidential election, John McCain originally used a message that focused on his patriotism and political experience: 'Country First'; later the message was changed to shift attention to his role as 'The Original Maverick' within the political establishment. Barack Obama ran on a consistent, simple message of 'Change' throughout his campaign (Lyons, 2008). Like Barrack Obama, the current president of Nigeria, President Muhammadu Buhari, during his presidential campaign in 2015, used the message of 'Change'. Therefore, a well crafted or refined political campaign message may increase a candidate's changes of winning an election.

It has been observed that most times, some election candidates fail to effectively communicate their programmes to the electorates, probably, as a result of noncompliance to some conversational rules or maxims. Therefore, finding out if Presidents Muhammadu Buhari and Donald Trump have observed the maxim of quality in their presidential campaign speech manifestos, forms a problem for the study. By examining the two Presidents' presidential campaign speech manifestos of 2015 and 2016 respectively, the study wishes to establish a linguistic point of intersection between the Federal Republic of Nigeria as an underdeveloped country practicing democracy and the United States of America as a developed country also practicing democracy.

This research has, as its main purpose, to comparatively analyse the presidential campaign manifestos of Muhammadu Buhari and Donald Trump. Specifically, the study sets out to analyse Presidents Muhammadu Buhari and Donald Trump's presidential campaign speech promises on security using the cooperative principle (maxim of quality); ascertain the conformity of the two Presidents' campaign speech promises on job creation to the maxim of quality; and examine their presidential campaign speech promises on health care using the cooperative principle (maxim of quality). The maxim of quality seeks to find out how true a contribution is, and that is why it requires a speaker to contribute that which he/she can prove to be true (Grice, 1975).

B. On Presidents Muhammadu Buhari and Donald Trump

President Muhammadu Buhari, who had unsuccessfully run for the office of president of Nigeria in the 2003, 2007 and 2011 general elections, emerged the presidential candidate of the All Progressive Congress (APC) in December 2014 for the March 2015 general elections (https://www.360dopes.com). APC as a political party is known for the slogan 'change' since it believes that the People's Democratic Party (PDP) government had performed poorly over the years. Buhari's presidential manifesto was therefore, based on the message of 'change'. Buhari came out victoriously in the election, thereby defeating the incumbent President Goodluck Jonathan. Buhari's triumph seemed to be the first time in the history of Nigeria an incumbent president lost to an opposition candidate in general elections. Currently, President Muhammadu Buhari is the 16th president of the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

President Donald Trump was a member of the Reform Party from 1999-2001; a member of the Democratic Party from 2001-2009 and also a member of the Independent Party from 2009-2011 (www.wes-weasley.fandom.com). In 2012, he joined the Republican Political Party. He entered the 2016 presidential race as a Republican and defeated sixteen opponents in the primaries. His political positions are described as populist, protectionist, and nationalist. Trump's campaign received extensive free media coverage; many of his public statements were controversial. Trump was elected president against Hillary Clinton of the Democratic Party; his victory upsets the expectations of the results of polls and analysts. Donald Trump became the oldest and wealthiest person ever to assume the presidency in the United States of America without prior military or government service. Currently, President Donald Trump is the 45th president of the United States of America.

II. Review of Related Literature

Political speeches, especially campaign speeches analysable with cooperative principle, critical discourse analysis and other linguistic theories have received considerable scholarly interests from linguists across the globe. In a study conducted by Miriti and Christopher (2016) on the use of figurative language (FL) in selected politicians' electoral campaign speeches in Meru County during 2013 Kenya general elections, figurative language was presented as mainly socio-culturally constructed and a major area for misinterpretation or manipulation when it collides within the sphere of national politics. The objectives that guided the research are to find out the categories of FL used by the politicians, examine the functions of FL, establish the relation between gender and FL; and determine the influence of politicians' educational level on the use of FL. Miriti and Christopher's (2016) study adopted Fairclough's (1998) approach to CDA and Thematic analysis as its theoretical framework. The results showed that metaphors and symbolism were the most used figures of speech by politicians, FL was used to criticise opponents, persuade electorates, make shorter versions of their ideas and boast how best fitted they were for the position. Politicians also employed figures of speech to mislead or deceive the electorate, create unity between the politicians and the electorates, illustrate the policies they had in mind for the people. Most of the politicians who used figures of speech were holders of bachelor's degree as the highest educational levels; politicians with highest and lowest educational levels were unlikely to employ FL in their electoral campaign speeches.

The study observed that Kenyan politics are tribal since FL along tribal lines was used to encourage voters to vote. Miriti and Christopher (2016) noted also that FL was used to divide, rule, and insult the opponents; the youth are marginalised in politics; Meru community is still a patriarchal society; the most learned were confident, careful and selective in their use of figurative language. Similarly, Waya (2017) conducted a study of the patterns of hate speeches during the Nigeria 2015 and the United States of America 2016 presidential campaigns using Van Dijk's (2004) model of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). The study set to compare and examine the features of the hate speeches used during the 2015 and 2016 presidential campaigns in Nigeria and the U.S.A. The study suggested that gender/sexual orientation recorded highest hate speeches of 10.7%, while both racism and health recorded 7.1% in the U.S.A. In Nigeria, hate speeches recorded 10.7% on political affiliation, personality/trust and educational queries; Nigeria's hate speeches scored 7.1% on the bases of ethnicity and health and there was no hate speech that focuses on gender/sexual orientation. In America, hate speeches were found more among nominees. In the case of Nigeria, the party followers of both opposing groups recorded more hate speeches than the nominees. Both campaigns recorded equal hate speeches on personality/trust. Waya (2017) concluded that hate speech can be used as an intended or unintended instrument for political violence and hatred, and as such, politicians should avoid its deliberate use but concentrate more on critical issues that can bring about peaceful elections.

Sharndama (2017) critically analysed the inaugural speech of President Muhammadu Buhari, which was delivered shortly after his swearing into office on 29th May, 2015. In carrying out the analysis, the study adopted the Norman Fairclough's (1998) three dimensional analytical models. Following the model, the speech was subjected to description (text analysis), interpretation (processing/ analysis) and explanation (social practice and analysis). The results of the findings suggested that an inaugural speech is a revelation of plans and hopes in the new government. The speech analysed particularly revealed the ideologies/plans on which the new government headed by President Muhammadu Buhari intended to operate. The most important ones included good governance, strengthening international relations, foreign policies and democracy, insecurity, corruption, improved power supply, and the nation's economy.

The result of the review shows that a good number of studies on campaign and other political speeches have been carried out by different researchers (Miriti & Christopher, 2016; Waya, 2017) using critical discourse analysis as theoretical framework especially Van Dijk's version of CDA. None among the reviewed works comparatively analysed the presidential campaign speech manifestos of Presidents Muhammadu Buhari and Donald Trump, using the cooperative principle. The present study, therefore, intends filling this conspicuous gap created in the study of linguistics.

III. Theoretical Framework

Paul Grice's Cooperative principles (CP)

Since this study aims at a comparative analysis of the presidential campaign speeches of Presidents Muhammadu Buhari and Donald Trump, its theoretical framework is the cooperative principle. For Grice, people cooperate in the process of communication so as to reduce misunderstanding. As Grice (1975, p. 26) in Brennam, Kuhlen and Charoy (2018) states, "Make your conversational contribution in a way that it is required, at the stage it should occur, and by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which it is engaged." This rule is what Grice refers to as 'Cooperative Principle (CP)'.

Davis (1998) paraphrases the CP as contributing what is required by the accepted purpose of a conversation. Grice asserts that the CP thus formulated expresses a truism about rational communication, and it is due to this truism that conversational implicatures can be calculated. More specifically, Grice (1975, p. 27) claims that the CP encompasses a set of conversational maxims, governing rational communication. Grice's original maxims include:

Quantity: Make your contribution as informative as is required. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

Quality: Do not say what you believe to be false. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

Relation: Be relevant.

Manner: Be perspicuous.

The theory of cooperative principle encompasses a set of conversational rules that reduce misunderstanding in the process of communication. The theory also allows one to assess individuals' speeches in terms of their truthfulness (maxim of quality). It is, on this note that the researchers find the theory a worthy framework for data analysis. To achieve a detailed analysis, this paper will analyse Presidents Muhammadu Buhari and Donald Trump's presidential campaign manifestos based on one of the maxims (Maxim of quality) put forward by Grice (1975, p. 27).

IV. Research Methodology

The study adopts content analysis research design. Content analysis is the study of audio files or information which has been recorded in texts, media or physical items. For Zeng, Zhang and Wang (2019), it is a research design for studying documents and communication artifacts, which might be texts of various formats, pictures, audio or video. The choice of this research design is necessitated by the focus of this study, which is to investigate already recorded events; Nigeria and America's presidential election campaigns of 2015 and 2016 respectively.

The population of this study comprises all the political speeches of Presidents Muhammadu Buhari and Donald Trump but based on the impossibility of studying all the political speeches delivered by Presidents Muhammadu Buhari and Donald Trump, we selected their presidential campaign manifestos of 2015 and 2016 respectively. Considering the bulkiness of analysing all their campaign speech promises, the study chooses promises on security, job creation and health care. These campaign speech promises were purposively selected owing to the fact that they are the promises of the current presidents of Nigeria and the U.S.A. These campaign promises are, therefore, analysed based on the on-going events in Nigeria and the U.S.A.

In an attempt to elicit the best data for the study, we employ the use of online sources where sample newspapers are made accessible. Also, other materials both online and handy, which inform the current states of Nigeria and the U.S.A. as it affects the campaign promises, are consulted.

The analysis of the two presidents' campaign promises on security, job creation and health care is based on the maxim of quality, one of the tenets of the Gricean (1975) Cooperative Principle. One excerpt from each subject is randomly selected from the two presidents' campaign manifestos of 2015 and 2016 respectively to reflect the position of the maxim of quality as a conversational rule. Therefore, a total of six excerpts are analysed in this study.

V. Analysis and Discussions

Three major subjects (security, job creation and healthcare) were extracted from the campaign speech manifestos of Presidents Muhammadu Buhari and Donald Drump made in 2015 and 2016 respectively. Thus, the analysis is structured into three parts. The first part analyses the two Presidents' campaign speech promises on security; the second examines their campaign speech promises on job creation; while the third analyses their promises on healthcare. Analysis here is based on the maxim of quality, one of the conversational maxims in Cooperative Principle (CP).

A. Analyses of Presidents Muhammadu Buhari and Donald Trump's Presidential Campaign Speech Promises on Security

The security of a nation should be the priority of every president. Both Presidents Muhammadu Buhari and Donald Trump have shown in their presidential manifestos that they have the interest of the citizens of Nigeria and America respectively at heart by promising them an all round security if elected into power. The maxim of quality seeks to find out how true a contribution is, and that is why it requires a speaker to contribute that which he/she can prove to be true.

To ascertain Buhari and Trump's speeches conformity to the maxim of quality, let us consider the following excerpts, as well as make reference to Nigeria and America's situation reports.

Excerpt 1: Buhari

…combat insurgencies, kidnapping, armed robbery, ethno-religious and communal clashes, nationwide.
(https://www.vanguardngr.com/2015/05/what-buhari-promised nigerians)

In the above excerpt, Buhari had promised to combat insurgencies and kidnapping in Nigeria. A well-known insurgent group in Nigeria is the Boko Haram Terrorist Group. This group employs suicide bombing, organised attacks on police and military installations, and rural communities, etc. as tactics to fight for their religious belief of western education being corrupt. To confirm the President's faithfulness in fulfilling this promise, a look at table 1, featuring the timeline of Boko Haram attacks in Borno state (from May to August 2017), as found in Vanguard Online News of August 20th, 2017 is worthwhile.

TABLE 1
TIMELINE OF BOKO HARAM ATTACKS IN BORNO STATE FROM MAY TO AUGUST, 2017

Date	Location	Number of people killed	Number of people injured	Number of people kidnapped
May 13th	Twin suicide attacks in the University of Maiduguri (UNIMAID)	Hundreds of UTME candidates and Mr. Daniel Musa, a security guard	-	-
May 16th	Shawari and Mandari in Konduga LGA	Countless	-	-
May 18th	Three female suicide bombers attack UNIMAID	Countless, including the 3 female bombers	-	-
June 8th	Three suicide attacks in Jiddari/Polo general area of Maiduguri metropolis	13	24	-
June 19th	Kofa village attack	23	11	-
June 20th	Maiduguri-Damboa-Biu road attack	Scores dead		14
June 25th	UNIMAD and surrounding communities of Kaleri, Muna Garage general area	17	-	-
July 7th	Security operatives repel suicide attacks on UNIMAID	2	-	-
July 12th	Suicide attack in Molai Kura, Maiduguri	23	23	-
July 16th	Maiduguri	1	1	-
July 25th	Bornoyesu, Borno state	40	-	3
August 1st	Mildu village, Adamawa state	7	Countless	-
August 8th	Baga in Kukwa LGA, Borno state Duguri, Dabar-Wanzam	31 31	-	-

Source: Vanguard Online News of August 20th, 2017

Table 1 suggests that over 200 people were killed, more than 60 persons injured, and 17 people kidnapped within four months (May-August) in one state (Borno). If we have such outrageous result for a state, the safety of the entire Nigerians is not guaranteed.

From excerpt 1 also, the President promised to combat communal clashes nationwide. In Nigeria today, groups of Fulani cattle rearers are perceived to be the brains behind some communal clashes. These groups of men take their herds of cattle through bushes, farms, streets and major roads of Nigeria in the name of grazing. While feeding their cattle, they damage both lives and property.

Also, to ascertain the fullfilment of the maxim of quality by the President, the activities of the Fulani herdsmen from 2016 to 2017, which mark the President's first and second year in office, will be examined.

As found in www.vanguardngr.com, Senator Chukwuka Utazi of PDP, Enugu North, lamented over the gory massacre of the people of Ukpabi Nimbo Community in Uzo-Uwani Local Council of Enugu State, during the senate meeting held on April 28, 2016. While moving the motion, Sen. Utazi recounted the attacks of the herdsmen between 2016 and 2017, all in Buhari led government. The recounted attacks are summarised in table 2 below:

TABLE 2
HERDSMEN ATTACKS FROM 2016 TO 2017

Year	Date	Location	Number of people killed	Number of people injured
2016	January 3rd	Udeni Ruwa, Nasarawa state. Agatu, Benue state	12-38 45	-
2016	January 17th	Gareji, Taraba state	3	-
„	January 23th	Demsare, Wunamokoh, Dikajam and Taboungo, Adamawa state	30-60	
„	February 7th	Tom Anyiin	10	-
„	February 11th	Abbi, Enugu state	2	-
„	February 24th	Agatu, Benue state	300-500	-
„	February 28th	„	9	-
„	March 7th	Mbaya-Tombo, Benue state	20	-
„	March 17th	„	17	-
„	March 26th	Awgu, Enugu state	-	76
„	April 3rd-7th	Ohali-Elu, Rivers state	23	-
„	April 9th	Ilado, ondo state	1	1
„	April 10th	Angari, Dashole, Dori and Mesuwa, Taraba state	15-44	-
„	April 18th	Moor	18	-
„	April 20th	Agatu, Benue state	-	11
„	April 25th	Nimbo, Enug state	46	-
„	November 25th	Dungun Mu'azu, Katsina state	8	-
2017	January 4th	Abraka and Obianukwu, Delta state	5	-
„	January 8th	Demsa, Adamawa state	49	-
„	January 9th	Abraka and Obianukwu, Delta state	5	-
„	January 15th	RafinGona and BCC Gbagyi, Niger state	11	-
„	January 17th	Samaru Kataf, Kaduna state	3	5
„	January 24th	Ipiga, Benue state Gidan Waya, Kaduna state	15 5	-
„	February 10th	Rukumawa Tsafe, Zamfara state	8	-
„	February 21st	Southern Kaduna	21	-
„	March 1st	Delta and Rivers	3	-
„	March 2nd	Mbahimin, Benue state	10	-
„	March 6th	Omumu, Delta state	2	-
„	March 11th	Mkgovur, Benue state	7	-
„	March 14th	Umuobasiukwu, Abia state	1	Several
„	March 28th	Emuhu, Delta state	3	6
„	May 8th	Tse-Akaa, Benue state	3	-
„	May 10th	Abraka, Benue state	1	3
„	May 12th	Ossissa, Delta state	7	-
„	May 13th	Logo Local Government, Benue state	8	-
„	May 18th	Afam Uku, Rivers state	2	-

Source: Vanguard Online News of June 1, 2017

Table 2 above is only a summary of the attacks by herdsmen recounted by Senator Utazi but not limited to what the Senator has given out. This is to say that there could be more of these attacks in the remaining months of the year 2017 and in 2018. For 2018, Osai Ojigho, Nigeria's director of Amnesty International, on Monday, 29th January, 2018, claimed that clashes between herdsmen and farmers in Adamawa, Benue, Taraba, Ondo and Kaduna have resulted in 168 deaths in January 2018 alone (www.amnesty.ie). From the account of Salami (2018), in 2017, the clashes between nomadic herdsmen and local farmers resulted in at least 549 deaths and thousands displaced across Enugu, Benue, Taraba, Zamfara, Kaduna, Plateau, Nasarawa, Niger, Plateau, Cross Rivers, Adamawa, Katsina, Delta and Ekiti states, and the government is still not doing enough to protect communities from these violent clashes.

Excerpt 2: Trump

…as soon as I take office, I will ask Congress to repeal the defense sequester that limited the military's budget.

Strengthen the military so that it's so big and so strong and so great that nobody's going to mess with us.

(Source: https://www.chron.com)

In excerpt 2 above, President Donald Trump had promised to ask the America Congress to eliminate the defense sequester. Department of Defense (DoD) News recorded that on 30th January, 2018, Trump told a joint session of congress that a strong defense is necessary to deter adversaries and asked them to end the dangerous defense sequester. The defense sequester was later eliminated as part of omnibus appropriations legislation passed in early 2018 (Carroll, 2017). This implies the fullfilment of the maxim of quality.

Also in the excerpt, Trump promised to strengthen the military. Records from Johnson (2016) show that on 16th November, 2017, the Senate backed Trump's expanded vision for the military when lawmakers sent him a defense policy bill, authorising a significantly increased military budget. The budget, which was more than what Trump had initially proposed includes funding for new equipment and strengthened nuclear defense sequester. The maxim of quality is obeyed in this excerpt.

Comparatively, Buhari promised to secure the territorial integrity of Nigeria and combat insurgencies, kidnapping, ethno-religious and communal clashes, but the data presented suggest that he has not lived up to his promise. He therefore flouted the maxim of quality. Trump's inability to construct an impenetrable physical wall, which he laid so much emphasis on results in the non-fullfilment of this maxim. He fulfilled it when the defense sequester he promised to eliminate as soon as he assumes office was eventually eliminated in early 2018, and when the Senate authorised a significantly increased military budget to fulfill his promise of expanding military investment.

B. Analyses of Presidents Muhammadu Buhari and Donald Trump's Presidential Campaign Speech Promises on Job Creation

Excerpt 3: Buhari

…as at 1999, Nigerian rate of unemployment stood at about 8%, today it is estimated from official statistics to be close to 30%. I will embark on vocational training, entrepreneurial and skills acquisition scheme for graduates along with the creation of Small Business Loan Guarantee Scheme to create at least 5 million new jobs by 2019.

(Source: https://www.abusidiqu.com)

To establish the fullfilment of the maxim of quality, which demands truth in whatever contribution made during conversations, the study consults the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) on employment and unemployment rates in Nigeria.

Records from the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) suggest that Nigeria's unemployment rate rose from 14.2% to 16.2% in the fourth quarter of 2016 and 18.8% in the third quarter of 2017 (www.sunnewsonline.com). It also notes that the country's labour population increased from 83.9 million in the second quarter to 85.1 million in the third quarter of 2017, a difference of 1.2 million in additional work force (www.ssjcd.org). The NBS stated that the total number of people in full-time employment (at least 40 hours a week) declined from 52.7 million in the second quarter 2017 to 51.1 million in third quarters and the number of people with labour force who were unemployed or underemployed increased from 13.6 million and 17.7 million respectively in the second quarter 2017 to 15.9 million and 18.0 million in the third quarter 2017 (www.ssjcd.org).

In analysing the reports from NBS, it is obvious that not much jobs have been created in Nigeria from 2015 when Buhari assumed office to the end of 2017, his second year in office, although the President had promised Nigerians 5 million new jobs by the end of his tenure. Instead, the country recorded increase in her unemployment rate, which is a set-back to the country's economy. The study, therefore, concludes that Buhari in his campaign promises on job creation has flouted the maxim of quality.

Excerpt 4: Trump

…create at least 25 million jobs and "be the greatest job president that God ever created."

Bring back manufacturing jobs from China, Mexico, Japan and elsewhere. States that can expect a rush of jobs include Pennsylvania, North Carolina, Michigan, Ohio, Florida, New Hampshire, Iowa, Nevada, New York and Virginia.

Encourage manufacturers to build or grow factories in the United States with tax incentives.

(Source: https://www.traderboersenboard.de)

Bring back the steel industry to Pennsylvania and use American-made steel in all federal infrastructure projects.

Make the auto industry in Michigan bigger and better and stronger than ever before. Bring the coal industry back to life in the Appalachian Mountain region.

Require employers to recruit from the unemployment office.

(Source: https://www.cihconline.com)

To ascertain the fullfilment of the maxim of quality by Trump, let us consider the following report from www.factcheck.org, a project of the Annenberg public policy centre.

Employment- Total nonfarm employment grew by more than 3.2 million during Trump's first 17 months in office, according to the most recent figures available from the Bureau of Labour Statistics.

Having 3.2 million nonfarm jobs is quite an achievement, continuing from an unbroken chain of monthly gains in total employment that started in October 2010. But the average monthly gain under Trump is 189,000 jobs, which is nearly 13 percent below the monthly average of 217,000 during Obama's second term. At the current monthly rate, a total of just over 18 million jobs would be added over eight years. That is better than the 11.6 million added under Obama and the 16.1 million added under Ronald Reagan, but still below the 22.9 million added when Bill Clinton was president, and the population was smaller.

Unemployment- The unemployment rate, which was below the norm when Donald Trump became president, has continued to fall even lower, to the lowest point in 18 years. The rate was 4.8 percent when he was sworn in, and then fell to 3.8 percent in May before rising to 4.0 percent in June 2018. Before the U.S. midterm election, Trump created 250, 000 new jobs between October to November 2018, thereby making the unemployment rate in America drop to 3.7%.

Job Openings- Another reason employment growth has slowed is a persistent shortage of workers. The number of unfilled job openings hit a new record of more than 6.8 million in April 2018. In March, for the first time on record, the number of job openings exceeded the number of unemployed people looking for work, which was under 6.6 million. In

May, the number of job openings slipped back to 6.6 million. That is a gain of nearly 1.2 million job openings; a rise of nearly 21.9 percent since Trump took office.

Manufacturing Jobs- Manufacturing jobs increased rapidly under Trump. The number rose by 344,000 between Trump's inauguration and June. That followed a net decrease of 192,000 under Obama. The increase under Trump amounts to 2.8 percent, even faster than the 2.2 percent increase in overall employment.

Going by the above report from www.factcheck.org, there is no room to gainsay the fullfilment of the maxim of quality by the American President Donald Trump. If Trump is yet to complete his second year and has recorded such great feat, it means he will by all standards live up to his promise of being the "greatest job president" ever known.

Buhari did not fulfill this maxim since he was unable to create 5 million new jobs. Instead, the unemployment rate in Nigeria increased in his administration. Trump on the other hand fulfilled the maxim of quality by creating many job openings and reducing the unemployment rate in the U.S.A. as he promised.

C. Analyses of Presidents Muhammadu Buhari and Donald Trump's Presidential Campaign Speech Promises on Healthcare

Excerpt 5: Buhari

Create an Insurance Policy for our Journalists as the nation faces hard times and our Journalists face more dangers in the discharge of their investigative work, to educate Nigerians in their rights and responsibilities. Ban medical tourism by our politicians from May 29, 2015.

(Source: https://www.abusidiqu.com)

The People Democratic Party (PDP) presidential aspirant, Senator Rabiu Kwankwaso has this to say: "Now that medical tourism has become the first choice of our leaders, we will ensure that the current situation in clinics and hospitals is given radical reforms" (Shibayan, 2018). Judging from the above statement, it becomes obvious that up till 29th August, 2018 when this statement was made, Nigeria's leaders still travel abroad for medical care and treatments. What this suggests is that Buhari, after promising to ban "medical tourism" by politicians in Nigeria, has not in any way done anything to fulfill this promise.

The New York Times, an American newspaper based in New York City reported on 8th May, 2018 that Buhari's latest trip to the United Kingdom took place after three weeks of strike by healthcare professionals who are calling for better working conditions and more funding. New York Times, in reaction to the president's medical trip, reminds the general public that during Buhari's campaign, he promised to ban foreign "medical tourism". The American News Giant also notes that Nigerians see Buhari's actions on health care as hypocritical. In reacting to Buhari's trip, Adebayo and Busari (2018) from the Cable News Network (CNN), on Thursday, 10th May, 2018 reported that the President's trip to the United Kingdom (U.K.) to see his doctor has reignited speculations about the state of his health and ability to rule Africa's biggest country (Nigeria). Buhari's medical trips abroad have sparked intense debate among Nigerians on social media as many argued that funds spent on medical bills abroad could be used to develop the country's healthcare system, which is in dire straits (Adebayo & Busari, 2018).

From the reports above, Buhari promised Nigerians to ban "medical tourism" by politicians, which himself is one, but did not live up to the promise. Not only did he fail to fulfill this promise, he has travelled about two to three times to U.K. to seek medical attention.

Excerpt 6: Trump

…completely repeal the Affordable Care Act and replace it with something terrific that is so much better, so much better, so much better. Americans will have great healthcare at a fraction of the costs.

(Source: https://www.chron.com/)

Trump had promised to repeal and replace Obama care. This law, according to www.bbc.com, is widely hated by Republicans, who say it imposes too many costs on business, with many describing it as a 'job killer'. The Affordable Care Act, as it is officially called is seen as an unwarranted intrusion into the affairs of private businesses and individuals. It seems this promise will not be fulfilled although the White House insists Trump has not given up. Information from www.washingtonpost.com shows that on 24th March 2017, Republicans withdrew the bill since it lacked support. This makes Paul Ryan, a member of the House of Assembly to say that Obama care remains the law of the land. On 4th May, a revised version of the bill was almost approved by the House, but on 28th July, the Senate rejected a variety of different repeal bills, thwarting the establishment of a conference committee and apparently killing the effort. The final effort to revive the repeal bill failed before 30th September, after which the Senate could no longer use a legislative procedure to pass a bill with just 51 votes (www.washingtonpost.com). In all, Trump's promise of completely repealing and replacing Obama care is unfulfilled, making the maxim of quality also unfulfilled.

Buhari made so many promises regarding health care improvement and development, but some of these promises were not fulfilled. Similarly, one of the promises Trump made to Americans was to knock down the regulatory walls between states for health insurance. Although Trump signed Executive Order 13813, which is intended to promote the sale of health insurance association plans across state line, but the fullfilment of this promise cannot be guaranteed in this study. On the other hand, Trump's promise to repeal and replace Obama care is considered unfulfilled because it has not been achieved. The maxim of quality is flouted here like we have in Buhari's promises.

VI. CONCLUSION

Cooperative Principle is an essential analytical tool for non-dialogic/interpersonal interaction. It provides the researcher with the opportunity to assess or grade individual's speech to ascertain its compliance to conversational rules/maxims. Examining the extent to which promises are fulfilled can only be achieved using the maxim of quality, an aspect of cooperative principle. Language use has great power potentials to negatively or positively influence public opinion or belief. As such, electorates are advised not to base their judgments or assessments on the carefully constructed speeches delivered by the election candidates, but to use their discretions when casting votes and consider the background records and personal attributes of these candidates.

The inquiry into the nature of the presidential campaign speech promises of Presidents Muhammadu Buhari and Donald Trump has revealed their faithfulness. The study, therefore, recommends further researches in the area as this will make politicians, who are not out to work be on their toes, knowing that the truth in their speeches are verified.

Appendix

Full texts: Presidents Muhammadu Buhari and Donald Trump's speeches are accessible from *https://www.vanguardngr.com/2015/05/what-buhari-promised-nigerians/* and *https://www.washingtonpost.com/people/jenna-johnson/* respectively.

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Chioma J. Ikechukwu-Ibe had her Bachelor of Arts and Master of Arts Degrees in Linguistics at the University of Nigeria, Nsukka. Her major research interests are on sociolinguistics, discourse and pragmatics, and psycholinguistics. Chioma has written many inciting articles published in reputable journals and a member of recognised professional bodies. Mrs. Ikechukwu-Ibe is a researcher in the Department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka.

Sopuruchi C. Aboh obtained his Bachelor of Arts Degree and Master of Arts Degree in Linguistics at the University of Nigeria, Nsukka. Sopuruchi specialises in sociolinguistics and pragmatics. Mr. Aboh is a member of Pragmatics Association of Nigeria, Nigeria Ecolinguistics Association, and Nigerian Institute of Translators and Interpreters and lecturer in the Department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka.

Christopher U. Agbedo is a professor of linguistics and currently lecturing in the Department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka. He specialises in sociolinguistics, discourse and pragmatics, as well as psycholinguistics. Professor Agbedo is a member of many reputable professional bodies across the globe.

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An Analysis of Metaphysical Conceits in John Donne's Poems

Jiapeng Du
School of Foreign Language, Taishan University, Tai'an, China

***Abstract*—In the seventeenth century British literary arena appears a unique school of poetry called "metaphysical school". The most remarkable characteristic of the metaphysical poetry is the original and arresting conceits. John Donne is the forefather and the most representative of the school. Through analyzing the sources of conceits in John Donne's poems, this paper attempts to clarify the using of conceits in John Donne's representative poems, and then summarize the features and unique functions of conceits. It is hoped that it can help readers to have a better understanding of the poet's poetry, and grasp his thoughts.**

***Index Terms*— metaphysical poetry, John Donne, conceit**

In the seventeenth century British literary arena appears a unique school of poetry called "metaphysical school". The word "metaphysics" was first used by the critic and poet, John Dryden. He once criticized John Donne's poems "affects the metaphysics" in his book Discourse Concerning Satire (Jones, 1986, p.55). Later in 1779, Dr. Samuel Johnson extended the word "metaphysical" to the group of poets in early seventeenth century, for example, John Donne, Andrew Marvell, George Herbert and so on. From that time these poets are called metaphysical poets. Metaphysical concerns are a common theme in their poems, exploring the world through rational discussion of world phenomena rather than through intuition or mysticism. The Metaphysical poets were ignored in the 18th and 19th centuries by Romantic and Victorian poets, but there was a new interest among readers and scholars in the 20th century who, from a metaphysical perspective, sought to understand the pressing political and scientific upheavals. In his essay "The Metaphysical Poets", T. S. Eliot, in particular, saw in this group of poets a capacity for "devouring all kinds of experience" (Eliot, 1950, p.241).

John Donne was the most outstanding of the English metaphysical poets, and was also considered a master of the metaphysical conceit. In contrast to the deliberate fluidity and sweetness of tone in much of 16th century poetry, he adopted an energetic, uneven and rigorous style. His work contains a healthy interest in life and its pleasures, while also expressing deep emotion. The using of metaphysical conceits in his poems had an immense influence on the following English poets (Wu, 2013, p.132).

This paper is to concentrate on the study of the outstanding characteristics of metaphysical conceits, and attempts to clarify the using of conceits in John Donne's representative poems, and then summarize the features and unique functions of conceits. It is hoped that it can help readers to have a better understanding of the content of the poet's' poetry, and grasp his thoughts.

I. An Introduction to John Donne and Metaphysical Conceits

A. John Donne's Poetic Creation

John Donne was born in Bread Street, London in 1572 to a prosperous Roman Catholic family - a dangerous thing at that time when anti-Catholic sentiment was common in England. He studied at both Oxford and Cambridge Universities in his early teen years, but got no degree at either university because his catholic belief. His contradiction on religion belief existed in his whole life though he converted to Anglicanism in his twenties. In 1621, he was named dean of St. Paul's cathedral. He attained eminence as a preacher, and "delivering sermons that are regarded as the most brilliant and eloquent of his time" (Sun, 2010, p.46).

At that time, Petrarchan sonnets were popular. The Petrarch sonnet was the first sonnet to be introduced into England. It was first translated into English by Thomas Wyatt in the early 16th century. The sonnet takes its name from the Italian poet, Francesco Petrarch, who lived in Italy in the 14th century. The theme of a typical Petrarchan sonnet is of unattainable love which is seen as one of the purest loves because nothing distracts from it. John Donne tries to break away from the conventional fashion of the sweet, vague and elegant Petrarchan style of writing. His diction is simple and the imagery is drawn, with god or with himself.

John Donne's life was full of ups and downs, and his personal relationship with religion was tumultuous and passionate, and at the center of much of his poetry. Such life experiences provide a wealth of material for his poetry. His works in his early period were very passionate. He wrote a lot of love poems to express his view on love. A good many of *The Songs and Sonnets* were written in this period. Contrary to the Petrarchan love idea that only spiritual love was praised, Donne holds that the perfection of human lovers will be made with the union of soul and body, and even the body controls the soul. After his marriage, he became more meditative in his works, and his personal religious trials still haunted him. He changed his writing theme to religion. And his works were concerning “the decay of the physical universe, the vanity of the world, and in contrast, the permanence of the god and spiritual values” (p.47). Divine Poems and Holy Sonnets were written during this period. In his late time, Donne’s works reflected his deep emotions and spirituality. He died in London in 1631 after preaching his own funeral sermon, Death’s Duel a few weeks ago.

B. The Concept of Metaphysical Conceits

Metaphysical conceit is a literary term that refers to a poet’s use of somewhat unorthodox language and language construct to describe the quality of an everyday concept (p.48). This literary tool, devised in the 17th century, is often used to describe seemingly intangible concepts like an entity’s spiritual and emotional qualities, for example, by using verbose and sometimes paradoxical analogies to objects, like those from the earthly worlds deemed mundane, philosophical, and alchemical in nature. The Petrarchan conceit is another type, and it is out of this conceit, famously used in love poems of the Elizabethan era, that the concept of metaphysical conceit and metaphysical poetry as a genre arose. Its use is seen by some as a dramatic tool by which writers relieved themselves from the established, expected, and orthodox conceptual associations common of the era. Unlike the Petrarchan conceits, which formed clichéd comparisons between more closely related objects (such as a rose and love), Donne’s metaphysical conceits go to a greater depth in comparing two completely unlike objects (p.48).

II. Sources of John Donne’s Conceits

The two individual events, marriage and convert to the Anglicanism, have a great impact and influence on Donne’ life, and his inner conflict, mostly stemmed from these two events. The 17th century was one of the most tempestuous periods in English history. The kings were the open enemy of the people; social unrest, old and new doctrine struggle coexistence, the society was filled with a mood of suspicion disillusionment; on the other hand, the rapid development of natural science, astronomy and navigation which were greatly affected Donne. He had a complex personality and a unique understanding of love, religious, death and all-encompassing universe. He viewed them as exploring objects and the source of creativity, He drew his inspiration from them, and such objects also provided a broad range of materials for his conceits. In this chapter we will explore the metaphysical conceits in John Donne’s poems from three aspects as to the sources of conceits.

A. John Donne’s Unique Philosophical Reasoning

Donne’s poems are often containing a philosophical analysis and logical reasoning. He tries to illustrate his point of view through the deepest analyzing of a particular question. Take “The Flea” for example. “The Flea” is one of the most typical metaphysical poems of John Donne’s. The poem was written in colloquial language with a ridicule tone and surprising conceits, and the reasoning process and conclusions are extraordinary.

In the first two lines, the poet gives us a lot of information: there are two persons in the poem, the listener “you” and the speaker “I”, and “I” asked for something but was refused. From the next two lines we know the flea becomes a symbol of “our” combined bodies because our bloods are all in its body. So, the speaker deduces that the little flea combines the two to one and creates a new life. Then the speaker tries to induce the girl: love is a natural requirement like the flea is enjoying by sucking our blood; we should do the same. And that is not a sin or shame. In the first stanza, the image of flea is still in its original look, i.e., a sucking insect. The poet regards “our” blood in its body together as the ecstasy of physical love between lovers. It is the beginning of philosophical argument.

In the second stanza, the girl is about to kill the flea, the speaker hurriedly stops her and explain that there are three lives in the flea, so “three sins in killing three”. Then the speaker compares the flea to their “marriage bed” and “marriage temple”. In this way, the flea becomes holy. And the speaker wants to use the conceit to express his determination: the combination of bodies is just a form; it will lead us to the highest stage of love, i.e., the realization of marriage and the union of souls.

In the last stanza, from “Cruel and sudden” we know that his advisement is in vain, the girl kills the flea. In the view of the speaker, the killing is equal to the division of the integer which is made up by “you” and “I”. Then the speaker blames the girl: what is the guilty of this flea? The girl’s response, though we could not hear directly, we can infer from the speaker’s words: she is reveled in the happiness by killing the flea, which brings no harm to anyone, and does not feel a little weaker. But this is what the speaker wanted to hear, so he answers immediately: love is as easy as the flea’s death, since the flea’s death is of no importance, why don’t you yield to me? Till now the readers realize that the flea is not just a sucking insect, it is used as an evidence to persuade the girl. The speaker is trying to lure his lover to give up the useless view of virginity and abandon secular ideas, in order to achieve his goals; he uses a seemingly preposterous conceit: he compares the combination of two people to the fusion of blood in the flea. As the flea bites blood, loss of virginity will not affect women's reputation. The seduction is skillful and plausible.

Love poems with flea as image are popular in the seventeenth century in Europe, talking about nothing more but men’s envy of fleas which can freely approaching to the body of their girlfriend. On the basis of the traditional mode of metaphor, Donne uses the syllogism argument in his conceit. Indeed, as shown in the “flea”, the speaker was not only talking about love, but carrying on a syllogistic reasoning during the conversation, then reached the conclusion. That is, first, the flea sucks our blood, and combines our blood together, so this flea is our “marriage bed” and “marriage temple"; then, if you kill this flea, you kill three lives, and commit three crimes; last, since killing this flea does not make you weaker, and then accept my courtship will not reduce your reputation. The using of this conceit is a surprising attempt, which made his argument reasonable.

B. Scientific Experiments and Geographical Discoveries

Scientific experimental thoughts are another obvious sign of the 17th century literature. People's view of the world experienced unprecedented changes. Heliocentric theory has begun to be widely accepted. The development of navigation and geographical discoveries confirmed the existence of many new places. All these changes have affected people's thinking in many different ways. Donne was willing to know these new ideas and new finds. Supernatural knowledge of the new science sparked his curiosity, and led him to form a variety of conceits. The mark of this era is everywhere in Donne's poetry. Petrarch's metaphors, such as star-like eyes, golden hair and snow skin, which were familiar to people, were hard to be found in Donne's poetry. Instead, scientific terms one after another filled in. Love seems to have nothing to do with science, but Donne has chosen many scientific vocabularies in his love poems. As in the "A Valediction: Forbidding Mourning":

Moving of th' earth brings harms and fears,
Men reckon what it did, and meant,
But trepidation of the spheres,
Though greater far, is innocent.
Dull sublunary lovers' love
-Whose soul is sense- cannot admit
Absence, because it doth remove
The things which elemented it (Donne, 1896, p.51).

In these lines, the poet makes a comparison between earthquake and movement of celestial sphere. Earthquakes often happen in the ground, and could cause harm, so people are frightened. The movement of celestial sphere is the source of earthquake, but it brings no harm to humans. Unlike those former poets, Donne regards the earthquake as the movement of celestial sphere instead of the anger of God. The poet wants to emphasize that the separation of the couple is different from those ordinary people. He views the separation as the movement of celestial sphere, which is holy, mysterious and magnitude, and with no harm to our love.

if they be two, they are two so
As stiff twin compasses are two ;
Thy soul, the fixed foot, makes no show
To move, but doth, if th' other do.
And though it in the centre sit,
Yet, when the other far doth roam,
It leans, and hearkens after it,
And grows erect, as that comes home.
Such wilt thou be to me, who must,
Like th' other foot, obliquely run ;
Thy firmness makes my circle just,
And makes me end where I begun (p.52).

In these lines, Donne makes one of his most famous conceits: the two lovers are likened to the two feet of compass. The conceit contains three meanings: one, the feet of one compass are closely linked, so the real separation was impossible. Two, the feet will reunite at last, so the separation was temporary. Three, the theory of circle. In the poet's view, circle is the symbol of perfection. The starting point is the ending point during the drawing. A compass is used to draw standard circle. And circle stands for perfection and satisfaction, also the symbol of harmony and unity. Donne finds the potential similarities between the compass and couples and with this analogy, poetic metaphors and themes achieve consensus. The perfection lies in the firmness of the fixed foot. Here, the fixed foot symbolizes the faithful of woman. The conceit expresses Donne's thoughtfulness as well as anxiety to his wife. Donne's image of compass comes from Ptolemy's geocentricism, that is, earth is the center of the circle, and the other planet rotates around the Earth. The comparison between the movement of the universe and lover's separation is definitely the result of development of science and the popularization of scientific thoughts.

Take "The Sun Rising" for another example:

Thy beams so reverend, and strong
Why shouldst thou think?
could eclipse and cloud them with a wink,
But that I would not lose her sight so long.
If her eyes have not blinded thine,
Look, and to-morrow late tell me,
whether both th' Indias of spice and mine
Be where thou left'st them, or lie here with me.
Ask for those kings whom thou saw'st yesterday,

And thou shalt hear, "All here in one bed lay" (p.7).

In this stanza, a conceit is used: the sun is compared to a servant who is neither reverend nor strong. His job is to scout information for the poet. Donne makes this conceit to despise the dignitaries. "I" can deny the sun by a wink, the reason why "I" do not wink is "I" can not lose the sight of my lover. And at last, the poet commands his servant-the sun-to inspect India and all kings whom "you saw yesterday", then reports to his master. In addition, in this section, unfamiliar images are written which show Donne's erudition. Ancient India is famous for the production of spices, and the west indie islands are rich in gold and silver deposits. Eclipse is an astronomical term: the sun will appear eclipse with a wink of an eye. The poet uses his astronomical knowledge to disdain the sun.

She's all states, and all princes I;
Nothing else is;
Princes do but play us; compared to this,
All honour's mimic, all wealth alchemy.
Thou, Sun, art half as happy as we,
In that the world's contracted thus;
Thine age asks ease, and since thy duties be
To warm the world, that's done in warming us.
Shine here to us, and thou art everywhere;
This bed thy center is, these walls thy sphere (p.8).

In this stanza, the poet uses a strange conceit, he compares his lover to "all states" and he himself to "all princes". The poet believes their love is the whole world, and the sun is also being fettered in the couple's house. Here, the sun is still a servant: since warming the world is your duty, warming us is enough.

The poet writes astronomical knowledge in this stanza once again. According to Ptolemy's geocentric theory, since the sun revolves round the earth, this bed, where the two lovers enjoying their sweet love, is the core of the sun's movement, and the walls of the bedroom draw the orbit of the sun. From the description of the sun's movement, it seems that Ptolemy's geocentricism and Copernicus's heliocentricism both affect the poet's thought.

In the poetry of Donne, such conceits are too numerous to mention. They seem strange and donnish at first sight because Donne often seeks images from scientific domain where the ordinary people are not familiar with. Such conceits, on one hand, reflect Donne's dissatisfaction with the conventional fashion of the Elizabethan love poetry, and trying to look for other ways for creation. But more important reason is the needs of fully expressing the theme. Conceits like compasses, the storms and the shock of heaven and earth are influenced by the development of sailing and rise of science. Speaking scientific knowledge in love poems is an innovative attempt both at form and content.

C. Dualism of the Secularity and Theology

Donne was born in a Catholic family but was forced to convert to Anglicanism. At his time, the modern science began to develop; the religious believes were shaken, old and new doctrine and faith struggled. The society was filled with a mood of suspicion disillusionment. Donne's poetry was full of description of the relationship between human and the God.

As a special way of thinking, the conceits have become a vehicle to combine the secular and the sacred ideas. Most of Donne's poetry has the dual nature of secular and sacred, it is by means of cross thinking of conceits that Donne is able to express this idea vividly.

The feature is embodied in "The Relic". In this poem, the hero imagines himself lying in his grave. He hopes the gravedigger do not destroy the hair made bracelet. The hero introduces the idea that all the dead will be awakened to revival at the last busy day, which adds a sense of sanctity to the poetry. He might take this opportunity to take back his own soul and the soul of his lover's, and reunite in the tomb.

The poem begins with the secular love: a couple was buried in a grave. In a sense, it is the gravedigger opens the prelude of the story. When the grave is open, a great treasure is showed to the world-a hair made bracelet, which is being regarded as a sacred object later. The disturbing to the dead is like a call for the resurrection at the last day.

After awakening of the soul, the two couples begin to analyze the nature of their love, and find their love is a miracle. Even more important, they finally realize their love is only spiritual, without sex. Their love is as holy as angels. The "holy", here represents both the Catholic and the Puritan's view towards holy love. It sublimates the essence of love.

The hair made bracelet is the evidence of the couple's love; the hero does not think people should pray to him and his lover, because people can only pray to God. In fact, the hero has put him and his lover to the equal status with God, and their bones and the bracelet become holy things later. Donne uses this sacred conceit to praise the hero's noble love.

Donne has never declared how great the hero's love is, and do not make any oath, either. But he is able to explore the hero's love in a rational way, and make it to the extent of worship by the later generation. In this process, the sanctity of metaphor can always be the most powerful means to help convey profound and subtle emotions.

As Donne puts in "The Flea", "This flea is you and I, and this/ Our marriage bed, and marriage temple is". In religious terminology, temple is a sacred and inviolable place designed for the worship, a place to communicate with God. The poet used the religious image to illustrate that the flea was the bridge of our love, should not be killed. "And in this flea our two bloods mingled be. / And pampered swells with one blood made of two, / Oh stay, three lives in one flea spare, / And sacrilege. three sins in killing three"(p.18). The lines above remind us that the St. Panick had explained the Trinity (the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit) to the crowd with a clover. In the eyes of the common, the Trinity is the supreme, the incomparable God’s image, the core of the Christian faith. Destroying the trinity is equal to desecrating the Holy Spirit. The three objects, the bloods of hero and heroine, and a new life brought by the mingling of the bloods, unite in the body of the flea. Is it the Trinity? In this way, a small flea is sublimated as the substitute of God, so the readers are taken to a sacred religious state by the trinity of supreme. The lust of the secular and devout faith connects together. It is Donne that can boldly express such sacred image in a secular way, which is showing the innovation of his poetry.

III. Features and Functions of Donne’s Conceits

From the analysis above, we see metaphysical conceits are very common in John Donne’s poems, and it is clear to find some unique features of Donne’s conceits.

First, defamiliarization. Common image, special emotion. Some images can be found in their poetries, but they are endowed with different emotional colors. Donne’s creative contribution lies in the adding of new meaning to the original image, for example, “sun”. The image brings light and heat to the earth, and provides energy for the growth of all living things. However, in Donne’s poetry, “The Sun Rising”, the sun is viewed as a “busy old fool, unruly sun”. The same sun has different meaning in the poetry of Elizabeth period. Take Shakespeare’s “Sonnets 33: only for the beautiful girl in the world” for example, “full many a glorious morning have I seen, / flatter the mountain tops with sovereign eyes”. The mountain stands for “me”, and sun is the symbol of love. It’s common to compare the love to sun in Renaissance’s poetry. Love brings poets hope and joy, just as sun gives all creatures light and heat.

Second, ordinary objects are sublimated, and sacred things are demoted, this is another feature of Donne’s conceits. Take love theme for example. Love is a theme to which many poets in all cultures have dedicated their lines. Renaissance is a time marked with humanism and lyrics. The Renaissance lyrics inherit the rules and norms set by the Italian forerunner Petrarch. Petrarch not only sets down the rhyme scheme and rules of structure, but also establishes the common images in love poetry. Love is compared to roses or some divine figure in Renaissance Sonnet. Petrarch's metaphors, such as star-like eyes, golden hair and snow skin, are familiar with people. And love in Renaissance poetry is prevalently expressed in the image of beautiful, pure and abstract things. Love to Renaissance poets is identified with ideal and perfection. Take the image flea for example, fleas look ugly, and suck blood for a living. Such a creature is born to describe something bad, but in “The Flea”, the flea becomes a symbol of combined bodies because bloods are all in its body, and Donne compares the little flea to “marriage bed” and “marriage temple”. In this way, the flea becomes holy. Also, the flea is regarded as the Trinity, so the little flea becomes the substitute of God. On the contrary, as humanity’s most familiar image, the sun is always being praised. In the culture of many peoples, the sun is the supreme and the most respected and worshipped. But in “The Sun Rising”, the great sun is demoted to the servant of the poet.

Third, Donne’s conceits are not based on the similar appearances, but on the similar functions and feelings. For example, the feet of compass have nothing to do with two lovers in appearance, but the departing of two feet is similar to the departing of lovers, and the action of drawing circle is like the missing between two lovers. And the buried bones are horrific, but they symbolize true love.

Why the poet chooses to use so many metaphysical conceits in his poems, because these conceits have unique functions.

First, the defamiliarization effect. As the typical tool for Donne to express his emotion, conceits are used to defamiliarize the familiar things, which increased difficulties for understanding, so the readers have to take an emotional experience at the same time when comprehending the poem. In this way the aesthetic purpose that poetry as an art can be achieved. Since Sir Thomas Wyatt introduced Petrarchan sonnets to Britain, this kind of poetry is popular. In Donne's time, English poets were deeply influenced by Petrarch's ideas and used them repeatedly in their own poetry. For example, the eyes are compared to the stars or the sun, the hair to the thread of gold, the lips to the cherry, the woman to the goddess, and so on. His oxymorons, like frozen fire or burning ice, are also common. But Donne never compares women to flowers or other beautiful things because he tries to break away the conventions of Patriarch’s style of metaphors. Traditional metaphors of love are completely replaced by his metaphysical conceits. The flea became the symbol of love and marriage, and the two feet of a compass are the embodiment of loyalty of the lovers.

Second, cultural transmission effects. The interpretation of Donne’s metaphysical conceits is like a cultural travel with the poet. The rich cultural heritage of the whole generation will be presented in front of the readers. While reading Donne’s conceits. Readers can get detailed information about the 17th century. For example, when we read “A Valediction: Forbidding Mourning”, we can find many strange images connected with popular culture at that time. From the comparison between “earthquake and movement of celestial sphere”, we can infer that development of science and the popularization of scientific thoughts.

IV. Conclusion

As a great master in British poetic history and the leader of metaphysical poets, Donne astonishes the world by his novel and profound conceit. His powerful and vigorous, concise and simple language, together with his colloquial and straightforward dramatic language effect, injected fresh blood into 17th century's British poets, which sets metaphysical poetry as a vital phase in the process of English poetry's development. His broad knowledge, delicate feelings, fertile imagination and subtle words, distinguish his poems. The poet's character and the contradiction of life forced him to record his struggling inner world in a new way, a way characterized by conceit and contemplation. Love in Donne's poems is not as pure as before, it is a combination of spiritual and body pleasure. And Donne is good at using philosophical analysis and metaphysical conceits to express his point of view. His poems often contain religious imagery, and God is not much divine. Man can share the same status with God in some cases. The abstractness, analyticity, complexity, and contradictoriness of his work make his poets worth reading and deliberating carefully. There is rich culture and a vast space for imagination behind his poems. This paper makes a preliminary analysis, clarifies the using of conceits in John Donne's representative poems, and then summarizes the features and unique functions of conceits. The author believes there will be more and more modern readers fascinated by Donne's enthusiastic and intelligent way of thinking. With its unique charm, John Donne's poetry is beautiful scenery in the English literature, which has an everlasting influence on later generations.

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Jiapeng Du is an English teacher and lecturer at Taishan University. His research interests are mainly British and American literature, comparative literature and English teaching.

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On the Cultivation of Intercultural Communicative Competence in the English Viewing-listening-speaking Course

Yueyang Liu
Zunyi Medical University, Zunyi, China

***Abstract*—With the fast pace of globalization, cultivating Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) has gradually become a vital goal in English language teaching. However, whether the English Viewing-Listening-Speaking (VLS) course can be used to improve learners' ICC is less researched. This paper tends to adopt skills of discovery, comparison and analysis in Byram's ICC model as methods to explore how students interpret in VLS class and how the interpretation processes improve students' intercultural communicative competence. The design and implementation of teaching activities, combined with the research data including quizzes, students' statement recording and reports, are introduced to illustrate how to improve learners' ICC in VLS course.**

***Index Terms*—Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC), Viewing-Listening-Speaking (VLS), cultivation**

I. Introduction

Today, the information age is characterized by cultural diversification, economic globalization, and technological integration. People of different cultural backgrounds have been communicating with each other more and more closely. As a result, the cultivation of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) has attracted more and more attention. We adopt the most widely accepted definition of ICC given by Deardorff (2006) that it is the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in cross-cultural situations based on personal cross-cultural knowledge, skills and attitudes.

Kong and Luan (2012) defined language as the carrier and expression of culture, meanwhile, culture as the connotation and essence of language. Obviously, helping learners master foreign language skills and acquire ICC are the fundamental goals of foreign language teaching.

Looking at the development of foreign language education in today's world, it is not difficult to find that many countries regard intercultural communication as one of the important purposes of foreign language syllabus. In order to meet the needs of globalization, American students are required to meet the requirements of 5C to improve their foreign language ability. 5C includes Communication, Culture, Connections, Comparisons and Communities (Lu, 2001). Communication and culture in 5C are the core elements of foreign language education (Chen, 2013)

The European Framework (common reference framework for European languages) also proposes that one of the principles of foreign language teaching is to help learners better understand other people's lifestyle, ways of thinking and cultural traditions. Through foreign language learning, it is convenient for them to communicate with each other, eliminate their prejudice and discrimination, so as to realize free flow, mutual understanding and unity (Yang, 2012).

The College English Teaching Guide edited by Wang (2016) clearly pointed out that college English teaching should enhance students' ICC and improve students' comprehensive cultural literacy.

Viewing-listening-speaking (VLS) teaching method integrates viewing, listening and speaking by modern multimedia teaching equipment to improve students' language ability in an all-round way. According to Zhai and Chen (2014), the biggest characteristic of this teaching mode takes full advantage of the videos from the perspective of cultural differences between China and the West. Integrating cultural and liberal education into students' learning and training so as to help students understand world culture, master modern English skills, as well as improve students' ICC and critical thinking ability.

This paper attempts to combine the VLS classroom instruction with the cultivation of students' intercultural communicative competence. The three skills incorporating discovery, comparison and analysis in Byram's ICC model (Byram, 2014), are adopted as methods to explore how students interpret in VLS class and how the interpretation processes improve students' intercultural communicative competence.

II. Byram's Model of Intercultural Communication Competence (ICC)

The model of ICC proposed by Byram (1997) is widely accepted in intercultural communication studies and foreign language teaching. His model includes five parts: attitude, knowledge, critical awareness, skills of interpreting and relating, skills of discovery and interaction.

The first factor, attitude, refers to the student's "curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend belief about other cultures and belief about one's own" (as cited in Elola & Oskoz, 2008). This factor is about not eager to make positive judgments about one's own culture and negative judgments about other cultures.

The second component, knowledge, refers to familiarity with "social groups and their products and practices in one's own country and in the country of one's interlocutor, and knowledge of the general processes of societal and individual interaction" (Byram, 1997). It relates to two aspects: one is the knowledge about social groups, their products and practice in one's own country as well as that in the target countries or areas and the other is the knowledge about the intercultural interaction process, both of which are crucial and also the prerequisite for a successful intercultural communication.

The third element, critical cultural awareness, refers to "the ability to evaluate critically and on the basis of explicit criteria, perspectives, practices and products in one's own and other cultures and countries" (as cited in Elola & Oskoz, 2008). In short, the learners with critical cultural awareness are expected to judge the different culture with a more rational, objective and open-minded attitude.

In fact, it is impossible for learners to acquire all the necessary knowledge in various cultural backgrounds. Therefore, learners must possess the skills that enable them to understand unfamiliar knowledge and connect it with familiar knowledge.

Firstly, learners need to have skills of interpreting and relating, which refers to the "ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to the documents from one's own" (Byram, 1997). The detailed explanation is that learners should be equipped with the ability to find misunderstandings and reconcile different opinions in intercultural communication.

Secondly, learners need to have skills of discovery and interaction, which refers to the "ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction" (Byram, 1997). Even with the lack of real-time communication, learners should be able to explore new cultures and develop the ability to integrate knowledge, attitudes and skills.

In Byram's opinion, knowing another culture is important, but acquiring skills of analysis and interpretation play a more significant role in ICC. Byram (2014) proposed that "discovery", "comparison" and "analysis" should be taken as the main intercultural skills in foreign language teaching. Compared with other models, the above three skills are more conducive to achieve intercultural teaching objectives (Huang, 2013).

III. THE CULTIVATION OF ICC IN VLS COURSE

In China, due to limited intercultural communication experiences in classrooms, students are confined themselves to what they have learned in the textbook, and lack of real intercultural communication encounters. Zang (2010) said that language teaching is often separated from the social and cultural environment of the target language, and cultural teaching is usually isolated from language and cultural background, which obviously lead to disconnection between language and cultural education.

However, the author found that the English VLS course has good accessibility and applicability for intercultural education. First of all, curriculum resources are rich and diverse with novel content and practical vocabulary, including excellent English films and television works, celebrity speeches, news resources and documentaries, etc. By utilizing the abundant resources and designing the appropriate tasks, teachers help students get acquainted with the latest developments in the world's politics, economy, and cultures. Through audiovisual activities, students not only exercise their listening and visual observation skills, but also acquire rich cultural knowledge which is conducive to their intercultural communication competence.

Secondly, students are exposed to real, vivid English and are given chances to imitate the correct pronunciation in the video. In this way, they turn English learning into a natural communication activity, which improves students' interest in learning and consolidates their cognitive achievements.

For example, if a teacher wants to describe Thanksgiving Day to students, it is better to let them watch relevant English videos directly at the beginning. The experiment of human memory persistence shows that in the process of learning, the forgetting rate of audio-visual cooperative learning is 18% after 3 days, which declines slightly compared with the forgetting rate of auditory learning (80%) during the same time (Feng, 2008). Through effective audio-visual language input, students' learning motivation and interest in learning English are both enhanced.

Scholars at home and abroad have carried out research on the cultivation of ICC in the teaching of viewing-listening-speaking course. Qiu(2005) believed that the VLS course does not adhere to the traditional listening and traditional speaking training mode, but organically combines the two; the course does not carry out language teaching in isolation, but combines language and culture teaching to cultivate students' ICC. Yu and Han (2012) argued that in the VLS classroom, with the assistance of multimedia technology, teachers can effectively guide students to carry out cross-cultural communication with the aid of designing diversified classroom activities and simulating various scenes to create a real language environment. Borghetti (2013) combined cross-culture learning and VLS teaching mode, and put forward to integrate the two in an overall way. Based on the research of Jia(2013), video materials provide students with nonverbal communication information, including gestures, facial expressions, body language, etc., which is not available in written reading materials. In fact, in real cross-cultural communication, nonverbal communicative competence sometimes plays a greater role.

VLS course undoubtedly makes up for the defects of reading, grammar and other courses in the cultivation of nonverbal communication ability. Teachers and students make full use of those instructive English video materials that feature in authentic language, human interactions and real physical settings as scenario simulations, thus bridging the gap for lack of real intercultural communication experiences. Education is a kind of cultural behavior so cultivating students' understanding and tolerance of cultural differences can effectively improve their comprehensive quality and ICC at last.

IV. Design and Implementation of Teaching Activities in VLS Course

A. Design of Teaching Activities

The research was carried out in Zunyi, China. Research participants were non-English major Chinese undergraduate students. They must pass the College English Test Band 4 (CET 4), then they were qualified for this course. CET 4 certificate holders are more likely to have a good facility for English so that teaching effectiveness will be greatly enhanced. Finally, 20 students were chosen to take the VLS course.

A documentary reality show shot by British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), named “Chinese School: Are Our Children Tough Enough?”, is selected as the teaching material. Selecting this material aims to show students the difference between Chinese and English secondary education.

In this project, five outstanding Chinese teachers recruited and selected by BBC went to Bohant middle school in Hampshire, UK, where they wanted to challenge British education system. A one-month Chinese-style education experiment was conducted for 50 British junior three students of Bohant middle school and this special class was called “Chinese school”. At the end of the project, they would take the same exam in math, science and Mandarin, together with the students who received British-style education. By comparing their scores, BBC wanted to test which ways of education would lead to better performance. Finally, the average scores of mathematics, science and Mandarin in “Chinese school” were higher than those in British class.

Intercultural context-setting in teaching is mainly based on intercultural texts and audio-visual materials, which can lead to the effective written and oral communication. This BBC documentary was chosen because it was educating and fun. The education discrepancy between Western countries and China can be taken as a good example to develop students' sense of cultural differences and intrigue their critical thinking.

The study takes Byram's ICC skills “discovery”, “comparison” and “analysis” as methods to promote students' acquisition of intercultural knowledge, and gradually improve students' open and inclusive intercultural attitude. The teaching process embodies the intercultural teaching principles including speculation, reflection, inquiry, empathy and experience. (Sun, 2016)

Teaching Plan

Content	ICC skills vs. Intercultural teaching principles	Class time	Class format	Data acquisition
Knowledge	Language points	60 min	Heuristic method of teaching (teacher ask questions and students answer the questions) Task-based teaching	Test
Compare the differences between Chinese education and British education in the video	ICC skills: discovery, comparison Intercultural teaching principles: inquiry, empathy, reflection	30min	Group discussion, separate speech for students	Recording
Describe an impressive scene in the video and compare it with their own experience in china	ICC skills: discovery, comparison Intercultural teaching principles: inquiry, empathy, reflection	30min	Group discussion, separate speech for students	Recording
Role play	ICC skill: comparison Intercultural teaching principles: empathy, experience	20min	Students' performance	Video recording
Reflection	ICC skill: analysis Intercultural teaching principles: speculation	30min	Read their reflection reports	Students' reflection report

Based on teacher-student and student-student interaction, teacher-guided questioning and group discussion, this teaching plan starts from language study to cross-cultural comparison. After familiar with the language points and cultural differences, students take advantage of role play to have a better understanding of the differences. Lastly, analysis and reflection are required to write down in order to show whether their ICC has been improved or not. Furthermore, intercultural goals and language goals are synchronized and promote each other during the whole process.

B. Implementation of Teaching Activity

1. Knowledge points

After watching the documentary, the students were asked to take part in a small test in order to check whether they have understood the contents as well as how much knowledge they have already acquired. There were 20 questions in the test, involving vocabulary and narrative elements of when, where, who, what and why questions. Fifteen students got full marks, three got 17 questions right, and two got 15 questions right. This shows that despite there are some language barriers, students have basically mastered the relevant vocabulary, grammar and general idea of the video clip. The length of sentences and the speed of the conversations appear to be the main obstacles to understanding. Based on the knowledge that students have already grasped, teacher adopted heuristic and task-based teaching method to gradually introduce the important and difficult language points, so that they can have the vocabulary and sentences support in their following study, especially in the oral and written English practice.

For example: (voice-over) After four weeks, the students in the Chinese school will be tested against their British counterparts. Will the long days and strict discipline produce superior students, or will the clash of two cultures create chaos in the classroom?

After watching this short part of video clip, students were required to repeat the voice-over.

However, most of them cannot grasp the whole information. Then teacher played back that part three times and students were required to write down the corresponding sentences. Most of them completed the contents of voice-over just with one word missing---“chaos” that was new to them. Teacher inspired students to think what would happen if two cultures clashed in one classroom, combined with the video clip. After discussion, a student said: “I see a girl really angry and throw her book heavily on the desk, so I think the clash of two cultures maybe lead to mess and disorder.” In this way, “chaos” was introduced by students themselves.

Methods like this show that how teacher enlightens students to get the key information.

2. Compare the education differences between Chinese school and Bohant school in the video

At this stage, teacher asked students to answer the following question after watch the video clip.

(1) How is the relationship between teachers and students in the two schools separately?

(2) What is the difference between Chinese and English teaching methods?

(3) What are the different demands by two PE teachers?

Students were encouraged to identifying differences by comparing the Chinese school with its Britain counterpart in the video. These enlightening questions were helpful to arouse students’ thinking and guided them to explore the essence of the problem through the phenomenon. After heated discussions, members of each group took turns to express their ideas.

Group A: There is a cultural conflict throughout the documentary: “teachers are the authority” and “students and teachers are equal”. In Bohant school, it shows that the relationship between students and teachers is more equal, and there is no obvious distinction between superior and inferior (discovery). In “Chinese school”, teachers are generally regarded as unshakable authority, and students unconditionally obey (discovery &comparison).

Group B: The documentary highlights the conflict between Chinese and English teaching methods. I felt like the British education concept is “herding”. You find grass on your own and eat it by yourself. The teacher can help you when you have no choice (discovery). Chinese teaching is “cramming”, knowledge is given to you all, you slowly digest it (discovery &comparison).

Group C: In “Chinese school”, the PE teacher in the video has repeatedly stressed the importance of sports performance. Only by getting excellent sports performance can students have the chance to pass the high school entrance examination and go to university. Eva, a British student, said PE was insanely competitive in this Chinese school (discovery). There is no such rule in Britain. In Bohant school, Physical education usually aimed to release pressure, not to prepare for exams (discovery &comparison).

Based on the discovery and comparison in the video, teachers and students constantly explored the education discrepancy under the different cultural background, with the purpose of deepening students’ understanding of each other’ s culture and improving students’ cross-cultural sensitivity. In the process of students’ expression, although they may make some grammatical mistakes or not be fluent in English, their overall language output will not be affected.

3. Describe an impressive scene in the video and compare it with their own experience in china

At this stage, students were stimulated to describe an impressive event or scene in the video and compare it with their own experience in China. Students were also required to discuss in groups and then express their own opinions.

Group A: in the video, we can see that British class is small-sized, with more than 20 students. Children are separated into classes of different abilities. The learning atmosphere is relaxed and the teaching method is student-oriented instead of teacher-centered. A British girl said she did not think comparing oneself to others was a good, healthy lifestyle (discovery). When I was in the third year of junior high school, there were 75 students in a class. Every time we took an exam, our scores would be posted behind the classroom wall, which gave us a lot of pressure. What teachers taught was passively accepted by students. There was no easy learning environment, performance ranking was the most important (comparison).

Group B: one student took the electric kettle to classroom to make tea. After the teapot was confiscated by teacher, he even went to the office and stole it back (discovery). This would definitely not happen in my junior high school, because first of all, from the perspective of class discipline, it was not allowed to take the electric kettle to make tea in class. Secondly, the behavior of this kind would be disrespectful to teachers and would also provoke dissatisfaction of students (comparison).

Group C: In the physical education class, two students with excellent academic achievements were disheartened because they failed in the long run test. The British teacher came to comfort the two sad students: “you have tried your best, you did very well” (discovery). In my junior high school, the PE teacher would not comfort you if you failed the physical education examination. He only paid attention to whether you can pass the next exam, that is, he only cared about the results (comparison).

Through the discussion and interaction between teachers and students, students were able to interpret an event from another culture, and relate it to the events from their own. Moreover, they had the ability to choose the appropriate words or vocabularies in the video to introduce their own views, such as “student-oriented”, “confiscate”, “dishearten”, “provoke”, “academic performance”, etc. In short, students can not only understand each other’s culture from different perspectives, but also apply language knowledge into use.

4. Role- play

Role-play is one of the most popular classroom interaction activities for students. It is also helpful for students to change their cultural position through empathy strategy and consciously understand another culture.

At this stage, two students were picked out to act as teachers to give an English demo class separately. The rest acted as junior high students. The two “teachers” would show how to teach words in demo class and five words were selected as an example. Before the performance, the two “teachers” worked together to refine their teaching plans, get familiar with the cultural characteristics of their roles, imitate different teaching styles, and use different language strategies to complete the performance. One adopted Chinese teaching method of inculcating students with knowledge by explaining its meaning and introducing relevant sentences, which was teacher-oriented in the whole process. While another took the British way, that is, teacher designed some games to encourage students to get involved in class. The process was mainly student-oriented. Students needed to give the feedback after the two demo classes.

L said: “I think Chinese education is a good way to deliver knowledge. We wrote the key points according to what teacher said. I like the quiet way of learning.”

M held a different view: “Chinese teaching method was so rigid that I was going to sleep.”

K said: “The English-style class was very relaxed. Teacher constantly asked questions to motivate us. I also like class discussion, which gave me new ideas from other students.”

O disagreed: “Although English-style class was easy and free, I don’t like it. I found it boring.”

Despite these different attitudes, taking an objective view towards cross-cultural differences and showing respect for foreign cultures are the basis of cultivating ICC. This role-play experience helped students enhance their multi-cultural identity and cross-cultural awareness.

5. Analysis and reflection

By comparing and analyzing the discrepancy between Chinese and English education, students learned to reflect on their positions in intercultural communication, which facilitated an inclusive and open cross-cultural attitude. Students were guided to think about the deep reasons for the differences and also required to write down their reflection reports.

A’s report: the large number of Chinese populations means people have to face the fierce social competition and receive unequal education resources. To maintain the education fairness, I think the Chinese education system is a good way.

B’ report: It is well-known that Chinese education is exam-oriented. When we look back to our school life under the Chinese education, many of us feel disappointed and helpless. But when the knowledge we learned during that time coming to mind, no one can deny the advantage of it.”

Data of this kind shows that students hold a positive attitude towards Chinese education. They can clearly explain the rationalization of Chinese education system and express its benefits from their own perspectives. Some students go into details of the documentary to interpret the culture reflected in the video clip.

Student C: Chinese education is a quick way to learn knowledge. In the process of the experiment, we found that all the discussions were omitted, leaving only the final results, which can never be wrong in the notebook. When British children get the results through various experiments, Chinese children have recited ten formulas. This is the difference. One attaches importance to the process, and the other attaches importance to the result. It is difficult to say which is good or which is bad.

Student D’s report: Whether it is Chinese education or Western education, as long as it is the best system for student’s development and progress, it is a good system.

The four steps that include the explanation of knowledge points, the analysis and comparison of Chinese and English education modes, as well as the role-play and reflection, provide students with chances to experience different cultures in a multi-edged mirror, which undoubtedly enhance their learning enthusiasm and class interaction. By comparing these different interpretations of the same event, students with the critical thinking ability can easily jump out of their own conventional thinking mode and their understanding of the two cultures could also be deepened.

C. Feedback

In order to understand the students’ feelings about the course, a questionnaire survey was conducted on the students. A total of 20 valid questionnaires were collected. The questionnaire listed ten questions, mainly about how well the teaching effect was and whether students' ICC has been cultivated or not. Students also made free to comment on this teaching case.

In the students' feedback, 90% of the students held a positive attitude towards the teaching effect, among them, 20 % of the students thought the case was very enlightening while 35% of the students used "interesting" to describe their feelings of the case. 83.3% of the students thought this teaching case provided them with a very different perspective on cultural phenomena and 95% of these respondents insisted that an inclusive and open cross-cultural attitude was significant in intercultural communication. In addition, students' comments also included the following words: "informative", "helpful", "with strong visual impact", etc. A student commented that in the future, when communicating with foreign teachers or friends, we should think more about it, learn to respect their culture, and introduce our traditional culture to them. Wen also (2014) pointed out that in English teaching, teachers should emphasize cultural consciousness by cultivating students' ability to spread Chinese culture and tell Chinese stories in English rather than pay only attention to learn other culture.

This case study shows that by interactive communication and participation teaching mode, students learn to reflect and analyze different cultures, which enhances their willingness to intercultural communication as well as promotes their intercultural communicative competence. Students with conceptual understanding of culture are more likely to accept the range of values and behaviors among different cultural groups (Cotton, 1996). In turn, the implementation of cross-cultural tasks also promotes their learning and use of language. The task implementation, including role-play, classroom discussion, story continuation and so on, also effectively trains students' cross-cultural skills--- discovery, comparison and analysis. The difficulty of tasks depends on the students' learning ability.

V. Conclusion and Recommendations for Language Teachers

Byram's cross-cultural skills are adopted to guide students to compare their own culture and other cultures, so as to carry out meaningful cross-cultural learning. But the selection of teaching material should depend on the teaching objectives of a specific module. Teachers should be selective with scenes with pornography, swear words, or violence that may be offensive to students with strong religious belief or moral values. Appropriate task design and theoretical foundation are also critical. Byram's ICC model and skills are encouraged to be implemented in the task design with the aim of improving students' ICC awareness.

The case study shows that documentaries, news clips and foreign films, especially those with multi-cultural elements, play an important role in the cultivation of students ICC. Students show great enthusiasm for cross-cultural comparison in VSL courses and they also like to incorporate video watching into their class because of its diversity of content and form, its authenticity of language and scenes, its vivid reflection of social culture, values and ways of thinking. Since intercultural communication tasks involve in intercultural social relations and intercultural communicative behaviors, language teachers should take full advantage of various activities such as role play, simulation, cultural comparison, drama to achieve their teaching goals.

By selecting appropriate video material, asking appropriate prompt questions, assigning cultural context tasks as well as designing related classroom activities, teachers can facilitate the development of the students' intercultural communicative competence.

VSL course is of great significance to the cultivation of intercultural talents. In this paper, the cross-cultural training mode is integrated into the VSL English course, which provides a practical way for the development of students' ICC. Although cross-cultural teaching is a complex and time-consuming work from design to implementation, the teaching methods eventually not only help students better acquire knowledge and improve their professional ability, but also develop and improve their understanding of themselves and the world. How to integrate the cross-cultural training mode into foreign language classroom teaching effectively is worthy of further exploration by foreign language teachers through a lot of classroom practice and research.

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Yueyang Liu was born in Zunyi, Guizhou Province, China in 1985. She majored in International Trade and Economy, Beijing International Studies University from 2004-2008. She got master degree in English Translation, Guizhou University in 2015. She has taught college English for non-English majors in Zunyi Medical University since 2015. Her research areas of interest include English translation and Second Language Acquisition.

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