

Theory and Practice in Language Studies

ISSN 1799-2591

Volume 10, Number 7, July 2020

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Designing Russian Teaching Material for University Students: Rationale and Mock Unit

Paola Bocale
University of Insubria, Como, Italy

Abstract—The aim of this study is to present some teaching materials that were developed to teach contemporary aspects of the Russian language. The methodology is based on the recognition of the central role played by spoken language in the construction of language teaching syllabuses. The first part of the study describes the rationale and justifies the design of the teaching units; the second part presents the text of a mock lesson.

Index Terms—materials development, contemporary Russian, colloquial language, input, output

I. INTRODUCTION

Fundamental developments have taken place in the Russian language in the last thirty years. The pace of change has been so rapid that Russian resource and coursebooks cannot always reflect the new linguistic scenario. Popular coursebooks often reflect features of the written language, whereas contemporary standard language, as described in reference books and coursebooks, does not coincide with the actual spoken usage.

The aim of this work is to present some teaching materials that were designed to teach contemporary aspects of the Russian language. The methodology is based on Carter and McCarthy's (2017) claim about the central role played by spoken language in the construction of language teaching syllabuses. In order to foster an appropriate transfer of discourse features across different languages, Carter and McCarthy maintain that learners have to develop cultural awareness; that is knowledge and recognition of cultural diversity and pluralism. This understanding can be achieved through exposure to authentic language material. For this reason, the teaching materials were developed using recordings of real conversations and examples of authentic language taken from publications or films which have appeared in Russia in the last decade.

II. METHODOLOGY, RATIONALE AND OBJECTIVES OF THE TEACHING MATERIAL

The teaching material was written to take account of the changes in the Russian language which have occurred in the last thirty years. Throughout the units the emphasis is on building an understanding of contemporary features of Russian. The aim is to build up a "feel" for the language, in McCarthy's terms (1998). This is a matter of helping learners to invest energy and attention in discovering patterns and tendencies for themselves from guided investigations of samples of authentic language. This is particularly true for the teaching of Russian because Russian textbooks are often still based on a model of the language as it is presented in reference books.

The most significant developments in the Russian language in the last thirty years have taken place in the area of lexis. This is also because grammatical change as a rule proceeds at a much slower pace (Wade & Ryazanova-Clarke, 1999). For this reason, the teaching material focuses mainly on the new vocabulary, which is not only practised throughout each unit in a variety of activities, but also developed in its own section. However, because so many non-standard elements (in the areas of lexis, pronunciation, and grammar) have inundated the standard language, tasks were developed which present and analyze these elements as well. Again, the aim is to give learners the possibility of developing the cultural awareness, or "feel," advocated by McCarthy.

Particularly relevant are the results of studies that investigated the merits of promoting learners' consciousness of grammatical forms (Ellis, 2003; McDonough, Shaw, & Masuhara, 2013; Richards & Rodgers, 2014). These studies demonstrated how raising students' observation of the rules and forms of a foreign language increases their acquisition and retention. Learning will be most effective when time is allocated for proper reflection on the linguistic structures. After having asked learners to focus on the meaning of structures, tutors should encourage them to pay attention to their form and functions. This process of observation, hypothesis formation, and production will result in effective acquisition and use of a target structure.

The units use and explore authentic examples (texts, audio, and visual material) of contemporary Russian. Their main aim is to provide learners and students of the language with the opportunity to see, hear, and understand it in a range of different contexts of use. The material was selected to make the learning of Russian stimulating and motivating for university students.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The units are designed for advanced and post-advanced learners of Russian. The intended audience for these units includes: undergraduate and postgraduates students of Russian language and linguistics, advanced learners of Russian as a foreign language, and A-level Russian language students.

The units can be used by tutors and learners in the following ways:

- as part of a complete course for learners of Russian at post-advanced level;
- to supplement a general Russian advanced course with material focusing on contemporary features of the language;
- as follow-up material for learners who have completed an advanced Russian course.

Each unit has a topical focus introduced through a reading and/or listening passage. Each lesson focuses on an in-depth treatment of vocabulary, with clear presentations, explanation, and practice in the Vocabulary section, work on systems such as collocation, idioms, and word-building, and detailed explanation in the Study Boxes, followed by extensive practice activities. Within each unit, the aim was to exemplify the kind of vocabulary students are likely to encounter in everyday written and spoken Russian.

The material of the units was arranged to lead students from guided self-expression, both oral and written, based on advertisements, articles, dialogues, extracts from prose, instructions, and other sources, to free expression and composition on related topics.

The reading/listening/watching exercises develop the following skills:

- extracting relevant information;
- structuring information;
- inferring meaning from context;
- predicting and anticipating;
- understanding different registers;
- recognizing the function of different texts;
- recognizing discourse indicators and relations between parts of a text.

The speaking exercises include the following activities:

- role-play;
- discussion.

Units are divided into three sessions, each of which develops through passages, and exercises the themes and vocabulary of the unit. Transcripts of the recorded material are given at the end of each unit.

Each unit provides material for about six hours of classroom use. The units may be studied in any order and are not graded for difficulty. The Listening tasks and the Watching tasks given in the units are recorded on the accompanying CDs and video.

Each unit consists of the following sections:

Starting activity or "Warm-up":

Each unit begins with a short warm-up task, aimed at introducing the new language features of the module. In this starting activity, learners talk briefly in pairs or small groups, using or discussing individual elements of the new vocabulary. This prepares learners for the explanations of when and how to use the vocabulary which comes in the Vocabulary sections.

Listening to and/or watching passages and reading texts

Listening to passages and reading texts act as input for tasks, focusing on both informational content and language content. In turn, this input is used as the basis for output tasks, focusing on speaking and writing skills.

From a lexical point of view, different types of texts were chosen in order to provide different kinds of lexical input, in an attempt to balance what is most typical or frequent, and therefore potentially most useful, with what is most novel and unusual and, therefore, potentially interesting.

Vocabulary sections

The vocabulary sections focus on the following areas of vocabulary:

- youth slang;
- colloquial language;
- criminal slang;
- language used in advertising;
- idioms;
- non-standard features;
- borrowings;
- new words;
- collocations.

Lewis' (1993; 1997; 2000) lexical approach greatly influenced the design of the vocabulary sections. Lewis claims that language is made up of a number of assembled chunks which produce continuous text. These chunks are of various types: words, collocations (words which co-occur with greater frequency), fixed expressions (social greetings, politeness phrases, idioms), and semi-fixed expressions (expressions with a certain number of slots). In line with Lewis' lexical approach, attention was directed to introducing, whenever possible, larger chunks of language instead of words, and to focusing the presentation of the new vocabulary on collocations and expressions.

Speaking and/or writing sections

The output tasks were designed in line with research in the field of second language acquisition conducted by Swain (2005). While Krashen (1987) affirmed that speaking fluency cannot be taught directly, because speech emerges on its own as a result of competence built through understanding comprehensible input, Swain, without minimizing the role of input, showed that output plays a significant role as well. He hypothesized that in producing L2, learners become aware of a linguistic problem, and are thus pushed to modify their output. Noticing a gap in their knowledge forces learners into a more syntactic mode than might occur in comprehension.

Another second language theory which is relevant in the development of speaking tasks concerns the role of interaction. Long (1983) decided to study how input is made comprehensible. He investigated the ways learners interact with native speakers. His research revealed that in communicating with non-natives, native speakers systematically modify their speech and language behaviors in order to foster communication and increase mutual understanding. Besides linguistic simplification, other types of modifications are involved in modified interaction, including comprehension checks, clarification requests, paraphrases, "here-and-now" topics, expansions, and other linguistic adjustments (phonological, morphologic, syntactical, and semantic).

Long proposed the following model to describe the relationship between interactional modifications, comprehensible input, and language acquisition:

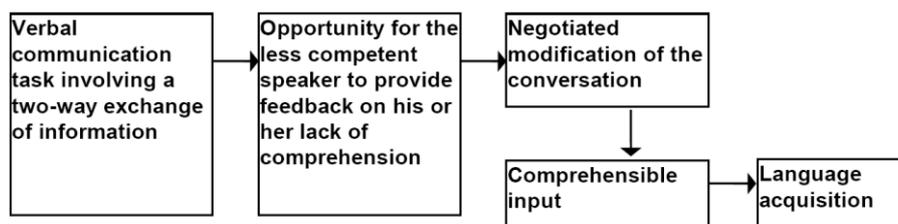


Figure 1: Long's model of the relationship between interactional modifications and language acquisition (Long, 1983, p. 214)

The model highlights the central role played by interaction and negotiation in the production of comprehensible input. Input modifications, namely linguistic simplification of input through less complex structures and vocabulary, are less useful to learners than modification which takes place during communication.

Study Boxes

These are meant to be explanations and clarifications which reinforce the vocabulary being taught. Learners can read them individually, in groups, or together as a class, after they have completed the starting activities. Alternatively, tutors may ask learners to read the Study Boxes at home or in class, before they do the starting activities (if the new vocabulary is particularly difficult for the class, for example). It is also possible for the relevant study box only to be referred to before or after learners perform each starting activity.

Exploring language sections

These sections feature language awareness activities based on the "Three Is" (illustration–interaction–induction) methodology proposed by McCarthy (1998). Learners look at real extracts of language, then with tutors analyze, discuss, and interpret the material. The rules governing linguistic phenomena are formulated and evaluated on the basis of observation and interpretation. Finally, conclusions are drawn about the features of the language analyzed.

Games

These are designed to be fun ways to consolidate and practise the new language introduced in the units.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The present study looked at the central role played by spoken language in the construction of language teaching syllabuses. Mock units were trialed with the target students. The findings showed that units were evaluated as 'very appropriate' and that lessons were efficient in promoting interaction and learning of target structures.

In developing the teaching material, an analytical and communicative approach to learning through guided discovery was followed throughout. Substantial research, driven by the need to counterbalance communicative language teaching methodology with its focus on language use, revealed the benefits of improving learners' awareness and understanding of the forms of a target language. Swain (2005) suggests that output may have the function of forcing learners from the semantic processing prevalent in comprehension to the syntactic processing necessary for

production. Producing language forces learners to reflect on what they do not know. This leads in turn either to a syntactic analysis of input, in order to look for missing structures, or to a reanalysis of existing internal linguistic resources, in order to fill the gap in knowledge. The speaking tasks were developed with the aim of creating opportunities for learners to be engaged in meaningful and mutually beneficial interaction.

Moreover, the speaking sections provided practice of functional language and that which is used in social situations, with a focus on different registers. There were a variety of communicative activities which provided extensive practice of the new vocabulary.

This research demonstrated the interrelation between input and interaction. The design of the teaching material was based on Vygotskian principles. According to Vygotsky, who worked in the Soviet Union in the 1920s and 1930s, cognitive development and learning are developed in a social context (Daniels, 2017). In the social environment of the classroom, students interact and learn from each other: those who are more able adjust their language and communications patterns to the needs of those who are less capable. Interactive activities, in the Vygotskian perspective, are of value because they provide learners with opportunities to understand foreign language input, and manipulate and modify their own output.

APPENDIX

Mock Unit 1

Меняется жизнь, меняется речь...

Changing life, changing language ...

Часть 1

Session 1

Look at the article below, which discusses the changes which have occurred in the Russian language over the years.

Читайте статью, приведённую ниже. Она - об изменениях, которые произошли в русском языке в последние годы.

Язык мой - враг мой
 Притихнув на некоторое время, споры о языке разгорелись вновь буквально в последние месяцы. Сразу на нескольких телеканалах прошли передачи, посвященные этой проблеме. Особенно усердствует государственное РТР. В программе "Процесс" даже обсуждался вопрос о введении специального закона. Закона, который карал бы со всей строгостью за нарушение правил произношения и грамматики. [...]
 Меняется жизнь, и одновременно меняется речь. В том числе, за счет заимствований. "Модем" и "драйвер", они и в Африке - "модем" и "драйвер". И ничего тут не поделаешь. В худшем случае, язык "расслаивается" на официально признанный "верх" и неофициальный, народный "низ". Причем, "верх", лишенный подпитки "снизу", становится искусственным и постепенно засыхает, как засохла и умерла средневековая латынь.
 Власти дореволюционной России тоже предпринимали попытки хоть как-то проконтролировать развитие языка. Особенно в те времена, когда режим взял на вооружение триаду "православие - самодержавие - народность". И все равно "мокроступы" не прижились, а "калоши" остались "калошами". Этим словам не удалось стать даже синонимами. Вы можете представить себе *моду* на *мокроступы*? Зато мода на калоши была. То же самое и теперь. Словечко "консенсус", к примеру, все реже употребляется в обычной речи, с газетных страниц оно перекочевало в сугубо научные труды по социологии. Наши политики приходят к "согласию", заключают "соглашения" (на худой конец - "компромиссные"). (http://samlib.ru/s/seregin_s_w/language.shtml last accessed 08.04.2020)

Discuss with two or three other students.

Обсуждайте вопросы, приведённые ниже, в группах из трёх или четырёх студентов.

- A. Do you feel that your native language has changed during the last ten years? Has the use of words of foreign origin increased? Does your government take measures to discourage the use of new loan words?
 Вы считаете, что ваш родной язык изменился за последние десять лет? Вырос ли число слов, заимствованных из других языков? Принимает ли ваше правительство меры для того, чтобы противостоять прониканию заимствований?
- B. Does everyone who speaks your language speak it in exactly the same way? If not, how do the different styles vary—in accent, vocabulary, or grammar—or a combination of these? Give examples if you can.
 Есть ли разновидность в формах речи носителей вашего языка? Есть ли разные стили? Чем они различаются? Произношением, словарным составом, грамматикой, или сочетанием всех этих элементов?
- C. Does a person's style of speech depend simply on where they come from or is it also a matter of age, profession, and/or educational level?
 На ваш взгляд разнообразие в стилях речи зависит только от происхождения людей или также связан с их возрастом, профессией и/или образованием?
- D. Do you think people are beginning to use one particular style of speech more than any other nowadays? If so, which style and why are the changes occurring?
 Вы находите, что люди стали теперь употреблять один стиль больше других? Если это так, какие могут быть причины этого?

Слушайте: Мнение Владимира Путина о роли и состоянии русского языка в современном мире

Listening: Vladimir Putin's opinion on the role and condition of the Russian language in today's world

On November 5, 2019 Vladimir Putin held a meeting of the Council on the Russian Language, a consultative body established in 2014 to improve state policy in the development, protection, and support of the Russian language. In his opening address, President Putin expressed his concern about the issues facing the Russian language in the world today.

1 Listen to the beginning of Putin's speech and fill in the gaps below

(<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=w9NIXqMSnRA>).

Прослушайте начало записи речи Путина и заполните предложения.

Добрый день, уважаемые коллеги, друзья!

Вначале позволю себе несколько слов сказать, как обычно.

Темы, которые мы обсуждаем и которые связаны с (1) _____ языком, с русским языком, с (2) _____ языком для России, относятся, безусловно, к наиболее важным темам как для (3) _____ в целом, так и для каждого гражданина, для наших (4) _____ и для миллионов людей по всему (5) _____, которые говорят на (6) _____, используют его в работе, в творчестве, в (7) _____.

2 Now continue listening to Putin's speech up until 1 minute 10 seconds and answer these questions.

Теперь прослушайте запись речи Путина до минуты 1.10 и ответьте на следующие вопросы.

а Какое место занимает русский язык в мировом культурном наследии?

б Какую роль играет русский язык в России?

в Какую главную опасность для русского языка Путин видит в современном мире?

Transcript of Vladimir Putin's speech at the meeting of the Council on the Russian Language.

Транскрипция речи Владимира Путина на Заседании Совета по русскому языку.

Добрый день, уважаемые коллеги, друзья!

Вначале позволю себе несколько слов сказать, как обычно.

Темы, которые мы обсуждаем и которые связаны с родным языком, с русским языком, с государственным языком для России, относятся, безусловно, к наиболее важным темам как для страны в целом, так и для каждого гражданина, для наших соотечественников и для миллионов людей по всему миру, которые говорят на русском, используют его в работе, в творчестве, в общении.

Уникально богатый, многообразный, многогранный русский язык – безусловная часть мирового культурного наследия. Но главным, конечно, была и остаётся его значимость для нашей страны, для России, где он служит основой духовно-исторической общности десятков самобытных культур и народов в огромной степени обеспечивает суверенитет, единство и идентичность российской нации.

На нас, на нашей стране лежит громадная ответственность за сбережение, развитие и распространение русского языка, русской литературы, тем более сегодня, когда мы сталкиваемся с попытками искусственно – я хочу это подчеркнуть, – именно искусственно, грубо, подчас абсолютно бесцеремонно сократить пространство русского языка в мире, вытеснить его на периферию.

Словарь: Неологизмы

Vocabulary: new words

Look at the underlined words in these sentences and use both the context and what you know about the meaning of their constituent parts (prefix, root, suffix) to make a guess at what the word probably means.

Читайте слова, подчеркнутые в предложениях, приведённых ниже. Употребляйте контекст и ваши знания о составляющих их частях - их приставки, корни, суффиксы - чтобы угадать их значения.

а. Коммерциализация культуры, наступившая в связи с перестройкой, сказала, увы, и на издательской деятельности.

б. Разгосударствление промышленности серьёзно осложнено излишней осторожностью иностранных инвесторов.

в. Бросить все обычные дела и сооружать новые домостроительные комбинаты, такие, как у немцев (или как у французов). И, ей-ей, все равно, кто будет строить их: рыночник ли, антирыночник ли, коммунист, консерватор или радикал... Лишь бы поскорее. Стальной прут ведь не уговоришь: погоди, мол, железка, не лопайся (*Ogonek* 1991, 5 <https://marquis-the-cat.livejournal.com/209694.html> last accessed 07.04.2020)

г. Должны быть механизмы защиты некоммерческого кино.

д. Лекарства в списке самого сверхприбыльного бизнеса занимают третью строчку после наркотиков и оружия.

е. Распечатай на лазере одну копию красиво, а потом отксерьшишь.

ё. По сведениям экспертов родной табачной промышленности, наши отечественные сорта токсичнее «ненаших» почти в 20 раз.

ж. (Корреспондент): - Кто занимается раскруткой альбома? (Певец): - Я сам себе продюсер. Скоро песни зазвучат по радио и ТВ.

з. Рекламная компания по продвижению товаров предоставила возможность передавать по телефону 59-секундный рекламный радиоролик о своих продуктах.

Говорите: В стиле...

Speaking: In the style of

1 Here are some types of people and some topics for conversations. Check that you know the meanings of everything on the lists.

Ниже даются примеры разных типов людей и предметов для разговора. Проверьте, знаете ли вы значения всех слов?

студент	журналист	политик	бухгалтер	молодая девушка	учитель
программист	спортсмен	адвокат	торговец	пессимист	оптимист
акционер	предприниматель		домохозяйка	механик	поэт

программа на ТВ	правительство	жизнь	любовь	погода	
обед	книги	каникулы	цены	увлечения	планы на

2 Follow these instructions.

Теперь работайте по этапам.

A. As a class, add four or more words or phrases to each of the lists in Exercise 1.

Работая всем классом, прибавьте несколько примеров к каждому списку в упражнении 1.

B. Discuss in twos or threes what you feel will be the special speech characteristics of each of the people in the first list and how this might influence the way they would talk about any one of the topics in the second list.

В группах из двух или трёх студентов обсуждайте характеристики людей в первом списке. Каким образом эти характеристики отражаются в том, как эти люди будут говорить о предметах второго списка?

3 Now you are ready to play the game.

Теперь вы можете играть.

A. Divide into two teams.

Разделитесь на две команды.

B. The tutor will give each person in each team a character chosen at random from the list. Do not tell anyone who your character is. The tutor then announces a topic and each person must decide how their character would talk about this topic.

Каждый член команд получит от преподавателя по типу, выбранному случайно из списка. После этого преподаватель объявит предмет и каждый член команд должен решить, как его тип будет говорить о данном предмете.

C. In turns, pairs of students – one from each team – role play their character's conversation on that topic.

По очереди студенты в парах (каждая пара состоит из членов разных команд) разыгрывают свой разговор перед классом.

D. After one to two minutes the conversation stops, and each team has three chances to guess who their team member's character was. If they identify the character in their first guess, then their team gets five points, if on their second guess, three points, and if on their third guess one point. If they do not get it right on their third guess, then the other team gets three points.

Через одну или две минуты разговор прекратится и у каждой команды есть три шанса, чтобы угадать кто был тип, разыгран членом их команды. Если они угадают с первой попытки, их команда получит пять баллов, если со второй попытки – три балла, а если с третьей – один балл. Если они не угадают с третьей попытки, команда противников получит три балла.

Часть 2

Session 2

Читайте: Разнообразие русского языка

Reading: Varieties of Russian

1 Just as varieties of the spoken language are distinct, so are varieties of the written language. In this case it is a matter of where the text came from, for instance from a newspaper article, a novel, a poem, or another source. Most native speakers would be able to look at the extracts below and say what kind of source they came from. Can you do the same? In each case, say what type of text the extract comes from and explain how you were able to deduce this.

Ниже приведены отрывки из разных текстов. Какие, по-вашему, источники этих текстов? Какие ключи в этих текстах подсказывают их источники?

F

Система VOR (управляемой записи голоса) начинает и останавливает запись автоматически в соответствии со звуком для экономии ленты и заряда батареек. Функция SPEED CONTROL позволяет Вам повышать или понижать скорость воспроизведения ленты.

(<https://www.sony.com/electronics/support/res/manuals/3862/38622037M.pdf> last accessed 26.03.2020)

<

Яйца- молоко- соль- сахар и натертую лимонную цедру взбить (желательно с помощью миксера). Массу вылить на разогретую с маслом сковороду.

Когда яично- молочная смесь загустеет- на середину омлета выложить густое варенье- конфитюр или джем. Края омлета завернуть с двух сторон. С помощью ножа омлет швом вниз выложить на тарелку и посыпать сахарной пудрой. Омлет готовится порционно.

(<https://www.russianfood.com/recipes/recipe.php?rid=94147> last accessed 26.03.2020)

B

Пока Земля ещё вертится, пока ещё ярок свет,
Господи, дай же ты каждому чего у него нет.
Умному дай голову, трусливому дай коня,
Дай счастливому денег и не забудь про меня.

Пока Земля ещё вертится, Господи, твоя власть,
Дай рвущемуся к власти навластвовать всласть.
Дай передышку щедрому хоть до исхода дня,
Каинну дай раскаянье и не забудь про меня.

(Okudžava 2012: 88)

Г

Внутри, в удвоенной настенными зеркалами тесноте, размещалось несколько длинных вешалок с разнообразной джинсой и длинный стеллаж с обувью – главным образом кроссовками. Татарский, совсем как лермонтовский демон, окинул это кожано-резиновое великолепие скучающим взглядом, и на его высоком челе не отразилось ничего. Больше того, было вполне ясно: и тут кинули. Лет десять назад новая пара кроссовок, привезенная дальним родственником из-за бугра, становилась точкой отсчета нового периода в жизни – рисунок подошвы был подобием узора на ладони, по которому можно было предсказать будущее на год вперед. Счастье, которое можно было извлечь из такого приобретения, было безмерным. Теперь, чтобы заслужить право на такой же его объем, надо было покупать как минимум джип, а то и дом.

(V. Pelevin 2000: 9)

L

23 сентября в 1100 в Зауральной роще Оренбурга стартует чемпионат области по легкоатлетическому кроссу. Для участия в соревнованиях приглашены сильнейшие спортсмены Оренбуржья. По итогам чемпионата будет сформирована сборная команда для участия в предстоящем чемпионате России.

(<http://www.oreninform.ru/search/tag.php?q=легкоатлетический%20кросс>
last accessed 26.03.2020)

E

В числе принятых на минувшей неделе Госдумой законопроектов по судебной реформе был и новый вариант Закона "О Конституционном Суде РФ". В самом КС к некоторым положениям внесенного президентом законопроекта относятся прохладно. Прежде всего это касается предложения понизить статус членов КС, приравняв их ко всем прочим судьям.

(<http://www.itogi.ru/archive/2001/26/104833.html> last accessed 26.03.2020)

2 Now do some group work on the vocabulary of these texts.

Теперь работайте в группах на словарном составе этих текстов.

- a. Work in five or six groups. Each group should take one of the above texts and underline all the words and expressions in it which are clues to the origin of the text. Make sure that you can explain what each of the underlined words and expressions means to other students in the class.

Разделитесь на пять или шесть групп. Каждая группа анализирует один из текстов. Подчеркните все слова и выражения, которые указывают на источник текста. Можете ли вы объяснять слова, которые вы подчеркнули, другим студентам в классе?

- b. Tell the class as a whole which words you underlined and explain the meanings of any words or expressions which any other student asks you to explain.

Сообщите другим студентам результаты анализа вашего текста. Ответьте на их вопросы.

Словарь: Словарные вилки

Vocabulary: Word forks

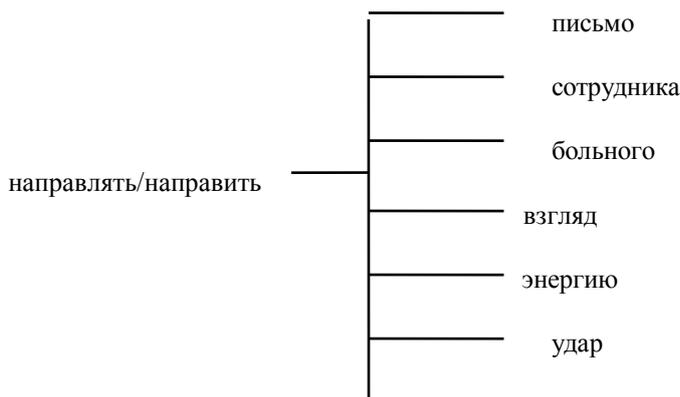
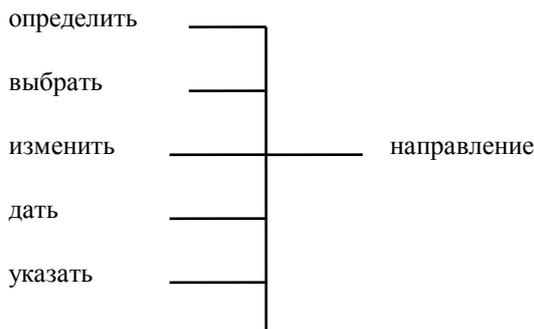
- 1 Look at the entry for *поднимать* in your dictionary. Find the right word to fill the gaps.

Читайте словарную статью на глагол *поднимать* в словаре русского языка. Вместо точек вставьте подходящие слова.

- a. Я поднял _____ и увидел воздушный шар.
 б. Ливни подняли _____ в реках.
 в. Почувяв посторонних людей, собаки поднимают _____.
 г. Матерям-одиночкам трудно поднимать _____.
 д. В связи с напряжённой международной обстановкой предприниматели _____ на нефть.
 е. В театрах после третьего звонка поднимают _____.
 ё. Мой друг всегда поднимает наше _____ смешными рассказами.
 ж. Командир поднял _____ в атаку.

A word fork is a fork-shaped diagram like those below. A word fork helps you to write down three or more collocations (or words that frequently occur together) based on one word. Here are some examples, associated with the word *направление*.

Словарные вилки - это схемы, которые позволяют изображать графически сочетания слов. Ниже приведены примеры, связаны со словом *направление*.



- 2 Choose one of the expressions from the *направление/направлять* word forks to complete these sentences.

Вместо точек вставьте подходящие сочетания слов, из числа приведённых выше.

- a. Новое правительство _____ в международной политике.
 б. Начальник фирмы _____ бизнеса.
 в. Надо _____ на решение этой важной задачи.
 г. Я пошёл на почту и _____ своему другу.
 д. Саша встал и _____ на незнакомца.

Играем

Game

Divide into two teams. Each team has ten minutes to decide which is the language these loan words have been borrowed from. You will get one point for every right answer, but you will lose one point for a wrong one.

Разделитесь на две команды. У каждой команды десять минут, чтобы определить, от какого языка происходят эти заимствованные слова. Вы получите один балл за каждый правильный ответ, но потеряйте один балл за каждый неправильный.

	а	ф	н	и	и	п	т	я
	н	р	е	с	т	о	у	п
	г	а	м	п	а	р	р	о
	л	н	е	а	л	т	е	н
	и	ц	ц	н	ь	у	ц	с
	й	у	к	с	я	г	к	к
	с	з	и	к	н	а	и	и
	к	с	й	и	с	л	й	й
	и	к		й	к	ь		
	й	и			й	с		
		й				к		
						и		
						й		
автобан								
fazenda								
имидж								
консалтинг								
хунта								
компьютер								
кайф								
слаксы								
папарацци								
ноу-хау								
софтвер								
рэслинг								
караоке								
мафиози								
плейер								
паблик рилейшнз								
бутик								
холдинг								
уоркмен								

Study Box

Займствования

Lexical borrowing

Although the predominant group of new words comes from English, there is a small number of words which have been recently borrowed from other languages. The most commonly used are *бутик* (French *boutique*), which has been adopted by stylists and designers to refer to high fashion shops, *автобан* "motorway" (German *autobahn*), *папарацци* (Italian *paparazzi*), and *fazenda* "ranch" (Portuguese *fazenda*), which derives from the very popular Latin American soap operas and is used ironically to mean "dacha, country house".

Loans from English

These are some examples from lexical areas where borrowing has been particularly active:

- the mass media

блокбастер 'blockbuster'

имидж 'image'

масс-медия 'mass media'

нюсьмейкер 'news maker'

таблоид 'tabloid'

телешоппинг 'TV shopping'

- names of clothes and fashion

анорак 'anorak'

бермуды 'Bermuda shorts'

боди 'body-suit'

легинсы 'leggings'

слаксы 'slacks'

топ 'top'

- food

бранч 'brunch'

гамбургер 'hamburger'

йогурт 'yoghurt'

крекер 'cracker'

корнфлекс 'cornflakes'

поридж 'porridge'

- new lifestyles

бунгало 'bungalow'

джакузи 'jacuzzi'

найт-клуб 'night club'

плейбой 'playboy'

<i>интертаинмент</i> 'entertainment'	<i>таймшер</i> 'timeshare'
• <u>technology</u>	
<i>адаптер</i> 'adapter'	<i>тонер</i> 'toner'
<i>декодер</i> 'decoder'	<i>мобильный</i> 'mobile phone'
• <u>economics and business</u> (probably the largest area of borrowing)	
<i>аудит</i> 'audit'	<i>лизинг</i> 'leasing'
<i>бартер</i> 'barter'	<i>ликвидный</i> 'liquid'
<i>брокер</i> 'broker'	<i>офис</i> 'office'
<i>венчурный</i> 'venture'	<i>промоушн</i> 'promotion'
<i>дистрибьютор</i> 'distributor'	<i>рекрутинг</i> 'recruiting'
<i>грант</i> 'grant'	<i>риэлтер</i> 'realtor'
<i>консалтинг</i> 'consultation'	<i>спонсор</i> 'sponsor'
<i>копирайт</i> 'copyright'	<i>тендер</i> 'tender'

Many words were also borrowed from sport, for instance *джоггинг* "jogging," *рэслинг* "wrestling," *сквош* "squash," *овертайм* "overtime," among others, and from musical terminology, for example *беквокал* "backing vocal", *брас-бенд* "brass band", *сингл* "single," *хит* "hit" and others.

Часть 3 Session 3

Исследуем письменный язык: Проза В. Пелевина
Exploring written language: The Prose of V. Pelevin

You are going to read an extract from Pelevin's novel *Generation "G"* (Pelevin, 2000). The novel's main character, Vavilen Tatarskii, builds his fortune working as a copywriter in the advertising industry. His job puts him in situations which are increasingly obscure and paradoxical.

Ниже приведётся отрывок из романа Виктора Пелевина *Generation 'П'*, издан в 2000 г. Главный герой романа Вавилен Татарский делает блестящую карьеру работая для рекламных компаний. Но его работа ставит его в тёмных и парадоксальных обстановках.

1 Work in four groups. Each group has a short extract from the novel. Read your extract together, helping each other with any vocabulary problems.

Group A: Read extract A

Group B: Read extract B

Group C: Read extract B

Group D: Read extract Г

Работайте в четырёх группах. Каждая группа читает отрывок из романа. Читайте ваш отрывок вместе и помогайте друг другу в разъяснении трудных слов.

Группа А: Читайте отрывок А

Группа Б: Читайте отрывок Б

Группа В: Читайте отрывок В

Группа Г: Читайте отрывок Г

2 When you have finished studying your extract, work in new groups. Describe your extracts and work out the order in which you think they occur (the extracts are not in the correct sequence). Then decide what happens to Vavilen Tatarskii.

Теперь работайте в новых группах. Опишите ваш отрывок и составьте правильную последовательность текста. Что случилось Вавилену Татарскому?

A

- Иду-иду, - долетел голос Азадовского, и он появился из прохода в какое-то внутреннее помещение. - Прибыл? Чего у дверей стоишь? Заходи, не съедим.

Татарский пошел ему навстречу. От Азадовского пахло винцом; в галогенном свете его лицо выглядело усталым.

- Где мы? - спросил Татарский.

- Примерно сто метров под землей, район Останкинского пруда. Ты извини за повязочку и все дела - просто перед ритуалом так положено. Традиции, мать их. Боишься?

Татарский кивнул, и Азадовский довольно засмеялся.

- Плюнь, - сказал он. - Это все туфта. Ты пока прогуляйся, посмотри новую коллекцию. Два дня как развесили. А у меня тут пара важных терок.

Он поднял руку и щелчком пальцев позвал секретаршу.

- Вот Алла тебе и расскажет. Это Ваван Татарский. Знакомы? Покажи ему тут все, ладно?

Татарский остался в обществе секретарши.

- Откуда начнем осмотр? - спросила она с улыбкой.

- Отсюда и начнем, - сказал Татарский. - А где коллекция?

- Так вот она, - сказала секретарша, кивая на стену. - Это испанское собрание. Кого вы больше любите из великих испанцев?

- Это... - сказал Татарский, напряженно вспоминая подходящую фамилию, - Веласкеса.

- Я тоже без ума от старика, - сказала секретарша и посмотрела на него холодным зеленым глазом. - Я бы сказала, что это Сервантес кисти.

Б

Когда с Татарского сняли повязку, он уже совершенно замерз. Особенно холодно было босым ступням на каменном полу. Открыв глаза, он увидел, что стоит в дверях просторного помещения, похожего на фойе кинотеатра, где, судя по всему, происходит нечто вроде фуршета. Он сразу заметил одну странность - в облицованных желтым камнем стенах не было ни одного окна, зато одна из стен была зеркальной, из-за чего освещенный яркими галогенными лампами зал казался значительно больше, чем был на самом деле. Собравшиеся в зале люди тихо переговаривались и разглядывали листы с машинописным текстом, развешанные по стенам. Несмотря на то что Татарский стоял в дверях совершенно голый, собравшиеся не обратили на него особого внимания - разве что равнодушно поглядели двое или трое. Татарский много раз видел по телевизору практически всех, кто находился в зале, но лично не знал никого, кроме Фарсука Сейфуль-Фарсейкина, стоявшего у стены с бокалом в руке. Еще он заметил секретаршу Азадовского Аллу, занятую разговором с двумя пожилыми плейбойми, - из-за распущенных белесых волос она походила на немного грешную медузу. Татарскому показалось, что где-то в толпе мелькнул клетчатый пиджак Морковина, но он сразу же потерял его из виду.

В

Она аккуратно взяла Татарского за локоть и, касаясь его голой ноги высоким бедром, повела к ближайшему листу бумаги на стене. Татарский увидел на нем пару абзацев текста и синюю печать. Секретарша близоруко нагнулась к листу, чтобы прочесть мелкий шрифт.

- Да, как раз это полотно. Довольно малоизвестный розовый вариант портрета инфанты. Здесь вы видите нотариальную справку, выданную фирмой "Оппенхайм энд Радлер", о том, что картина действительно была приобретена за семнадцать миллионов долларов в частном собрании.

Татарский решил не подавать виду, что его что-то удивляет. Да он, собственно, и не знал толком, удивляет его что-то или нет.

- А это? - спросил он, указывая на соседний лист бумаги с текстом и печатью.

- О, - сказала Алла, - это наша жемчужина. Это Гойя, мотив Махи с веером в саду. Приобретена в одном маленьком кастильском музее. Опять-таки "Оппенхайм энд Радлер" не даст соврать - восемь с половиной миллионов. Изумительно.

- Да, - сказал Татарский. - Правда. Но меня, честно говоря, гораздо больше привлекает скульптура, чем живопись.

- Еще бы, - сказала секретарша. - Это потому что в трех измерениях привыкли работать, да?

Татарский вопросительно посмотрел на нее.

- Ну, трехмерная графика. С бобками этими...

- А, - сказал Татарский, - вы вот про что. Да, и работать привык, и жить.

Г

- Вот и скульптура, - сказала секретарша и подтащила Татарского к новому бумажному листу, где текста было чуть побольше, чем на остальных. - Это Пикассо. Керамическая фигурка бегущей женщины. Не очень похоже на Пикассо, вы скажете? Правильно. Но это потому, что посткубистический период. Тринадцать миллионов долларов почти, можете себе представить?

- А сама статуя где?

- Даже не знаю, - пожала плечами секретарша. - Наверно, на складе каком-нибудь. А если посмотреть хотите, как выглядит, то вон каталог лежит на столике.

- А какая разница, где статуя?

Татарский обернулся. Сзади незаметно подошел Азадовский.

- Может, и никакой, - сказал Татарский. - Я, по правде сказать, первый раз сталкиваюсь с коллекцией такого направления.

- Это самая актуальная тенденция в дизайне, - сказала секретарша. - Монетаристический минимализм. Родился, кстати, у нас в России.

- Иди погуляй, - сказала ей Азадовский и повернулся к Татарскому: - Нравится?

- Интересно. Только не очень понятно.

- А я объясню, - сказал Азадовский. - Это гребаное испанское собрание стоит где-то двести миллионов долларов. И еще тысяч сто на искусствоведа ушло. Какую картину можно, какая будет не на месте, в какой последовательности вешать и так далее. Все, что упомянуто в накладных, куплено. Но если привезти сюда эти картины и статуи, а там еще гобелены какие-то есть и доспехи, тут пройти будет негде. От одной пыли задохнешься. И потом... Честно сказать - ну, раз посмотрел на эти картины, ну два, а потом - чего ты нового увидишь?

- Ничего.

- Именно. Так зачем их у себя-то держать? А Пикассо этот, по-моему, вообще мудака полный.

- Здесь я не вполне соглашусь, - сглотнув, сказал Татарский. - Или, точнее, соглашусь, но только начиная с посткубистического периода.

- Я смотрю, ты башковитый, - сказал Азадовский. - А я вот не рублю. Да и на фига это надо? Через неделю уже французская коллекция будет. Вот и подумай - в одной разберешься, а через неделю увезут, другую повесят - опять, что ли, разбираться? Зачем?

Татарский не нашелся, что ответить.

- Вот я и говорю, незачем, - констатировал Азадовский. - Ладно, пошли. Пора начинать. Мы потом сюда еще вернемся. Шампанского выпить.

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Paola Bocale is Associate Professor in Slavic Studies and Director of the Centre for Research on Minorities (CERM) at the University of Insubria. Her main research interests are corpus linguistics, SLA, sociolinguistics, and pragmatics.

A Pragmatic Analysis of Proverbs in the *Domains of Knowledge Construction* in Igbo

Matthew Onyebuchi Ndiribe

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

Abstract—The study examines the pragmatic analysis of proverbs in the domains of knowledge construction (KC). Knowledge construction is the process of creating of new ideas and understandings that are new to the discourse rather than the semantic implications. It is imperative that proverbs be surveyed to deduce these implications. The study used as its methodology, six respondents in the Faculty of Arts, University of Nigeria, Nsukka who were given the proverbs for analysis and they were requested to apply their own discretion in the interpretation of those data. In all, the work seeks to answer the question of ‘how can knowledge construction (KC) be used in analysing of Igbo proverbs using pragmatic framework’ and the objective of the study is to find out how KC could assist in bringing out the pragmatic nuances of the Igbo proverbs. The analysis will be carried out using some/all of the following four processes: interpretation, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. Finally, the study discovers that KC is deep rooted in contextual analysis as it is obvious that a particular proverb could have as many implications as possible based on the intuitions of the evaluators.

Index Terms—knowledge construction, pragmatic analysis, Igbo proverbs, speech act

I. INTRODUCTION

Knowledge is defined as the state of knowing about a particular fact or situation. Epistemologically, constructivists is a branch of philosophy of science which maintained that scientific knowledge is constructed by the scientific community who seeks to measure and construct models of natural world. According to constructivists, the world is independent of human mind, but that knowledge of the world is always a human and social construction. Based on the afore-mentioned, it is believed that knowledge is constructed based on personal experiences and hypothesis of the environment.

The role of learning theories explains the acquisition of knowledge but it does not adduce any importance to the ways of individualistic creation and construction of knowledge. This suggests that individuals are constantly active in constructing knowledge by means of their conscious and unconscious attempts.

Knowledge Construction (K.C) is an interdisciplinary concept. It is a process by which ideas and understandings are generated. Ideally, people construct knowledge when they apply critical thinking to go beyond knowledge reproduction by generating ideas and understandings that are new to them. This generation or thoughtful creation of new ideas and understandings lies at the heart of KC. By focusing on the process of creating ideas and carefully considering their values, one becomes more skilled at thinking critically and creatively. This is because learning involves constructing one’s own knowledge from one’s experience. Therefore construction process portends that our current knowledge influences what we learn, what we expect to learn, what we store and what we can retrieve (Ormrod, 2008).

When we encourage ourselves to generate new ideas, we are not concerned with how gigantic these ideas are; but we are more interested in the process by which we generate these ideas. The process gives more opportunity to construct ideas, connect them to other content and then internalise the outcome understandings (www.wcsd21). The process of generating ideas typically includes one or more of the following:

- (a) Interpretation: that is, the means of drawing inferences beyond the literal meanings
- (b) Analysis: this means identifying relationships among the parts of the whole
- (c) Synthesis: that is, the means for identifying relationships among two or more ideas; and
- (d) Evaluation: that is, the means for judging the quality, credibility, or importance of data, ideas or events.

In this study, efforts would be made to incorporate the various processes enunciated above in the handling of our data. This presupposes that the whole processes might not be employed in a particular data but that each process is evoked when it addresses the particular data under consideration.

Proverb, on the other hand has its seat at the heart of pragmatics. This is why the Igbo people consider proverb as a mature knowledge for a mature conversation. The use of proverb is the mark of mature speaker. It is often used to begin address, especially when one aims at making an impressive and powerful speech before audience of respectable, experienced and elderly people who can easily decode exactly what the speaker intended. This is where KC comes in because the addresser and the addressee must be on the same page in the discourse domain, else, there will be distortion in meaning which automatically destroys the KC.

Proverb, though a property owned by Igbo people in general has its own dialective values, hence the saying “Ndi banyị siji” ‘our people say’ (cf Ndiribe, 2015). This dialectic value helps in KC because even the critical thinking

aspect of KC is done in one's dialectic persuasion. The Igbo man quotes proverbs to buttress his points and give authority and authenticity to an idea or a disputed fact. Proverb is a way of putting a bitter truth through the medium of smooth words. The wise listener must be clever enough to do his KC and come up with the intended meaning that the speaker supposes. Proverbs are highly figurative, and as such, they have high forms of linguistic sophistication. This is where the processes of interpretation, analysis, synthesis and evaluation are needed for the listener to be at the same page with the speaker. The need to acquire the ability to understand and use proverb is the ability to do a comprehensive KC and the need cannot be overemphasised.

This study seeks to answer the questions of "how can the knowledge construction (KC) be used in the analysis of Igbo proverbs using pragmatic framework and the objective of the study is to find out how KC could assist in bringing out the pragmatic nuances of the Igbo proverbs.

Igbo language belongs to the West Benue-Congo in the Niger Congo language family. Igbo language is spoken in Abia, Anambra, Ebonyi, Enugu and Imo states as core states in the South-East region. It is also spoken in some parts of Bayelsa, Delta and Rivers states as 'non-Igbo states' all in the South-South region of Nigeria. By being non-Igbo states, the three states of Bayelsa, Delta and Rivers have other languages apart from the Igbo language which form a tiny part of the conglomerates of languages spoken in this region. The South-South region has linguistic importance because of its multilingual nature. The number of speakers, according to Williamson & Blench (2000) in Mbah (2007) is about 15 million. But the 2006 Population Census put the South-Eastern states figures at 16,381,229 million. That is, Anambra (4,182,032), Imo (3,257,298), Enugu (3,934,899), Abia (2,833,999), and Ebonyi (2,173,501). This is excluding Rivers (5,185,400) and Delta (4,098,391). All together, the population is well above 25 million speakers (NPC 2006). It has a number of dialects, of which Ihiala and Nsukka are one of them, which are to a large extent mutually intelligible.

The study is further organised in this fashion:

Section two deals with definition of terms and literature reviews under pragmatic framework, section three looks at the methodology adopted in this research, section four highlights the proverbs under discussion and analysis using the processes enumerated above; section five chronicles the implications of KC to the analysis of Igbo proverbs using the pragmatic framework while section six does the summary of the work.

II. DEFINITION OF TERMS AND LITERATURE REVIEW

There are several approaches to the analysis of discourse, which include speech act theory (SAT) which could be either direct or indirect (Ndiribe, 2016; Enwelum-Nkem. p. 2017) and pragmatics. In SAT, the focus is on what social function the speech would have on the listener, whereas in pragmatics, the focus is on the context that necessitates the speech. In the Igbo language, proverbs have both social and contextual implications. This accounts for the reason why unmatched proverbs are frowned at whenever they occurred. Since we perform actions as we use language, those actions must match the context and intention for which they are made. This is why a proverb must be seen to fill all the above gaps.

A. *Speech Act Theory (SAT)*

(Ndiribe. 2016, p. 236) asserts that the development of SAT is credited to the Oxford Philosopher, J.L. Austin. There are a lot of controversies as to who really was the author of speech act theory. Saeed (2003) is of the opinion that SAT was published posthumously by Austin's students in 1975, Courthard (1985) believes that the work was published by Austin himself in 1962. Mey (2001) and Yoshitake (2004) also maintain that the work was published by Austin himself in 1962. However, all the various scholars agree that the work was published with the title: "*How to do things with words*" and this is where context came in.

The concept "speech act" rests solely on the assumption that the meaning of an utterance is its intended social function. That is, the act of learning to communicate in a language involves more than acquiring the pronunciation and grammar of the said language. In other words, the initiator of the framework believes that we perform an action whenever we use language. In speech act, the disciplines of both semantics and pragmatics are explored to bring out both literal meanings and the intended meanings.

1. **Direct Speech Act**

Yule (1996) asserts that when the form such as 'Did he?... Are they?...or Can you?... is used to ask a question, it is known as a direct speech act. He also maintains that when a speaker does not know something and asks the hearer for the information, s/he will typically provide a direct speech act.

2. **Indirect Speech Act**

(Yule. 1996, p. 133) goes on to say that some utterances which look like questions are usually treated as requests to perform some actions. He describes this type of questions or constructions as indirect speech act. (Searle. 1975, 61) buttresses the concept of indirect speech act thus: Suppose somebody says to a friend: let's go to the movie tonight and the friend answers: I have to study for an exam. What is this friend trying to tell his/her interlocutor? And how do we know that the second utterance in fact is a rejection of the proposal contained in the first while seeming to be completely unrelated to it and not containing any overt or hidden expression of negation or rejection; or even a mention of rejected offer?

Searle views indirect speech act as a combination of two acts, that is, a primary illocutionary act (in the example above, rejecting a proposal), and a secondary one (in this case, making a statement), where the primary act through, and in force of, the secondary one.

B. Pragmatics

Historically, the term ‘pragmatics,’ according to Enwelim-Nkem (2017), can be traced to Morris (1938), who perceived pragmatics as a two-fold concept of syntax-semantic interface that is embroiled in a terminology known as ‘pragmatics’. (Levinson 1981, p.1) in (Enwelum-Nkem. 2017, p.521) “in Morris explanation of these three branches of inquiry, syntax is taken to be the study of “formal relation of sign to one another”, semantics is the study of the “relations of signs to the objects to which the signs are applicable” and pragmatics, the study of the “relations of signs to interpreters”.

Pragmatics is the aspect of study which, according to (Ndiribe. 2015, p. 51) is a subfield of linguistics which seeks the ways in which context contribute to meaning. The meaning is not derived solely from the meaning of the words used in the sentences. The meaning is far-fetched from the combination of the words or phrases which make up the sentences (cf. Robinson. 2006).

Pragmatics is the study of the speaker’s intended meaning, not focusing on the phonetic or grammatical meaning, but instead on what the speaker intention and belief are (cf. Dijk, 1977). Accordingly, Carson (2002) sees pragmatics in linguistics as the meaning in context, and the influence that a given context could have on the message. This, according to Carson (2002), requires the knowledge of the speaker’s identity and place and time of the utterance. Grice (1989) is of the opinion that pragmatics is the study of implicature, i.e. the things that are communicated even though they are not explicitly expressed, while Thomas (1975) discusses pragmatics in language use as the study of relative distance that is both social and physical between speakers in order to understand what determines the choice of what is said and what is not said. Varschuren (1999) on his own part aligns pragmatics with the study of what is meant as opposed to the intended meaning, i.e. that which is unsaid and unintended or unintentional.

Robinson (2002) uses information structure to analyse pragmatics. To him, pragmatics is the study of how utterances are marked in order to effectively manage common grounds of referred entities between speakers and hearers. It encompasses speech act theory; conversational implicature; talk in iteration and other approval to language behaviour in philosophy, sociology and linguistics (cf. Austin, 1962). Unlike the semantics which examines meaning that is conventional in a given language, Brown and Levinson (1978) see pragmatics as one that studies how transmission or meaning depends not on structural and linguistic knowledge, e.g. grammar, lexicon etc. of the speech listener but also the context of the utterance, any pre-existing knowledge about those involved, the inferred intent of the speaker, and other factors. In this respect, pragmatics explains how language users are able to overcome apparent ambiguity, since meaning relies on the manner, place, time etc. of the utterance (Mey, 1993; Clark, 1996).

As an ideal Igbo speaker, when we hear some proverbs, we normally try to understand not only what words mean, but what the writer or speaker of those proverbs intends to convey (Ndiribe, 2015). According to Yule (1996), “pragmatics is the study of intended meaning”. Accordingly, (Courthard. 1985, p.50) sees conversational analysis as a first step towards achieving a “naturalistic observational discipline to deal with details of social interactions in a rigorous, empirical and formal way”. (Bell. 1991, p. 112) sees a language context as the one which can be recognised by knowing insider who can bring the brute fact together as social facts. He goes on to assert that the specification of the context of utterance can, unlike the description of the situation, be much more implicit since it assumes the totality of the shared knowledge possessed by the participant in the communicative act.

These brute facts and the specification of the context of utterances are the seat of proverbs in Igbo. For one to be in tune with the rhythm of communication, one must be able to engage oneself in knowledge construction in order to decipher these brute facts.

C. Igbo Proverbs: A Theoretical Perspective

Proverbs are oral compositions and their various stylistic constituents are derived from all layers of what we described as the hierarchy of socio-cultural value systems of the people. They point to the individual, domestic and collective life pattern of the society from which they are derived. In other words, proverbs adopt material from peoples’ environment. (Obiechina. 1975, p.156) perceives proverbs as “a collection and/or representations of people’s way of life”. Obiechina’s observation is quite obvious because in any proverb one is likely to see the culture of the people that own the proverb.

Proverbs actually come from the depth of tradition, reflecting the intellect and wisdom of the people. Proverbs in Africa, are wise sayings and, a special prerogative of the elders. The elders are always exalted as the custodians of the wisdom in Africa. Any African elder that lacks this power of the mind and words may lose his respect, no matter his importance in the society. (Nwoga. 1976, p.83) says that” a proverb is the wisdom of many and the wit of one; the experience and wisdom of several ages gathered and summed up in one expression; and the edge tools of speech.”

Two things are clear about Nwoga’s definition. First, proverbs make speech to be short, in other words, it is an economic way of using words. Secondly, proverbs bring out the wisdom and tradition of the people.

(Abraham. 1964, p.61) in his own words defines proverbs as “the aphoristic saying enjoying traditionally handed down currency...having protean powers of interpretation”. The protean powers of interpretation may enjoy a certain universality of application, but essentially proverbs reveal the culture in which they exist.

Empirical review

Igbo proverbs are useful in speech because they cover the entire range of human existence. Igbo proverbs describe a wide variety of natural occurrence and give a characteristic analysis of historical events.

Nwadike (2009) collected 85 Igbo proverbs and classifies them into 36 sub-headings. Some of these proverbs have literal meanings as well as explanations while others are coloured in their literal meanings only without any further explanations. Nwadike (2009: 35) has this to say under **admonition**:

- (a) *O bu mmiri a gba oso*
S/he carry water Neg run run
‘One who carries water needs not (cannot) run’.

It means: one in a position of trust should not be found wanting. It can also mean that those who live in glass house should not throw stone.

In (p.56) under **love**, we have the following:

- (b) *Iwe nwanne a na ghi e ru n' okpukpu*
Anger sibling imp. Aux. Neg. Imp. reach Prep bone
‘Anger for a blood relation does not get down to the bone’.
- (c) *Aso nwanne a na ghi a gbuli ya elu*
Saliva sibling imp. Aux. Neg. Imp. push it up
‘Saliva spitting on a blood relation is not raised high’.

Under **fear** he has this:

- (d) *Nkume rja elu, ujo atwa ite mmiri*
Stone climb up fear come pot water
‘When the stone climbs up, fear grips the water pot’.

Though this work by Nwadike (2009) shows various proverbs of Igbo world view, it is purely literal. It enhances this present study in the sense that it lists the types of proverbs in Igbo language and the categorisations of such proverbs but it differs with this present study in the area of context. The pragmatics of proverbs is what motivates this present study.

Ndiribe (2015) studies proverbs as they relate to image schemas in Igbo. He analyses nine proverbs and discovers that Igbo proverbs support some concepts of image schemas like path, force, containment/container and causal schemas. He concludes that the schemas like force, containment and path are contained in some proverbs but maintained that the image schemas used in the study do not constitute a closed set. This present study uses proverbs to ascertain the domain of knowledge construction in the Igbo language. Therefore, my preoccupation here is basically the domains of knowledge construction (KC).

III. METHODOLOGY

The researcher put down the proverbs for consideration and then sent them across to the appropriate respondents. These respondents were adults that were over forty years of age. These respondents were six in number and were selected from both academic and non academic in the faculty of Arts, University of Nigeria, Nsukka. Among these six respondents, three were males while the other three were females. These proverbs for the analysis of this study were sent to them and their knowledge constructions of those proverbs were elicited based on the interpretations they assigned to the proverbs.

IV. DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

In this section, efforts will be made to present the proverbs which form our data for analysis and then analyse them in line with knowledge construction criteria.

1. *Dibja ulo a na ghi a gbata okuko*
Doctor house imp. Aux. Neg imp. shoot fowl
‘Home/family doctor does not get a fowl’.

In the traditional healing method, a doctor or a seer is known to be asking his clients to bring a fowl for the jobs or activities he performed for the clients. The clients provide the fowl without any objection as their objection may attract the wrath of the gods which these doctors represent.

The interpretation of the proverb is that the family or village artiste does not perform wonders to the members of the family or the community. Why should they accord him any respect even to the extent of obeying him and paying him any homage. Because he is a member of the family or the community, there is a look down on his person and on his ability to perform any wonders.

The analysis of the proverb above is that there is a great disregard not because of performance inability but because of the person of the performer. But does it mean that others outside the given area do not value or recognise the same person? They (the family members) equally share in the fortune he makes from people outside who believe in his ability.

The fact is that these people see outsiders who patronise this rejected person of theirs as people who are deceived into believing falsehood. The home doctor is not regarded just because he is a home doctor. People who disregard him are his contemporaries – those who grow up with him, at times, they know his family background; his childhood activities and the general information about his parents. So how should they honour such a person who they know inside out ?

The KC here is that people are depriving themselves of valuable substances which the neglected home doctor possesses. The KC is summarised as that of ‘over familiarity brings contempt’. The KC goes ahead to ascertain that the home doctor can never enjoy the goodwill of his people.

2. Anụ ụlọ a na gị a cha nkịta anya
Meat house imp Aux Neg imp. worth dog eye
‘Home animal/meat is worthless to the dog’

The interpretation of the proverb is that the animal/meat is worthless before the dog because it is from within the environment. This explains for why the home-made goods are neglected by the people. How many people patronise home made goods in the presence of foreign made counterparts? It is not because the home made ones are inferior but because it is locally made. If the people patronise the locally made goods which are less in price, then it would seem to them as spending their money on worthless things.

The analysis is that the people will not appreciate what they have because those things do not cause them any fortune. But if they use greater resources to obtain that same quality elsewhere, then their quest for better thing is satisfied.

The KC would like to know why people should discard what is relatively available to them only to go out in search of a similar thing. So why should people despise offers within their places and then go to other places and beg for the same thing they rejected back home? Why should people patronise goods that are made in China, Niger, Chad, Cameroon as against the ones made in Nigeria? Why is it that people do not complain when they purchase other countries made goods which do not last for them but to shout from a roof-top when locally made goods has the same quality? The locally made goods are referred to as *Igbo-made*. Why do we like to import everything even agricultural products from other countries when we have great arable lands for cultivation with great fertility. We despise everything that the Almighty God has endowed us with.

3. Nwaanyị na- a mụ nwa n’ ahịa a na gị a kpachi ụkwụ
Woman Aux Pref. born child Prep. market Imp Aux Neg Pref. Cross leg
‘A woman that delivers in a market place does not cross her legs’

The interpretation of the proverb is that there are things one cannot do not because one does not want to do them but because one has no power of his own to do them. A woman would ordinarily not desire to put to bed in a market place because a market place is not the ideal place to deliver of a baby. Since the desire to deliver is not one of the deliverer, the deliverer has no option than to deliver even in the so called uncondusive environment.

The analysis of the proverb is that the force of nature cannot be postponed. Whether the deliverer wishes to do it in the place is immaterial because the force associated with the delivery will not permit the deliverer to make a suggestion. Since labour is a spontaneous action, it does not give the deliverer the opportunity to suggest how and where the delivery will happen. If the deliverer decides to do otherwise, she will be ready to accept the consequence which is death to her and the unborn baby.

The KC would want to know why a woman would debase her sanctity in a market place. The answer is that it is a matter of life and death. It is a matter of ‘can’t help’. Because it is a matter of ‘can’t help’, the deliverer will ignore her personality and align herself with the call of nature. This explains for why it is impossible to see a woman that is sleeping during labour.

On the other hand, when a man is desperately in need of anything, he will go all the way to get it no matter the humiliating process it might entail. What is of paramount important is that the demand is achieved. Whatever it takes to achieve a desired goal is more than the process by which the desired goal is achieved.

4. Nwa nnadi ma ụma awa ọgọdọ, onye ọbụla mara otu amụ ibe ya ha
Child kinsman know vain tie cloth, person all know how penis other his is
‘The kinsman ties the cloth in vein, everybody knows the size of others penis’

The interpretation of the proverb is that the greatest enemy of a person is that of his household and kindred. The bible says that a prophet is without honour and respect but among his kinsman. There is no smoke without fire and a stranger cannot hurt anyone if the insider is not a collaborator. It shows that the insider seems to know more of his neighbour than the outsider.

The analysis of the proverb depicts that the insider is always there to monitor and is also there to give account of what s/he knows about her/his colleagues. Knowing the size of one’s penis means that one should not perform wonders before his/her people when they do not see anything out of ordinary. They also show their surprise and apprehension. Some will monitor the person for some time to know whether what they saw of him/her is real or pretence.

But, the KC would dig deep to know whether the concept that ‘the only thing that is constant is change’ cannot operate in this situation. How can people claim to know everything about an individual? The evaluation is that the information one has about an individual in the past can never be trusted to be authentic in all situations. Man is not created to be ‘all knowing’ and it is impossible for a mortal being to assume the position of God. This accounts for why there is always disappointments when what we think about happened in the exact opposite way.

5. Onye hụ ru otule diochi a na ghị e nwe mmasị i nụ mmanya o tere

Person see Past anus tapper imp Aux Neg Inf. have like inf drink wine 3S tap

The person that saw the anus of the (wine) tapper will not like to drink the wine (he tapped)

Once a person's ill motivated behaviour is discovered, the person loses his value. The interpretation is that those who command respects should do everything to maintain status quo and never at any time betray the confidence the people have on them. This is because the moment the people discover that they fall short of their expectation, then they will have no more confidence in their abilities never to disappoint them. The implication is that once the led or the followers lose confidence in their leaders, they will have no further business with such leaders. The leader is like a salt that lost its savour and will be useful for nothing.

The analysis of the proverb is that it is better for people to keep to the standard for which people rate them and maintain the integrity as long as they have something to do with the people. Failure to maintain the integrity will erode the personality of the people. Once the people turn their back on the failed leader, it will be very difficult, if not impossible for such a leader or the person to woo those people back.

The KC would like to ascertain why the exposure of the anus of the tapper is more important than drinking the wine that the tapper produced. The discovery shows that people will first and foremost consider the individual first before they consider what the person has to offer. That is, the container before the content. But is there no room for amendment? Even though there is a room for amendment, the fact remains that the amendment cannot restore any damaged thing to its earlier state. This presupposes that many people who might have left because of the first blunder may not find the courage to come back.

6. E rue nwoke ụlọ, a mata onye o bu

Imp. reach man house imp know who he is

'A man's worth is determined when you get to his house'

This means that people should not be evaluated on the superficial outlook alone. The reason is that many people pretend so much when they are outside their domains. Many try to deceive others by their physical outlooks. Some will even go as far as hiring a nice car to an occasion in order to deceive people.

The analysis of the proverb is that whatever a man carries with him outside is not any tangible thing as to access his worth. For instance, if a man wants to borrow money from a bank, the bank will require a fixed property or collaterals. These fixed properties include land, house or good certificates. These requirements are not something he can produce in a transit but will demand that the borrower gets to his house. A person who wears good clothes without the fix property will never be considered by the bank for that transaction. The implication of the proverb is that 'not all that glitters is gold'. So before evaluating a man, one should try to get both the inside and the outside of the person so as to get a thorough evaluation of the person.

The KC discovers that people claim what they are not in order to conceal their personality. This concealment could be either positive or negative. For instance, a fraudulent person would want to be accessed by his present outlook and whenever one wants to go further he feels uncomfortable. Some wealthy people will appear so humble in the eyes of the public and will never want the public to know who they really are for fear of their safety. Based on the afore-mentioned people should look before they leap.

7. Ihe okenye nọrọ ala hụ, nwata rigoro elu oji o ga ghị a hụ ya.

Thing elder sit down see, child climb high iroko s/he Aux Neg Pref see it

'What the elder sees while sitting down, the child will not see it even if he climbs an iroko tree'

This means that experience cannot be bought in the market. There are things that cannot be acquired with money or with rush. This shows that experience grows like an old age. The more one is experienced in any act of life, the more he is effective in that act. This accounts for why experience is demanded in every aspect of human endeavour. In the football pitch, the experienced players struggled the least and achieved more results than the inexperienced players who did all the running and attacks and achieved less. The inexperienced wasted a lot of time and material resources unlike the experienced who are circumspect in everything and thereby saved a lot of energy and resources.

The conceding of defeat by the former President Goodluck Ebele Jonathan (GEJ) in 2015, when he had, as a sitting president, all the privileges of the state powers is one example which is very hard to appreciate. People called him all manners of names like *clueless*, *lazy* and *timid* president. But he understood that he was the only person at the time that held the unity and disintegration of the country in his hands. For him to choose the unity and lives of his people he must relinquish the power by accepting defeat, else he chose the disintegration that would be heralded by wanton killings and destruction of property by rejecting or cancelling the outcome of the result.

The young people especially those from the southern Nigeria would see no reason at all for the president to act in such a cowardice manner when it was obvious to them that the election was rigged by a northern umpire to favour a northerner.

The analysis of the proverb portrays that experience grows with self-convincing. People that are clamouring for the actualisation of Biafra Republic today are mostly youths who were born some decades after the end of civil war in Nigeria. They did not witness how people were massacred in the war. They did not witness how children died of *kwashiorkor* because of the economic blockade carried out on a particular divide. No elder in the house would be supportive of the call about the realisation of the Republic of Biafra.

The KC believes that experience comes with maturity. It portrays that people tend to be professional as they continue to engage themselves in a particular venture. Conclusively, KC argues that people should learn to spend quality time in their chosen fields of endeavour in order for them to give their best to the society. Wastages should be minimised when people are placed according to their expertise. Putting the square pegs in the round holes should be discouraged if we expect to get the best. Finally, the young shall grow but the young should be sure that he is growing with the efficient tools that can help in the nearest future.

8. Ónyé ifòrífò a ma ghị mgbe e kere nkụ ukwa
 Person stupid Pref. know Neg. when imp. share firewood breadfruit
 'The stupid person (a fool) does not know when they share the breadfruit firewood'

The meaning of the proverb is that one who is not articulate when things are done rarely understood what was done. For one to benefit from a struggle, one must participate in the struggle. One should not leave anything to chance with the notion that 'it will be resolved'. If somebody encroaches into someone's property, the owner of the property must do something to show the trespasser that he is alive to his responsibility else, the encroacher will have a free ride.

The analysis of the proverb is that those who think that they are wise by keeping silent when a serious issue is being discussed later discover that a serious decision which affected them was taken in that discussion. These set of stupid people will go on afterward to insinuate that they are marginalised in the group because of their race or ethnicity or religion. These set of people are always lost and would want the hand of the clock to be turned anticlockwise only for them to discover that a clock was not made to move that way.

The KC would want to ascertain how the breadfruit firewoods are shared. Could it be that people came and some people started appropriating some logs to themselves whereas others are docile waiting for the time a call would be made for all to come to the sharing of breadfruit firewood? Only for them to realise that what each person appropriated to himself belongs to him. Those who are waiting for a call to start sharing realise that the whole thing had been shared up.

The KC advises that one must act when others are acting to avoid being taken unawares. A lot of opportunities occur once and again but only the ones that are ready to hold the bull by the horn make good use of the opportunity.

The conclusion is that anyone who fails to act while the action is necessary is regarded as a foolish person. What one loses by one's indecision to act might not be recovered in one's life time.

9. Nwátà ma ụma agba egwu aja, okenye nwe anụ
 Child know vain dance beating sacrifice, adult have meat
 'The child is dancing the dance of sacrifice in vain, the meat belongs to the elders'.

The meaning of the proverb is that **formality will always remain a formality** no matter the seriousness one attaches to it. No matter how serious a child attaches to the music of the sacrifice that can never in any way confer the ownership of the meat of the sacrifice to him.

In the traditional Igbo setting, the young men do the dancing of the masquerades, yet the proceeds of that activities go to the elders who were seated somewhere. Some youths, out of zealotry, go contrary to the rules of the masquerade and as such got reprimanded through a commiserate fines that range from bottles of wine to a full grown cock or goat depending on the severity of the offence. In all the activities, the youths do not get any positive rewards from the elders.

In politics, the illiterate youths are the tools for electioneering for the elites. They did all the thuggery with the promise of better package. Their activities end the moment election was won and lost. Some of these people (youths) even see their principals appointing people from the opposition to occupy important positions.

The analysis is that no matter how hard an illiterate works in the cause of any action, he is used to achieve an effect that would probably exclude him outrightly in the long run. No matter how vigorously an illiterate youth work for a politician, the politician can never make him a minister, or commissioner or even special assistant in his government. The elites who did not participate in the electioneering campaigns are invited to come and take up position based on their expertises.

So why should people take so serious to activities they should not be partakers later on. Why should people lose their lives while they are projecting an entity that will later reject them and dump them by the side of the road? The KC would want to interrogate whether there is anything these youths could do for them to be part of the meat at the end of the dance. The KC discovers that their youthfulness do not qualify them and then advises them to keep away from the dance or dance as a hobby without having any hope of reward at the end. KC maintains that they would be highly disappointed if they think that the dissipation of their energies for these elders and politicians would fetch them anything afterwards. These disappointment leads to frustration which in turn leads to various vices we see today in our country.

10. A ga- e ru nti nso tupu a maa ya ọra
 Imp Aux. Pref. reach cheek close before imp throw it slap
 'One must get closer to the cheek before one slaps it'

There are things that are not possible if one is not involved. Before one could do anything, he must be updated in the process or the activity. No one can burgle another person's house if the person is not detailed about the house by an insider, else the close relative must be the one to do the burgling. It is he who knows a person that kills him.

On the other hand, one should not comment on certain activities if such a person is not a member. The best way to contribute to a debate is to belong to the debate group and use the opportunity of membership to contribute. For instance, if one wants to change the bad leadership of any country or state, the person must belong to a political party for him to contribute. But if the person concludes that politics is a bad game, the same person should be contented with the type of leadership he receives. His belonging to a political party does not guarantee him an expressway to becoming a leader but it affords him the opportunity to make some useful suggestions and contributions and in so doing becomes the spokesperson for those who receive the impact of the bad leadership.

The KC would like to ascertain why it is important that one must be close to the cheek before one could slap it. The answer is that one who is afar of cannot manufacture a longer hand in order to reach the cheek of the person in question. As a matter of the quest to slap the cheek, the person must strive to be close to the cheek.

To get closer might take an extensive planning as to how and when. For instance, if the target has security details around him, how could the planner get closer to him? This entails that the planner will devise a means which could be either positive or negative. The most important achievement is that he gets closer to the target and finally slaps him. Slapping him is regarded as meeting his target and not necessarily getting closer to him.

By this, anyone who gets closer to the cheek and fails to slap it because of fear, intimidation or respect in this instance is adjudged a failure. The KC would like to know why it is necessary to slap the cheek. The answer is that the necessity of slapping the cheek forms the objective of getting closer to it in the first instance and any failure to achieve this would be catastrophic.

There are two activities here: getting closer to the cheek and then slapping it. These two requires proper planning and proper execution. The outcome of this proper planning and execution is immaterial. For instance, the coup that killed General Murtala Mohammed by Colonel Dimka was a successful one despite the fact that Dimka was executed later.

V. IMPLICATION

Since knowledge construction (KC) engages in critical thinking, a critical thinker deals with questions. This questions are why's and how's. The ability to give a consummate answers to the why's and how's gives KC its derived inputs. So why does proverb have its seat at the heart of pragmatics rather than semantics and why should KC investigate it? The reason is that proverb is context-dependence and interdependence in the sense that one context can lead to another context.

Pragmatics, as a concept deals with context in sentence analysis. In the realm of pragmatics sentence structures are juxtaposed to bring out all the possibilities inherent in the structure. Since proverb is rich in context, pragmatics unfolds these intricate peculiarities of proverb.

By way of our findings we answer the questions of this study which seek to know how KC could be used in analysing proverbs in Igbo. We state thus:

- a. That KC is suitable in analysing the Igbo proverbs since these proverbs are best analysed in their context settings and these settings are determined by a lot of factors which could be force (ex.3), neglect (ex.1&2), possession (ex.7) or maturity (ex.9).
- b. The KC goes into nitty-gritty of why things happen the way they do. This procedure is explored by various why's and how's which form the basis of critical thinking in KC.
- c. KC brings out the various aspects of interpretations in proverbs. This is because the more the critical thinking, the more the depth of the analysis that will emanate from the proverb in question. This enhances different ideas emanating from a particular proverb.

VI. CONCLUSION

In the study, we set out the basic question of "how can the Knowledge Construction (KC) be used in the analysis of Igbo proverbs using pragmatic framework. Pragmatics deals with the context which necessitated the particular proverb. The context should not be tied to a particular event but must have various interpretations in order to have a wider perspective. The KC is used to dig deeper in the pragmatic implication of any proverb for consideration. This it does by asking questions from different divides and also seeking to know the consequences of an opposite occurrence. For instance, why should a child who was dancing because of the meat that would follow later be denied of that meat? The KC finds out in that instance that rules prevail over morality. He was not part of the sharing of the meat because he was not part of it is the genuine reason why the meat was not given to him.

The KC searches into the positive and negative implication of any proverb. That is, what happens if any other thing happens? Why not and if not? Why should the ex-president GEJ give up power when people were urging him to hold onto power? Was there anything he saw that others around him did not see and could not see? Did the death of Col. Dimka stop other military officers from engaging in coup plot?

The two scenarios mentioned above emerge because KC pressed harder to interrogate their respective proverbs.

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Matthew Onyebuchi Ndiribe is a Nigerian from Anambra state, South-East Nigeria. Currently, he lectures at the Department of Linguistics, Igbo and other Nigerian languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka (UNN). He holds B.A (Linguistics) in 2004, M.A in (Linguistics) (Syntax) 2009 and Ph.D also in (Linguistics) (Syntax) 2018 all from UNN. He specialises on Syntax and Semantics but has interest in other branches of linguistics like Sociolinguistics, Applied linguistics and Morphology. He has authored many articles among which are:

Ndiribe, M. O. (Argument structure of the Igbo verbs: An interlanguage analysis). Published in *Journal of Linguistics, Language and Literature* (Ebonyi State University, Abakaliki, Nigeria) 2018

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Presupposition Triggers in British and Saudi English Newspaper Opinions

Hameed Yahya A. Al-Zubeiry

Department of English, Faculty of Science & Arts, Al-Baha University, Baljurashi, KSA

Abstract—This paper aims to investigate the presupposition triggers in British and Saudi English newspaper opinions. The data of the study comprises a sample of 30 newspaper opinions articles selected from the Saudi Gazette and the UK Gazette (15 articles each). The results demonstrate that the Saudi articles receive the highest number of presupposition triggers occurrences, that is 556 (56.60%) compared to the UK articles which receive 426 (43.40%). The results also reveal that ‘existential’ and ‘lexical’ presupposition triggers in both cases are the ones used the most while ‘non-factive’ ‘structural’ presupposition triggers are the least. Comparison between the two cases indicates that there are considerable similarities. The few differences are not very significant; hence, it is true to say that native and non-native writers of English used presupposition triggers similarly. Based on the study findings, the following implications have been drawn: presupposition triggers help speakers and writers pass a lot of information to their audiences; they are used by speakers and writers to set the background of their negotiation for better and effective communication; and they are used by speakers and writers in order to mold the ideologies of their audiences. The study concludes with some pedagogical recommendations for EFL instructors in the TEFL context and suggestions for further studies on presuppositions in discourse analysis.

Index Terms—presupposition triggers, pragmatics, communication, newspaper opinions, Saudi and British writers

I. INTRODUCTION

In their social interactions, people usually use language to convey a message that reflects their different ideological and cultural backgrounds. In the form of writing, language is used to express one’s opinions and views towards certain situations and events. A writer, for instance, can use language as a tool for communicating his opinions and views in newspapers and magazines – paperback or online. As a result of global online communication, people all over the world read articles and get informed about national and international affairs from different parts of the world. When readers go through various articles, they get a lot of information more so from implied messages encoded through the manipulation of linguistic tools that writers follow in expressing their opinions, point of views, or comments concerning recent events (Liang and Liu, 2016)

Manipulation of linguistic tools is considered as an influential strategy for effective communication. It enhances communication by creating a more interactive environment between speakers/writers and their audiences. By virtue of being a linguistic aspect of pragmatics, presupposition is used as a linguistic tool through which a speaker/writer makes his communication effective and more interactive (Finch, 2000). Yule (1996, p. 23) defines presupposition as “something the speaker assumes to be the case prior to making an utterance.” The term ‘Presuppose’ is a verb which means to suppose or assume beforehand (Liang and Liu, 2016). It is a philosophical logic of linguistics requiring being a satisfied precondition for a given statement to be false or true. For example, ‘*Has John stopped beating his wife?*’ This statement presupposes that ‘*John has a wife and has been beating her*’. It brings in the requirement of an antecedent fact or logic. Therefore, the presupposition is an assumption concerning particular background understanding which is related to a given utterance whose truth is hypothesized or taken for granted in the concerned discourse. According to Perl (2020), presupposition is a common ground element that is embedded in utterances that are assumed by the writer and reader or speaker and listener. The presupposition trigger is a linguistic construction or lexical item that stands to be responsible for presupposition in a given content, hence, a trigger to it. Therefore, presupposition trigger is an item or construction that can signal presupposition existence in an utterance/sentence. Bonyadi and Samuel (2011) indicate that the trigger is known to be a projection of a meaning assumed in a sentence. It is, therefore, true to say that any linguistic item, that is in a position to presuppose a particular meaning in the utterance, is referred to as ‘presupposition trigger’. The use of presuppositions triggers in communicating writer’s/speaker’s implied messages has attracted some researchers to explore them across genres (cf. Primayandi, 2013 [novel]; Hidayati, 2009 [advertisements]; Khaleel, 2010 [journal texts]; Bonyadi & Samuel, 2011 [news transcripts], amongst others). The above brief overview creates an avenue towards a clear understanding of the main topic of the present study, i.e. ‘presupposition triggers in British and Saudi English newspaper opinions.

A. Aim of the Study

In view of the above-mentioned background, the present study sets out to investigate the presupposition triggers in British and Saudi English newspaper opinions. It attempts to identify the presupposition triggers deployed in newspaper opinions and describe how native and non-native writers of English manipulate presupposition triggers in expressing their opinions.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

As a branch of linguistics, pragmatics is concerned with the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (writer) and interpreted by a listener (reader) (Yule, 1996, p. 3). In his discussion of the areas of pragmatics, Mahmood, (2019) classifies these areas into four: a) contextual meaning; b) speakers' meaning; c) the relative distance expression; and d) how to communicate to more audience than what is just said. In the light of such classification, presupposition falls into the fourth area which emphasizes the manner in which audience make inferences about what the speaker/writer attempts to say. In so doing, the audience can arrive at the primary intended meaning of the speaker/writer and at the same time explore a great deal of what is not directly said but recognized as part of the delivered message. In fact, it is considered as another way of investigating the communication of information that is invisible. In this regard, Leech (2016) considers 'presupposition triggers' as the aspect of communication that indicates information which might not be said by the speaker but it is implied to be part of what is said. On the other hand, it should be known that presupposition does not bring in any form of new communication; instead, it comprises background message which is taken for granted by the interlocutors (Perl, 2020). Therefore, presupposition triggers are clearly responsible for the realization of presupposition in a given context. Secondly, presuppositions have a constructive meaning for both readers and listeners provided they are familiar with the very presuppositions (Frege, cited in Finch, 2000). The eminent German logician, Frege, is known to have brought up the concept of 'presupposition' around 1892. Since then presuppositions have drawn interest from different disciplines especially linguistic and philosophical domains with regard to its construction, meaning and use.

In view of the mutual importance of presupposition and presupposition triggers in semantics and pragmatics, considerable researches have been devoted to account for the information that is not communicated in the utterances/sentences of the speaker/writer directly. With this in mind, presupposition received a lot of attention from scholars in semantics including: Oh & Dinneen, (1979); Gazdar, (1979); Kempson, (1975); and Wilson, (1975), among others. They consider it as the concept of logic which is bound up with truth-conditional semantics.

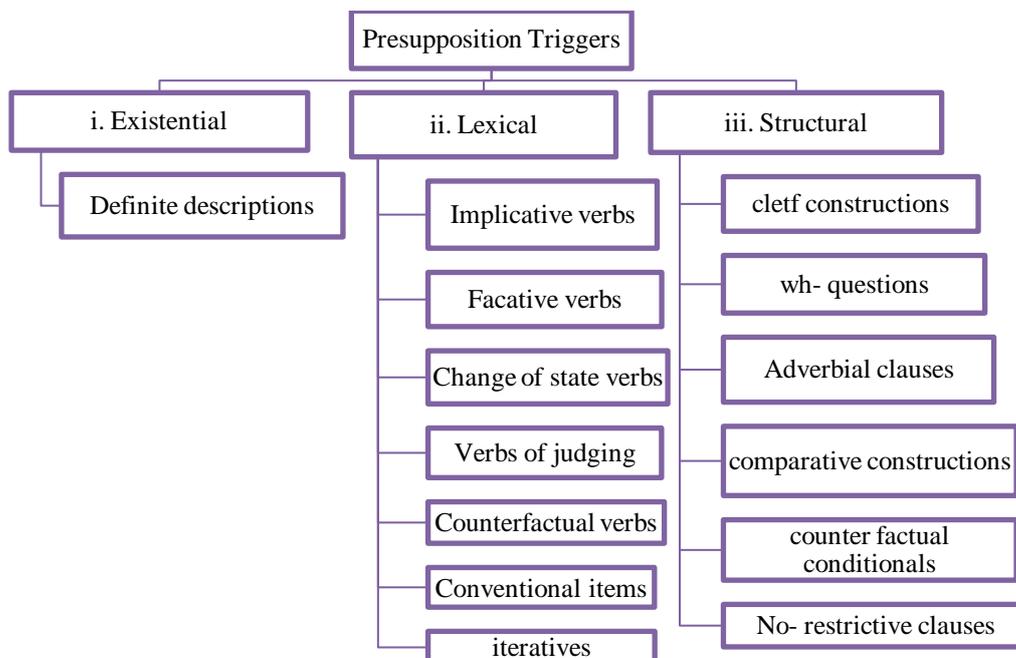
The semantics of truth-condition adopts an approach that deals with the proposed meanings of a sentence with their logical conditions; and as such, it establishes much of the information which is not communicated directly by the speaker/writer. According to Van Dijk (1977), semantics presupposition brings the relationship between sentences; one sentence presupposes another sentence in a situation where the second sentence is deemed necessary to affirm truthfulness or falsity concerning the first sentence. Owing to views about the concept of presupposition (e.g., Keenan, 1971; Levinson, 1983; Marmaridou, 2000; Atlas, 2004; Van der Sandt; 2012), a positive or a negative sentence does not change the purpose of the presupposition. For instance, in the sentence '*John's brother came from Europe*', the presupposition is that '*John has a brother*'. Likewise, in the sentence '*John's brother did not come from Europe*', the presupposition remains the same, that is '*John has a brother*'. In fact, constancy under negation is considered as a defining property of presupposition. According to pragmatics, it is also argued that apart from the literal meaning, an utterance or a sentence delivers a host of the indirect message (Capone, 2017). Many sentences need to have some naturally defined contexts or conditions that are satisfied with an utterance of the sentence to communicate its message (Mahmood, 2019). Stalnaker (1973) introduced the notion of presupposition trigger in a manner that is familiar in relation to background information. According to him, the 'presupposition trigger' shows a proposition whose truth is hypothesized. Following different researchers' findings, the presupposition is associated with various numbers of words, structures, and phrases. Linguistics isolates such constructions as presupposition sources known as 'lexical' or 'presupposition triggers'. It can also be said that 'triggers' are the linguistics terms that generate presuppositions (Liang & Liu, 2016). Therefore, a presupposition trigger is an item or construction that is responsible for signaling presupposition existence. Karttunen (1983) has a collection of thirty-one types of presupposition triggers; Keenan (1971) proposed nine presupposition triggers under the 'logical presupposition' title. In addition, Hickey, et al. (1993) proposed fourteen such types of presupposition triggers. However, Yule (1996) classified them into six kinds of such linguistic constructions which constitute the core phenomenon concerning presupposition triggers to date. They are summarized in the table below:

TABLE I.
YULE'S (1996) CLASSIFICATION OF PRESUPPOSITION TRIGGERS

Presupposition Type	Explanation	Example	*Pre >>
1. Existential	Entities named by the speaker and assumed to be present. (NP – possessive case)	The Cold war has ended. - Maher's car is nice.	>> Cold war exists. >> Maher exists, and >> he has a car.
2. Factive	Identified by the presence of some verbs: 'know', 'realize', regret, be aware.	- I knew that Huda has died. - I regret calling him.	>> Huda has died. >> I called him.
3. Non-factive	An assumption referred to something that is not true. Verbs like "dream, imagine, pretend"	- I pretended that I was ill. - She dreamed that she was married.	>> I wasn't ill. >> she wasn't married.
4. Lexical	In using one word, the speaker can act as if another meaning will be understood	- Sue stopped dieting. - Are you still angry.	>> Sue used to diet. >> He was angry.
5. Structural	An assumption associated with the use of certain structures (Wh-questions).	- When did Sami arrive? - Where did you find the mouse?	>> Sami arrived. >> You found a mouse.
6. Counterfactual	The assumption that what is presupposed is not only untrue, but is the opposite of what is true, or contrary to facts. (conditional structure – if)	- If you were my son, I would buy you a car. - If I were rich, I would buy a villa.	>> You are not my son. >> I am not rich.

*The symbol >> means presupposes.

According to Karttunen (1983), presupposition triggers are categorized into three major types: (i) existential, (ii) lexical (change of state verbs, factive & implicative verbs, judging verbs conventional items, counterfactual verbs and iterative) and (iii) structural (wh-questions, constructions, adverbial and comparative constructions, non-restrictive clauses and counterfactual conditions). This classification is represented in the flowchart below.



Practically, an utterance or a sentence presupposes a context which is deemed to be appropriate according to the message delivered (Keenan, 1971). It is, therefore, true to say that always there is a relationship between the presupposition made by a writer/speaker and how the reader/listener is likely to interpret it. Taken for granted, if such relationship is successful, then the sentence structure does not have ambiguity in its interpretation to the listener/reader. In light of Karttunen's work which lists thirty-one types of presupposition triggers, Levinson (1983) came up with thirteen kinds of presupposition triggers which are as follows: factive verbs, definite description, change of state verbs, verbs of judging, imperative verbs, iterative, temporal clauses, cleft sentence, counterfactual conditionals, comparison and contrasts, implicit clefts with stressed constituents non-restrictive relative clauses and questions. He Ziran (2003) further classified the thirteen lists of presuppositions triggers given by Levinson into three general groups. His classification was as follows: factive verbs, implicative verbs, verbs of judging & change of state verbs; adjuncts such as [another, again, either, back, too, s, even & the] and iterative; clauses including contrasts, comparisons, non-restrictive clauses, questions as well as cleft sentences.

A. Previous Related Studies

A number of studies concerning presupposition triggers were conducted by different researchers. For instance, Primayandi (2013) conducted a study that aimed at analyzing presupposition in the novel *'Love in the Afternoon'*

written by Lisa Kleypas. The researcher used a qualitative method in her study. She adopted Yule's framework concerning presupposition triggers. According to the findings of the study, presupposition triggers are found to hold a position in revealing the truthful information of the speaker's utterances and allowing the readers get the underlying message.

Another study was carried out by Hidayati, (2009). The aim of the study was to analyze the different types and meanings of presuppositions in 'Slogan in outdoor advertisements. The study was based on descriptive qualitative method. The researcher followed Yule's classification of presupposition types. The results of the study indicated that all sentences and utterances have presuppositions and they are the hidden meanings of what a writer or speaker wants to communicate.

Similarly, Khaleel (2010) conducted a study that mainly focused on presupposition triggers as used in English journal texts. The study explored the presupposition triggers in journalistic texts and their uses. In his data collection, there were six different regional and national English newspapers that represent a range of regional and political differences as they were randomly selected. As per the results of this particular study, most of the English journalistic texts make use of 'existential' presupposition with results of 57.7%. On the other hand, 'lexical' presupposition triggers took a share of 19.7% as per the selected samples.

A similar study was done by Bonyadi and Samuel (2011). The study aimed at investigating whether presupposition is applied in news transcripts. The two samples used to form the side of America and Persia represented by CNN and TV English channels. There were forty news transcripts selected for the study from the channels' website. The results indicated that presupposition triggers were used and that they dominated both TV channels. In the press TV transcripts, 'existential' presupposition occurred about 300 times and in CNN transcripts, it occurred approximately 200 times. 'Lexical' followed with 55 and 94 times in CNN and Press TV's transcripts. This was an indication that both 'existential and lexical' had the highest number of occurrences compared with other types. Therefore, the news transcripts proved to be the premium in communicating through presupposition triggers.

Likewise, Fadhly and Kurnia (2015) have done a study aimed at investigating presupposition in *The Jakarta Post* daily newspaper's articles in political column. The results of the study indicated that the most frequent occurrences of presupposition were 'existential' with 202 (78.59%), followed by 'factive' with 2 (0.79%), 'lexical' with 36 (14%), 'structural' with 11 (4.28%), 'non-factive' with 2 (0.79%) and 'counterfactual' with 4 (1.56%). The study also revealed that both types and triggers of presuppositions were related to each other.

Another different study was conducted by Liang and Liu (2016). The researchers analyzed the presupposition triggers occurred in the first campaign speech of Hilary Clinton. These triggers were categorized in terms of 'lexical' and 'syntactic'. Based on the findings of the study, the researchers found out that presupposition triggers play an important role in strengthening information, making language more economical and vivid, motivating the interaction with the audience and drawing a closer relationship between the speaker and the audience.

A recent study was carried out by Hasta and Marlina (2018). Its aim was to analyze the use of presupposition triggers in Israeli-Palestinian news in the two online news: Al-Jazeera and Fox news. The data was collected from the Israeli-Palestinian news in two online Al-Jazeera and Fox news. The results showed that in Al-Jazeera, the highest occurrence is 'existential' (definite description) that occurred 28 times (43%), and 20 times (40%) in Fox news. It was also found that Al-Jazeera and Fox news used 'change of state verb in lexical', and 'adverbial clause in structural' as the dominant types. In contrast, the difference in the two online news existed in the use of verb of judging. The study concluded that fox news was considered as more ideological news compared to the Al-Jazeera's.

Considering the previous reviewed studies, it is to point out that presuppositions do not bring in any form of new information; instead, they comprise background messages taken for granted by interlocutors and readers, and they are signaled by presupposition triggers. On account of this view, the contribution of the present study lies in its endeavor to investigate how presupposition triggers are used in genre and context other than the ones studied before. In fact, it attempts to identify the presupposition triggers deployed in the British and Saudi newspaper opinions and describe how native and non-native writers of English manipulate presupposition triggers in expressing their opinions.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Data Collection and Procedure

The present study is based on a qualitative approach employing descriptive measures in the process of analyzing the data collected. The data for this study comprises a sample of 30 newspaper opinion articles selected from the Saudi Gazette and UK Gazette (15 articles each) and which were published during 2019-2020. The selected materials for this study provide data which is in the form of sentences, clauses, and phrases of presupposition triggers; such data elements are extracted from respective websites of the UK and Saudi newspaper opinions. The selection of the two groups of articles (British and Saudi) is based on the assumption that they represent two different groups of audience in terms of ideological and cultural backgrounds. This study employed a purposeful type of sampling to achieve the main objective of collecting the required data. There were two main reasons that called for the choice of purposeful sampling method in the data collection. The first reason is that the study is limited to the British and Saudi English newspapers articles. The second reason is that the selected articles should represent different ideological and cultural backgrounds. The analysis of presupposition triggers in the selected materials is based on Yule's (1996) classification. The data collected

was analyzed in concerning the utilization of various presupposition categories. The data was analyzed in terms of frequency and percentage of occurrences of the presupposition triggers; enumeration and tabulation were applied. Afterward, the frequency of presupposition triggers on the side of British newspapers and Saudi ones was elaborated. Finally, the highest frequency of the presupposition utilization and the lowest in the two-discourse analysis were brought out.

Based on the data collected, the following procedure was applied in the data analysis process. The first step was to read through all the compiled texts. The second step was to identify various types of presupposition triggers in the compiled data. After that, the collected texts were categorized in line with Yule's framework shown in the table below.

TABLE II.
CLASSIFICATION FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSIS
1. SAUDI NEWSPAPER OPINIONS (GAZETTE)

1. SAUDI NEWSPAPER OPINIONS (GAZETTE)	
Presupposition Trigger Types	
Existential	
Factive	
Non-factive	
Lexical	
Structural	
Counter-factual	
2. THE UK NEWSPAPER OPINIONS (GAZETTE)	
Presupposition Trigger Types	
Existential	
Factive	
Non-factive	
Lexical	
Structural	
Counter-factual	

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As the study aims at investigating the presupposition triggers in British and Saudi newspaper opinions, every reading of the selected texts was subjected to analysis of presupposition triggers. Frequency of occurrences and percentage was brought out and the findings normalized. After validation of the data and preliminary findings, the indication was that the articles had utilized various types of presupposition triggers. The analysis is tabulated in two tables: one representing the Saudi case and the other one representing the UK. The results of the analysis are as follows:

TABLE III.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF PRESUPPOSITION TRIGGERS IN SAUDI NEWSPAPER OPINIONS

Pre. Type Article	Existential	Factive	Non-factive	Lexical	Structural	Counter-factual	Total	Per. (%)
Reading 1	38	1	2	12	0	0	53	9.53
Reading 2	36	2	1	7	0	3	49	8.81
Reading 3	31	1	2	6	2	4	46	8.27
Reading 4	32	2	2	7	1	1	45	8.09
Reading 5	21	2	1	6	1	1	32	5.76
Reading 6	27	2	3	5	0	1	38	6.83
Reading 7	19	2	0	4	0	2	27	4.86
Reading 8	20	0	0	1	2	3	26	4.68
Reading 9	18	2	0	1	2	2	25	4.50
Reading 10	37	2	0	3	1	3	46	8.27
Reading 11	32	0	3	3	2	9	49	8.81
Reading 12	17	2	0	4	3	3	29	5.22
Reading 13	29	0	0	2	1	3	35	6.29
Reading 14	21	0	0	2	2	0	25	4.50
Reading 15	22	0	2	4	0	3	31	5.58
Total	400	18	16	67	17	38	556	100
Per. (%)	71.94	3.24	2.88	12.05	3.06	6.83		

The table above reveals that the most used type of presupposition trigger in all the readings is 'existential' with occurrences number of 400 (71.94%) out of the total number (i.e., 556). It is followed closely by 'lexical' with occurrences number of 67 (12.05%). The presupposition trigger with the lowest frequency is 'non-factive' and 'structural' with occurrences number of 16 (2.82%) and 17 (3.06%) respectively. In terms of readings, the highest number of presupposition triggers is found in reading 1 with occurrences of 53 (9.53%) out of the total number. It is followed by readings 2 and 11 (both, 49 [8.81%]). Readings 9 and 14 receive the lowest number of presupposition triggers occurrences, i.e., 25 (4.50%).

TABLE IV.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF PRESUPPOSITION TRIGGERS IN THE UK NEWSPAPER OPINIONS

Pre. Type Article	Existential	Factive	Non-factive	Lexical	Structural	Counter-factual	Total	Per. (%)
Reading 1	29	3	2	5	2	4	45	10.56
Reading 2	18	2	1	3	0	2	26	6.10
Reading 3	21	2	1	3	1	2	30	7.04
Reading 4	18	2	2	6	3	8	39	9.15
Reading 5	18	0	0	2	0	0	20	4.69
Reading 6	18	2	2	3	1	1	27	6.34
Reading 7	23	0	1	5	2	4	35	8.22
Reading 8	18	2	0	3	0	0	23	5.40
Reading 9	18	0	1	3	0	3	25	5.87
Reading 10	17	1	0	3	0	0	21	4.93
Reading 11	20	0	0	4	0	1	25	5.87
Reading 12	18	2	0	3	1	0	24	5.63
Reading 13	19	2	0	4	0	1	26	6.10
Reading 14	23	3	0	4	0	3	33	7.75
Reading 15	24	1	0	1	1	0	27	6.34
Total	302	22	10	52	11	29	426	100
Per. (%)	70.89	5.16	2.35	12.21	2.58	6.81		

The table (IV) above shows that 'existential' is the most used type of presupposition trigger in all the readings with occurrences of 302 (70.8%) out of the total number (i.e., 426%). 'Lexical' presupposition triggers come next with a total of 52 (12.2%). The presupposition trigger with the lowest occurrences is 'non-factive' and 'structural' with 10 (2.3%) and 11 (2.58%) respectively. As far as readings are concerned, reading 1 constitutes the highest number of presupposition triggers, making a total of 45 (10.56%). Reading 4 comes next with occurrences of 39 (9.15%). Readings 5 and 10 have the lowest number of presupposition triggers occurrences, i.e., 20 (4.69%) and 21 (4.93%) respectively.

TABLE V.
TOTAL FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF PRESUPPOSITION TRIGGERS IN BOTH SAUDI & THE UK NEWSPAPER OPINIONS

Case	Pre. Type	Existential	Factive	Non-factive	Lexical	Structural	Counter-factual	Total
Saudi	Fre.	400	18	16	67	17	38	556
	Per. %	71.94	3.24	2.88	12.05	3.06	6.83	56.60
UK	Fre.	302	22	10	52	11	29	426
	Per. %	70.89	5.16	2.35	12.21	2.58	6.81	43.40

The table above summarizes the total frequency and percentage of presupposition triggers occurrences in both Saudi and the UK articles. It shows that the Saudi articles receive the highest number of occurrences, that is 556 (56.60%) compared to the UK articles which receive 426 (43.40%). This demonstrates that there is almost a significant difference in the use of presupposition triggers by native and non-native writers of English. This difference, however, lies in the high frequency of 'existential' presupposition triggers that the Saudi articles receive; and such variation is based on the nature of the articles' topics and length. The table also reveals that 'existential' and 'lexical' presupposition triggers are the ones that used the most while 'non-factive' and 'structural' presupposition triggers are the least. Comparison between the two cases shows that there are a lot of similarities. The few differences are not very significant though. Therefore, it is true to say that native and non-native writers of English used presupposition triggers similarly.

In view of the descriptive analysis of the study, it is observed that most types of presupposition triggers are used in all the articles, while the frequency of occurrences varies from different articles. The basic purpose of presupposition triggers of conveying implicit information has been obtained though differently. For the convenience of presentation and space limitation of the paper, each type of the presupposition triggers will be described and exemplified with two illustrative excerpts accounting for how presuppositions are triggered in Saudi and the UK newspaper opinions.

A. Existential

Existential presupposition is assumed to be present in possessive constructions, but more generally in any definite noun phrase (Yule, 1996, p. 27). By using any of such expressions, the writer/speaker is assumed to be committed to the existence of the entities named. Based on the analysis of the study, it is found that both native and non-native writers used 'existential' the most in triggering their presupposed propositions. This finding conforms to the ones confirmed in the studies of Khaleel (2010), Bonyadi and Samuel (2011), Fadhly and Kurnia (2015) and Hasta & Marlina (2018). The following are illustrative excerpts taken from Saudi and the UK articles.

Saudi excerpt: "In sports, for instance, the fans of each sport club have their songs by which they express their support for their team". (Appendix A- Reading 5)

By means of the existential trigger of presupposition, it is found that the writer imparts a lot of information to the readers. The presupposed information can be as such: ‘*sports exists*’; ‘*fans exist*’; ‘*sport clubs exist*’; ‘*sport clubs have songs*’; ‘*they also have support*’; and ‘*they have teams*’.

The UK excerpt: “*I visited Mirren Park School and was impressed by the dedication of its staff.*” (Appendix B- Reading 15)

Likewise, by using existential trigger in the sentence, the writer delivers certain presupposed messages. The possible presupposed messages are: ‘*a school by the name Mirren Park exists*’; ‘*the school has staff*’; and ‘*the staff have dedication to their school*’.

B. Factive

Factive presupposition can be triggered by using a verb like ‘*know*’ and it is treated as a fact. Other verbs such as ‘*realize*’ and ‘*regret*’ as well as phrases involving ‘*be*’ with ‘*aware*’, ‘*odd*’ and ‘*glad*’ have factive presuppositions (Yule, 1996, p. 27). In view of the study analysis, factive presupposition triggers receive a few occurrences in the Saudi and the UK articles, that is 18 (3.24%) and 22 (5.16%) respectively. This is likely to be ascribed to the writers’ avoidance in imposing factual presupposed propositions for expressing their opinions (cf. Khaleel, 2010). The following excerpts show how the native and non-native writers of English use factive triggers in their opinion articles.

Saudi excerpt: “*...people in this religious society should be aware that animals are also part of God’s creations and God’s Kingdom.*” (Appendix A- Reading 10)

By virtue of the phrasal structure ‘*be aware that*’, the writer embedded his presupposed fact which can be inferred as, ‘*animals are also part of God’s creations and God’s kingdom*’.

The UK excerpt: “*We all know that police officers have to attend more serious incidents.*” (Appendix B- Reading 6)

The factive presupposition above is expressed by using the factive verb ‘*know*’. In fact, the established factual message is manifested in the information following the verb ‘*know*’, i.e., ‘*police officers have to attend more serious incidents*’.

C. Non-factive

A non-factive presupposition is one that is assumed not to be true. Based on semantics of truth-condition, a non-factive presupposition is retrieved with reference to the semantic properties of certain verbs produced by a speaker/writer. The use of non-factive verbs like ‘*dream*’, ‘*imagine*’ and ‘*pretend*’ presupposes that the following propositions are ‘*untrue*’. Unlike the findings of Bonyadi & Samuel (2011), non-factive presupposition triggers received the least occurrences compared to the other triggers in both cases, Saudi articles and the UK ones (i.e., 16 [2.88%] and 10 [2.35%] respectively). Consider the following illustrative excerpts found in the data of the study:

Saudi excerpt: “*..... Erdogan pretends that he is now playing big power politics.*” (Appendix A- Reading 1)

Owing to the use of the non-factive verb ‘*pretend*’, the writer signals the presupposed non-factual details. In fact, the writer believes that the embedded propositional content- *Erdogan is playing big power politics*’- is not true.

The UK excerpt: “*Let’s imagine that Jesus was born today.*” (Appendix B- Reading 1)

Similarly, the use of the non-factive verb ‘*imagine*’ in the sentence above brings out the presupposed idea that ‘*Jesus was not born today*’.

D. Lexical

In lexical presupposition, the use of one form with its asserted meaning is conventionally interpreted with the presupposition that another (non-asserted) meaning is understood. Items like, ‘*manage*’, ‘*stop*’, ‘*start*’, and ‘*again*’ are examples of lexical presupposition (Yule, 1996, p. 28). On the basis of the study analysis, it is found that lexical presupposition triggers come next in terms of frequency of occurrences in all the articles, Saudi (67, 12.05%) and the UK (52, 12.21%). This indicates that writers almost prefer using lexical items in guiding their readers arrive at their implicit messages. Below are two excerpts exemplifying how Saudi and the UK writers use lexical items to achieve their purpose.

Saudi excerpt: “*As we are still in need of non-Saudi workers in low-level and some medium-level jobs,*” (Appendix A- Reading 9)

By the use of lexical item ‘*still*’, the writer gets the prospective readers draw the implicit idea asserted in the sentence. In fact, this idea can be inferred as: ‘*we are in need of non-Saudi workers....*’

The UK excerpt: “*... again the UK Government has completely botched a pension policy and targeted those financially worse off.*” (Appendix B- Reading 8)

It is evident from the excerpt above that the use of the lexical item ‘*again*’ induces the presupposition asserted in the sentence. The presupposition is manifested in the fact that such an action has already taken place before, that is ‘*the UK Government botched a pension policy and targeted those financially worse off.*’

E. Structural

In structural presupposition, certain sentence structures are analyzed as conventionally and regularly presupposing that part of the structure already assumed to be true. The ‘*WH-Question* construction’ in English is conventionally interpreted with the presupposition that the information after the ‘*wh-form*’ is already known to be the case (Yule, 1996,

pp. 28-29). Similar to the results of the non-factive presupposition triggers, the analysis of the articles shows that the structural presupposition triggers receive the least occurrences of frequency in both cases, Saudi articles and the UK ones (i.e., 17 [3.06%] and 11 [2.58%]). This finding aligns with Khaleel's (2010) who found that structural presupposition triggers are less used in journalistic texts as they are restricted to certain structures. Consider the following illustrative examples.

Saudi excerpt: "*For example, what are the positive and negative effects of imposing dependent fees on expatriate workers?*" (Appendix A- Reading 9)

By virtue of the *wh*-structure used in the sentence above, the writer presupposes that '*there are positive and negative effects of imposing dependent fees on expatriate workers*'. It seems that the writer used such a structure in order to set background for negotiating his main arguments.

The UK excerpt: "*Keen to find out what John Knox was thinking when he instilled the Calvinist faith.*" (Appendix B- Reading 1)

Similarly, in the sentence above the writer presupposes information that can be derived from the embedded *wh*-structure used in the sentence. This information is inferred as that '*John Knox was thinking of something when he instilled the Calvinist faith*'.

F. Counter-factual

A counter-factual presupposition refers to the case that what is presupposed is not only 'not true', but is the opposite of what is 'true', or 'contrary to facts'. For instance, some conditional structures, generally called counterfactual conditionals, presuppose that the information in the *If*-clause is not true at the time of utterance (Yule, 1996, p. 29). Similar to the result of the factive presupposition triggers, 'counter-factual' receives a few occurrences in the Saudi and the UK articles, that is 38 (6.83%) and 29 (6.81%) respectively. This trend is recurrent in other studies (cf., Bonyadi & Samuel 2011; and Fadhly & Kurnia, 2015). The following are some illustrative examples found in the articles under investigation.

Saudi excerpt: "*If we just had a whole Islamic system, we would resolve today's problems and bring back our past glories.*" (Appendix A- Reading 15)

In the example above, the '*if-clause*' trigger presupposes that the information is contrary to the reality. In fact, it presupposes that '*we have not a whole Islamic system*'.

The UK excerpt: "*How boring would the world be if we all kept our New Year's promises?*" (Appendix B-Reading 4)

Likewise, the proposition embedded in the *if-clause* structure above is believed not true. To put it differently, the sentence presupposes that '*we all do not keep our New Year's promises*'.

V. CONCLUSION

The aim of the study was to investigate the use of presupposition triggers by native and non-native writers of English (Saudi and the UK) in British and Saudi English newspaper opinions. According to the analysis of the study sample, it was found that most types of presupposition triggers were used in all the articles, but there was some variation in frequency of occurrences in the different articles. The results showed that the Saudi articles receive the highest number of occurrences, that is 556 (56.60%) compared to the UK articles which receive 426 (43.40%). In fact, such difference lies in the high frequency of existential presupposition triggers that the Saudi articles receive; and that can be ascribed to the variation and length of the articles' topics. In view of the analysis of presupposition triggers in the articles, the results demonstrated that 'existential' and 'lexical' presupposition triggers in both cases are the ones used the most while 'non-factive' and 'structural' presupposition triggers are the least. Comparison between the two cases showed that there are a lot of similarities while the few differences are not very significant. Therefore, it is acceptable to conclude that native and non-native writers of English used presupposition triggers similarly. On the basis of study findings, the following implications can be drawn: presupposition triggers help speakers and writers pass a lot of information to their audiences; they are used by speakers and writers to set the background of their negotiation for better and effective communication; and they are used by speakers and writers in order to mold the ideologies of their audiences. In the light of the implications above, it can be recommended that more attention should be given by EFL instructors in teaching presupposition triggers in the skills of speaking and writing. This will help students improve their critical thinking in these productive skills. Further studies should be done on the use of presupposition triggers in spoken contexts as to bring in further insights to their effectiveness in communication.

APPENDIX A. READINGS OF SAUDI NEWSPAPER OPINIONS (SAUDI GAZETTE) 2019-2020

Reading 1: <http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/586172/Opinion/Editorial/Turkey-sending-troops-to-Libya>
 Reading 2: <http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/586415/Opinion/Voices/The-Unnering-CAA-Literal-analysis>
 Reading 3: <http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/586416/Opinion/Voices/How-do-you-solve-a-problem-like-plastic>
 Reading 4: <http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/586697/Opinion/Voices/Creating-a-globally-renowned-land-of-song-literature-and-film>
 Reading 5: <http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/581604/Opinion/Local-Viewpoint/National-Song-Festival>
 Reading 6: <http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/581861/Opinion/Local-Viewpoint/Aramco-Kingdoms-jewel-in-the-hands-of-its-people>
 Reading 7: <https://saudigazette.com.sa/author/563/1/Hamoud-Abu-Taleb>
 Reading 8: <http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/586372/Opinion/Local-Viewpoint/The-Arab-autumn-tweets>
 Reading 9: <http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/581759/Opinion/Local-Viewpoint/Healing-the-markets-wounds>
 Reading 10: <http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/590198/Opinion/OP-ED/Cruelty-to-animals-has-no-place-in-Islam>
 Reading 11: <http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/590735/Opinion/OP-ED/Should-I-take-another-wife>
 Reading 12: <http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/590954/Opinion/OP-ED/Islam-tolerance-and-political-Islam>
 Reading 13: <http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/590578/Opinion/OP-ED/Facing-the-Iranian-corona>
 Reading 14: <http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/591033/Opinion/OP-ED/Best-reward!>
 Reading 15: <http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/590114>

APPENDIX B. READINGS OF THE UK NEWSPAPER OPINIONS (UK GAZETTE) 2019-2020

Reading 1: <https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/news/18089820.jack-haugh-christmas-time-giving-not-just-receiving/>
 Reading 2: <https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/opinion/17508847.derek-mackay-40m-investment-will-help-council-keep-area-moving/>
 Reading 3: <https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/news/18225217.barbara-campbell-selfish-minority-making-life-misery-law-abiding-residents/>
 Reading 4: <https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/news/18128907.jack-haugh-resolutions-hard-can-make-difference/>
 Reading 5: <https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/news/18107294.jack-haugh-red-rose-wilted-leaving-labour-party-feeling-unloved/>
 Reading 6: <https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/news/18188167.barbara-campbell-time-crack-mindless-vandals-spreading-misery/>
 Reading 7: <https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/news/18103933.steph-brawn-change-heart-best-decision-make/>
 Reading 8: <https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/news/18206223.barbara-campbell-bishopton-erskine-deserve-fair-share-funding-pot/>
 Reading 9: <https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/news/18273820.barbara-campbell-wet-weather-worst-experienced-40-years/>
 Reading 10: <https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/opinion/17423171.derek-mackay-budget-means-investment-for-highly-valued-services/>
 Reading 11: <https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/opinion/17369458.iain-nicolson-we-aim-to-build-on-positive-momentum-during-2019/>
 Reading 12: <https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/opinion/17406718.tom-arthur-budget-means-investment-for-our-nhs-and-schools/>
 Reading 13: <https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/news/17527634.barbara-campbell-urgent-need-for-social-housing-has-been-ignored-for-far-too-long/>
 Reading 14: <https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/opinion/17492684.tom-arthur-scottish-budget-will-provide-stability-in-face-of-tory-brexite-chaos/>
 Reading 15: <https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/opinion/17470655.gavin-newlands-big-banks-must-be-held-to-account-over-closure-plans/>

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Hameed Yahya Al-Zubeiry was born in Yemen in 1972. He is an associate professor of Applied Linguistics at Al-Baha University, Faculty of Science and Arts- Baljurashi- Al-Baha, KSA. He received his Ph. D in Applied Linguistics from Hyderabad Central University in 2005. He has published a number of research papers in international and national journals of Linguistics & Applied Linguistics Studies. He has reviewed research papers for some scholarly national and international journals. He has supervised some MA theses in Applied Linguistics. He also refereed a number of Scientific achievements for the promotion to associate professor post. His areas of interest include interlanguage, discourse analysis, pragmatics, socio-psychological studies, sociolinguistics, English Language Teaching (ELT), and second language acquisition.

The Effect of Critical Rhetoric in Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Ibrahim Abushihab

English Department, Faculty of Arts, Al-Zaytoonah University of Jordan, Jordan

Abstract—The present paper represents an attempt so as to examine and analyze texts in terms of the context and its relation to cultural, political and social issues. It also provides theoretical and practical information which are used in classroom to facilitate learning foreign language. Rhetorical analysis is essential to be used and incorporated into EFL classroom because it is an important field which is not isolated from other disciplines like critical thinking and learning process. Special emphasis is laid upon the role of contrastive rhetoric in facilitating the process of learning foreign languages. Some pedagogical implications for studying L2 correctly and effectively are also tackled. Furthermore, the major role of pragmatics in analyzing the Second and Foreign Language text is also highlighted. This is accomplished within a pedagogical point of view. It is hoped that the paper will be of value to EFL teachers, syllabus designers, applied linguists and specialists in ethnography of communication.

Index Terms—contrastive rhetoric, EFL, text structure, rhetoric relations and genres

I. INTRODUCTION

Rhetoric is the art of using language and its components to produce effect on the receivers of the text. The information of rhetoric can be sent by someone to another for a given aim in a specific context. Rhetorical information in the text refers to rhetorical organization which a text may provide. Hyland (2006) states that cross-cultural analysis of a text is necessary for those who learn foreign languages because rhetorical aspects of L2 may mislead the foreign language learners as a result of given different writing conventions learned in the L1 culture. Rhetoric is not a field that is isolated from other disciplines like critical reading, discourse analysis and pedagogy. Kubota and Lehner (2014: 5) stresses that "pedagogical recommendations made by traditional contrastive rhetoric focus on awareness raising and explicit teaching of the rhetorical norm with prescriptive exercises". Critical discourse analysis is important in analyzing texts because it focuses not only on the propositional meaning of the text, but it also takes into consideration cultural and ideological aspects of the text.

Critical discourse analysis is concerned with how the text may affect its readers and how they are related and interrelated. Austin (1962), Hurford & Heasley (1983) and Beaugrande & Dressler (1986) are some of other scholars who focus and study the way of analyzing texts based on the effect of the text on the reader, taking the context and the cultural issues into consideration.

Rhetorical analysis is a decisive tool in TEFL classroom to teach students to analyze the texts based on critical contrastive rhetoric and critical thinking. Envey and Olcay (1999) assure that the basic elements of communication like genre, audience, purpose, messages and tone are linked with critical thinking which is used in both reading and writing. Kubota and Lehner (2004) consider critical contrastive rhetoric as a tool that encourages teachers and learners to reflect on classroom practices such as comparing and contrasting L1 and L2 cultural and rhetorical patterns of the target language.

The rationale of discourse and text analysis should be analyzed and assessed in the multiple social, political and cultural functions of the text. It is necessary for the text interpreter to take into consideration the socio-cognitive issues that bridge the language use with the social and communicative context.

II. CRITICAL PERSPECTIVES ON CONTRASTIVE RHETORIC

The reader ought to benefit from two types of knowledge in order to read and analyze a text effectively:

- a. Knowledge of language.
- b. Knowledge of content and formal schemata.

Martinez (1996: 190) calls knowledge of content as a schematic knowledge. To her, "readers possess schematic knowledge related to the local level of rhetorical organization of discourse structures that is knowledge of how two sentences may be joined by causality, contrast, etc." Rhetorical organization of texts is essential in interpreting such texts successfully. The reader must be aware of rhetorical features or rhetorical ideas stated in the text so that he could have good knowledge about the intention of the writer and the function of the text. Martinez (ibid: 195 – 196) states that "second language reading pedagogy must include not only training in the use of strategies, but information about the significance and outcome of these strategies and their utility (i.e. awareness training)."

Critical reading is an interactive process which entails different components. Some of which are text, writer, reader, context and rhetorical interpretation. Munby (1978) states that reading is a complex process involving the reader, the text and the writer. Accordingly, it is an interactive process which includes different reading skills. Some of which are:

- a. Understanding information when not explicitly stated through making references.
- b. Understanding conceptual meaning like cause, result, purpose, reason, condition and contrast.
- c. Understanding the communicative value of the text.
- d. Interpreting the text by going outside it based on context, background knowledge and cultural aspects.

Analyzing a text via reading is a complex process and a cultural phenomenon because each language has its own rhetorical conventions which are different from others. It is not easy for the reader to touch the intention of the foreign language writer because his intention is based on his own culture which may be unique in comparison to the reader's culture. Kaplan (1966) says that rhetoric deals with what goes on in the mind rather than what comes out of the spoken or written texts. It refers to cultural and rhetoric aspects being essential elements in text analysis. Rhetoric is also a decisive factor in writing process because each writer has his own intention beyond the text which may aim to inform, persuade or convey specific message and the good reader must have a good ability to touch and find it.

According to Chien (2007) there are differences between texts written by speakers of different languages and members of different cultures. This gives insights that contrastive rhetoric provides how culture-bound thought patterns are used in EFL texts. If the text is easily analyzed, it must be produced to conform to the conventions of the readers and to meet their expectations which are based on cultural aspects.

III. GENRE AND TEXT TYPES

The configuration of ideas in a text and its formal structure usually gives hints of its genre. For example, a newspaper has different parts. One of which is advertisement. Its genre is known by its title. The concept of genre focuses on the relation between the structure of the text and its function in cultural context. It also includes the communicative events of the text.

The text whether spoken or written has been produced with specific conventions which can be used to specify the type of a text. Such conventions have two genres:

- a. No-fiction: The types of the texts which are categorized under this genre are news report, biographies, textbooks, journals, documentaries, advertisements, etc.
- b. Fiction: The types of the texts which are categorized under fiction are movies, poems, plays, novels, songs, lyrics, short stories, etc.

In addition to non-fictional and fictional texts, there are two categories of texts. First, formal typology which focuses on propositional content of the text. It is possible to categorize all literary genres "literary texts" in this type. It includes poetry, drama, short story, novel, etc. This type focuses on a major difficulty which is the problem of the definition of the types belong to it. For example, it is not easy to answer the question of what is meant by poetry because it deals with poet's treatment of the topic that makes it poetic. The problem is how such treatment is interpreted by the reader and the linguistic characteristics of poetry being different from non-poetry texts. Second, functional typology which focuses on the following major principles:

- 1- The producer.
- 2- The subject – matter.
- 3- The receiver.

Here, we can apply the two types: "formal typology and functional typology" as the following examples show:

Text A:

In our office, the same budget had been in operation since the nineteen twenties, that is, since a time when most of us were struggling with geography and fractions. Our chief, however, remembered the great event, and sometimes, when there wasn't so much work, he would sit down familiarly on one of our desks, and there, with his legs dangling, and immaculate white socks showing below his trousers, he would tell us with all his old feeling and with his usual five hundred and ninety-eight words, of that distant and splendid day when his chief-he was a Head clerk then-had patted him on, the shoulder and said: "My boy, we're having a new budget. "The budge by Mario Benedetti: 33 – 37"

The above text is categorized under the formal typology because it is an initial paragraph of a short story entitled "The budget". It belongs to the class of literary texts. In terms of function, it is an expressive text with a poetic function. The extracted text focuses on the producer because the narrator of the text belongs to a group working together in an office. His aim is to describe their situation in the government office and their ambition for a new budget which leads to salary raise. Such fictional narrative text (short story) belongs to the category of formal and functional text typology.

Text B

One hundred and fifty years ago in 1825, when he was only 16 years old, Louise Braille, a blind French student brought enlightenment to the blind. He developed the raised dot Braille system of writing which has become the principal method of reading, and written communication for blind people. "Mackin, et al: 8 – 11"

Text B above is also a formal typology which belongs to the class of academic texts "an essay". In terms of function, it is an informative text with a metalinguistic function. The focus of this essay is on the subject- matter. It offers new

information to the readers. Unlike the first text, the narrator of the essay is the third person. Most of non-fictional narrative texts such as essays belong to the category of formal and functional text typology.

IV. SOCIO-RHETORICAL INTERPRETATION

Socio-rhetorical interpretation focuses on analyzing the social and cultural texts. It also provides the interpreter with the techniques so as to analyze and understand the intention of the writer or the speaker. During the last three decades, text analysis focused on linguistic issues. Socio-rhetorical issues which are essential in analyzing texts were ignored. Nowadays, analyzing texts is based on socio-rhetorical variables like intention of the writer and the contexts surrounding texts. Martinez (1996: 195) states that "in order to exploit the rhetorical organization of the texts as a resource for readers to improve their comprehension, this exploitation must be based on making readers aware of and capable of interpreting the rhetorical features or rhetorical information of texts." Writing is an important skill in any language because it is a cultural and rhetorical process. Each writer has different social thought issues that are reflected and organized in writing.

The role of the reader is to find these issues and to analyze them correctly. Kaplan (1966) goes line by line with this trend. He assures that the organization of ideas in a text is shaped by socio rhetorical and cultural patterns.

The interpretation of foreign text is based on the rhetoric of the reader's first language. Accordingly, the readers of the foreign texts may impose his native language cultural competence on the foreign texts which leads to misinterpretation of the text. Thus, the reader of L2 text must be aware of rhetorical cultural patterns of the foreign language so that he could interpret the text successfully. To facilitate interpreting L2 texts in classrooms, contrastive rhetoric is used. It offers the differences and similarities between texts written by writers of different languages which belong to different cultures. Kaplan (ibid) assures that contrastive rhetoric is beneficial in EFL students' writing because it offers essential hints about different cultures which facilitate interpreting EFL texts.

The successful technique of interpreting foreign texts is to be produced in a way that conforms to the cultures of the native readers so that the good readers must bridge the gap between cultural differences. Chien (2007: 146) remarks that "contrastive rhetoric has a lot to offer to teachers and students. Firstly, it explains patterns of writing in different languages and cultures. Secondly, gaining cultural competence will allow for understanding of similarities and differences that will lessen miscommunication and misunderstanding, and increase cultural insight."

To conclude, contrastive rhetoric is essential in facilitating learning foreign languages. It gives some pedagogical implications for studying L2 written texts and dealing with them correctly and effectively.

V. PRAGMATICS AND TEXT INTERPRETATION

Pragmatics is a branch of linguistics which mainly focuses on the principles of language use, the interactions between the reader, writer and the context where the text is said. Abushihab (2015: 120) points out that "pragmatics focuses on the communicative use of language conceived as intentional human action. "Intention" has become the focus of various disciplines; for instance, psychologists study the text producer's intention to guide consciousness of the learner." Pragmatics and text analysis are related and interrelated because pragmatic theory deals with speech act theory and it focuses on the cultural differences in human interaction. The pragmatic theory categorizes speech acts into three types: the first is locutionary speech act which includes several orders of action and events and ideas stated in the text. The second is illocutionary speech act or what is called communicative acts. It consists of the intention of the writer and purpose of the text. The last type is perlocutionary act which deals with the effect of the text on the reader and the consequences of illocutionary act (Austin, 1962, Van Dijk, 1977, Hurford and Heasley, 1983 and Beaugrande and Dressler, 1986).

Pragmatic theory and text interpretation are based on text and context. Halliday and Hassan (1989) remark that text is a functional language not isolated sentences. It is a product, an output, interactive process and a social exchange of meanings. Context is considered as a link between the text and the situation it occurs in. Buja (2010: 260) defines context as "a term referring to the features of the non-linguistic world in relation to which linguistic units are systematically used. In discourse analysis, we encounter the situational context, which, in its broadest sense, covers the total non-linguistic background to a text/ utterance, including the immediate situation in which it is used."

Text interpretation also focuses on bridging between the language and its context. Accordingly, a text produced in a language can be interpreted in terms of interaction of language and its social context.

To interpret the text effectively, we will take into consideration the principles of language use, the interaction between the producers (speaker, writer), the receivers (hearer, reader) and the place (context). Saez (2004: 2) assures that "the analyses of the text took into account the addresser's implications and the addressee's possible inferences in the construction of the argumentative structures of the texts."

As stated above, language and its components are based on context because communication via language requires a good knowledge of the communicative context. Effective communication focuses on having social knowledge, function of the text and the conversational context.

There are five major components of language. One of which is pragmatics which refers to the way language is used in the social context. Auer (1996: 16) states that "five dimensions of context suggest themselves: (a) linguistic contexts

(sometimes called co-text), (b) non-linguistic sense-data in the surroundings of the linguistic activity (the situation in a physical sense), (c) features of the social situation, (d) features of participants' common background knowledge."

VI. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Critical contrastive rhetoric is essential in proposing different teaching techniques for helping students study English as a foreign language. It is also necessary in understanding the contrastive rhetoric between the native language and the foreign language. Casanave (2004) points out that contrastive rhetoric helps learners build cultural competence about different conventions of writing. The rhetorical differences between L1 and L2 affect positively L2 writing process. It helps in organizing and composing conventions and making the text cohesive and coherent.

Studying and analyzing a text within the principles of linguistic theory need a full understanding of different aspects of interpretation like structures of sentences, sequences of propositions and the context where the text is said. Mey (1979: 23) states different linguistic understanding levels. Some of which are:

- 1- Understanding syntactic level of the text and its cohesion.
- 2- Understanding the propositions of the text beyond the literal meaning.
- 3- Understanding the sense, the reference and the ambiguities of the text.

A learner must be in contact with a foreign language so that he could find the areas of similarities and differences between L1 and L2. This will facilitate learning the foreign language. Lida (2012: 121) goes side by side with this trend. He remarks that "those elements that are similar to the learner's native language will help facilitate language learning and production and those that are different will affect the writer's production and reproduction." A teacher who has made a comparison of a foreign language with the native language will help the student know better what the real problem are and can provide a better solution for him. Hinds (1987) states that unlike English texts, Japanese texts are interpreted easily because this doesn't require any cognitive effort as the cultural and linguistic knowledge are shared by the reader and the writer.

Critical discourse analysis is an effective tool for teaching composition. It is used in writing course when students are asked to read and analyze a text critically. As stated above, it is not easy for students to analyze a text without taking into consideration the contextual knowledge. This will facilitate the process of analyzing the text and writing about it. This process may be applied in news reports and advertisements. The teacher may develop this process by asking his students to compare and contrast between two different news reports which carry different ideas and different viewpoints. Students impose their own ideas and comments about the texts. Huckin (1997) states that students are asked to analyze the text critically. They are asked to read the text as typical readers in mind. They mostly work in groups. Each one analyzes a text critically and the leader of the group presents the analysis of the text to the whole class. Then, each student writes about the text.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

Contrastive rhetoric is based on context to find the intention of the writer, so the reader looks beyond the text in order to know how it is produced and analyzed. Language is mainly used to convey messages via a text. It is a means of facilitating the exchange of ideas among people. It may give direct meaning which is easily understood like the word 'stop' that is used as a traffic sign. Language may also be as a challenge. In this case, the writer will give his efforts to fill in the gap and find the missing information. *Animal farm* is a symbolic novel. It is not easy for the reader to interpret its events unless he knows the context where it was produced and to know the background knowledge of the writer, so he touches the intention of George Orwell who was against the communism.

Socio-cultural analysis starts with the interpretation of social and cultural aspects of written works. Robbins (2004: 44) states that "socio-rhetorical interpreters still face major challenges of analyzing and interpreting prophetic, precreation and priestly rhetorolect in early Christian writings". Aertselaer (2006: 70) remarks that "most of the errors remaining in the academic writing of advanced English philology students are those that concern rhetorical aspects which have two underlying sources for problems in constructing authorial voice: the transfer of typological and rhetorical conventions from the L1."

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Ibrahim Mohammad Abushihab was born in Jordan 1958. He got his BA in English and MA in TEFL from Yarmouk University/Jordan (1986), whereas PhD degree in Applied Linguistics was received from Gazi University/Turkey (2003). Over the past 30 years he has been teaching English as a foreign language to Arab students in the Ministry of Education in Jordan, Aljouf University (Saudi Arabia) and Alzaytoonah Private University of Jordan. Since then, he has been doing research in the field of Linguistics, Discourse Analysis, Stylistics, Applied Linguistics and Contrastive Analysis. Dr. Ibrahim Abushihab is a Professor of Applied Linguistics at Alzaytoonah University of Jordan.

Towards Post-postmethodism: Embracing a New Generation of Methodism

Masumeh Taie

Faculty of Medicine, Tehran Medical Sciences, Islamic Azad University, Tehran, Iran

Abstract—Postmethod is the offspring of language teaching methods failure in meeting their objectives, a failure which led to disillusionment with the concept of method. To solve this pedagogical challenge, postmethod stigmatized those taking the initiative to develop new methods as making a futile attempt. Therefore, it exerted a deterrent effect on the developmental trend of language teaching methods. All these measures were taken following postmethodism's major precept: it is the concept of method which should be to blame. True, the concept of method, as grasped so far, is both "limited and limiting" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 1). But what if there is another possibility? What if future methods can surpass the boundaries of the past methods? By making an analogy between the developmental trend of assessment and that of language teaching methods and by referring to the potentials of Artificial Intelligence, especially those of intelligent computer assisted language learning (ICALL), this study attempts to provide compelling evidence about the inevitability of a methodism resurgence in the language teaching profession and the emergence of dynamic methods as a new generation of methodism.

Index Terms—method, postmethod, dynamic assessment, ICALL, intelligent tutoring systems, dynamic methods

I. INTRODUCTION

The failure of many language teaching methods in meeting their objectives during the last decades of the 20th century led to growing disillusionment with the concept of method. Prabhu's (1990) article entitled "There is no best method-why?" (p. 161), published during the same period, deterred the language teaching profession from developing new methods, since it stigmatized those taking the initiative as beating the air. Postmethod is the offspring of such attitudes. The writings of leading scholars (e.g., Kumaravadivelu, 1994, 2003, 2006a, 2006b, 2012) and the academic works which followed suit all held the same opinion as regards the presented pedagogical challenge: it is the concept of method which should be to blame. Although upon facing a challenge there are always two general options to choose, i.e., a) embracing the challenge and fighting against it, or b) abandoning the challenge altogether, postmethod chose what should be chosen as a last resort: it selected the latter and decided to abandon the concept of method.

While, as an influential movement, postmethod has rather stunted the evolution of methods, nothing seems to be strong enough to deter the explosive growth of knowledge and the advent of unpredictable changes in the third millennium (Maftoon & Taie, 2016). This knowledge boom in an era where "interdisciplinarity is both desirable and inevitable" (Chettiparamb, 2007, p. 1) can set the ground for the emergence of revolutionary Kuhnian (1970) paradigm shifts across different disciplines, especially in education. True, many current issues in language teaching are not particularly new (Kelly, 1969), but in the "global village" (McLuhan, 1962, p. 21) of the third millennium's multimedia we will soon witness a media metamorphosis or, in Fidler's (1997) words, a "mediamorphosis". Following McLuhan (1994), if "the medium is the message" (p. 7), then the advent of new revolutionary media such as 5D optical data storage, quantum teleportation in space, and time crystals¹ can bring about paradigm shifts across different disciplines, hence, inevitably, the history of science will no longer lead us to the future. So, in such a context "the history of language is no longer a guide" (Crystal, 1997, p. 178), and the likelihood of the repetition of the same language teaching pattern is rather slim. One possibility in this context would be the resurgence of language teaching methods, *but* in a metamorphosed shape.

The exponential growth of technology (Kurzweil, 2004), especially the Artificial Intelligence (AI) with its evolutionary chain of descendants from machine learning, and Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs), to deep learning (Bini, 2018), and neuroscience with its various imaging techniques will herald a revolutionary educational system. In fact, "new insights from many different fields are converging to create a new science of learning that may transform educational practices" (Meltzoff et al. 2009, p. 284). With such a picture in view, and through making an analogy between the developmental trend of assessment and that of language teaching methods, this study tries to accumulate compelling evidence about the inevitability of a methodism resurgence. And as such, it is suggested that, unlike the postmethod's prognostication, the quest for newer methods is inevitable and should not be deterred. If the likelihood of such a prospect is strong, then it is worth consideration.

II. THE EMERGENCE OF POSTMETHOD

“Unfortunately, no complete monograph on the history of language teaching methods is yet available” (Titone, 1968, p. 2). From the mid-1880s to the mid-1980s the language teaching profession got involved in a search for a single, ideal method that can be generalizable across different contexts (Brown, 2002). Yet this trend changed in the last decades of the 20th century as there appeared to be an evolving recognition of the constraints imposed by the concept of method (Stern, 1983); a recognition which paved the way for the emergence of a postmethod era. A primitive form of postmethod has its roots in eclecticism (Akbari, 2008). This is what was later referred to as “beyond methods” (Richards, 1990, p. 35). The term postmethod was coined by Kumaravadivelu (1994), yet conceptually it owes a lot to ideas put forward by Pennycook (1989), Prabhu (1990), and Stern (1983). Each of these scholars tried to debunk what they considered as “the myth[s] surrounding the concept of method” (Kumaravadivelu, 2006b, p. 163). They were expressing or implying that the search for methods is futile. Several reasons were consequently mentioned for saying farewell to methododism and welcoming postmethodism. Some of these reasons have been dealt with in the following along with explanations proposing their fallacious nature *in the status quo*, suggesting that the search for methods is inevitable and should not be deterred.

III. THE PARADOX OF THE BEST METHOD: ONE-SIZE-FITS-ALL RECONSIDERED

Prabhu’s (1990) main argument is that the search for methods is futile, and it should be terminated since “there is no best method” (p. 161); implying that there is no one-size-fits-all solution to language teaching. Later, many scholars followed suit and tried to debunk the concept of method by equating it with a one-size-fits-all solution (Bell, 2003; Brown, 2002; Kumaravadivelu, 2012). Three questions are raised here which would challenge Prabhu’s (1990) idea: first, is it correct to equate the concept of method necessarily with a one-size-fits-all solution?, second, is it possible to have *one* entity which is fits-all, and third, is it possible for the future methods to have a fits-all nature? (I have deliberately omitted ‘one-size’ from the expression ‘one-size-fits-all’ for reasons which will be explained later).

All these questions address the same issue: the possibility of considering one entity as being dynamic rather than regarding it as static. As held by many scholars such as Hegel (Dunning, 1992) and Vygotsky (1986) concepts are dynamic, or as “Hegel reminds us ... they are born, they develop, and they die, often to be reborn as aspects of larger concepts” (Dunning, 1992, p. 147). So, conceptually, methods can be dynamic. But what about in practice? It is argued here that the answer to this question is positive on two accounts: first, by drawing an analogy between the developmental trend of assessment and that of methods, and second, by considering the rapid advancements of science, especially ICALL.

IV. DEVELOPMENTAL TREND OF ASSESSMENT VERSUS THAT OF METHODS

There is a growing recognition of the dynamicity of many concepts in language teaching which used to be considered as being static traits, e.g., aptitude, learning styles, learning strategies, anxiety, and motivation (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). “This dynamic conception of contextually grounded and mutually interacting” (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 11) concepts are due to “abilities [which] are malleable and flexible rather than fixed. Hence a [new] form of measurement is needed for abilities that takes their malleability and flexibility into account” (Sternberg & Grigorenko, 2002, p. 1). Dynamic assessment (DA), developed based on Vygotsky’s zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Poehner, 2008), is one of such measurement options. So, in the developmental trend of assessment we see a movement away from classic, static, norm-referenced, product-oriented, summative, context-independent assessments towards espousing modern, dynamic, criterion-referenced, process-oriented, formative, context-dependent, individualized assessments (see also Hamidi, 2010). These new assessments are more challenging than the classic ones. For example, there are some challenges facing DA itself (Haywood & Tzuriel, 2002), and some facing teachers employing it (McNeil, 2018). But these challenges did not hinder the assessment profession from moving forward and getting past static assessments, yet similar challenges made language teaching methods development come to a standstill. In fact, it can be argued that one of the indirect factors that made postmethod welcome, and made it powerful enough to announce the futility of methodism continuation is perhaps the inherent difficulty involved in devising dynamic methods (DMs)². It seems that the idea of developing such methods has been considered so far-fetched that (to my knowledge) it has not appeared in the literature. So, one of the advantages of the assessment trend over that of methods is that while those involved in the assessment profession have been moving forward toward espousing more dynamic modes of assessment and embracing the involved difficulty, those involved in the language teaching attached a static label to methods for good, and then criticized them for what they *themselves* had put on them.

The second point which should be admired in the developmental trend of assessment is that it was not petrified by the colonial and hegemonic potentials inherent in assessment. True, both assessment (e.g., standardized tests) and methods can have a hegemonic nature (Kumaravadivelu, 2016). Yet neither the hegemonic nature of assessment nor the recognition of the dynamicity of concepts and the subsequent difficulty involved in constructing assessment frameworks tapping this dynamicity resulted in the abandonment of the concept of assessment and the germination of the idea of a *post-assessment* era. Rather, such recognitions made the assessment profession take the initiative to develop better frameworks while at the same time acknowledging the involved difficulty (Lin, 2013). The question raised is why the same trend did not emerge for methods.

The ongoing quest for better assessment frameworks ushered in DA, and diagnostic assessment. This steadfastness later resulted in the development of stealth assessment (Shute et al. 2009). Broadly speaking, stealth assessments are game-embedded assessments to unobtrusively, accurately, and dynamically measure how players are making improvement relative to targeted competencies (Shute et al. 2009; Shute, 2011). It “involves embedding formative assessment into the learning environment such that it is invisible and hence does not disrupt learning and engagement” (Shute & Kim, 2014, p. 312). In stealth assessment, therefore, we observe a growth of deeper insights into assessment in that not only it meets the objectives of both DA and diagnostic assessment, but also it is carried out in a fun-engaging manner (Shute & Kim, 2014), therefore, it is rather stress-free. Moreover, as assessment is invisible and does not disrupt learning, it meets one of the important objectives of DA which is assessment being made at the service of learning, because DA is “a pro-learning form of assessment” (Leung, 2007, p. 257).

The evolution of assessment can also be traced in the development of individualized assessment. The growing recognition of the intricacy of language, the availability of new technologies, and concerns for the democratization of education resulted in interests in individualized assessment (de Jong & Stevenson, 1990). Also, the development of item response theory (IRT) “opened up exciting new approaches to individualized language assessment” (Masters, 1990, p. 58). One of the achievements in this field is computerized adaptive testing (CAT).

Developed based on IRT “CAT involves the delivery to testees of items which are gradually tailored to the apparent ability level of the testee” (Alderson, 1990, p. 21). CAT can be considered as a form of individualized assessment because it “provides students with an individualized assessment environment individualized for them to see their competences” (Ozyurt et al. 2012, p. 3191). So, as a result of steadfastness in the field of assessment we are witnessing a continuous evolution towards deeper insights into assessment so that now we can see the emergence of dynamic CATs capable of assessing students’ ZPDs (Navarro & Mourgues-Codern, 2018).

Later on, with the development of DiscoTest (Stein et al. 2010), as a more advanced measurement tool, many of our longtime desired objectives were realized. DiscoTest is an online assessment tool developed based on ‘Dynamic Skill Scale’, a developmental scale devised by cognitive scientist Kurt W. Fischer. Unlike some standardized tests which measure discrete memorizable facts, Fischer’s scales measures depth of understanding of a concept. Fischer’s findings are also supported by neuroscientific evidence, because he found a correspondence between the levels in his scale and an increased connection in the brain (Lectica n.d.). Although as a “general approach to test design” (Stein et al. 2010, p. 208), DiscoTest has not yet been used for language testing, it can be considered as a more mature version of assessment in that it “provides all the benefits of embedded, formative tests, with the kind objectivity and validity that are desirable in standardized tests” (Stein et al. 2010, p. 208). Moreover, it tests sophisticated understanding of concepts. It is also diagnostic, and by providing continuous feedback it helps both learning and teaching (Stein et al. 2010).

Aside from possible future discussions about merits and demerits of assessment tools such as DiscoTests, such initiatives show that the assessment evolution is proceeding continuously in the right direction; we have set achievable objectives and tried to meet them. Dynamicity, contextuality, validity, reliability, practicality and objectivity are just some of such objectives. No matter how successful we have been in reaching them, the important point is that we are on the right track; getting continuously closer to our objectives. We might have swayed at times, but we are not lost in the barrens. The question is why the same trend did not emerge for methods and if DA is feasible, would DMs also be feasible.

V. THE FEASIBILITY OF DEVELOPING DMs

A. Theoretical Aspects

1. DMs inspired by complex dynamic systems theory (CDST)

The dynamicity of language and its malleability by use has been referred to by many scholars. Larsen-Freeman (2003) has used the terms *grammaring* and “organic dynamism” (p. 30) to refer to this phenomenon. According to Larsen-Freeman (1997), language grows and arranges itself from the bottom up organically, and the changes observed are unpredictable and emergent, not rule-governed. Therefore, there is no target language as the target is always moving because of the collaborative use of language by all its speakers.

Following this perspective it can be argued that language cannot be effectively taught by static methods and one teacher. Rather its teaching should be based on the *collaborative effort of all its speakers* (including even those who are learning it). Therefore, to teach a language based on a “dynamic model of performance ... which relates individual use to systemic change” (Larsen-Freeman, 1997, p. 149), we have to teach it by DMs whose dynamicity allows for the dynamicity of language. Such methods should take into account various variables simultaneously, and be malleable by “interaction between the teacher, the learners, and the instructional tasks and activities over time” (in line with Richards, 1990, p. 37). CDST as one of the “theories [which] view language as a dynamic system that is constantly being transformed through use” (Larsen-Freeman, 2018, p. 58) can inspire AI-based methods to make such goals achievable; an issue discussed further in the following.

2. Dynamic AI-based methods inspired by CDST

Right now “we have the technology to build a superior assessment system — one based on ... AI [It] would provide a fairer, richer assessment system that would evaluate students across a longer period of time and from an evidence-based, value-added perspective” (Luckin, 2017, p. 1-3). The assessment provided by AI is precise, objective,

individualized, longitudinal, dynamic, and diagnostic. It improves students' metacognition, and teachers' reflective teaching. It provides simultaneous assessment of affective and cognitive constructs. Test fairness and social equality are observed in this type of assessment. Furthermore, as "the assessment would be happening 'in the background' over time, without necessarily being obvious to the student ... [and as it] can deliver a new generation of exam-free assessment" (Luckin, 2017, p. 3), it would be rather stress-free. Concrete examples of these features are Discotest and stealth assessment. These assessments methods have been both developed based on AI because Discotest has been developed based on *The Lectical Assessment System* (Stein et al. 2010) which uses CLAS; an AI computer program for scoring Lectical assessments (Reams, 2017), and stealth assessment also utilizes AI (Shute & Spector, p. 2008).

Since its invention, AI has been growing "exponentially" (Kurzweil, 2004, p. 382). "It is a powerful force that is reshaping daily practices, personal and professional interactions, and environments" (Taddeo & Floridi, 2018, p. 751). In particular, AI, through its descendants, i.e., machine learning, ANNs, and recently deep learning (Bini, 2018) can have the potentials to transform education, causing real Kuhnian (1970) paradigm shifts.

A glance at the definitions of these terms will help clarify their relevance to issues raised in this paper. Basically, "AI is computational processing that mimics the thinking of humans" (Kessler, 2018, p. 212). Machine learning refers to a type of AI "that provides computers with the ability to learn without being explicitly programmed by exposing them to the vast amount of data" (Raeesi Vanani & Amirhosseini, 2019, p. 43). Later, machine learning constraints led scientists to develop ANNs and deep learning algorithms through biomimicry (Bini, 2018). "A **neural network** (NN) is an abstract computer model of the human brain" (Munakata, 2008, p. 7, emphasis in the original). "Similar to the brain ... [it] is composed of artificial neurons (or units) and interconnections" (Munakata, 2008, p. 7) which can learn autonomously. And finally, "deep learning refers to neural networks with lots of layers" (Eckroth, 2018, p. 104). Looking at these definitions we can see that AI can provide a suitable venue for using usage-based approaches to second language acquisition. Because "[u]sage-based theories hold that the acquisition of language is exemplar based. It is the piecemeal learning of many thousands of constructions and the frequency-biased abstraction of regularities within them" (Ellis, 2002, p. 143). The same holds true for machine learning because "[m]ost methods in this area are based on learning by examples" (Bardis, 2009, p. 92). Moreover, like usage-based approaches to language learning, learning in AI is data-dependent as "AI solutions are data hungry. The more data there is and the more varied it is, the better the AI outcomes" (Mohanty & Vyas, 2018, p. 52).

AI technology enables the system to learn continually from its own experience and optimize itself (Bini, 2018), i.e., it provides the system with adaptive learning and self-modification. Recall that one of the criticisms leveled against methods was that "teaching is not static or fixed in time but is a dynamic, interactional process in which the teacher's 'method' results from the processes of interaction between the teacher, the learners, and the instructional tasks and activities over time" (Richards, 1990, p. 37). "[D]ata is to AI what food is to humans"³ (Purdy & Daugherty, 2016, p. 11). So it can be argued that AI can provide us with CDST-inspired DMs which evolve from interactional processes. That is, since AI is not static and it can be fed by language (from teachers and learners), it can provide adaptability, i.e., dynamicity as conveyed by the second sense of CDST. And while "an interactionist approach to DA is labor-intensive, time-consuming, and, perhaps, difficult to carry out in large programs" (Antón, 2009, p. 592), AI can overcome all such difficulties. So AI-based methods inspired by CDST have the potentials to allow for the second sense of dynamicity as conveyed by this theory, i.e., diachronic and synchronic changes (Larsen-Freeman, 1997).

Also, recall that the other criticism levelled against the concept of method was the impossibility of formation and implementation of a method while taking into account many variables (Kumaravadivelu, 2006b). Again, this does not apply to future DMs because "while tracking so many variables is challenging for people ... it is something that computers are particularly adept at" (Bini, 2018, p. 2359). Therefore, the first sense of dynamicity as conveyed by CDST can also be met in DMs through using AI.

3. Dynamic AI-based methods inspired by Vygotsky's ZPD

There are many AI tools which implement Vygotsky's ZPD (Holmes et al. 2019). Scaffolding, as the tutorial assistance given within the ZPD (Wood et al. 1976), can be successfully employed by technology (Luckin, 2008). "For technology to provide software scaffolding the system needs to maintain a model of its learners. Systems that do precisely this have been developed and provide one way to use the ZPD to inform educational software design" (Luckin, 2008, p. 450).

B. Historical Aspects

The historical picture depicted in this study shows that while the developmental trend of assessment has been upward and positive, that of methods has been a straight line; indicating the "demise of methods" (Bell, 2003, p. 328). It can be argued that methods development is lagging behind just because postmethod cannot think of methods as having the ability to grow beyond a static mold. Such reasoning is strengthened by the fact that the concept of postmethod has been quite influential, changing "the profession's collective thought and action" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006a, p. 59). It is further strengthened by introducing postmethod era as "the laudable transition from awareness to awakening" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006a, p. 76) in that using words such as "laudable" and "awakening" has intensified postmethod's deterrent effect on methods development.

Of course, ironically attributing such terms to postmethod, and considering methods as "limited and limiting" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 1) is both true and false, and it is not contradictory! It all depends on the context. Such ideas

can be mooted about *static* methods but not DMs. But no matter whatever the deterrent force has been, hardly can any force be strong enough to deter the influence of the exponential growth of AI (Kurzweil, 2004). In fact, “many sets of tasks that are currently placed at the core of teaching practice in higher education will be replaced by AI software” (Popenici & Kerr, 2017, p. 11). And “there is consistent evidence ... that AI solutions open a new horizon of possibilities for teaching and learning” (Popenici & Kerr, 2017, p. 3) creating “a tsunami of change” (Popenici & Kerr, 2017, p. 8). AI-based dynamic language teaching methods could be one of the future possibilities, a prognostication further supported in the following.

1. Blurring method/assessment dichotomy

For those who are still dubious about a methodism resurgence there is still another way of removing their doubt. Aside from the data derived from the comparison of assessment and methods developmental trends, the issue of blurring the boundaries between assessment and instruction can be used to support an opposite movement; a movement other than the one currently prescribed by postmethodism.

DA as a pro-learning form of assessment is designed to promote learning (Leung, 2007). This goal is so important that it has led to the blurring of the boundaries between assessment and instruction in DA (Quellmalz et al. 2011). In the evolution of assessment trend, as documented in this study, we see that as we have been moving further away from static assessment towards more advanced forms of DA, the merger between assessment and instruction has been increasing to the extent that, observing this trend, we can predict, rather confidently, that in the near future the boundary between these two would be indiscernible. Therefore, soon “we will see more blending of the methods from both the fields of educational measurement and of intelligent tutoring⁴ to form a hybrid system in which learning and assessment are blended in such a way that they are indistinguishable” (Quellmalz et al. 2011, p. 84). This trend of indistinguishability can be documented in the development of stealth assessment as it “involves embedding formative assessment into the learning environment such that it is invisible and hence does not disrupt learning” (Shute & Kim, 2014, p. 312), and in AI-based assessment “because [in that] the assessment would be happening ‘in the background’ over time, without necessarily being obvious to the student” (Luckin, 2017, p. 3). This merging of assessment and instruction right now can be seen in “Duolingo, a language learning platform based on AI and voice recognition ... [which] can track students’ progress and provide personalized feedback and practice” (Karsenti, 2019, p. 108). So, for those who are still skeptical, this prospect of assessment and instruction boundaries blur would be sufficient enough to remove their doubts about the inevitability of methods resurgence, *no matter* whether they are called dynamic *assessment* methods or dynamic *teaching* methods. So right now earlier prototypes of DMs are in existence in advanced versions of DA.

2. Mediamorphosis and inevitable language teaching metamorphosis

The inevitability of the emergence of DMs can also be backed up in another way. Recent revolutionary information achievements like 5D optical data storage, quantum teleportation in space, and time crystals can usher in an information overload and increased complexity. If following Logan (1997, August), we accept that each time there is an information overload and increased complexity, it would lead to a chaos which itself would trigger the emergence of a new level of order or a new language, then such breakthroughs, which sound like science fiction, could have the potentials to bring about a new language. Logan (1997, August) has predicted expert systems (a kind of AI) to be the emerging language.

Such revolutionary media can bring about a media metamorphosis, or in Fidler’s (1997) words, a ‘mediamorphosis’. Fidler (1997) based his ‘mediamorphosis theory’ on six fundamental principles, the sixth of which ‘delayed adoption’ holds that “[n]ew media technologies always take longer than expected to become commercial successes. They tend to require *at least* one human generation (20–30 years) to progress from proof of concept to widespread adoption” (p. 29, italics in original). Yet with mentioned information innovations in view, it can be anticipated that this delayed adoption time will decrease. In fact, it seems that, contrary to the Fidler’s principle, the delayed adoption time will not necessarily be *always* at least 20-30 years. For instance, compact disks and USB flash drives took much shorter delayed adoption time than that anticipated by the Fidler’s principle. Therefore, Fidler’s principle should be ruled out as: a) the delayed adoption time is not necessarily always at least 20-30 years, and b) it depends on many factors such as need, cost, ease of production, advertisement, and even the extent to which a new technology can come into vogue among many other factors.

What Fidler (1997) is proposing in his delayed adoption is based on a linear growth. True, thinking linearly it might take 20-30 years. But the point is that media are growing “exponential[ly] ... [and] we find not just simple exponential growth, but ‘double’ exponential growth, meaning that the rate of exponential growth is itself growing exponentially” (Kurzweil, 2004, p. 382). Consequently, it follows that the delayed time will get an exponentially decreasing pattern. Moreover, it can be argued that if something has an exponential growth, then mathematically there is the possibility of the delayed time to get even close to zero. As regards our discussion, it can be said that AI-based media have the potentials to bring about language teaching methods metamorphosis, and as they are growing exponentially, they will have an exponentially plummeting delayed adoption time. Therefore, we will soon see their prevalence.

3. Present incapability does not mean future impossibility

For those who still consider the idea of DMs as being far-fetched, one question might be helpful: “Does the present incapability necessarily connote future impossibility?” The history of science has provided us with many anecdotes, proving a negative answer. We have witnessed many significant achievements based on ideas once too far-fetched.

Motion pictures were inconceivable to the people of the Middle Ages, as were static pictures to primitive men. Televisions, the first trip to the moon, and space shuttles were all once far-fetched. Yet no matter how far-fetched they sounded, man tried to achieve them. In the same vein, DMs might seem implausible now. But no present implausibility is necessarily continuous. In fact, implausibility is timebound, as time has rendered many highly implausible plausible.

DMs are plausible and, contrary to the Prabhu's (1990) claim, such methods can be fits-all. I avoid using the term one-size as it might be misleading. In fact, such DMs, although they won't be one-size, can fit all as they can accommodate themselves to different individual differences (ID). That is, they would be *one* package yet with *stretchable sizes*, hence I avoid using the term one-size. While postmethod is trying to instill the idea that there is *nothing new* to be discovered in the fields of methods, the AI advances are convincing us to move in the opposite direction. The following analogy in the history of science might help understand the static status quo brought about by postmethodism.

The Nobel laureate Max Planck upon choosing physics as his major was advised by the physicist Philipp von Jolly to choose another major because in his view physics by then had reached its maturity and there was nothing new to be discovered (Sanghera, 2011). Yet "the decades to come, which saw the revolutions of relativity and quantum mechanics, proved the prognostication to be misguided" (Wells, 2016, p. 61). Note that von Jolly had an illustrious career endowing him knighthood (Wells, 2016). So, "even knighted, respected scholars can be wrong, especially when prophesying that the future (no new science) will be fundamentally different" (Wells, 2016, p. 61). Yet Planck, not getting persuaded, continued his quest for physics; a quest which brought him Nobel Prize in 1918 for his discovery that is now regarded as the start of the modern physics (Sanghera, 2011). So we see that neither did the quest for physics come to a halt after a wrong prediction, nor did the physics circle prescribe a *post-physics* era. Rather, the continuation of the quest for physics ushered in a paradigm shift and a new chapter in physics. Yet the prescriptive tone adopted by postmethod forbidding methods quest is counterproductive, especially in view of the envisaged DMs in this paper which can signify the emergence of a paradigm shift in language teaching.

VI. AI-BASED DMS: FROM FEASIBILITY TO REALIZATION

"Teachers who opt for post-method practices have to be aware of the fact that methods are not dead. They survive in one way or another in coursebooks" (De Florio-Hansen, 2018, p. 86)⁵. The fact that the concept of method, even to those who have levelled many criticisms against it, is still felt needed, at least for helping practitioners develop their personal approach to teaching (Drozdział-Szelest, 2013) shows that there is no way to shy away from methods. Rather than abandoning them because of their shortcomings this study argues that measures can be taken to improve them. After discussions on the inevitability of the emergence of DMs, and the AI potentials for developing such methods, the question raised is how these methods would be built.

There is a consensus that ID affects to a large extent the rate of second/foreign language acquisition and the ultimate level of attainment (Pawlak, 2012). So either we are an advocate of methods or postmethod we can attain more favorable results if we make our teaching ID-based or individualized. Yet "recent trends tend to see ID as dynamic entities that change over time and may affect development differentially at different times" (Lowie & Verspoor, 2019, p. 185). Following an ID-based approach to teaching is difficult by itself let alone taking care of their dynamicity. Yet, while this task is difficult for human it can be easily accomplished by the AI. Nowadays there are adaptive and intelligent learning systems in existence to deal with the issue of learning personalization (Slavuj et al. 2017). Also now such systems even allow for the dynamicity of ID (e.g., Lo et al. 2012). The improvement in this field is rocketing to the extent that now not only are such systems capable of emotion recognition (see Petrovica et al. 2017) but also they are capable of measuring complex and multifaceted internal variables such as motivation. For example, acknowledging the dynamic and sequential nature of motivation, and hence considering the impact of student's previous motivational state, Naghizadeh and Moradi (2015, May) proposed a model for motivation assessment in ITs based on the ARCS Model (Keller, 1987). To operationalize motivation in their proposed model, they assigned new roles to the main components of ITs; the most important issue being the allocation of a Motivation Assessment Unit to the student model. They concluded that to assess motivation in their proposed model they should use seven features of: task time, grade, task difficulty, student's interest in the subject, accordance between content presentation and student's learning style, skill level, and previous motivational state.

It can be argued that concerns for ID and individualization in the field of assessment have resulted in the development of DA (at least in part) and in the field of teaching in adaptive technology-assisted systems. Such systems when used for language teaching are the main concern of "Intelligent Computer Assisted Language Learning (ICALL) [which] is a field within ... (CALL) that applies concepts, techniques, algorithms, and technologies from artificial intelligence to CALL" (Heift, 2017, p. 290). ICALL can provide the medium where DMs can grow. Of course, there is a catch.

As mentioned by Slavuj et al. (2017), adaptive "systems are mostly developed for well-defined domains that have a rather straightforward acquisition order, such as mathematics or computer programming ... [and in case of] ill-defined domains [such as] [n]atural language learning ... developing ... [such] systems ... is notoriously complex and challenging" (p. 64). While Slavuj et al. (2017) have attributed this difficulty "to the nature of language systems" (p. 64), it can be argued that this problem stems from other issues. Because first of all "the notion of an ill-defined domain is

vague ... [and] there are no clear boundaries between ill-defined and well-defined domains. Rather, there is a continuum ranging from well-defined to ill-defined” (Fournier-Viger et al. 2010, p. 82), and second, “[with clarifying] the definition of an ‘ill-defined domain,’ ... [we can] offer various solutions for building tutoring systems for these domains” (Fournier-Viger et al. 2010, p. 81).

So it can be argued that the failure of adaptive technology-assisted language teaching systems stems from the lack of a comprehensive definition of language. And since “[d]efinitions are theory-laden” (Zins, 2007, p. 488), the problem can be attributed to the atheoretical nature of language in such systems. Two leading theories in this regard are the CDST and ZPD.

CDST can be used to inform adaptive systems such as the Mocha project (Schulze, 2008). Also since corrective feedback (CF) provided in a graduated fashion can promote learning in a dialogically and collaboratively constructed ZPD (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994), “ZPD can be created between the ICALL system and the learner by developing computer algorithms that provide graduated CF” (Ai, 2017, p. 316). Luckin and du Boulay (2016), for instance, have referred to the Ecolab, an Interactive Learning Environment, which is an implementation of the Vygotsky’s ZPD. For developing DMs we need adaptive systems informed by both CDST and ZPD.

The next question raised is how we can allow for the coexistence of individualization and a method because individualization favors freedom but methods boundaries. Adaptive AI-based systems can enable us to allow for both the variability of ID and the boundaries of a method. In Garrett’s (1991) words, in such an environment “[s]tudents can move through the material at their own pace and can repeat or sometimes skip segments of lessons according to their perception of their own need, *but the material contained in the lesson, the way it is presented, the analysis of the students’ performance, is the same for all*” (p. 715, emphasis added). “[T]he use of the computer does not constitute a method. The computer is rather a medium or an environment in which a wide variety of *methods, approaches, or pedagogical philosophies may be implemented*” (Garrett, 1991, p. 698, the first emphasis in the original, the second added). It can, therefore, be argued that computers along with the AI can provide a medium for thriving DMs.

This need for method and technology integration, which is the backbone of DMs, can be instantiated by “technology-mediated TBLT” a framework developed for investigating how principles of task-based language teaching can be integrated into technology (González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014). Ironically, Kumaravadivelu’s (2006b) three operating principles of particularity, practicality, and possibility, which shape his postmethod pedagogy can be met following such a framework (Motteram & Thomas, 2010).

So far, we saw that through integrating technology our methods can be *dynamic* (as conveyed by the ZPD and the first sense of dynamicity in CDST). The question raised is how this integration can make methods *dynamic* in the second sense of dynamicity in CDST.

The second sense of dynamicity in the CDST is based on the dynamicity of language. DMs can be dynamic in this sense through implementing open learner models (OLMs). OLMs “are learner models that can be viewed or accessed in some way by the learner, or by other users (e.g. teachers, peers, parents)” (Bull & Kay, 2010, p. 301). In such modeling “learners can *inspect, discuss and alter* the learner model that has been jointly constructed by themselves and the system” (Dimitrova & Brna, 2016, p. 332, emphasis in the original). Using OLMs is in line with dynamic views of language which “view language as a dynamic system that is constantly being transformed through use” (Larsen-Freeman, 2018, p. 58). It allows for a “dynamic model of performance ... which relates individual use to systemic change” (Larsen-Freeman, 1997, p. 149). Because teaching here is not static rather it is malleable by “interaction between the teacher, the learners, and the instructional tasks and activities over time” (in line with Richards, 1990, p. 37); a malleability which will result in synchronic and eventually diachronic changes in language. Also, ironically, following OLMs we can have dynamic *methods* that, contrary to Prabhu’s claim (Pang, 2019; Prabhu, 1990) allow for a teacher’s sense of plausibility. Because utilizing *editable* OLMs allows not only learners, but also teachers, or others to change or edit the contents (Bull & Kay, 2010)⁶. Therefore, in such a context, teachers can have their say and teaching will no longer become what Prabhu considers “more or less an occupational routine” (Pang, 2019, p. 355). Following OLMs we see a movement away from ITs to Intelligent mentoring (or mentor-like ITs) which is reminiscent of the shift from teacher-centered to learner-centered approaches, and from perennialism to progressivism.

The next question is where methods reside in such systems. According to Matthews (1993), we can conceive of an ICALL system in terms of the classical ITs architecture composed of the *Expert module* containing the knowledge that is to be tutored, the *Student module*⁷ consisting of a model of what the student knows about that domain (in addition to relevant details such as learning preferences) and the *Tutor module* determining what should be taught and how. So methods *mostly* could reside in the Tutor module. Decisions such as the purpose of learning, the type of syllabus, teachers’ and students’ roles, etc. (see Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011) can be made in this domain. Although it does not mean that other modules should be method-less. Rather they should be in line with the utilized method, e.g., “different [learner] modeling techniques correspond to different approaches in SLA” (Schulze, 2008, p. 149).

True, learning a language requires AI facilities more advanced than ITs. But DMs have a promising future because unlike ITs “which often focus on a subset of learner errors and/or restrict learner input to the sentence level ... spell checkers, grammar checkers, and systems for automatic essay scoring evaluate L2 learners’ production of entire texts” (Heift, 2017, p. 290). So soon we will see AI-based DMs advanced enough for teaching the whole language. Individualized and dynamic teaching and assessment, the provision of continuous diagnostic feedback, and the

consideration of myriad variables simultaneously are some of the advantages of the future DMs. Moreover, since these methods utilize OLMs “they can help raise awareness of knowledge, prompting metacognitive activities such as reflection, self-evaluation and planning” (Bull et al. 2008, p. 62). What makes such DMs even more significant is that since they provide individualized teaching and assessment, they espouse egalitarian philosophy, and they are in accord with principles of democratization of education, and consequently, more humanistic.

VII. CONCLUSION

Ever since the advent of postmethod, language teaching methods development has been on the wane. Being an influential movement, postmethod has deterred methods development by inculcating those involved in language teaching with a view to see staticity as the only possible connotation of the term method. Consequently, refuting “a static view of teaching” (Richards, 1990, p. 37), postmethod advocates consider the continuation of methodism as being futile. To them it is only the concept of method which should be to blame and abandoned. As another solution, however, this study has investigated the possibility of maintaining methods but making them dynamic⁸.

Postmethod has nipped the idea of such methods in the bud. Analogically speaking, it can be argued that, following Foucault (1977), postmethodism has created a panopticism where those willing to develop new methods, though not necessarily consciously aware, constantly find themselves under surveillance to make sure they won't trespass the law of the futility of methods quest. Attaching “futility” and “awakening” (Kumaravadivelu, 2006a, p. 76) labels to this quest and the era terminating it respectively, especially by members of the elite, has intensified this deterrent force. Of course, it should be noted that this study is trying to present evidence about the inevitability of the elevation of methodism from staticity to dynamicity, and not rejecting all postmethodism's valuable awakenings. Postmethod brought us awakening when language teaching was dominated by static methods and teachers were more powerful to control numerous variables and they could “overcome limitations posed by methods-based pedagogy” (Burke, 2007, p. 442). But in the future, dynamic AI-based methods can help teachers to take control of many variables simultaneously. And this help should not necessarily be considered as depowering teachers, rather if like McLuhan (1994) we consider technology as ‘the extensions of man’, then dynamic AI-based methods are empowering teachers. Recall that computers did not depower librarians, engineers, physicians, or teachers. Used correctly, AI will not either.

The innovative “designer methods” of the 19th century were based on learning theories (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 383). Yet what distinguishes these methods from future DMs is that while the former were simply based on some *partial* or *general* learning theories, DMs will be based on *more scientifically-based* theories, or to look more optimistically, they will be based on learning facts. There are many theories which are now facts. Geocentrism and heliocentrism were both once theories, yet the advancement of knowledge rendered the former a myth and the latter a fact. The advancement of knowledge and technology can expedite theories' transitional phase from a theoretical to a factual state, or if we are not that much lucky, it can strengthen our theories by providing more pieces of evidence.

Technology can provide us with instruments for collecting such evidence. Various neuroimaging techniques, for instance, are providing us with new pieces of evidence every day; helping us to solve more pieces of the learning theory puzzle. Learning is not a product it is a *process*; it is not static it is *dynamic*. In the same vein, we can observe a growth of neuroimaging techniques from capturing *staticity* to *dynamicity*- a growth observed in the improvement of magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scanners capturing *static* neuroimages to *functional* MRI (fMRI) scanners capturing *dynamic* images. Right now we have access to many *functional* neuroimaging techniques such as event-related potential, positron-emission tomography, magnetoencephalography, and fMRI (Hanson & Hanson, 2005) which can provide us with *dynamic* pieces of evidence to help us solve the *dynamic* theory of learning. “By adopting the tools of neuroscience, cognitive psychologists are now able to directly (or as directly as feasible) observe the brain *as it works* on various cognitive tasks” (Hanson & Hanson, 2005, p. 121, emphasis added). These technologically-rendered evidence provide us with more and more learning facts, expediting the transitional phase of our learning theories to a factual state to the extent that now “cognitive neuroscientists have come very close to looking inside the black box” (Hanson & Hanson, 2005, p. 121). Moreover, while fMRI “reveals changes in blood-oxygen levels in different parts of the brain, ... [and] the data show nothing about what is actually happening in and between brain cells” (Venere, 2017, p. 1), new neuroimaging techniques can enable us to have access to microscopic fMRI of *individual* neurons; a goal now achieved through combining MRI and optical microscopy (Venere, 2017).

All these pieces of evidence, collected in an interdisciplinary fashion in this study, herald the rocketing development of more coherent language learning theories and the inevitability of a methodism resurgence. In the codex era we could not eradicate methods as they continued to survive lurking in textbooks (Akbari, 2008). In the same vein, upon taking our journey from “codex to hypertext”⁹, methods still continue their survival, now lurking in cyberspaces. It is just the medium which has changed. And being a much more powerful medium, not only has this new medium not blurred the concept of method, but also it has deepened its roots even further.

While postmethod teachers, as decision-makers, play a focal role in language teaching, with teachers getting distant (Slavuj et al. 2017) in the digital era, the postmethod legacy won't be enduring anyway. The collected evidence in this study indicates the emergence of scientifically-based DMs developed interdisciplinarily. We are living in an era where “interdisciplinarity is both desirable and inevitable” (Chettiparamb, 2007, p. 1). The boundaries established between different disciplines were basically set to be used as mental scaffolding, yet they mostly remained there permanently.

Originally coined by Wood et al. (1976) and further developed by Bruner (1983), scaffolding “describes a system of *temporary* guidance offered to the learner by the teacher, jointly co-constructed, and then *removed* when the learner no longer needs it” (Boblett, 2012, p. 1, emphasis added). Yet this removal phase or the “handover principle”, as Bruner (1983) calls it, has usually been neglected in many mono-disciplinary studies. Originally, we “imposed boundaries of knowledge ... for better apprehension of the world, [yet it] has had the negative repercussion of forgetting their very hypothetical [and transient] nature” (Maftoon & Taie, 2016, p. 41). Interdisciplinarity helps us to see more vividly this hypothetical and transient nature of discipline boundaries and to dismantle them whenever we can. It helps us to see how language teaching is closely linked to other, apparently irrelevant, disciplines. Through it we can see a movement away from singularity to plurality, and from staticity to dynamicity. “We are heading towards an era where concepts are conferred with the metaphor of a ‘living organism’ to embody their complexity, dynamicity, and interconnectedness” (Maftoon & Taie, 2016, p. 48). The question which is raised is that by inculcating those involved in language teaching with a view to see staticity as the only possible connotation of the concept of method hasn’t postmethod (notwithstanding many of its valuable awakenings) been ossifying our very dynamic nature.

NOTES

1. These examples are very important and have been selected carefully to exemplify a future information revolution. They sound like science fiction and the two latter are so complicated that they are difficult to define. Readers are kindly recommended to search some of the websites attempting to define them to develop an idea about their definition and significance.

2. The term ‘dynamic’ when referring to DMs in this study has two meanings. The first one is similar to the one conveyed by DA, i.e., it is based on the ZPD. And its second meaning stems from a dynamic view of language as proposed by the Complex Dynamic Systems Theory. In this category, dynamicity conveys a) simultaneous consideration of many Individual Differences, and b) allowing for synchronic and diachronic changes of language.

3. As told by Barry Smyth, a professor of computer science.

4. “Those systems used in SLA that contain parsers are referred to as Intelligent Tutoring Systems [ITs], or specimens of ... (ICALL)” (Dodigovic, 2007, p. 100).

5. Of course, this issue was first raised by Akbari (2008).

6. For information on different levels of interactivity and control in such models see Bull and Kay (2010).

7. Another name for learner model

8. This article draws much of its inspiration from the seminal academic writings of Professor Larsen-Freeman, especially her influential writings on the dynamism of language and CDST, and from the seminal works of Professor Nick Ellis on emergentism.

9. This is also the name of a book written by Lang (2012).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

No words can express my heartfelt gratitude to Professor Diane Larsen-Freeman for the precious time that she kindly spent on this article and for providing constructive feedback on its initial draft. I am also profoundly grateful to Professor Mahmood Reza Atai for his constant and valuable support and comments.

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Masumeh Taie is a Ph.D. candidate in TEFL at Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch, Tehran, Iran. She is a university instructor with a working experience of more than ten years, teaching mostly technical medical English to students of medicine. She has published some articles on curriculum development, ESP, and other language teaching issues. Her main areas of interest are neuroscience, the use of technology in language teaching (especially CALL and ICALL), English for medicine, critical thinking, critical pedagogy, and interdisciplinary studies.

Cohesion in Academic Writing: A Comparison of Essays in English Written by L1 and L2 University Students

Zhongqing He

School of Foreign Studies, University of Science and Technology Beijing, China

Abstract—Cohesion plays an important role in ensuring clarity, appropriateness, and comprehensibility in text. This study compares L1-Chinese and L1-English university students' use of cohesion in English essays and examines the cohesive features in academic writing of L2 students from three perspectives: density of cohesion, distribution of cohesive devices, and distance of cohesive ties. Data consist of 126 student-produced essays in two corpora: 63 by L1-Chinese students from the TECCL corpus and 63 by L1-English students from the BAWE corpus. Findings indicate that L2 students have a lower density of cohesion in their academic writing. Their essays are marked by underuse of lexical cohesion and demonstrative reference, initial positioning of conjunctions, and heavy use of temporal conjunction. In addition, L2 students use significantly fewer immediate and remote cohesive ties, and the length of the material between ties is found to be inadequate compared to L1 students' writing. The study has important implications for L2 writing pedagogy in China.

Index Terms—cohesion, L2, Chinese university students, academic writing

I. INTRODUCTION

Cohesion is a crucial language resource that contributes to the overall unity of a text (Thompson, 2004, p.179). Since Halliday and Hasan (1976), the study of cohesion has attracted much attention among scholars in such fields as text analysis and language teaching. In the past years, much of the study has focused on the relationship between cohesion and coherence (e.g., Carrell, 1982; Tanskanen, 2006), and the use of cohesion in texts of various registers or genres, such as conversations (González, 2011, 2013), business discourse (Johns, 1980), literature works (Moini & Kheirkhah, 2016), government documents (Trebits, 2009), and legal texts (Fakuade & Sharndama, 2012).

With the number of second language (L2) students increasing exponentially in universities in English-dominant countries in recent years (Staples & Reppen, 2016), cohesion usage in L2 students' writing has begun to draw increasing attention. A growing body of studies suggest that exploring how certain lexico-grammatical patterns are employed in a text to create unity provides information that will help L2 students improve cohesion in their writing (Aktas & Cortes, 2008). While many of these investigations have contributed much to our understanding on how L2 learners use cohesion in their writing, it is important to note that most published studies have been largely focused on cohesion and its effects on writing quality (Chiang, 2003; Crossley, 2012; Crossley, Kyle, & McNamara, 2016), cohesion errors (Liu & Braine, 2005; Liu & Qi, 2010; Ong, 2011), and cohesive features in students' writing (Hinkel, 2001; Rahman, 2013). These studies largely involve the counting of frequencies and the examination of realizations of certain cohesive devices, with very few studies focusing on the overall density of cohesion, and even fewer on distance of cohesion. While a few studies have examined all the three aspects of cohesion proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976), namely distribution of cohesive devices, cohesion density, and distance of cohesive ties, they consist of data drawn from texts written by L2 student writers only. Little, however, is known about the three aspects of cohesion in English essays of L2 university students compared to L1 university students.

This study addresses these gaps by adopting Halliday and Hasan's (1976) framework and undertaking a comparative study of cohesion in English essays written by L1-Chinese and L1-English university students. Such an approach offers the opportunity to examine more fully the use of cohesion in academic writing of Chinese learners of English as a foreign language (EFL), and thus adds to a growing body of research on cohesive features in English essays of L1 and L2 student writers.

II. COHESION AND ACADEMIC WRITING

Cohesion refers to the linguistic devices by which bits of the text are connected to each other. It is one of the major resources in linguistic system that contributes to text construction (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p.vii). Together with coherence, cohesion enables a text to have "texture", the property which distinguishes a text from a non-text. So far, Halliday and Hasan (1976) has given "the most comprehensive" treatment of the subject of cohesion (Akindele, 2011; Brown & Yule, 1983) and since then the study of cohesion has attracted considerable attention in areas of text analysis and language teaching.

In the past decades, studies of cohesion have largely pivoted around two issues, the interaction between cohesion and coherence, and cohesion usage in texts of various types. It is generally accepted that cohesion and coherence are not the same thing (Carrell, 1982; Eggins, 1994; Thompson, 2004). The distinction between cohesion and coherence is the distinction between something that exists within text and something that exists “in the mind of the writer and reader” (Thompson, 2004, p.180), between the internal properties and the contextual properties of a text (Eggins, 1994, p.87). Although they are conceptually interrelated (Witte & Faigley, 1981; Yang & Sun, 2012), there is no causal relationship between the two constructs (Carrell, 1982; Castro, 2004). Previous studies showed that a cohesive text may be minimally coherent (Witte & Faigley, 1981), and that at the same time, a coherent text will likely, but not necessarily, be cohesive (Norment, 1994).

Cohesion usage in texts of different registers or genres has also received much attention of scholarship in the past years. These studies demonstrate that the use of cohesive devices is somehow affected by the registerial and generic features of texts. Crowhurst (1987), for example, examined cohesion in argument and narration at three grade levels and found that narrative has higher use of cohesive ties than argument. Johns (1980) compared the use of cohesive items in letters, reports, and textbooks. The results showed that lexical cohesion is the most common cohesive device in all three genres and that the occurrence of subtypes of lexical cohesion varies across genres. González (2011, 2013) focused on lexical cohesion in conversational discourse. The results showed that repetition is the most frequent lexical cohesion device and that lexical cohesion plays an important role in establishing interpersonal relationships in conversations. In addition, studies also revealed that reference was used predominantly in legal texts (Fakuade & Sharndama, 2012), and that conjunction contributes to the forming of textual organization patterns in government documents (Trebits, 2009).

Recently, however, in response to the increasing number of international students in universities in English-dominant countries, such as the US, scholars in cohesion studies have gradually shifted their attention to cohesion usage in L2 students' writing. One of the key issues here is the correlation between cohesion and writing quality of L2 students. The results, however, are rather contradictory (Liu & Braine, 2005). Some researchers have found that there is no direct correlation between cohesion and the quality of writing (e.g., Castro, 2004; Zhang, 2000). Other researchers, however, have found the opposite. For example, Chiang (2003) argues, through his analysis of cohesive conditions and perception of writing quality in L2 learners' writing, that cohesion is “the best predictor of writing quality”. Yang and Sun (2012) reached a similar conclusion and showed that the correct use of cohesive ties correlated significantly with the writing quality. Though it is still unclear whether there is a definite correlation between cohesion and writing quality, it is generally accepted that cohesion is an important aspect of L2 learners' writing quality.

Additionally, cohesion errors in L2 students' writing have received much attention, particularly among Chinese scholars. The errors that L1-Chinese learners make in using cohesion when they write in English range from overuse of conjunctions (Field & Yip, 1992; Zhang, 2000), misuse of collocations (Liu & Braine 2005), of references (Liu & Braine, 2005; Ong, 2011; Zhang, 2000), and of lexical devices (Zhang, 2000), to restricted use of lexical cohesion (Liu & Braine, 2005; Zhang, 2000). These studies suggest that L1-Chinese learners have difficulty in using cohesive devices correctly and appropriately in their writing (Yang & Sun, 2012; Wang & Sui, 2006), and that it is important to conduct a comprehensive analysis of L1-Chinese student writers' use of cohesion in their writing to improve this situation.

Although these studies have contributed much to our understanding on cohesive features in L2 learners' writing, there are still some underexplored areas which necessitate further research. First, these studies have mostly focused on certain types of cohesive devices, particularly conjunction (e.g., Bolton, Nelson, & Hung, 2002; Granger & Tyson, 1996; Lei, 2012; Shi, 2017) and lexical cohesion (Zhao, 2014), leaving the other types relatively unexplored. Second, these studies largely involve counting frequencies and examining realizations of cohesive devices. There is a dearth of literature investigating the overall density of cohesion and distance of cohesive ties in L2 students' English essays. While a few studies have examined all the three aspects of cohesion in L2 students' writing, they consist of data taken from L2 learners' writing only. Little, however, is known about the three aspects of cohesion in L2 learners' essays compared to those of L1 learners. The present study tries to fill the need by adopting a comparative study of English essays written by L1-Chinese and L1-English university students. Specifically, this study addresses the following research questions:

- (1) What are the similarities and differences in the use of cohesion in English essays written by L1-Chinese and L1-English university students?
- (2) What are L1-Chinese university students' general patterns in using cohesion in English essays in terms of density of cohesion, distribution of cohesive devices, and distance of ties?

III. METHOD

A. Data Collection

This study explores the cohesive features in L2 learners' academic writing by comparing English essays written by L1-Chinese and L1-English university students. To this end, the data for this study consist of essays written by L1-Chinese and L1-English students in two corpora. The L1-Chinese essays are derived from the essay subset of Ten-thousand English Compositions of Chinese Learners (TECCL) Corpus (Xue, 2015), which contains 9,864 texts written by Chinese EFL learners at different levels in 32 provinces in China. These texts are compositions produced in academic tasks within the English curriculum system, including assignments in and after class, and compositions in

mid-term and end-of-term exams. The L1-English essays come from the British Academic Written English (BAWE) corpus, which consists of 1,953 essays written by L1 speakers of English in UK.

The motivation for comparing essays written by L1-Chinese and L1-English university students is to use the latter as a reference point in order to shed light on similarities and differences in cohesion usage between L1 and L2 students. It is important to acknowledge that academic writing is also a “second language” to native-English-speaking students (Hyland, 2016), and a comparative analysis of essays written by L1 and L2 students, if not used properly, might unintentionally engender a false conception of good writing based on practices of L1-English students (Heng Hartse & Kubota, 2014). Therefore, in the present study, patterns in cohesion usage in essays written by L1-English students are not used as the “norms” or “benchmarks” for L1-Chinese students. Rather, they are used as one point of reference which might lead to a better understanding of L1-Chinese university students’ use of cohesion in their essays and provide possible insights for L2 writing pedagogy (Bychkovska & Lee, 2017; Leedham, 2015).

To make the texts from the two corpora more comparable, three factors were taken into consideration: (1) background information; (2) topics; and (3) length. First, the texts we chose are all written by university students in the humanities and social sciences, particularly education, history, philosophy, politics, and sociology. Second, all the texts are essays produced in academic contexts, belonging to the category of “academic discourse” as defined in Hyland (2009, p.1), and covering similar topics, ranging from obesity, death penalty, college life, and population to air pollution. Third, preference was given to essays between 500 and 1200 words long, and no essay of more than 1300 words was included, in order to allow for a more in-depth analysis. Attention was also given to the wholeness of the texts, each text having a complete structure, with beginning and ending paragraphs, and body paragraphs.

With the help of the background information spreadsheets in the two corpora, the three factors above were utilized for text selection. After the initial screening, 96 texts from the TECCL Corpus and 74 texts from the BAWE corpus were obtained. Then on further inspection of the demographic information of the writers, 63 texts were chosen from these texts in the two corpora respectively to constitute the data for the present study. Therefore, there were altogether 126 texts, 63 of which were by L1-Chinese university students, labeled as CUS (Text 1–63), and 63 by L1-English university students, labeled as EUS (Text 1–63). Table 1 provides information with regard to the total number of words, the average number of words per text, the total number of T-units, and the average number of T-units per text in each corpus.

TABLE 1
GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF DATA

Data	No. of texts	Total words	Average words	Total T-units	Average T-units
CUS	63	50924	808.32	3452	54.79
EUS	63	51674	820.22	2921	46.37

B. Analytical Framework

The analytical framework was largely based on Halliday and Hasan (1976), which outlines a tripartite framework for the analysis of cohesion in text. The framework focuses on three dimensions simultaneously: (1) density of cohesion; (2) distribution of cohesive devices; and (3) distance of cohesive ties. The current study adopts this three-dimensional analytical framework.

Following Castro (2004), and Norment (1994), cohesion density is examined both per T-unit and per 100 words in this study. For distribution of cohesive devices, this study focuses on three types of cohesive devices, namely reference, conjunction, and lexical cohesion, on the grounds that the pilot analysis corroborated that substitution and ellipsis are very rarely used in the formal written language (Christiansen, 2011; Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

Distance of ties is defined in this study as the distance, or “text-span” (Witte & Faigley, 1981), between a cohesive tie and the presupposed element. There are four basic types of distances of ties: immediate, mediated, remote and cataphoric. When the presupposing element in a cohesive tie is immediately adjacent to the presupposed element in the previous T-unit, the distance is defined as immediate. If there are some intervening T-units between the presupposing element and the presupposed element, the distance might be mediated, if these T-units form a chain of presupposition, or remote, if they are not involved in a chain of presupposition. Finally, if a cohesive tie refers to the presupposed element in the following clause, the tie is defined as cataphoric.

In practice, however, types of distance of ties can be very complicated because cohesive ties tend to form “cohesive chains” (Yang, 1989), rather than occur in isolation. Therefore, a further distinction is usually made in mediated ties: immediate-mediated and remote-mediated (González, 2011). The distinction lies in whether a chain of mediated ties occurs in subsequent or non-subsequent T-units: if it occurs in subsequent T-units, it is immediate-mediated; if it occurs in non-subsequent T-units, then it is remote-mediated. In addition, mediated and remote cohesive ties can form a larger chain of cohesive ties, namely mediated-remote (Witte & Faigley, 1981).

C. Procedure

This study adopts the following procedures:

- (1) locating and calculating words and T-units in each text;

(2) identifying cohesive devices in each text, and coding them with the help of an Excel sheet, using conventions largely based on Halliday & Hasan (1976, p.333-338);

(3) identifying the distance of cohesive ties in each text, and coding the information in an Excel sheet;

(4) counting the frequencies of cohesive ties in each text, and calculating the number of cohesive ties per T-unit and per 100 words;

(5) calculating the density of each type of cohesive device in the two types of data;

(6) conducting descriptive analyses and T-tests to see whether there is a significant difference in terms of density of cohesion, distribution of cohesive device, and distance of ties in the two categories of essays.

The coding of the data was conducted manually by the author and another researcher, who is also a teacher of English in the tertiary level. Both the inter-raters attended trainings in the coding of cohesive devices and of distance of cohesive ties. The inter-rater reliability result using Cronbach Alpha is 0.836, which suggests that there is very good agreement among the inter-raters. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software (Version 20) was used to conduct T-tests in Procedure (6). A P value ≤ 0.05 indicates that there is a significant difference between the frequencies of two variants.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Density of Cohesion

To examine the density of cohesion in the two categories of essays, the number of cohesive ties in each text was calculated, and then cohesive density was computed by dividing the number of ties by the number of T-units and by the number of 100 words.

TABLE 2
COHESION DENSITY IN CUS AND EUS ESSAYS

Data	No. of ties	Density	
		per T-unit	per 100 words
CUS	6632	1.92	13.02
EUS	8341	2.86	16.46

As shown in Table 2, the density of cohesion in L1-Chinese essays, in terms of the number of cohesive ties both per T-unit and per 100 words, is lower than that in L1-English essays. The T-test result ($t = -3.231$, $p = 0.002$) shows that there is a significant difference, which indicates that L1-Chinese learners used significantly fewer cohesive ties essays than L1-English learners.

This finding is supported by Liu and Braine (2005), and Zhao (2014). Furthermore, the result indicates that the lower density of cohesion in L1-Chinese students' essays might be attributable to the tendency to use much shorter sentences in English writing compared to L1-English students. As Wang & Slater (2016) pointed out, the mean sentence length and the mean clause length in L1-Chinese students' essays were significantly lower compared to L1-English students' essays and L1-Chinese students also used more clauses, which, in all likelihood, result in a larger quantity of T-units in CUS essays. Given the already salient difference in the total number of cohesive ties in the data, the cohesive density, particularly in terms of the average number of cohesive ties per T-unit in CUS essays, is lower than that in EUS essays.

B. Distribution of Cohesive Devices

1. General distribution

Table 3 compares the distribution of the three major types of cohesive devices in CUS and EUS essays. The general distribution of the three types of cohesive devices is more or less the same in terms of frequency of occurrence. The most frequently used cohesive device in both the data is lexical cohesion, which accounts for 62.39% and 71.50% respectively in CUS and EUS writing, followed by reference (21.49% vs. 17.77%), and conjunction (16.12% vs. 10.73%). This finding corresponds with some previous studies (e.g., Field & Yip, 1992; Liu & Braine, 2005; Zhang, 2000), which have the same order of frequency of occurrence of cohesive devices. It also further corroborates Hoey's (1991, p.10) claim that lexical cohesion is "the dominant mode of creating texture".

TABLE 3
COHESIVE DEVICES IN CUS AND EUS ESSAYS

Type	CUS		EUS	
	N	%	N	%
Reference	1425	21.49	1482	17.77
Conjunction	1069	16.12	895	10.73
Lexical cohesion	4138	62.39	5964	71.50
Total	6632	100	8341	100

T-test result indicates that CUS writing has significantly fewer ties of lexical cohesion than EUS writing ($t = -3.371$, $p = 0.003$). This suggests that L1-English students use prominently more lexical cohesion ties in their essays than L1-Chinese students. The result is similar to some previous studies (e.g., Liu & Braine, 2005; Zhang, 2000; Zhao, 2014). T-tests also show that there is no significant difference in the distribution of reference and conjunction in CUS and EUS

writing.

2. Distribution of reference

Table 4 compares the distribution of reference in CUS and EUS essays. The most frequently used subtype of reference in CUS essays is personal reference (R1), followed by demonstrative reference (R2), and comparative reference (R3). In the use of reference ties, personal reference clearly dominates in CUS essays.

The situation in EUS essays, however, is quite different. The most frequently used subtype of reference is demonstrative reference, followed by personal reference, and then comparative reference. Furthermore, the three subtypes of reference are more evenly distributed in EUS essays than in CUS essays.

The result of T-tests shows that there is a significant difference in the use of demonstrative reference in CUS and EUS essays ($t = -3.125$; $p = 0.001$), which means that L1-English students use more demonstrative reference ties in their writing than L1-Chinese students.

TABLE 4
DISTRIBUTION OF REFERENCE IN CUS AND EUS ESSAYS

Subtype	CUS		EUS	
	N	%	N	%
R1	758	53.19	541	36.50
R2	369	25.90	667	45.00
R3	298	20.91	274	18.49
Total	1425	100	1482	100

In terms of the expressions of the three subtypes of reference, there are two important findings. First, in the expression of personal reference, both L1-Chinese and L1-English university students use more personal pronouns (e.g., *I, me, him*) than possessive determiners (e.g., *their, my*). Among the personal pronouns they employ, the three most frequently used in CUS data are *it, she*, and *they*, while in EUS data they are *it, he*, and *they*.

However, CUS and EUS essays differ from each other in the use of a pronoun which does not express a definite reference in the text. L1-Chinese students tend to be more flexible, employing not only the impersonal pronoun *one*, but also the second person plural pronoun *you* or *your*, which may have the danger of resulting in “the frequent shifting of pronominals” (Zhang, 2000). In contrast, L1-English students seem to be more conservative, usually sticking to the use of the first-person plural *we*, as illustrated in Examples (1) and (2).

(1) It is really common that there is someone plays an important role in a particular stage of your life and he or she may change **your** views of live and dig **your** potential fully. (CUS-1)

(2) Collectively, the upbeat rhythm combined with the repetition of “Forget not yet” seems to make the poem one of contrast, where **we** see a paradoxical irony between continuation and departure. (EUS-11)

Second, demonstrative reference in EUS essays is dominated by the demonstrative *this*, while CUS essays tend to employ more diverse expressions. L1-English students seem to be more proficient in the use of *this* to achieve cohesion in their writing. The demonstrative *this* is not only used as a nominal head, but, more importantly, it is often used in combination with general words or “shell nouns” (Aktas & Cortes, 2008) to create an “old-to-new flow of information” (Swales & Feak, 2012, p.43). In contrast, though also occupying the lion’s share in the use of demonstrative reference ties, *this* in CUS essays is mostly used as a nominal head or as a deictic followed by the repetition of a lexical item or synonym. For example:

(3) Actually, **this** is a quarrel that have not been burst out, though I felt guilty for being impolite. (CUS-1)

(4) His early experiments involved coating of wounds with carbolic acid (phenol, a coal tar derivative), which would form

antiseptic crusts of coagulated blood on wounds. The beginning at **this** procedure were unsuccessful. (EUS-1)

3. Distribution of conjunction

Table 5 presents the distribution of conjunction in CUS and EUS essays. The first four subtypes of conjunction (additive, adversative, causal, and temporal) are more evenly distributed in CUS essays. In EUS essays, however, the use of conjunction ties is dominated by additive conjunction, which accounts for 48.94% in the total frequencies of conjunction ties used. The last subtype of conjunction, continuative, is hardly ever used in either of the two data.

T-tests show that except for temporal conjunction ($t = 1.944$, $p = 0.041$) there is no significant difference in the distribution of additive, adversative, causal, and continuative conjunction across CUS and EUS essays. This suggests that L1-Chinese university students use more temporal conjunction in their essays than L1-English students and that they do not differ much in the use of the other four subtypes of conjunction. This finding is corroborated by Zhang (2000), who found that overuse of temporals is one of the features of Chinese students’ use of cohesion in writing.

TABLE 5
CONJUNCTION IN CUS AND EUS ESSAYS

Subtype	CUS		EUS	
	N	%	N	%
C1	386	36.11	428	47.82
C2	216	20.21	234	26.15
C3	188	17.59	119	13.30
C4	241	22.54	101	11.28
C5	38	3.55	13	1.45
Total	1069	100	895	100

Another interesting finding here is the initial positioning of conjunction in CUS essays. As observed by Ong (2011) and Zhang (2000), L1-Chinese students tend to put conjunctions such as *and*, *but*, *then*, and *so* at the beginning of a sentence. The four conjunctions in the initial position of sentences account for 45.37% of the total instances of these conjunctions used in CUS essays, while the percentage in EUS essays is only 17.02%. This may be due to the fact that these conjunctions are the most obvious expressions of conjunction and also the ones that were learnt by Chinese EFL learners at the early stage of their English learning. Therefore, when it comes to the use of conjunction in their writing, L1-Chinese students may instinctively turn to these conjunctions and put them in the initial position of a sentence in order to emphasize their role of connecting sentences.

With regard to expressions of conjunction, however, there are more dissimilarities than similarities. L1-Chinese students' use of additive conjunction was dominated by *and* while L1-English students tend to put equal emphasis on the usual expressions like *and* and *also*. Specifically, in CUS essays, more than half of the additive conjunction are expressed by *and*; the other half are in the form of *again*, *additionally*, *besides*, *furthermore*, *in addition*, and *what's more*. In contrast, EUS essays mostly rely on *and* and *also* to express additive conjunction; together they account for 86.21% of the total frequencies of additive conjunction used.

Additionally, L1-Chinese learners seem to have difficulty in recognizing the difference between formal academic language and colloquial informal language in that they use many "informal items" (Leedham, 2015), such as *besides*, *what's worse*, and *what's more*, as shown in Example (5). Furthermore, as in (6), a large proportion of their use of *and* serve as an "empty filler", marking a link to previous discourse (Christiansen, 2011, p.163), but they are usually used without the cohesive purpose of either adding new information or exemplifying an idea (Ong, 2011).

(5) Her college charges her for 20 thousand Yuan a year for study, and a flight ticket to London cost her 8 thousand Yuan. **What's more**, she has to pay rent for her dormitory in London, which is super high in such a big city. (CUS-11)

(6) In China, most families have 4 grandparents, 2 parents and only one child. **And** this couple is responsible for their parents and the child. (CUS-10)

In expressing adversative conjunction, both CUS and EUS essays rely heavily on the use of *but* and *however*, but each group has its own preferences for other expressions. L1-Chinese students frequently use the adverbial *actually*, especially in the initial position of sentences, which may be another indication that they have difficulty in recognizing the features of academic language while they are writing. In contrast, in addition to *but* and *however*, L1-English students prefer the use of such expressions as *in effect*, *in fact*, and *yet*.

In terms of the expressions of causal conjunction, CUS and EUS essays generally resort to conjunctions that express a basic cause-effect relationship, such as *so*, *thus*, and *therefore*. As stated above, L1-Chinese students tend to put *so* at the beginning of a sentence in order to introduce the consequence of the preceding clause, as in Example (7).

(7) Before being under stress, we should realize that stress is a monster that does harm to ourselves, our friends and family, even our society. **So** it's of significance for us to learn more about the abominable effects of stress. (CUS-15)

In expressions of temporal conjunction, one distinctive feature is that L1-Chinese students rely heavily on the use of the sequential and conclusive conjunctions such as *firstly*, *secondly*, *finally*, *in conclusion* and *in a nutshell*. These two specific types of temporal conjunctions account for 75.16% of the total instances. This may be due to the fact that they wish to demonstrate a clear and explicit connection between the arguments in their writing, as in Example (8). L1-English students, however, mainly resort to other resources, like lexical repetition, reference and additive conjunction to string their arguments, as in Example (9).

(8) **In conclusion**, I do agree with the argument that the advantages of studying abroad far outweigh its disadvantages. (CUS-45)

(9) I will also look at task processes as a group. **In addition**, I will mention some questions rising at each stage. (EUS-10)

As for continuative conjunction, since it is more commonly found in spoken text (Christiansen, 2011; Halliday & Hasan, 1976), a very limited number of instances are found in both the data. In addition to the most common continuative conjunctions such as *well*, *now*, and *of course*, L1-Chinese students also use quite a few adverbs, such as *honestly*, *surely*, and *seriously*, to serve as continuative in their writing, as evidenced in Example (10).

(10) **Seriously**, maybe it's too painful for you to endure melancholia and you may commit suicide. (CUS-55)

Here *seriously* may be the shortened form of *seriously speaking*, which in a way indicates that L1-Chinese students are conscious of using cohesive devices to make their writing cohesive and coherent, but due to their limited resources they sometimes try to create expressions of their own to serve as cohesive devices.

4. Distribution of lexical cohesion

As shown in Table 6, in the distribution of lexical cohesion, the order of frequency of occurrence of the five subtypes is the same for CUS and EUS writing. Both the data are dominated by repetition of the same words (L1), which accounts for 52.39% and 58.95% respectively, followed by collocation (L5), and then by synonyms or near synonyms (L2). General nouns (L4) and superordinates (L3) are used rarely.

Through T-tests, significant differences were found between CUS and EUS essays with regard to both repetition of the same words ($t = -3.315, p = 0.002$) and lexical collocation ($t = -2.382, p = 0.031$). This indicates that L1-English students ($M = 55.81, SD = 10.84$) use significantly more repetition of the same words in their essays than L1-Chinese students ($M = 34.41, SD = 7.38$), and that L1-English university students also use more collocations ($M = 25.30, SD = 6.35$ vs. $M = 17.40, SD = 6.31$).

TABLE 6
LEXICAL COHESION IN CUS AND EUS ESSAYS

Subtype	CUS		EUS	
	N	%	N	%
L1	2168	52.39	3516	58.95
L2	697	16.84	538	9.02
L3	73	1.76	115	1.93
L4	104	2.51	201	3.37
L5	1096	26.49	1594	26.73
Total	4138	100	5964	100

A similar result was found by Leo (2012), which identified lexical collocations as a sign of native-like fluency in the use of cohesive devices. However, unlike his study, the present study demonstrates that synonym or near synonym cannot be taken as an indicator of native-like competency of cohesion. As exemplified in (11), in academic writing, L1-English students tend to employ more repetition of the same lexical items in order to remain precise when they are referring to something in the preceding discourse, and when repetition of the same lexical items is not appropriate, they usually resort to collocation and synonyms or near synonyms.

(11) Scientists are constantly saying that levels of obesity are increasing. What is the reason for this increase? Obesity is increasing because the amount of energy individuals consume, from the food they eat, is higher than the amount they use up in the daily activities they perform. Body weight is maintained by a simple energy balance between the amount of energy consumed and the amount of energy expended. The national food survey has identified that over the last 25 years the amount of food we consume has decreased. This implies that the levels of obesity are increasing because the amount of physical activity performed is declining. There is also inconclusive evidence to suggest that a high fat, low carbohydrate diet favors the development of obesity. (EUS-04)

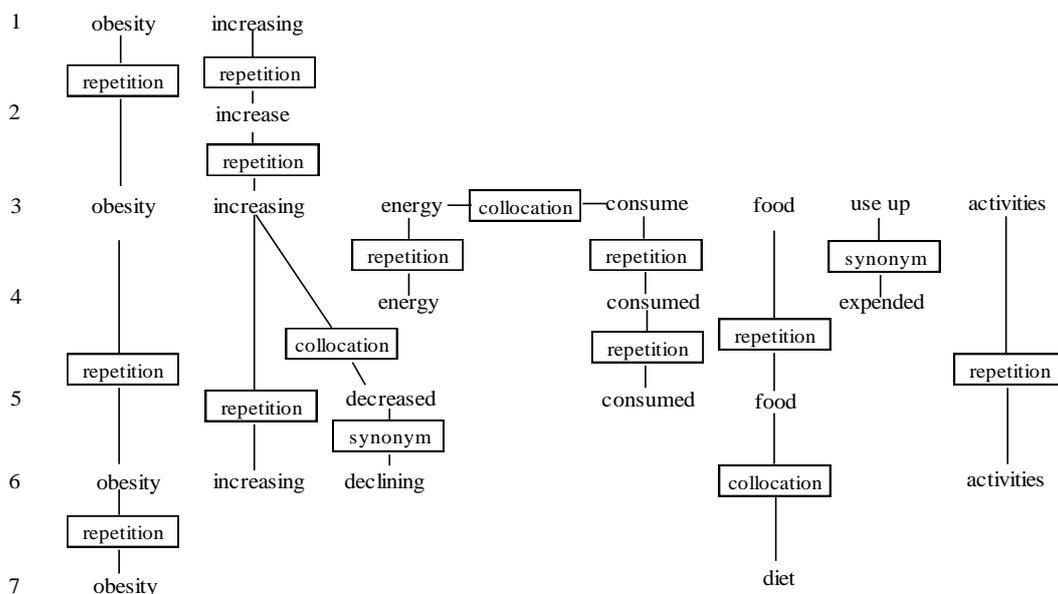


Figure 1 Lexical strings in Example (11)

Figure 1 presents the lexical strings in Example (11). In the seven T-units, the writer mostly employs repetition of the same lexical items to achieve cohesion: there are altogether eleven instances of repetition, three of collocation, and two of synonym. Therefore, simple repetition is the most important lexical cohesion employed by native speakers, followed by collocation and synonym or near synonym.

Lastly, no significant difference was found in the distribution of superordinates and general nouns between CUS and

EUS essays. Both subtypes were found to exist in very limited numbers in academic writing. In terms of the expressions of general nouns, L1-Chinese and L1-English students rely mainly on general nouns on human (e.g., *people*), place (e.g., *place*), things (e.g., *thing*), abstract entity (e.g., *change*, *difference*), and fact (e.g., *fact*, *idea*).

C. Distance of Ties

Table 7 displays in rank order the percentages of different types of distance of ties in the two data. As shown in the table, both CUS and EUS essays are dominated by immediate ties, which account for 53.38% and 51.60% respectively. These are followed by remote ties and the two subtypes of mediated ties, namely immediate-mediated and remote-mediated. Considerably less frequent are mediated-remote and cataphoric ties, which are hardly ever used in academic writing. This finding is largely consistent with Zhang's (2000) research, which identified the same order of frequency of occurrence with respect to the use of distance of ties by Chinese EFL learners in their expository writing.

TABLE 7
DISTANCE OF TIES IN CUS AND EUS ESSAYS

Subtype	CUS		EUS	
	N	%	N	%
Immediate	3502	53.38	4201	51.60
Remote	1801	27.45	2573	31.60
Immediate-mediated	611	9.31	649	7.97
Remote-mediated	335	5.11	378	4.64
Mediated-remote	293	4.47	313	3.84
Cataphoric	19	0.29	28	0.34
Total	6561	100	8142	100

T-tests further determined whether there was a significant difference in the distribution of distance of ties across the data. L1-English students ($M = 66.68$, $SD = 8.92$) use more immediate ties in academic writing than L1-Chinese students ($M = 55.58$, $SD = 8.73$) and this difference is statistically significant: $t = -2.471$, $p = 0.024$. In addition, there is also a significant difference in the use of remote ties between the two groups ($t = -3.023$, $p = 0.004$). L1-English students ($M = 40.84$, $SD = 9.13$) employ far more remote ties in their writing than L1-Chinese students ($M = 28.59$, $SD = 6.02$).

Another feature of the distance of ties is the average length of the intervening T-units. This feature applies to four types of distance of ties: remote, immediate-mediated, remote-mediated, and mediated-remote. The length of the intervening T-units in different types of distance of ties performs different functions in the text. In remote ties the length of intervening material usually reveals how sparsely certain themes are mentioned from time to time in the text. The greater the length, the more sparsely themes are brought up, and the more difficult it may be for readers to follow the connection between the themes. The average length of intervening material in remote ties in CUS essays is greater than that in EUS academic writing (5.74 vs. 4.28), which further confirms that L1-Chinese students use fewer remote ties in their writing, and at the same time indicates that remote ties in CUS essays are usually employed to refer to something far back in the preceding sentences.

With respect to immediate-mediated ties, however, the situation is different. The larger number of average length intervening T-units suggests that certain themes are more fully discussed in the text and that there are more T-units working together to contribute to the development of a theme. The average number of intervening T-units in immediate-mediated ties in EUS essays is larger than that in CUS essays (1.98 vs. 1.54), which may be an indication that L1-English students are more skilled in developing themes in their writing.

Similarly, remote-mediated ties are basically chains of remote ties referring to the same entity; they serve to string key themes within the text (Witte & Faigley, 1981). Like remote ties, the greater length of the intervening T-units in remote-mediated ties in CUS essays (13.21 vs. 11.18) may indicate that key themes are more sparsely scattered in CUS academic writing than in EUS writing. Last, mediated-remote ties are also employed to develop key themes in a text, and usually exist in small numbers. The larger average length of the intervening material in mediated-remote ties in EUS essays (8.67 vs. 6.26) suggests that key themes are more thoroughly developed in EUS academic writing than in CUS academic writing.

V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

This study has examined the use of cohesion in academic writing of L2 students by comparing the cohesive features in academic writing of L1-Chinese and L1-English university students. It is found that despite some similarities L1-Chinese learners displayed some unique features in their use of cohesion in terms of cohesion density, the distribution of cohesive devices, and distance of cohesive ties. Specifically, the cohesion density in L1-Chinese learners' academic writing is significantly lower than that in L1-English students' writing. L1-Chinese students' academic writing is also characterized by underuse of lexical cohesion and demonstrative reference, initial positioning of conjunctions, and heavy use of temporal conjunction. Furthermore, L1-Chinese learners used proportionally fewer immediate and remote ties of cohesion, with greater distance between ties.

These findings may have important pedagogical implications for L2 writing. This study indicates that some cohesive features in CUS essays, particularly the frequent shifting of pronouns in personal reference, informal expressions of additive and adversative conjunction, and the initial positioning of conjunctions, are largely due to L1-Chinese students' lack of knowledge of the features of formal academic writing. Therefore, it is important that when giving instructions in academic writing classes, teachers should provide students with explicit knowledge of the differences between informal colloquial language and formal academic language in English, and L2 students should have the opportunity to learn the features and styles of academic language. In addition, CUS essays are found to be marked by underuse of lexical cohesion, overuse of certain explicit cohesive devices, and inappropriate length of intervening material in ties. This suggests that L1-Chinese students might lack the knowledge and awareness of how to use cohesion in their writing appropriately (Yang & Sun, 2012; Wang & Sui, 2006). It is more constructive for teachers to teach students the features of different types of cohesive devices and provide models for analysis in L2 writing classes (Liu & Braine, 2005; Zhang, 2000). In this way L2 students might become more competent in using cohesion in their English essays.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was supported by China Scholarship Council [grant number 201606465043] and Beijing Social Science Foundation [grant number 19YYB004]. The author had the good fortune to receive help and guidance from Professor Mary Schleppegrell of the University of Michigan during the process of writing this article. Thanks also go to Dr Mark Buck at University of Science and Technology Beijing for proofreading the manuscript and providing valuable suggestions.

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Zhongqing He is an associate professor of English at University of Science and Technology Beijing (USTB), China. He obtained his PhD at Beijing Normal University and was a visiting scholar at the University of Michigan (2016-2017). His current research focuses on systemic functional linguistics (SFL) and SFL-informed EAP studies.

William Wyler's 1939 Adaptation of *Wuthering Heights*: An Attempt to Restore the Idea of America Dream

Muhammad Hussein Oroskhan

Department of English Literature, Faculty of Foreign Languages, Shiraz University, Shiraz, Fars, Iran

Abstract—The competition between word and image to take a priority over each other as the better medium reached a turning point by the advent of cinema in twentieth century. The resonance of competition soon faded away when critics began to study not the extent to which one film adaptation is imitating the literary work but the discursive field behind each cinematic adaptation. In this respect, the great status of each literary adaptation is readily justified. Under this purview, the mainstay of literary adaptations is controlled within a certain discursive practice. As such, the principle that pervades Hollywood literary production is tinged with the idea of American dream as the predominant discursive formation running through the whole system. Nevertheless, at the critical moment of Great depression, the necessity of encapsulating the idea of American dream was stressed more than ever since America needed to rebuild the shattered idea on which the country has been built itself. Therefore, the contribution of this paper lies in studying William Wyler's 1939 Adaptation of *Wuthering Heights* with respect to Michel Foucault's theory of discourse to prove that this literary adaptation is produced with the purpose of advertising the idea of American dream shattered during the Great depression.

Index Terms—American dream, discursive formation, *Wuthering Heights*

I. INTRODUCTION

Novels anchor an overall trajectory throughout nineteenth century, providing a succession of lenses for the people to see the life in various perspectives. Proclaiming the major force of nineteenth century, novelists were making earnest endeavor to beat their long-standing rivals/painters, no wonder that Charles Dickens emphasized that "he had 'painted' *Oliver Twist*" (34) or Thomas Hardy provided the subtitle of "A Rural Painting in the Dutch School" for his novel *Under the Greenwood Tree* (Elliot, 2004, p. 8). Their competition labeled by Kamilla Elliott as "Word/Image Wars" has been an ongoing competition ever since except that in twentieth century it took a new form of rivalry by the advent of cinema, a new way of pictorial presentation. As novelists, who were writing in a then-new medium in literature in eighteenth and nineteenth, tried to emulate the long-standing medium of arts like painting by recounting its visual beauty in words, cinema at the beginning of its tradition tallied with the same perspective, trying to put literary works on the screen. This can explain why "according to 1992 statistics, 85 percent of all Oscar-winning Best Pictures are adaptations" (Hutcheon, 2014, p. 4).

With regard to the recent conflict between cinema and literature, Linda Hutcheon in his monumental work entitled *A Theory of Adaptation* has marked all the hostile words like "'betrayal,' 'deformation,' 'perversion,' 'infidelity,' and 'desecration'" which are used to attack cinematic adaptation of literary works as unfair remarks since in this process "there is inevitably a certain amount of re-accentuation and refocusing of themes, characters, and plot" (p. 40) which consequently makes a literary adaptation not a mere imitation of a literary work but a new work in its own status. Moreover, for Hutcheon, the decisive factor fostering this development is the context through which the adaptation is taking place; "context can modify meaning, no matter where or when" (p. 147). The important role of context can be further extended to have an "intertextual engagement with the adapted work" (p. 9). As such, the film adaptation is never necessarily a mere copy of the original text but a reworking with respect to the new context. In a similar perspective, Francesco Casetti (2004) believes in the reappearance of the original text in "another discursive field, of an element (a plot, a theme, a character, etc) that has previously appeared elsewhere" (p. 83). He asserts that an adapted work should develop "a new communicative situation" (p. 83), through which a new work is prepared for the targeted audience. In fact, his view is merely in line with Michel Foucault's definition of discourse as a "system which structures the way that we perceive reality" (1972, p. 55). With the same perspective, we try to address the film adaptation of *Wuthering Heights* produced in 1939 by William Wyler with the same methodological approach, proving that the this special film production is actually the representation of American dream after the harsh time of the Great Depression so as to change the world's view toward American, a view that has been shattered by the difficult time of Great Depression.

II. AMERICAN DREAM AS THE DISCURSIVE FORMATION OF AMERICAN SOCIETY

The United States was never founded by a single group of people or even by a group of people attributed with one feature at least. Many people from different social, political and racial background came to this land for the purpose of better life. The country was not a coherent society by its commencement date and it was more like "a colonial America as a 'fragment' society" (Jillson, 2016, p. 2). Clearly, it always revolved around the exigencies of shaping a common platform to decrease all these ethnic, cultural, linguistic and political background and unify all the people for a common purpose. Interestingly, the platform could not be attached to anything specific and should be all fluid flowing with different people. As such, this country began its journey with an idea; "from the times of Columbus, Cortez, and John Smith, America has been an idea, or many ideas" (p. 150). This idea that can be easily noticed in everybody's words from Barak Obama to Bill Clinton (p. 1) or even a poor immigrant coming to the United States is called "American Dream", a highly distinctive phrase heard anywhere; one is talking of America.

The root of this now-prevalent idea lies in 1780 when Benjamin Franklin began to put into words his style of living for the guidance of other people. From that moment on, "the pages of Poor Richard's Almanac, had been defining the core of the dream for decades: prepare, work, save, invest, catch a break, and success will be yours" (Olney, 1980, p. 50). Benjamin's writing was a real comfort for the immigrant coming to America as it clearly encompassed the notion that "though many arrive in America as poor 'servants or Journeymen, . . . if they are sober, industrious, and frugal, they soon become Masters, establish themselves in Business, marry, raise families, and become respectable Citizens" (Jillson, 2016, p. 4). Indeed, the American dream became the decisive factor to distinguish America from any other country around the world as Scott Fitzgerald mentioned that "America is not a land or a people: France was a land, England was a people, but America, having about it still that quality of the idea" (1956, p. 97). The other point about the American dream is that it is so embedded in American's lives that it includes "images both of the nation within the world and of the individual within the nation" (Jillson, 2016, p. 17). To better understand the key role of American dream in the expression of America to the world and the individual living in America, it is vital to refer to Michel Foucault's theory of discourse.

Michel Foucault (1926–1984) is still one of the important figures in critical theories specifically with regard to the concept of "power, knowledge and discourse" (Balls et al., 2010, p. 1). He extended the notion of discourse in his *The Archaeology of Knowledge* (1972). He simply defines the concept of discourse as "a group of statements in so far as they belong to the same discursive formation" (Foucault, p. 117). With regard to this simple definition, one should further try to grasp two critical terms of statement and discursive formation embedded here to get a hold of the concept of the discourse. Foucault's statement "defines the conditions of its specific existence" (p. 31), which is an offshoot of discursive formation. In fact, his critical term is discursive formation since in his view "there is no non-discursive realm" (p. 55). With respect to discursive realm, he further contends that discursive practices are "the delimitation of a field of objects, the definition of a legitimate perspective for the agent of knowledge and the fixing of norms for the elaboration of concepts and theories" (p. 57). Affirming Foucault's definition of these two critical terms, it seems that the process leading to the "formation of the occurrence of statements in a particular time at a particular place" (p. 140) is of prime importance. Clearly, Foucault's purpose is not to solely determine the existence of each discourse but more to clarify the "rules for discursive practices that run through individual oeuvres, sometimes govern them entirely, and dominates them to such an extent that nothing eludes them" (ibid.).

Foucault's view marks a watershed in the establishment of a relation between the society and the individual by disclosing the role of each prevalent discourse manipulating the constitution of reality and thoughts within different individuals in each society, in other word, anything produced in the society is "controlled, selected, organized and redistributed by a certain number of procedures whose role is to ward off its powers and dangers, to gain mastery over its chance events, to evade its ponderous, formidable materiality" (p. 52). In this respect, the production of reality is synonymous with the discourse resulted from the specific discursive formation in that society. This being the case, American dream as a predominant discourse has dominated and pervaded the American life and surely the debate over the definition and the role of American dream was never limited to a specific time; it was persistently controlling the American life from its beginning in 1780s. Throughout all these years, American dream has cast its net much more widely, encompassing all the social reality, nevertheless, at a specific juncture in America's history, a crying need for the ideals of American dream to reconstruct the lost social reality for American people was felt more than ever and it was during the Great Depression spanning through the America from 1929 to 1939. Lionel Trilling (1930) remarks that "Americans were losing a sense of self and being reduced to something less than full and complete human beings" (Hauhart, 2016, p. 72). In this regard, "the American Dream, conceived as a spur to achievement, produced instead a tendency during the Depression for men to seek cover from the economic downturn" (ibid). Though American dream has always been there as an idea or the source of discursive formation spreading its statements for the construction of reality in American, during the Great Depression, any institution was recruited to encapsulate the very essence of American dream. Of all the institution, Hollywood, the American biggest film industry, most earnestly took on this mantle of recovering Americans' self-confidence through American dream by its promotion on the screen.

III. THE ROLE OF AMERICAN DREAM AS THE DISCURSIVE FORMATION IN 1939 ADAPTATION OF *WUTHERING HEIGHTS*

Among the classic Hollywood production of British literature, the film production that most minutely follows this path of constructing the American Dreams anew is 1939 production of *Wuthering Heights*. Ever since eight specific

adaptations have been produced in 1939, 1970, 1978, 1992, 1998, 2003, 2009 and 2011 if not considering the 1920 silent film production of *Wuthering Heights* which has been damaged and is not available anymore. The significance of choosing 1939 production is its importance in fixing the image of novel in everybody's mind to the extent that "it has greatly influenced later film adaptation of *Wuthering Heights*, many of which draw primarily from Wyler's adaptations of the novel more than from the novel itself" (Shachar, 2009, p. 29). The corpus of academic works developing the reason behind the 1939 filmic production has mainly relate film adaptation to attract "a mass audience rather than an elite one with the result being the reworking of the narrative as an appealing love story that is conveyed through beautiful imagery" (Ingham, 2006, p. 228) or as Hila Sachar extending Ingham's argument claims that "the entire film seems to be consumed by an almost overt consciousness of visual display and spectacle" (2009, p. 57). Nevertheless, none of these works have observed the importance of the predominant American discourse in shaping the film production at a time when America is eventually releasing itself from the Great Depression.

The significant difference between the film production and the novel lies in the moment that Heathcliff is back to *Wuthering Heights* after three years while Lockwood and Nelly are discussing the source of this change by guessing and providing different possible sources as the main reason on this drastic change. In this respect, Nelly replies Lockwood back in this way:

Lockwood: Did he finish his education on the Continent, and come back a gentleman? or did he get a sizar's place at college, or escape to America, and earn honours by drawing blood from his foster-country? or make a fortune more promptly on the English highways?"

Nelly: He may have done a little in all these vocations, Mr. Lockwood; but I couldn't give my word for any. I stated before that I didn't know how he gained his money; neither am I aware of the means he took to raise his mind from the savage ignorance into which it was sunk. (Bronte, 2003, 116)

Nevertheless, this ambiguity is never followed in the film production and is totally avoided by making America as the source of civilizing Heathcliff and making him an honorable person when Edgar is talking to Catherine;

Catherine: Where has he been?

Nelly: America, he said. He's so changed, I hardly recognized him.

Catherine: For the better, I hope.

Nelly: Oh, yes. He's quite the gentlemen. Fine clothes, a horse.

Catherine: Go tell him I don't wish to see him.

Edgar: Oh, nonsense, Cathy. We can't be as cruel as that. He's come a long way, and he's a fine gentleman, so Ellen says. Let's see how America's managed to make a silk purse out of Master Heathcliff. (00:50:00)

The pivotal dialogue between Edgar and Catherine can clearly show the drastic change in the film production for a particular purpose. The discursive formation of the time and place more than ever needs to paint an attractive picture of America that has been the land of dreams for many people for centuries but now suffering greatly from the Great Depression. As such, what possible choice better than working on a classical British novel whose source of ambiguity can be of great help for restoring the great picture of America and helps it to be back on stage. In this regard, as the discursive realm of this film adaptation has been determined, all the statements occur within this realm which means that the details of the film follow not the novel but the predominant discursive formation. With this critical notion, Heathcliff as the person who has gone and come back from America is the carrier of the notion of a man promoting the idea of American dream. On the other hand, this man should be worthy of this carriage, therefore, all the detail of the novel portraying Heathcliff as a negative person are changed in a way to picture a person good enough to follow the path of American dream.

At the beginning of the film, presentation of Heathcliff is so much different with the original presentation of Heathcliff in the novel. Heathcliff is presented in the novel as a person who "forms a singular contrast to his abode and style of living. He is a dark skinned gipsy in aspect, in dress and manners a gentleman" (Bronte, 2003, p. 6) whereas the filmic presentation tries to vividly depicts Heathcliff as a white-skinned man when Laurence Olivier is selected to play the role of Heathcliff, a white and handsome man who is already famous for his part on great classical literary adaptations. More obvious, here is the way black people are treated by this idea. Indeed, "the treatment of blacks has been the most glaring deviation from the American Creed" (Jillson, 2016, p. 7). Though this is surely a negative aspect of American dream, its portrayal shows the exact following of this literary adaptation from the discursive formation of the time of America which deemed black people as unsuited to follow the American dream.

Moreover, the construction of Heathcliff character from childhood to adulthood is also changed to match this situation. The first one is the moment when Heathcliff is brought home by Mr. Earnshaw. In the novel, the boy is not only warmly welcomed by Cathy and Hindly but also is seemingly considered as an evil source causing the destruction of their souvenirs from Liverpool since both Hindly's fiddle and Cathy's whip have been ruined because of Mr. Earnshaw's less care of these things and more care of Heathcliff. As a result, Heathcliff is confronted by Catherine's harsh words;

The former was a boy of fourteen, but when he drew out what had been a fiddle, crushed to morsels in the great-coat, he blubbered aloud; and Cathy, when she learned the master had lost her whip in attending on the stranger, showed her humor by grinning and spitting at the stupid little thing. (Bronte, 2003, p. 46)

On the other hand, the film adaptation shows Mr. Earnshaw delivers the souvenirs in good condition to the children and when Cathy reacts badly toward Heathcliff, she is berated by Mr. Earnshaw:

Mr. Earnshaw: Oh, children. This is a little gentleman I met in Liverpool who will pay us a visit. Catherine: He... He's dirty. Mr. Earnshaw: Oh, no. Don't make me ashamed of you, Cathy. (00:12:40)

This small change in the film adaptation justifies the audience to solely sympathize with Heathcliff and considers him to be not worthy of this unfair treatment. Another more important part is the moment when Heathcliff is arguing with Hindley over a colt. In the novel, Heathcliff due to being so much close to Mr. Earnshaw has been able to take the better colt, however, his colt has become sick and now he is applying his leverage of Mr. Earnshaw's favor to force Hindley to give him his colt and finally he is able to obtain the possession of the colt:

He (Heathcliff) said to Hindley- You must exchange horses with me: I don't like mine; and if you won't I shall tell your father of the three thrashings you've given me this week, and show him my arm, which is black to the shoulder!... 'Take my colt, Gipsy, then!' said young Earnshaw. (Bronte, 2003, p. 49)

Yet, this part of the novel is radically reversed in favor of Heathcliff when Hindley is portrayed as the one forcing Heathcliff to give him his colt:

Heathcliff: What do you want?

Hindley: This horse.

Heathcliff: You can't have him. He's mine!

Hindley: Mine's lame. I'm riding yours. Give him to me or I'll tell Father you boasted you'd turn me out when he died!

Heathcliff: That's a lie! I never said such a thing.

Hindley: He didn't! You never had a father! You gypsy beggar! (00:14:10)

These small changes may never seem to be so much influential at the surface, still they should be considered as some statements within the discursive formation of American dream, their significance can be easily revealed to the audience as it is important that those trying to follow the steps of American dream should be virtuous in character; "everyone who steadfastly practices certain practical virtues will find a place at the table. . . . These virtues— self-control, discipline, effort, perseverance, and responsibility—stand at the core of our. . . idea of good character" (Schwarz, 1997, p. 6). Based upon this reason Heathcliff is never portrayed as an immoral and ruthless person. Even in a metaphorical scene, Heathcliff as a child seems to be born again when he defeats the black knight:

Catherine: Here, take your lance and charge! See that black knight at the drawbridge?

Challenge him! Charge!

Heathcliff: I challenge you to mortal combat, Black Knight!

Catherine: Heathcliff! You've killed him! You've killed the black knight! (00:17:00)

This moment is really revealing since from now on, the audience would see a totally different Heathcliff until his adulthood, even when he marries Isabella, he is still described as a caring husband and Hindley is introduced as the cause of troubled and uneasy relationship between Heathcliff and Isabella:

Isabella: Why do we have him here? I can't breathe with him in the house.

Heathcliff: Existence would be so much less without my boyhood friend under my roof. Don't you see?

Isabella: You poison yourself with hating him. Darling, please send him away and let love come into the house. (01:27:00)

This source never exists in the novel as Hindley has died previously and Heathcliff for the sake of seeking revenge from the Earnshaw's is badly treating Isabella. This harsh and unfair treatment is revealed through Isabella's corresponding with Nelly; "Ellen, with your old master's habits. He is clearly on the verge of madness: he was so last night at least. I shuddered to be near him, and thought on the servant's ill-bred moroseness as comparatively agreeable" (Bronte, 2003, p. 188). The other main difference between the novel and the film adaptation is through the portrayal of the character of Catherine which is in exact following of the discursive formation of American dream and in almost the opposite respect of the novel. Through the novel Catherine is depicted to be whimsy, each time trying to get his chance with anybody she likes without any regard for her commitment to someone else. At first, Catherine is in love with Heathcliff but suddenly changes her perspective due to her acquaintance with Edgar and begins to love him:

Nelly: Why do you love him, Miss Cathy?

Catherine: Nonsense, I do that's sufficient.

Nelly: By no means; you must say why?

Catherine: Well, because he is handsome, and pleasant to be with.

Nelly: Bad! was my commentary.

Catherine: And because he is young and cheerful.

Nelly: Bad, still.

Catherine: And because he loves me.

Nelly: Indifferent, coming there.

Catherine: And he will be rich, and I shall like to be the greatest woman of the neighbourhood, and I shall be proud of having such a husband. (Bronte, 2003, p. 99)

But when Catherine is married to Mr. Linton and Heathcliff is back in a totally changed appearance and behavior, Catherine is highly tended toward him, neglecting her commitment to her husband so much as her husband is forced to ask Catherine to choose between him and Heathcliff:

"To get rid of me, answer my question,' persevered Mr. Linton. 'You must answer it; and that violence does not alarm me. I have found that you can be as stoical as anyone, when you please. Will you give up Heathcliff hereafter, or will you give up me?" (p. 151)

But through the film adaptation, Catherine is a very submissive girl, each time she is with any of them, Edgar or Heathcliff; she is only obeying them regardless of her love toward the other one, just abiding by her role as a wife. In the beginning when she is with Heathcliff, she even denigrates herself to the status of slave for Heathcliff; "Catherine: but I'm still your slave/Heathcliff: No, Cathy. I now make you my queen. Whatever happens out there, here you will always be my queen" (00:17:00). This status is totally changed when Heathcliff is absent and Catherine marries Edgar. In a scene that Heathcliff visits Catherine and Edgar, he is confronted by a blunt reaction from Catherine when she says:

Edgar and I have many neighbors whom we receive with hospitality and friendship. If you are to be one of them, you're welcome to visit our house... but not with a scowl on your face or an old bitterness in your heart. (01:01:09)

When America was founded on the idea of American dream, unfortunately only certain types of people were suited enough to follow the path of American dream and to finally achieve prosperity and make an ideal country, in other word, "virtually all women, and many poor and dependent white men were outside the 'imagined community' of American citizens at the founding" (Jillson, 2016, p. 60). Though through the twentieth century, there have been many attempts by women to struggle for their rights but still at the time of this production, they haven't been fully able to separate themselves from their roots which defined their status as "wives to love, honor, and obey their husbands" (p. 7). In the same line, this filmic production is following this status of women and situating Catherine as a wife solely at the service of his husband who is the fitted one to pursue the path of American dream effectively. Besides, the literary adaptation never covers the whole novel since in the second part of the novel Heathcliff is depicted as carrying the features of a maniac treating children brutally, nevertheless, Heathcliff is supposed to be a virtuous person, as such this part has been justifiably omitted from being shown on the screen.

IV. CONCLUSION

During the timeline of history, certain things always repeat itself. Once novelists were trying to imitate painters in their writing and once in the twentieth century cinema took the turn of adapting the novels. Beside the conflict, nowadays a literary adaptation is mostly considered as an autonomous work since it is being produced within a new context. The reappearance of the work within a new context is mainly caused by a predominant discourse which is itself an offshoot of discursive formation. As such, America as a society embarked on the idea of American dream can be minutely studied with regard to this view. American's institutions have always been active promoting and shaping the reality of the society out of this American dream. Undoubtedly, the role of Hollywood in shaping such reality is undeniable especially when it is more needed than ever. Hollywood tried to work as a savior salvaging the American dream out of the Great depression through its filmic production. 1939 production of *Wuthering Heights* is deemed to be an exact instance portraying its main character, Heathcliff, as the kind of man best suited to follow the American dream to achieve prosperity. Through the predominant discourse of American dream, all the details of the novel are changed in accordance with the principles of the American dream and finally the image of a great land on which each person can through handworks and virtuous character achieve whatever he desires is once again restored.

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Muhammad Hussein Oroskhan is currently a PhD candidate at Shiraz University. He has already published a couple of articles in Persian Literature. His main field of interest includes Comparative literature and film studies. He is a lecturer at Yazd University.

Translation Idea: What Is Under-appreciated by a Teacher of Scholar

Wensheng Deng

Dept. of Foreign Languages, Beijing Institute of Petrol-chemical Technology, China

Ke Zhang

Dept. of Foreign Languages, Beijing Institute of Petrol-chemical Technology, China

Abstract—The time of “China’s culture going to global” has new idea for a translator, which refers to that translation is supposed to both highlight Chinese culture and to be readily accepted by others. Drawn on particular part of translation history dating back from Ezra Pound to Howard Goldblatt, first, the paper has explored translation paradigm, strategy and relations centered on translation idea. And then, an intermittent line hidden beneath the translation could be sketchily found in subsequent order: poem-composing upon the original image, national-character-reforming by relying on foreignization, Chinese-culture-transmitting on ST-oriented, Chinese-culture-introducing on TT-oriented, and Chinese-culture-transmitting on writer-translator-receptor balance. They have given rise to various paradigms and strategies in translators’ practice respectively; corresponding with the ideas, the paradigms could be roughly as: monadism, i.e. one-pole oriented, dualism, two-pole oriented and tri-party negotiated, three-poled. Third, among the three patterns: writer-, translator- or receptor-oriented, writer-receptor-oriented and tri-party-negotiated, writer-translator-receptor-oriented, the first two are a kind of problematic, judged by either cultural theory or conventional one; the latter, relatively speaking, is well balanced up to today, which is recognized by three parties. Regrettably, some unfair interpretations or criticism usually fall upon the works translated before translation ideas are made clear. In the end the author suggests that translation idea not be under-appreciated and a historical perspective be a must for scholar to appraise.

Index Terms—translation idea, translation paradigm, historical perspective, translation strategy

I. INTRODUCTION

At present, we are faced with a new era in history, which is characterized by turbulence and chaos, unknown to the world in the past century. (Xi Jinping’s quotation) Under such a circumstance, all kinds of challenges and crises, either conceivable or unconceivable, are certain to occur to us; so will great changes take place to science and research. Without any deny or doubt, new change and situation will inevitably affect translation studies and practice in the new era. In the new millennium–21st century, together with the new era “China’s culture going to global” strategy, is a new power to push the changes, at least, in two folds. That is, on one hand, some new understanding or concept of translation is about to come into being; on the other hand, obviously, translation mode is to be greatly changed as well. The understanding and concept of translation include nature, idea, strategy, type, and the like in translation; the new mode refers to new existence of translation, for example, machine or online translation, which is being brought into full play in translation practice, primarily because of acceleration of artificial intelligence and economic globalization. Therefore, to most of translators or interpreters home and abroad, machine or machine-aided translation is a normal performance and operation, no more a novel story at all, which was like a shy teenager hiding behind a chamber curtain if discussed in public. To us Chinese, among the waves of continuous changes, we have to admit that there is an event in history: i.e., Mo Yan has gained 2012 Nobel Prize for Literature, which has stimulated us to rethink of translation, particularly literary translation. The event is not only the first time in history of literary translation in China, but also supposedly earth-breaking in national history of China. We have to recognize that, though Mo Yan is a writer of great works, he is not capable of composing his works in foreign languages. Even if so, he were skillful just in English, he would not have required ability to be a creator of his popular pieces. Understandably, every scholar, who is curious about the event, and has paid attention to Mo Yan, will turn his eyes to a translator, Howard Goldblatt, who is regarded as “No. 1 translator for Mo Yan” (Huijun Sun, 2016, pp.31) and “a midwife for Mo Yan’s acceptance of Nobel Prize”. (Michael Orbach, 2012, OL)

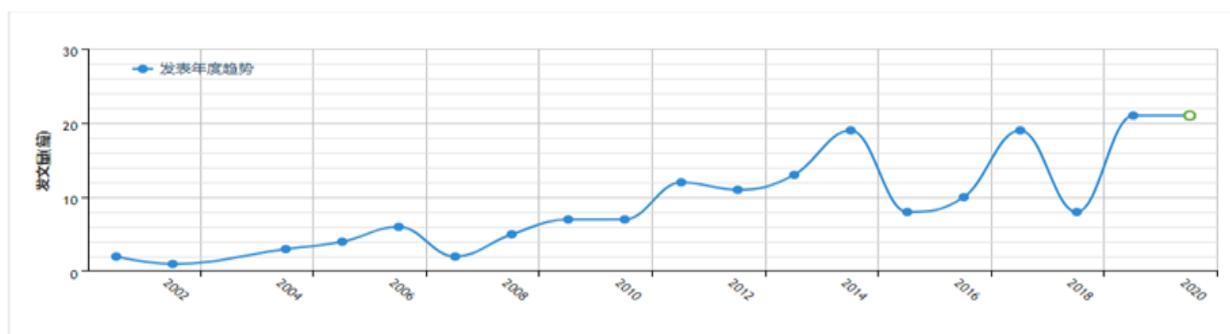
Thus, not only literary field, but also translation one, has shifted their eye from Mo Yan to Howard Goldblatt, and they have shown great interest to him. Even there are scholars home and abroad, who have claimed that Howard is a great push and help for Mo Yan to get the Prize. The implied meaning is that Howard’s translation is better than the original. Like Wolfgang Kubin, a German Sinologist, he indicated that Mo Yan would not have gained the Prize without Howard’s translation; Wang Ning, a scholar from Tsinghua University of China mainland, had the similar voice with Wolfgang. (Huijun Sun, 2016, pp.36-38) The different arguments have proved that Howard has caused thousands of

ripples in related academies as a stone is tossed into a lake. Fortunately, people certainly agreed that Howard is a great translator, which is self-evident for him with Mo Yan's recognition of the Prize. Inevitably, the scholars are concerned with questions like: What kind of translation has he contributed to Western readers? What idea is adopted in his translation? What methods has he employed in his translating action etc., to finally bring about such an ideal stage, because Mo Yan's Prize is not merely a personal achievement, but a dream of Nobel Prize chased by every average Chinese for generations?

The questions are very sharp and critical. However, the paper is just to concentrate upon translation idea for his limited scholarship. Based on pivot of idea, it intends to explore relations between idea and translation, referred to the work and the action combined together as a part. Citing some cases in point as examples, such as Hsien-yi Yang and Gladys Yang, his wife, David Hawks and John Minford, Ezra Pound and Howard Goldblatt, mentioned just a few, who are prominent in translation circles, the author is about to make analysis of their translation idea and works. He hopes to find a clear corresponding construct between idea and translation, which is regarded to be underpinning throughout translation practice. Thus, we can better understand the related cases and clarify some misunderstandings about the translators.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Translation idea, as a link of translation system, not only is a core center of translation studies, but also a focus of academic studies, which has aroused keen interests from related circles, like literature, mainly referred to comparative literature and foreign literature, linguistics, studies of media and communication in China, etc. Only citing translation studies as an example, the author of the paper has got papers and articles related to it as many as 143 pieces in total, dated from 2000 till 2019 by inputting "translation idea" as key words to search on CNKI.¹ Among them, there are 116, whose titles are connected directly with "translation idea", 22 with "translation strategy", and 5 with "translation concept". The following table provided by CNKI can roughly illustrate distributions of the published papers.²



The vertical axis refers to paper volume; the horizontal axis is time measured by year.

The data of the table above-given indicate that the paper output is a kind of rising trend, seen from a viewpoint of the time span. Especially, from 2010 onwards, yields of the paper related with the studies have out-broken bottle neck of the research and got harvest year by year. But, there are just 6 in-depth papers, represented by Professor Xie Tianzhen and Liu Yunhong respectively, (Yunhong Liu, ed., 2019, pp.302-303) which have squarely carried out research of the idea; others have digressed and diverged away from the core concept of translation idea, mistaking or taking it as translation theory, standard or system for granted.

As to foreign data, so far, the author of the paper has not found exact materials targeted at the idea yet, only finding there are papers and theses discussing translation studies in general, like discussion from translation standard, culture, political or sociological turn, etc. The data have reflected that scholars with different backgrounds have different focuses on translation studies. Naturally, Chinese are more dedicated to Howard; but, for foreigners, not much concerned with Mo Yan's acceptance of Nobel Prize, they are just committed to translation scholarship in a broader manner, whose attitudes to the event are exposed differently here.

III. IDEA OF TRANSLATION AND WORKS TRANSLATED

A. Definition of Translation Idea

Idea, derived from Greek word *eidos*, meaning visible form, is a notion stretching all the way from one pole, where it denotes a subjective, internal presence in the mind, somehow thought of as representing something about the world, to the other pole, where it represents an eternal, timeless unchanging form or concept: the concept of the number series or of justice, for example, thought of as independent objects of enquiry and perhaps of knowledge. These two poles are not distinct meanings of the term, although they give rise to many problems of interpretation, but between them they define

1. CNKI is the abbreviation of China National Knowledge Infrastructure.

2. See the reference: <https://www.cnki.net>, 2020/3/13.

a space of philosophical problems. On the one hand, ideas are that with which we think, or in Locke's terms, whatever the mind may be employed about in thinking. Looked at that way they seem to be inherently transient, fleeting, and unstable private presences. On the other hand, ideas provide the way in which objective knowledge can be expressed. They are essential components of understanding, and any intelligible proposition that is true must be capable of being understood. Plato's theory of forms is a celebration of the objective and timeless existence of ideas as concepts, and in his hands ideas are reified to the point where they make up the only real world, of separate and perfect models of which the empirical world is only a poor cousin. This doctrine, notable in the *Timaeus* opened the way for the Neoplatonic notion of ideas as the thoughts of God. The concept gradually lost this other-worldly aspect, until after Descartes ideas become assimilated to whatever it is that lies in the mind of any thinking being. (Simon Blackburn, 2000, pp.183)

Obviously, the foregoing interpretation of idea is a philosophical dimension, which is regarded as the origin of derivative connotations of idea. In the interpretation, there are quite a few items adopted by translators as well. First, it is one pole in mind to represent the other pole in the world. It is "an eternal, timeless unchanging form or concept". (Simon Blackburn, 2000, pp.183) Second, it can be taken as a guideline to translation, for "it can provide the way in which objective knowledge can be expressed". Third, it has developed the equivalent to form, which is the ultimate end of Plato's theories. In Plato's eyes, all is fake, or an imitation game of idea except idea itself. Here, the three essential aspects, summarized by the author of the essay, will be used as his theoretical instrument or ground in the following analysis.

Accordingly, *the Contemporary Chinese Dictionary* (Fifth edition) gives its explanations to "idea": 1.belief, e.g. belief in life, 2.thought, concept, notion, e.g. business belief, belief in culture.³

Therefore, basing upon the above-given analysis, both Chinese and Western one, we can draw a rough outline for translation idea though arguable. It is a guideline, principle, ultimate goal or a program of action for a translator in his/her practice. It is only partially similar to the definition of translation, but is more than that, which is a core constituent of translation idea. What translation idea a translator has is tied closely with his works translated. The work represents translation idea. It is a king to dominate other subjects in translation. An idea of translation should be inclusive, open and changeable with changing situation.

B. Translation Idea Underlying Translation Practice

Translation and interpretation have a long history in river of human civilization. In West, if we date back to Mesopotamia era (3,500 BC), translation and interpretation were prevalent just because of national migration and communication. Meanwhile, there are more than five thousand years in China. (Deng, Wensheng, 2020, pp.58) And a translator or an interpreter got its different names or titles at different directions of old China. According to the *Zhou Rite* (Zhouli),

"...the people living in the five regions spoke different languages and had different customs, likings and preferences. In order to make accessible what was in the minds of different peoples, and in order to make their likings and preferences understood, there were functionaries for the job. Those in charge of the regions in the east were called *ji* (the entrusted; transmitters); in the south, *xiang* (likeness-renders); in the west, *Didi* (they who know the Di tribes); and in the north, *yi* (translators or interpreters)... ." (Martha Cheung, tran., 2006, p.46)

The document quoted above proves that translation or interpretation is a big player in Chinese civilization throughout history of China, especially in transnational communication and crossing-culture. The peoples in different regions, who speak different languages, can also interact by resorting to a translator or an interpreter.

During the process of interaction every nation has gained its own classics in translation, like *Holy Bible* in West civilization and *The Diamond Sutra* in Chinese one, which were and are influential upon respective cultures. The *Bible* has its significant effects on major languages, i.e. English and German, national character and national unification in Europe; so is the *Diamond Sutra* upon seeking after a spiritual relief, word-formation in China after the Tang Dynasty (618-907). Interestingly, both the classics are religious, one for Christianity, one for Buddhism. Needless to say, they are great tributaries of the river in civilization. Translation has enriched the world culture and civilization greatly. It is a kind of shaping force in human history. From the history, we may conclude that, first, receptor-oriented idea is to communicate among multiple parties; second, author-oriented idea is to bring about a new culture to others. In short, what purpose decides what idea to hold and what strategy to adopt.

Likewise, such similar phenomenon never stops. Not only it happened in ancient time, but also it did in modern era. And it does give rise to vital significance, whether in West or in China. We can pick up some cases to illustrate the point. For instance, Ezra Pound (1885—1972), he was just a good case in point. T. S. Eliot (1888—1965), a British American poet, who accepted Nobel Prize in Literature in 1948, addressed, "...it is an Imagist Group in 1910 in London, which was conveniently regarded as the starting point of modern poetry." As we are clear that Ezra Pound is one of the founders, to some extent, we may declare that it is Pound who has opened up modern poetry in the West. The poetry began to be filled with too much tears, too emotional and insincere after Romanticism, with too many conventions and restrictions after Symbolism. Poets were not satisfied with the current situation and strived to make changes about it. Pound is the only lucky dog who made it work. Probably between 1911 and 1912, he made acquaintance with Allen

3. The Contemporary Chinese Dictionary (xiandai hanyu cidian, fifth edition) is compiled by Dictionary Department, Institute of Linguistics, Chinese Academy of Social Sciences, Peking: Commercial Press, 2005, pp. 826. The English translation is done by the author of the paper.

Upward (1863—1926), a poet and translator, who introduced Pound to read some translations by Herbert A. Giles (1845—1935), English scholar of Chinese language and culture. After reading his work *A History of Chinese Literature*, Pound fell into his life-long admiration of Chinese culture. Unfortunately, he was blind to Chinese at all. At the right time, Pound happened to get the manuscripts written by Earnest Fenollosa (1853—1908), American Japanese scholar of Chinese culture, he was especially interested in one of the papers, titled *The Chinese Written Character as a Medium for Poetry*. After his seemingly mysterious contact with Chinese culture and literature, mainly classical poetry, Pound formed his China's Complex forever by reading, meditation, forming new thoughts of poetry. He learned Chinese characters in hieroglyphics. And far better than that, he started to translate Chinese classical poetry, mainly the Tang Dynasty (618-907) poetry. His masterwork of the translation is *Cathay* published in 1915. Here is an example as following:

Liu Ch'e
 The rustling of the silk is discontinued,
 Dust drifts over the court-yard,
 There is no sound of foot-fall, and the leaves
 Scurry into heaps and lie still,
 And she the rejoicer of the heart is beneath them:
 A wet leaf that clings to the threshold.⁴

If we compare Pound's translation with the original Chinese, we may find that, neither just the afore-cited is a translation at all, nor is his *Cathay* in the least if examined by the criteria "faithfulness" or "equivalence" and the like. But, what is to our surprise is the work enjoyed high popularity among Western readers. Based on his conclusions from translating and studying Chinese poetry, Pound pronounced three principles in writing a poem: First, direct treatment of an object, whether it is subjective or objective; second, absolutely, don't use any word which is no help to representation; third, as regarding rhythm: compose in sequence of the musical phrase, not in sequence of the metronome. Later, the principles were adopted and extended to six articles by American poetess Amy Lowell (1874—1925), another founder of Imagism. What she added her new three principles to Imagism are: First, present an image, treat a specific one with accuracy, and don't deal with them by using some ordinary images in an ambiguous way; second, compose a hard and clear poem rather than a boundless one; third, conciseness and compactness are soul of poetry. Coincidentally, the six ideas of Imagism poetry were written down by a Chinese scholar, Hu Shih (1891—1962), from a piece of newspaper in 1915, who was further studying in America. (Xiangyu Liu, Hengda Yang & Yanbing Zeng, 2008, pp.72-77) Debatably, Hu adopted and applied the Imagist statement to New Culture Movement in early 20th century in China. Hu's new proposals were influential on the Movement. Without exaggeration, it is New Culture Movement that has led Chinese language, literature and national character to radical changes, i.e. modernization and revolution in society, which was uncompromising in its opposition to feudal culture; there had never been such a great and thoroughgoing cultural revolution since the dawn of Chinese history.

From the discussion given-above, we see what Pound had done was innovative writing instead of translation, specifically, only a rewriting based upon the original image. His strategy is domestication, for whose action was reader or TT-oriented, instead of author or ST-oriented. He had aimed to make a new mode of poetry by reforming traditional poetic writing and borrowing Chinese culture. Additionally, for he knew little about Chinese, understandably, his translation is just a kind of bold imagination of the classical Chinese poetry. As a poet, his genius of imagination helped him grasp and grip with the images in the poetry, which is a core, an essential part in a poem. That is to say, his idea of translation is to get image from the original first. Therefore, the translation, which Pound has accomplished, merely offers us with the original images in his understanding and vision. If we haven't made clear about his translation idea or principle, we will easily give unfair remarks upon them, and say they were poorly rendered indeed. So doing, it is really unfair to him. But, if we could examine the event historically or comprehensively, we would have been more rational to him. To certain degree, we Chinese of today might even be grateful to his wrong-doings in translation, for his Imagist idea, inspired from his translating the poetry, has benefitted a lot New Culture Movement in a way around.

Similarly, on translation there is another case of Lu Xun (1881—1936), both a writer and translator, misunderstood and mistreated by numbers of scholars. As to his writing in Chinese, it is influential on modern Chinese, who is universally regarded as the top of 100 hundred modern writers in China; he deserves the greatest remark. However, when it comes to his translation, whenever he was alive or dead, he was and is always heatedly argued. In his life time, his translation gave rise to numerous quarrels, the most intensive and influential ones, such as his quarrels with Zhao Jingshen (1902—1985), writer and professor of Fudan University, with Liang Shiqiu (1903—1987), outstanding writer and translator; the names of opponents can last but just mention a few of them. Both sides, one is headed by Lu Xun, the other by his opponents, had denounced the rival of one's own for his translation is full of problems, unfaithful, unreadable, misunderstanding and the like. Furthermore, up to the date as late as 21st century, the unfair treatment about Lu Xun's translation is still prevalent, which is even claimed by some big potatoes of scholars in China. The famous scholar admits and assumes that Lu Xun's writing is great, first rank and rate among the world, unfortunately, his

4. See the original Chinese here, 《落叶哀蝉曲》 罗袂兮无声，玉榭兮尘生。虚房冷而寂寞，落叶依于重扃。望彼美之女兮，安得感余心之未宁？

translation is unreadable, full of simple misunderstandings of the original, and his proposal of replacing Chinese characters by using alphabetic language is too radical and ridiculous.⁵ Without deny, the so-called errors to Lu Xun's translation are acceptable, neutral and objective, judged from present day perspectives; his translation is not classical as his writing. But, here, the scholar made a big misunderstanding about Lu Xun, and he is not aware of that in the least; that is, he has forgotten specific history to talk about Lu Xun. It is a common sense for any one, nothing to say for a scholar, to talk about something in history, especially, to make a comment on a giant like Lu Xun. It is proper and objective to judge anything in context and history. In my eyes, Lu Xun is, of course, conscious of his unique translation. It is just his idea that led him to doing so purposefully. Probably, we know that whatever he had strived to do in his life is to reform Chinese national character. So, his writing and translating were merely used as tools to fulfil his noble end. To Lu Xun eyes, Chinese culture, including Chinese language, is supposed to be reformed or replaced by a kind of new culture. At the time, the new culture was embodied by West powers, which were much more superior to China; every intellectual of patriot would easily turn his eyes to them in order to remodel old China. Lu Xun's hard translation, by employing calqued translation, (Jean Delisle, 1999, pp.123-124) word-for-word, and foreignization, was to retain and reserve foreign style, order and rhetoric; in brief, he was faithful to the original, author-oriented, his work is hard to read on in an old Chinese way. Lu Xun addressed it, "To keep the original flavor is a channel to bring new expressions and forms into Chinese." "It is preferred to be faithful rather than readable." "At first, reader may feel awkward about the translation, but he is sure to adapt to it after some time." (Lu Xun, 1984, pp.229-244) To today's readers of Lu Xun's translation, his works seem to be very awkward, which is quite different from contemporary translation with polluted Chinese in markets. In Lu Xun he is "visible" (Venuti's quotation) and clear of the original; contemporary translation is mostly motivated by seeking either fame or fortune, whose translator is a green hand both in Chinese and foreign language. On the contrary, Lu Xun, as one of flag-bearers in New Culture Movement, a master of Chinese language, was out of his opposition to feudalism, and transformation of national character. Therefore, to remark on his translation is not enough to focus upon the surface only, but to uncover his translation idea hidden under it, because translation is a "purposeful activity" (Christiane Nord, 1997, pp.11-12). Evidently, Lu Xun's radical translation justifies his translation idea, which agrees with his political ideal too.

So, seen from the criterion of "being faithful to the original", Ezra Pound is no translator, Lu Xun is protrude, visible in his translation, for the readers of Lu Xun even could feel the original syntax, and what about David Hawkes (1923–2009) and John Minford (1946–), translators of *The Story of the Stone*, which is regarded as classics of Penguin Group. We know that, before *The Story of the Stone*, there was an edition of *The Dream of the Red Chamber* co-translated by Hsien-yi Yang (1915–2009) and his wife Gladys Yang (1919–1999). Yang's edition is popular among readers home and abroad. However, after *The Story of the Stone* was published by Penguin Group, its popularity is rising steadily, especially among Western readers, and was collected by major libraries over the world. When it is republished, it is highly appraised as a classic, which has proved the translation is successful. So, here is the question: why have the two editions resulted in remarkably contrasts? Is it due to Yang's English efficiency as someone has claimed? Obviously not, because Yang was a top student at Oxford University and his wife Gladys was his schoolmate at Oxford. Yang was both versed in Chinese culture and literature and British ones; and Gladys was very familiar with them too. To the field of Chinese translation, their marriage is just a magnificent match, which has rendered numerous volumes of Chinese classics into English. As to David Hawkes and John Minford, they were persistent to study Chinese culture and literature for several decades, and both are teachers of Chinese Department at world-known universities for many years. What's more, they frequently discussed problems encountered with the Yangs in translating Chinese works, which indicates that they have not much problem to understand the culture. Then, we have to make comparisons with the two editions so as to explore the reasons hidden in the phenomenon. As we dig into them, we find that Yang is more faithful, closer to the original in denotation, and formally more equivalent to the original; whereas, Hawkes is faithful to the original in communication and connotation, more faithful to the original in spirit. Yang's strategy seems more to be inclined to foreignization, a kind of author-oriented; perceivably, Hawkes is naturalization, reader-oriented. One example is evident to illustrate what is above-discussed. There is an original Chinese "谋事在人, 成事在天(móushì zài rén, chéngshì zài tiān)".

Yang's version is: Man proposes; Heaven disposes;

Hawkes's is: Man proposes; God disposes.

Here, the distinction lies in their respective rendering "天". Needless to say, God is a typical code in Western cultures, whatever; majority of the Western readers is not familiar with it any longer; as to heaven, it is just a physical concept to them, which could arouse no more religious connotation in the least. Psychologically, God is dominant, closer to them, but not heaven. Such naturalization can be seen in every line throughout *The Story of the Stone*. Partially, it could explain why it has been enjoying its great popularity for a long time; and Yang's hasn't so much as that. Similarly, if we have kept an eye on other translation by John Minford, e.g. *Strange Tales from a Chinese Studio*,⁶ another classic as well, we would have concluded that it reads smooth and feels a kind of natural or native flavor except some strange

5. The scholar is one of host speakers on a conference of translation and literature, sponsored by Beijing International Studies University, in May, 2018. For the sake of privacy, his name is purposely omitted by the author of the paper.

6. Pu, Songling. (John Minford, ed. & trans.). *Strange Tales from a Chinese Studio*. Penguin Groups, 2006.

names. On the contrary, a second version of *Strange Tales from a Chinese Studio* by Herbert a. Giles is not as welcome as Minford. Readers of Herbert a. Giles feel “it didn’t make a sense”, a bit confused to read it. And John Minford is recommended.⁷ In fact, Giles, like Hsien-yi Yang and Gladys Yang, adopted a foreignization or estrangement in the work. So, the receptors of Giles of course felt it awkward. From the cases discussed above, we can see the translation idea, held by Hsien-yi Yang and Gladys Yang, is to highlight Chinese culture over the world, as a foremost goal in translation, stipulated by the central government of China, so their strategy is foreignization as a way out. Nevertheless, to David Hawkes and John Minford, they took target-reader into consideration to facilitate understanding other’s culture, to shorten the journey between the original and target-text reader, (Ch’ien Chung-shu’s remarks) conceivably, domestication is a proper choice. Hence, I suggest that, if we try to let Western readers accept Chinese culture, domestication and reader-orientedness are temporarily preferred though they have disadvantages, i.e. Chinese culture is partially more hidden and transfigured than foreignization and author-orientedness.

Just because many scholars have different voices of their own on translating Chinese classics, they claim that monadism is problematic, which is centralized about single-dimension in process of translation, i.e. taking either author, translator or reader as a foci. The author-oriented model is hard, unreadable for readers to accept; what a translator exhausted his paining efforts gets only sparse responses from his readers, like Lu Xun or Vladimir Nabokov(1899-1977), American novelist and translator as well, they aren’t read as much as their writing; the translator-centered is to rewrite the original, which is rebuked by both sides of the process; one criticism is that he is a traitor of the original, the other is he is a liar or a deceiver of the reader because, actually, he has rendered and rewritten the original for them for he has controlled or dominated the original for some reason, as Ezra Pound or Lin Shu (1852–1924), a prolific, problematic and controversial translator in the late Qing Dynasty(1644–1911). Sometimes, some relatively mediocre original work was elevated or exaggerated to be a classic or vice versa by them; a receptor-/reader-oriented tends to bridge the gap between author and reader by effacing the original cultural uniqueness, or to explain and expound the original uniqueness by utilizing reader’s culture. No wonder, both sides of the process are not satisfied with him, because the original is transfigured totally, to the receptor, he seems to be cheated for his curiosity of other culture is no true at all. The genres in the translation are far from satisfaction from each part. Inevitably, a third model is required to meet calls of new time.

Eventually, Howard Goldblatt answered the call in a proper time just because what he had translated MoYan made the world recognize. As we say Mo Yan is great for his creative narration in novel text, but his influence would be limited and confined to China without great ferrymen like Howard Goldblatt. In my eyes, he is a representative of new paradigm in translation in the new era, characterized by globalization. According to Roland Barthes (1915—1980), a prominent French thinker, he divided text into two categories: writerly text and readerly text; (Leitch, Vincent B. Cain, William E. Finke, Laurie. & Johnson, Barbara. et al, eds., 2001, pp.1470-1475) by borrowing the two concepts, I would refer to two kinds of translation correspondingly: writerly translation and readerly translation. The first one means author-oriented, the latter reader-oriented. But, for me, the two concepts are unable to cover Howard Goldblatt square and fair. He has applied a new type of translation to deal with Mo Yan. Here, I reflect Howard upon all what he has done besides Mo Yan, for who is only my foci of forthcoming discussion. Let us take *Red Sorghum: A Novel of China* as an example to demonstrate his novelty. His creation is “organic unity”. It refers to that “Howard Goldblatt always takes his translation as an organic unity, which he views the structure of the translation as a whole to secure the structural faith of the translation to the original. His kind of faith is to adjust the translation’s structure, and to make the translation be loyal to the original as a whole, but not the traditional loyalty or equivalence of word-for-word.” (Wensheng Deng & Ke Zhang, 2017, pp.49-54) In the translation, Howard readjusted the original chapters. The original, with only one title “Red Sorghum” capitalized from Chapter 1 to 9 throughout, consists of 9 chapters, with no subtitle. However, the translation *Red Sorghum: A Novel of China* has only 5 chapters, which aren’t equivalent to the original quantity at all. Moreover, it has added a sub-topic to each chapter; they are listed as the subsequent: Chapter 1 Red Sorghum, Chapter 2 Sorghum Wine, Chapter 3 Dog Ways, Chapter 4 Sorghum Funeral, and Chapter 5 Strange Death. Apart from the curtailment and adjustment of the original chapters, Howard Goldblatt has made combinations, changes, revisions and additions to some of the original chapters. He has bravely deleted some ridiculous narration, which, to some extent at one’s first glance, seems unacceptable to Western readers. He made original Chapter 4 shorter, and rewrote the original end, etc. In short, compared with the original, the translation has been changed a lot here and there, but, we readers of the translation can hardly feel the changes and gaps between them. On the contrary, at least, structurally, I hold that the translation is loyal to the original; furthermore, the plots of the translation read a little bit smoother than the original; the whole structure is linked more closely to each chapter than the original too. Seen from the instance, the structure and theme are more outstanding upon reading, the content reads more distinctive and logical. Thus, by Western readers’ yardstick, they tend to think that the translation is easier for those interested to be accepted than an unadapted one if Howard had. Obviously, Howard has not cracked his brain to only be faithful to word, clause, or paragraph, but structurally faithful to the original text, i.e. a kind of textual loyalty, to convey the original.⁸ Facing

7. This is an excerpt of readers’ comment on Giles, see <https://www.amazon.cn/dp/B00FVE9WL8>, 4/4/2020.

8. For the detailed discussion of structural faithfulness, see Deng, Wensheng. & Zhang, Ke. (2017). Howard Goldblatt’s Three Treaties or Treatments of Translation, Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 7, No. 1, pp. 49-54, January 2017, DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0701.06>.

the new mode of translation, a bunch of scholars expressed different voices. Some say he has rewritten, abridged or adapted the original, others claim that his translation is better than the original; there are also some opinions that favor with him. All in all, the remarks are like blind men and elephant, who take a part as the whole. They haven't probed into the whole process, which is different from old one. First, it is a product of negotiations between Howard Goldblatt and Mo Yan, i.e. writer-translator-reader; Howard the translator as a mediator between two poles, it is a triparty-negotiated translation. Howard always gave calls, wrote letters or forwarded emails to ask Mo Yan when he couldn't understand him, and wanted to adjust or rewritten his works. Owing to Mo Yan's open-mindedness and inclusiveness, Howard could always get satisfactory responses. Mo Yan even told Howard, "I don't understand a foreign language, since I entrusted my works to you, they have belonged to you; you can make decisions of your own as you like." (Howard Goldblatt, 2004, pp.26) This is one of the reasons why he made changes or adjustments about Mo Yan. Additionally, under pressure of patronage, publishing house or market benefit, he had to cut off some redundancy in plot development, description and delineation to satisfy Western Poetics or Aesthetics. Second, his translation strategy is quite different from old one. What he has adopted was a combination of domestication and foreignization. Particularly, I would like to point out that, sometimes, his foreignization is to transcribe the original. For instances, "爹(diē)" "娘(niáng)" "衙役(yáy)" "员外郎(yuán wài láng)" "老太爷(lǎo tài yé)", he transcribed them by using Pinyin. For the strategy, usually, a translator is worried about receptivity of neologism; Howard explained about it, "I think it is time to update and increase the meager list, and to that end, I have left a handful of terms untranslated; a glossary appears at the end of the book. Only one is given in a form that differs slightly from standard Pinyin: that is "dieh," commonly used for one's father in northern China. The Pinyin would be 'die'!" (Howard Goldblatt, 2013, pp.10-11) His unique mixed strategy retained and reserved the original, highlighted cultural specific items in the meanwhile. What he has most amazed us is he made no annotation, addition to them, they are scattered and embedded through the words, and readers feel natural and native. In short, they are harmonious in proper context. In the New Era of "Chinese Culture Going to Global", such typology of translation can best embody the unique culture and the Western readers are happy to accept. What he has done provides us with an example to transmit Chinese classics towards others. What's more important is, he has rejuvenated English culture by introducing new expression and form, which undertakes the role to cross cultural barriers. If we revisit Howard's translation idea, it is easy for us to understand his bold action in translation, especially in *Red Sorghum: A Novel of China*. Though he has seldom professed his translation idea, in his talks, interviews and lectures we may still get it at least, "what a translator should be engaged in is to interpret in another field." "...a translator's responsibility is utmost important and very tough to bridge gap between nations and cultures; whether his work is regarded as a craftsmanship or an art, or both; he is a transmitter, an interpreter of the chain to understand other nations internationally, who is one of the main parts in the chain." (Howard Goldblatt, 2016, pp.15) Herein, Howard admits he is "a transmitter, an interpreter of nations and cultures." That is to say, they are his translation idea, ultimate goal. To accomplish his idea, he had to adopt new approaches, a revolution in translation for the old ones, to some extent, are unable to meet the needs of sender and receiver. To Chinese excitement and the world as well, his revolution in translation paradigm help national literature, Chinese one, reach global stage of world literature, (Wensheng Deng, Fuyang Xia & Li Chen, 2016. pp.79-83) for Mo Yan is recognized by the most influential institution Nobel Prize Committee in Literature.

IV. CONCLUSIVE REMARKS

By observing a particular part of translation history briefly, we may get some lessons. First, we may roughly see translation ideas underpinning translation. Every one of them was different so it is unfair to comment on him by a consistent and unvaried standard. Historical view is justifiable. Like Ezra Pound, seen from translation standard, he is far from that but manipulation or appropriation of culture; yet from poetic composing, he is revolutionary. Lu Xun, seen from expressiveness, readability or smoothness, he is low, and form cultural renovation, he is great, but he went extremely radical to negate Chinese culture; from public spreading, Hsien-yi Yang and Gladys Yang are very good; from receptivity, David Hawkes and John Minford are none to the second, but comparatively, they subjected the original and catered to his receptors, which is a kind of post-colonial approach; from transmitting Chinese culture or media-translatology, Howard Goldblatt is most successful up to today, even in several decades to come for his better balance between foreignization and domestication. But, objectively speaking, Howard has changed *Red Sorghum* a lot on plot, end and minor structure though authorized by Mo Yan; probably he was conscious of the behavior after that, he has been returning to traditional pattern step by step. Then, from the history, we say translation pattern is dynamic. It has developed from monadism, i.e. one-pole oriented, dualism, two-pole oriented till tri-party-negotiated, three-poled, which have been pushed forward by ideas desired and derived from history or time. The inter-wined impacts between them are complex and complementary and covered under all kinds of phenomenon. Third, among the three patterns of translation, monadism, writer-, translator- or receptor-oriented, dualism, writer-receptor-oriented and tri-party-negotiated, writer-translator-receptor-oriented, the first two patterns are a kind of problematic, judged by either cultural theory or conventional one; the latter is well balanced up to today, which is recognized by three parties. Therefore, under such complex and confused circumstances, first, either a teacher or a scholar of translation should be clear about translation idea of one's own, then, he could evaluate translation in a historical context of situation, rather than hurry to arrive at some claims.

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Wensheng Deng was born in Anhua County, Hunan Province of China in 1967. He received his M.A. in literature from Central South University of China in 2002, and he has further trained his academics at Harding University of the USA from 2007 until 2008. And now he is Associate Professor of Anglo-American Literature of the Dept. of Foreign Languages at Beijing Institute of Petrol-chemical Technology, China. His scholastic studies cover Comparative Literature, Translation Studies, Film Studies and Politics.

Mr. Deng is a member of Chinese Association of Foreign Language Teachers. And he has published more than 40 papers home and abroad.

Ke Zhang was born in Anqing city of Anhui Province of China in 1978. She got her M.A. in literature of Russia and linguistics from Capital Normal University of Beijing of China in 2002. She is interested in movie analysis, western culture etc. Currently she is a lecturer of the Dept. of Foreign Languages at Beijing Institute of Petrol-chemical Technology, China. She has also published lots of papers home and abroad. She is a member of Chinese Association of Foreign Language Teachers.

Who has Stolen Their Childhood?—A Comparative Study Between *The Book Thief* and *Grave of the Fireflies* from the Perspective of Trauma Narratives

Manli Peng

University of Shanghai for Science and Technology, Shanghai, China

Yan Hua

University of Shanghai for Science and Technology, Shanghai, China

Abstract—Literature from the perspective of perpetrators receives less attention due to history and ethical problems, but it is our duty to view history as a whole. By comparing and analyzing *The Book Thief* and *Grave of the Fireflies*, this study claims that war and blind patriotism have stolen the childhood from the war-stricken children and that love, care, company and chances to speak out the pain can be the treatments. In the study, traumatic narratives, traumatic elements and treatments in both books are discussed comparatively and respectively.

Index Terms—*The Book Thief*, *Grave of the Fireflies*, traumatic narratives, traumatic elements, treatments

I. INTRODUCTION

Markus Zusak's novel *The Book Thief* relates how Liesel Meminger, a little German girl, lost her beloved ones during the Second World War and how she overcame her miseries with love, friendship and the power of words. But *The Book Thief* is not just a Bildungsroman. According to Zusak, the inspiration of the book came from his parents, who witnessed a collection of Jews on their way to the death camps and the streetscape of Hamburg after the firebombing. The story “depicts the traumatic life experience of the German civilians and the hiding life of a Jew in the harsh situation of racial discrimination”(Chen, 2016, p. 9). Therefore, by describing what ordinary Germans’ life was in the Second World War, Zusak offers us a new perspective of the war. Thereby, since the publication of *The Book Thief* in 2005, it has turned out to be a great success. Its film adaption, released in 2013, also won high praise.

Grave of the Fireflies, published in 1968, is a semi-autobiographical story written by Akiyuki Nosaka in 1967. The story was constructed from his experiences of the firebombing of Kobe in 1945, during which time he lost one of his sisters, his adoptive father and his younger adoptive sister Keiko. He felt especially sorry for Keiko because he thought he was too selfish to take good care of her, which indirectly led to her miserable death of malnutrition. In *Grave of the Fireflies*, four-year-old Setsuko, the younger sister of the protagonist Seita, also dies of malnutrition. Thus, the whole story “was written as a personal apology to Keiko, regarding her death”(Wikipedia, *Grave of the Fireflies*). By telling traumatic experiences of the two Japanese children in the Second World War, Nosaka reveals the brutality of war and the deteriorating public morals of Japan during the wartime. *Grave of the Fireflies* earned him the Naoki Prize in 1968 and was successfully adapted into an animated film in 1988 followed by a live action television film.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Both *The Book Thief* and *Grave of the Fireflies* set their backgrounds in the Second World War, but what arouses our interest is that the stories they relate offer us a new perspective different from that of the dominant group — the victims of the war. As we all know, Germany and Japan were perpetrators in the Second World War but children from those countries were a special group because they were innocent, and they had nothing to do with the war, but it is they who usually paid the price of their life. Even though they did not have to go to the war front, they suffered or died from illness or weakness due to lack of care. However, in light of the mainstream thinking of history and ethical problems, we do not have sufficient literature or related researches from or about countries of perpetrators. That causes a problem— we do not have a comprehensive view of the history. Nevertheless, if we do not view history or trauma holistically, it will “potentially prevent us from understanding our collective consciousness and may cause the divide between the descendants of both victims and perpetrators across further generations”(Burakova, 2018, p.2). Nowadays, the literature of war receives an increasing attention, even if, paradoxically, there is just a small amount of studies on the two books -- *The Book Thief* and *Grave of the Fireflies*.

Generally speaking, researchers of *The Book Thief* abroad agree to classify it as Holocaust literature, yet it is popular to redefine the book's genre. For example, Evelyn Arizpe and Vivienne Smith regard *The Book Thief* as children's literature in their book *Children as Readers in Children's Literature*. Some researchers turn to theory of narratology or psychology to analyze the book, such as Débora Almeida de Oliveira's *The Deadly Perception of the Witness: Focalization in Markus Zusak's The Book Thief* and Rizka Merdifa's *The Main Character's Loss, Emptiness and Object of Desire in Markus Zusak's The Book Thief*. While some, like Morgan Grace Milburn, make comparative studies about the book. Milburn discusses dystopia in *The Good, the Bad and the Useless: The Perception of Books in Ray Bradbury's Fahrenheit 451, Markus Zusak's The Book Thief, and Gary Shteyngart's Super Sad True Love Story*.

Domestically, there are few researchers studying this contemporary novel, and in most of the cases, they analyze the book with a specific literary theory such as psychological analysis, theory of narratology and symbolism, taking Zhang Rongxin's *Trauma and Recovery in The Book Thief*, Xing Fangfang's *A Study of the Protagonist Liesel's Initiation in The Book Thief by Markus Zusak from Genette's Narrative Focalization Theory* and Chen Huan's *A Study of the Trauma Narrative in The Book Thief* as an example.

Studies of *Grave of the Fireflies* are even less, even though its film adaptation receives more attention than the book itself abroad or at home. For instance, Alistair Swale makes a comparative study between two films in *Memory and Forgetting: Examining the Treatment of Traumatic Historical Memory in Grave of the Fireflies and The Wind Rises* and David C. Stahl discusses trauma in the film of *Grave of the Fireflies* in his book *Imaging the War in Japan*. In China, researchers study symbols and values of life reflected in this story. However, researches directly related to the book are obviously deficient.

The Book Thief and *Grave of the Fireflies*, as war literature, should have aroused more academic interest respectively. As for putting them together for a comparative study, the present essay might be a first tentative venture aiming at comparing the two literary works from the perspective of perpetrators to find their similarities as well as differences. This paper, based on trauma narratives, dives deep into the two books to find out how war could steal the children's childhood, to what degree children in war from Germany and Japan shared similarities and differences and how they ease their traumatic memory of the victims. By studying literature from the perspective of perpetrators, we can have a clear and comprehensive knowledge about the war and history.

III. TRAUMA NARRATIVES IN *THE BOOK THIEF* AND *GRAVE OF THE FIREFLIES*

As it has been mentioned above, *The Book Thief* and *Grave of the Fireflies* set their backdrop in World War II, which has laid the gloomy foundation of the story. The way Zusak and Nosaka related the story is no other than trauma narratives.

"..... if her mother loved her, why leave her on someone else's doorstep? Why? Why? Why? The fact that she knew the answer — if only at the most basic level — seemed beside the point. Her mother was constantly sick and there was never any money to fix her. Liesel knew that. But that didn't mean she had to accept it. No matter how many times she was told that she was loved, there was no recognition that the proof was in the abandonment. Nothing changed the fact that she was a lost, skinny child in another foreign place, with more foreign people. Alone." (Zusak, p. 32)

This is a description of the inner world of Liesel when she was left by her mother to a foster family. She felt so hurt even though she knew it was for her good sake. Actually, her young brother was supposed to go to the new family with her but died on the half way. The episode is heartbreaking because it reveals not only how vulnerable and helpless children were but also the wretched status people got stuck in during the wartime. Especially for the poor, even if lucky enough to be less touched by war, their situation could get worse due to economic stagnation. For Liesel, she was abandoned just because her mother could not afford to take care of the siblings. The death of her brother and the abandonment of her mother came as a double blow and induced her post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), which tortured her for a long time.

Etymologically, trauma means a wound, a hurt or a defeat, and it is a term especially referring to a physical wound in medicine. However, with the development of psychology, researchers found the connection between people's abnormal behaviors and their traumatic experiences. Thus, trauma also refers to a psychic wound caused by an unpleasant experience and its followed abnormal stress. For Liesel, her physical trauma could be starving all the time and a healthy child doesn't look "skinny and pale" (Zusak, p. 24). Whereas, compared to her mental trauma, starvation was more tolerable. Since Liesel witnessed her brother's death, she was haunted by PTSD and had nightmare every night waking up screaming and sweating. PTSD is a mental disorder, which means a person with PTSD cannot simply be healed by medicine or any physical treatments. Unconsciously, the traumatic memory comes to the person and breaks his mental guide line. That Liesel had nightmare every night is not because she was afraid of a dead boy but because she had been tortured by her inability to protect her beloved young brother. Besides, she thought the life she had and the love she felt in her foster family should be shared by her brother who could never make it. Therefore, she lived in the guilty of survivors, which is another symptom of PTSD.

When readers read the story of Liesel, they could not help feeling heart-wrenching and even shedding tears. This is because Zusak resorts to trauma narratives to elicit people's collective memories about the war and make them empathize with Liesel. Literally, trauma narratives mean to narrate a traumatic event. "Trauma narratives represent a way of understanding trauma and history from the perspectives of those who cause trauma to others, who suffer from

the traumatic experience, who are involved, who are bystanders and their descendant” (Zhang, 2017, p.24). By telling readers how Liesel’s life was afflicting with the facts that both her parents were persecuted by Nazi, her brother died from malnutrition, she was illiterate by the age of ten and her best friend as well as foster parents died in an air raid later, Zusak presents us vivid images of how ordinary civilians, children in particular, were sacrificed by the politics and the war even though they were from a country which seemed to be overwhelming at that time.

While the words Zusak chooses to describe the war are caring, the scenes Nosaka depicted are ghastly horrifying. *Grave of the Fireflies* begins with the miserable death of a schoolboy Seita, who lingers around a train station and finally dies from malnutrition-caused weakness there. Seita was not the only tragic role. Apart from his young sister Setsuko perishing for the same reason few days ago, plenty of war orphans also could be seen gathering there waiting for their final moment. The station was bustle with people going to and fro, but no one stopped for them. In the way of flashback, the story retraces how war deprived Seita and Setsuko of their family, how society rejected to help them and how their life withered away day by day. If war steals Liesel’s childhood, it destroys Seita and Setsuko’s life completely.

War has left devastating effects on mankind. For the victims, their trauma, visible or undetectable, may accompany them for the rest of their life. Therefore, when books from the perspective of perpetrators like *The Book Thief* and *Grave of the Fireflies* came out and went popular, critical opinions came as follow. Some argued those books, by making readers empathize with the protagonist, tend to divert people’s attention that those countries triggered the war and assuage their guilty as a result. Clearly, humanity is one of the main themes in *The Book Thief* and *Grave of the Fireflies*, but Zusak and Nosaka took a different attitude towards it. Zusak was moved by the true stories he heard. He thought it noble for some Germans helping the Jewish even though they had to pay the price for doing so. On the other hand, humanity is another thing to Nosaka if it is related to survival. Based on his own experiences, he deemed it hard to behave generous such as sharing food even with his sister. Rather than justify the crimes committed by Germany and Japan, the two authors created the traumatic stories in a hope of reminding readers how wrong to start war and how suffering children could be. Confronting with death in the eyes of the children like Liesel, Seita and Setsuko, readers can transform sorrow and sympathy in their heart into a desire for peace and love. Traumatic narratives function as a catalyst to evoke such feelings and the stronger people’s desire for peace becomes, the further they will be away from wrong hostility.

IV. TRAUMATIC ELEMENTS

In parallel with war are words like death, trauma, devastation and so on. In both stories, it takes no effort to detect the physical and mental trauma on children. Taking Liesel and Seita as an example, both of them and their siblings, a six-year old boy and a four-year old girl separately, suffer from malnutrition. Liesel and Seita survive while the younger ones die can simply be attributed to their elder age which means a stronger immunity. According to World Health Organization (WHO), due to their impaired immune systems, young children are more susceptible to undernutrition, which can result in their dying from starvation or infections. That explains why Liesel and Seita have a higher chance of survival than their siblings opposed to the other way around. But losing their beloved ones equates to losing the support of their life. The consequence is equally irretrievable.

The witness of the sudden death of her young brother caused Liesel PTSD. As its literal meaning refers, PTSD is related to a mental disorder triggered by a traumatic event like warfare, sexual assault and physical abuse that a person experienced. PTSD-attacked person may have symptoms such as disturbing thoughts, trauma-related dreams and the fight-or-flight response for more than a month (Wikipedia, Posttraumatic stress disorder). The first few months when Liesel arrived at her new home, she had nightmare every night. In her dream, the last scene of her brother’s staring at the floor haunted and scared her. Love from her foster parents, friendship from her peers and the ability of literacy alleviate Liesel’s PTSD but Zusak never mentioned she has recovered from it completely. Furthermore, when it comes to the epilogue, a bomb raid destroyed the town and Liesel lost all her beloved ones over one night. Her syndrome of PTSD aggravated more than ever. She spoke to herself constantly, ate less and refused to bath. All of those abnormal behaviors indicate her great mental sufferings.

As for Seita, he took care of Setsuko all the time since the outbreak of the raid. He played many roles including brother, father and even partner to Setsuko and vice versa. They relied on each other so much that the death of Setsuko was tantamount to deprive Seita of his courage and desire to live. The day when he cremated Setsuko on a hill, he had chronic diarrhea. This symptom can be induced by malnutrition and worsened by a low spirit. A long time exposure to depression is beyond what a man could bear, let alone a teenager. Altogether, Seita was doomed to death.

Obviously, war is the main traumatic element in both stories for it steals happiness from Liesel and Seita ruthlessly. But war alone is not the only culprit. A blind patriotism serves as an accomplice, which can be regarded as another traumatic factor.

In Liesel’s case, her mother abandoned them due to poverty, but that was not the only reason for the woman’s decision. She had to take another potential risk into consideration — the father of the children was a Communist. Under the control of Hitler, Communists were labeled as those who plotted “evil machinations to infect the motherland” (Zusak, p. 110). They were “immoral”(Zusak, p. 110). Therefore, Communists and even those relevant people were gravely persecuted, children being no exception. When Liesel was young, her father disappeared and probably had been

killed. It can be said that for the sake of security, Liesel's mother sent them to a new German family. Nevertheless, an important factor for children to deal with trauma is the cohesion of the family and community. To separate from the parents usually makes children more distressing than the war itself (Labouisse, 1946). Hence, the absence of her mother aggravated Liesel's syndrome of PTSD to some degree. By the time when Liesel learned how to write, she kept writing letters to her mother and even risked being punished by her foster mother to steal money for sending those letters. But she had never got responses because later it turned out that her mother had been persecuted just like her father. Even though it has not been mentioned in the book, the tragedy of Liesel's family could not be the only case. At that time, Nazi party with Hitler at its core brainwashed Germans that "Germany was the superior race"(Zusak, p. 111) and Communists as well as the Jews were "the main offender in regard to violating the German ideal"(Zusak, p. 111). "In 1933, 90 percent of Germans showed unflinching support for Adolf Hitler" (Zusak, p. 63), which means they took it for granted to wipe out Communists and Jews in the name of achieving the "great goal" of the nation. It was because of such crazy nationalism that the whole society became fanatical to commit flagitious crimes without realizing it. Because of the blind patriotism, Germans spied on their neighbors, colleagues and even friends who showed less "loyalty" to the country. For instance, when Liesel's foster father gave food to an old Jew on his way to the concentration camp, he got whipped in public and was despised by the people in his neighborhood. It can be said that the blind patriotism reverted the normality of the whole society and turned the mundane world into hell.

In *Grave of the Fireflies*, patriotism has a militaristic root and it runs throughout the story. When Setsuko asked Seita what to do after losing their house in the bombing, Seita only replied that Dad would make them pay. Apparently, he did not understand the war so deep but just wanted to win it and became a man like his father, a navy officer. In his neighborhood, residents admired those who work for the country and he had been raised up to have that ideology without doubt. However, such patriotism was dangerous because those people did not realize the war triggered by their military was unjustified. Initially, Japanese people were not so that involved in the Second World War because most of the wars happened abroad. It was until their troops attacked Pearl Harbor that Japanese mainland, Kobe included, was firebombed indiscriminately as revenge by America. On June 5th 1945, 350 B-29 bombers firebombed Kobe (Nosaka, 2009, p.7), which is the beginning of the whole story. The carpet bombings caused the direct death of innocent civilians but the worse part of war lied in the spiritual devastation of people, such as the deterioration of humanity and demoralization of the society. When the siblings went to a distant aunt for help, the widow, instead of showing compassion to them, bullied them materially and spiritually. She took the food they brought as her own and shared it with her neighbour. When food supply shrank, she offered the siblings much less than they needed but left sufficient food to her own family. She became more and more resentful towards them as time passed by and abused them by words, which made Seita decide to move out. Later, when Setsuko became weaker and weaker day by day, Seita brought her to a doctor, who just gave them a cold shoulder and told them to have a nutritional supplement. Seita and Setsuko might be unaware of the difficulties in store for them if they left their aunt's house, however, the widow, as an adult, should have expected what would happen, but she didn't dissuade them (Akimoto, 2014). And the doctor, whose job is to help patients, turned his back to the siblings even though he knew Seita was unable to buy nutritious food for his sister and the poor little girl would die for that. The whole society became extremely impassive, which resulted in the high mortality for war orphans.

Comparing with *The Book Thief* and *Grave of the Fireflies*, we can find out that war is the foremost traumatic factor to be blamed for the miseries happened on those children and that the blind patriotism is the deep evil root for the tragedies. Statistically, there were 123,500 war orphans in Japan caused by the Asia Pacific War (Kaneda, 2013). If they were luckily enough, they might find a good foster family. Unfortunately, the world was not a fairyland for those children. Apart from the trauma of losing their family, their nightmare continued because of the abuse or even human trafficking, which accounted for their escape from the "sanctuary". During wartime, soldiers fought against other soldiers in different countries but people fought against their own country mates in the same society to survive. It was like what Thomas Hobbes described—a state in which human beings are wolves to each other. For Seita and Setsuko, they seemed to be free from trauma due to death. But what happened on them reflects the situation of war orphans. Although war ended decades ago, the traumatic memory remains till now.

V. TREATMENTS

From *The Book Thief* and *Grave of the Fireflies*, we realize that trauma events have a tremendous influence on people. For children, unconsciously, they tend to suppress bad memories instead of confronting them. But concealing the wound can only worsen the situation. Children must be supported and guided by an empathetic and informed adult to express their suffering (Labouisse, 1946). In those sleepless nights, the company of her foster father comforted Liesel, even though at the beginning he just sat there quietly. When people suffered from traumatic memories, they are stressed out to trust others and will build inner walls to protect themselves from being hurt again. At first the behaviors of Liesel revealed her anxiety and fragility, but her foster father tore down her walls gently by consistently soothing her and loving her. Liesel was unfortunate to separate with her family but fortunately enough to have a foster parent caring about her. That is the key step for Liesel to heal the trauma and start a new life.

Another element to accelerate the healing is sharing the traumatic experiences with others. If love and care from her foster parents help Liesel to reestablish her identity in their neighborhood, Max Vandenburg, the hidden Jew in Liesel's

home, makes her know her pain is understood. Like Liesel, Max also suffered from PTSD and had nightmare every night. What Max saw was the scene he left the family and ran away alone. He felt guilty to leave his family and tried to survive alone. For Liesel, she always saw her died brother. They didn't have to describe how heartbreaking and terrified they were, but could empathize with each other immediately. "The girl and the Jew, together: 'Ja-yes'" (Zusak, p.220). "Yes" was a laconic agreement, but carried untold miseries for them. Liesel and Max's understanding towards each other is like a medicine to their trauma, from which a bud of friendship blooms.

To speak out the traumatic experience, to be empathized or just to be understood accelerates the healing. Even though after swapping nightmares Liesel and Max were still unable to get rid of them, at least Liesel tried to "cope on her own with the dreams" (Zusak, p.220), which was a signal of self-healing. Liesel was lucky to be adopted by her foster parents. Even if she lived in poverty and could not have enough food to eat, she had received sufficient love and care, which gradually led her to a normal life. But not all the children had the luck to be adopted by a caring foster family or developed friendship with another PTSD-patient with whom he could share his feelings. For example, Seita and Setsuko, though they had a guardian, failed to receive material support, needless to say the emotional one. What worsens the situation is the siblings seem to have been abandoned by the society. After leaving their aunt's house, they settled down in a discarded bomb shelter and lived on themselves. Residents in the neighborhood knew their living condition and troubles, but no one came helping them. No one condemned the widow for casting the siblings away nor cared about them. People did not bother themselves to help others when they barely made their ends meet. What's more, they even loathed war orphans. All those things make an explanation for the poor situation of children in war like Seita and Setsuko. To sum up, individually, love, care, company and chances to speak out the pain can be the treatments for those who have traumatic experiences.

On the macro level, it can be said that all the civilians in war could be the victims. World War II was the most brutal one that human has ever had. It witnessed massive indiscriminate killings. The fatalities ranged from 70-85 million, 50-55 million of which were civilians (Wikipedia, World War II casualties). People involved directly or indirectly in the war suffered a lot from their traumatic memory. The lasting status of poverty, starvation, fear or even anger made them depressed and trauma events caused them to develop some kind of psychoneurotic disorder more or less. Traumatic memories became a collective memory for all the people involved in World War II. Imagine that those soldiers were someone's husband, father, brother and son and because of war they went to the war front leaving a broken family. Among those indirectly involved civilians, children were the most vulnerable group. They needed food for their growing bodies when the food supplies were insufficient; they did not have enough resistance to disease when the food or water were contaminated; they were too young to understand why all these miseries happened; and they were dependant on their parents all over. When a child lost his parents, it means he could either be adopted by other people or die. Under either circumstance could they have a trauma worse than the war itself or be destroyed. Thus, allowing everyone to speak out their traumatic stories and listening with understanding and compassion can be treatments for human as a whole, which are equivalent to remedying the past and enlightening the future.

VI. CONCLUSION

On the one hand, by comparing *The Book Thief* and *Grave of the Fireflies* we can find many similarities in between such as the motif and the background of the story, traumatic experiences due to war and the didactic meaning attached to them. On the other hand, there is a big difference mirrored on these two protagonists. For Liesel, even though she was taught why they had war or why Jews or Communist had to be wiped out, at least she still felt sympathetic to those people and thought her foster father did the right thing when he showed kindness to the Jew. On the contrary, when Seita saw his ruined hometown, he only wanted his father revenge for them. He was taught it was a just war and all the people should make contribution to the country. He seemed to be brainwashed and followed the orders blindly. Seita was a victim of the war but he could have probably become a perpetrator if he were old enough to serve in the army. Therefore, we should learn the history holistically. Why do the tragedies happen again and again? How do people think about the war? What can we learn from those terrible war experiences and avoid collisions, even war in the future? Through analyzing the two books based on trauma narratives, we can easily draw a conclusion that war and the blind patriotism cause miseries to all the people and that is the reason why we should cherish peace. Furthermore, children and teenagers are too innocent and credulous. Therefore, they should be taught the right things and establish correct values. And for all of us, we should learn from the past: As John Donne wrote in his poetry, no man is an island and every man is a piece of the continent. When a war breaks out, nobody will be excluded. Thus, what we can do is be wise and rational because history often repeats itself.

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Manli Peng was born in Hubei Province, China. She is currently a postgraduate in the College of Foreign Languages, University of Shanghai for Science and Technology, Shanghai, China. Her major is English Language and Literature.

Yan Hua graduated from University of Shanghai for Science and Technology (USST) in 1996. She is currently associate professor at USST. Her research interests mainly are Australian Literature and Teaching Methodology.

The Effect of Cooperative Learning Activities on Enhancing the Writing Skills of Syrian EFL Learners at Arab International University

Manal Shammout

Arab International University, Damascus, Syria

Abstract—This paper aims at enhancing writing skills by using cooperative learning strategies since recent methodologies in foreign language teaching have deviated the shift of focus from traditional teacher-oriented classes to more learner-centered contexts. Among the methods endorsed in teaching writing is the application of Cooperative Learning (CL). The use of CL has become an increasingly popular method to improve the learner's linguistic, social and communicative competence. This research investigated the effects of CL to improve the writing skill of AIU students. A questionnaire was done to spot their problems and weak points. The quasi experimental design was used, with pre-test and post-test of two different kinds of essay as an instrument. Two different kinds of studies were employed qualitatively and quantitatively to analyze the data. The students' writing was scored on the five writing components which were content, vocabulary, organization, grammar and mechanics see (Yusuf, Jusoh, & Yusuf, 2019). After analyzing the results of the post test, it was noted that there was a significant increase in the scores of students' writing in comparison with their marks of the pretest as a result of implementing cooperative learning. Subsequently, the results lent credence to the positive effects of cooperative learning in enhancing writing performance and teachers were able to involve more students to participate and the class environment was very encouraging and intriguing. EFL participants in a cooperative learning ambience managed to foster the linguistic competence that they need to acquire which was also tackled in the paper.

Index Terms—cooperative learning, jigsaw, STAD, writing

I. INTRODUCTION

Since English is becoming the lingua franca in the 21st century, it is the most important language which is being employed for communication purposes across the globe. To deliver a message successfully, the four skills should be mastered. When learning a foreign language, writing is the most challenging and problematic skill among the other language skills (i.e. reading, speaking and listening) for both learners and teachers as such (Kustati & Yuhardi, 2014). The low proficiency of their language and the lack of knowledge in vocabulary, grammar, spelling, and punctuation further contribute to the students' lack of interest in writing (Karim, 2012, as cited in Yusuf, Jusoh, & Yusuf, 2019). Simultaneously, teachers of English struggle trying to find the best method in teaching writing, especially in Syria where English is treated as a foreign language. However, among the countless language learning theories, cooperative learning theory can solve the problem and help the teachers teaching the writing skill especially essay writing skills.

The important role of cooperative learning in writing:

Many scholars have tried to define cooperative learning. The definitions were listed chronologically by the researcher. One definition was by Slavin (1980) who considers this method of learning a kind of a competition where a limited number of learners write together and they are awarded after evaluating their performance. According to Johnson & Johnson, cooperative learning is implemented to find a solution for a problem suggested by the teacher or to accomplish a task by working cooperatively in classroom (1986). The four main cooperative principles of learning, namely positive interdependence, individual accountability, equal participation and simultaneous interaction are what constitute cooperative learning for Kagan (1994). If any of these principles is missed, this will lead to a non-cooperative learning situation. Unlike individualistic and competitive learning, cooperative Learning (CL) is considered an effective instructional approach which deals with the characteristics of learner-centered approaches (Brown, 2001). Working together in groups promotes student's linguistic, cognitive, and social development (Johnson and Johnson, 1998a). Those principles are embodied by CL methods in an attempt to provide structure for students' interaction (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). However, in the Syrian universities in particular, students are taught traditionally and the teacher is the only source of information; therefore, it becomes urgently important to apply the CL cooperative learning in Syrian classes to solve the problem of teacher-centered classes. In this study, two cooperative strategies were used during the course in the treatment sessions i.e. the student teams-achievement divisions (STAD) which is one of Slavin's cooperative learning approaches in which small groups of learners with mixed abilities worked together to accomplish a shared learning goal and the second strategy was Jigsaw (Aronson & Patnoe, 2011) where expert students had to hold a meeting together to discuss the ideas that their teams suggested. As group experts, they presented their

points to the whole class. Then, students went back to their original teams which were called home teams. They shared points and came up with a writing piece. Coop Jigsaw is a combination of mastery and concept development which involves theory and practice (Kagan 1994). Thanks to the intense focus on group work to enhance the students' writing skills, the researcher of this study intended to further investigate how CL developed the writing skill by answering the following research question: Is students' essay writing skill improved by cooperative activities? Bearing this question in mind, the study findings were reckoned to bestow advantages and insights to teachers, syllabus designers, and teacher trainees at universities and institutes as one of the alternative methods in the teaching and learning processes.

The research back ground and context:

This research was conducted in the center of foreign languages FLC at Arab International University, where the researcher teaches a credited course for academic writing and research skills (AWR). This course is divided into three parts: the first part is dedicated to academic writing teaching students how to write four different kinds of essays, how to conduct research is presented in part two and part three contains a grammar aid booklet which is a remedial self-study one for low proficiency students. One among many objectives of this course, learners were instructed to write academic essays of different types and to learn how to paraphrase and summarize.

Research rationale:

Learners enrolled in AWR course at FLC usually find it difficult to develop their writing skills because they used to write individually without the support of their peers. Most learners got very low marks in the writing section and as a result failed this course. Hence, the researcher suggested a new way of dealing with this problem which was using group work in treatment sessions to facilitate the process and encourage them to write. In addition, these sessions aim at diminishing students' anxiety when writing individually, fostering their confidence and gaining their self-esteem. The researcher believed that using the STAD and Jigsaw helped achieve this goal. By adopting those two strategies, learners were able to brainstorm, discuss, write, and proofread their ideas together.

II. METHODOLOGY

Design:

This study investigated the effects of using CL's strategies i.e. STAD and Jigsaw in improving writing skills among AWR students at Arab International University. Research methodology relied on the quantitative and qualitative analysis. Its focus on progressive measurement of the group under training during a restricted duration made the quasi-experimental research design the most appropriate one to be implemented in this study. In addition, it uses the pretest and posttest design which aims at analyzing the students' essays which are called the dependent variable twice, namely before and after the CL application i.e. training or treatment sessions see (Cook & Campbell, 1979). Furthermore, a questionnaire was designed and used to explore the students' assumptions, problems and weak points before conducting the research.

Sample:

Data were collected from one class that comprises 30 students. These students were of mixed abilities ranged from a low level of proficiency to a high-proficiency level in English language. These levels were based on the result of the placement test that they had done before being enrolled in their courses. The targeted students were never exposed to cooperative learning.

Research Instruments:

Four instruments were used in this study. A questionnaire was done in the beginning of the course to investigate their assumptions and weak points; in addition to taking a pre-test in the beginning of the course too before applying the STAD and Jigsaw strategies and towards the end of the course a post-test was taken. These tests were conducted to examine the students' writing skill based on AWR syllabus that has been authored by teachers at AIU. The structure and questions of the writing tests were done by the researcher and approved by the center of languages FLC at AIU. Therefore, the students knew how to answer these tests because they had sat for similar tests in their previous remedial courses in the center. The questions tested the material that the students were taught during the course. Thus, the topic that they had to write about in the pretest was whether they agree or disagree with the statement that "self-confidence is a key for success", where the students were required to write an opinion genre and in the post test they wrote about the following topic: "the problem of unemployment" which was a problem-solution genre.

Procedures:

This research was conducted during the whole period of the AWR course. The paper relied on four tools: the questionnaire, the pre-test, the treatment sessions and the post-test. In running the study, the researcher was the teacher who monitored every single step in the study. The AWR sessions were held twice a week, every Saturday, and Wednesday. Every session used to last for 90 minutes. The research was carried out in a period that lasted for twelve weeks. The questionnaire was administered in the first week. In week two, Students were asked to write an opinion essay on the following topic "self-confidence is a key for success". Then students were trained and became familiar with the cooperative learning activities in the treatment sessions for three weeks. Two cooperative activities were chosen, namely the Jigsaw (Aronson & Patnoe, 2011) and the Students Team Achievement Division (STAD) (Slavin, 2011). The training continued for the next six weeks implementing the CL course principles. The post-test was administered in the eleventh week where students had to write about the following topic: "the problem of

unemployment' which was a problem-solution genre. The researcher finalized the study by evaluating the tasks and the whole process. The procedure is further described in the following sub-sections.

a. The questionnaire:

This questionnaire was designed to check the difficulties that students usually face when they write alone. It included 10 items with three-point Likert scale: agree, disagree and neutral. It was done individually. The purpose and the items of the questionnaire were clarified to students. When finished, analytical scoring was done to help the researcher investigate his hypothesis.

b. Pre-test and Post-test (opinion and problem-solution essays):

During the second week, the pretest was taken by students who were asked by the researcher to write an opinion essay about the following topic "self-confidence is a key for success". The students had to write an essay for 45 minutes and no more than 120 words. The mark was out of 25. After completing six weeks of CL lessons, they were given their post-test. The post test was conducted on the eleventh week. At the end, analytical scoring was conducted to evaluate the students' pre-test and post-test. In this scoring, each writing component is assessed separately and the total score is based on the totality of the components (Ismail & Maasum, 2009, as cited in Yusuf, Jusoh, & Yusuf, 2019).

c. Training (Treatment Session) in Cooperative Approach:

Treatment sessions took six weeks, from the fifth until the tenth week, where twelve sessions (thirty-five minutes per session) were allotted to the CL training. During the treatment period, two types of CL methods were implemented, which were Jigsaw and Student Teams-Achievement Division (STAD). After analyzing the pre-test scores and level of proficiency, five students were grouped. Each group consisted of one weak, three average and one high performance students. The result was six equal teams out of the thirty students, consisting of male and female students. From the beginning, the teacher asked students of the teams to brainstorm ideas on the given topic. The next step in Jigsaw method was to discuss the ideas that were suggested by one team with students from the other teams who had their ideas to be shared too. This team was the expert group. After the discussion phase was over, they met their original team back which was called the home group and started exchanging the ideas they gathered from the expert group with their team mates. Those groups of students worked together to develop the course material. The aim of depending on group work was to guarantee that everyone in this group could comprehend the material and eventually they were able to do the test (Slavin, 1995). As far as the next phase is concerned, students in this stage had to know their roles well. In addition, the teacher's role ought to be clarified to students by applying the procedures of STAD. Shifting roles among students enabled each member in the team to play all the roles in the period of training. The goal behind assigning students various roles to play and different duties to achieve was a hope and an attempt to accomplish the basic principles for Johnson & Johnson (1994) which were high quality learning, positive interdependence and individual accountability among the learners. Later, one student of each group was named as a spokesperson to represent his/her team and present the team's ideas by providing instantaneous feedbacks after the presentation ended. Here comes the role of the teacher to award the team with the best presentation a winner. According to Slavin (1995), class presentations, teams, quizzes, and team recognition were found important in the application of STAD in the classroom. The treatment session started by the teacher presenting the information that they were subsequently tested. Students in that experiment worked together as a team but they were graded individually. Their scores were compared with their scores of the pretest. The team with a highest score was awarded which created an atmosphere of positive competition for all members of the team or for none of the group. As a result, each one of the group was equally responsible for the success or the failure of the group. Team rewards, individual accountability and equal opportunities for success were Slavin's three main concepts of STAD (1995).

III. RESULTS ANALYSIS

The Questionnaire:

The percentage of those who responded with Agree was calculated. The results of the questionnaire were presented in the following table (1):

Agree= 1 Disagree=2 Neutral=3

TABLE 1:
QUESTIONNAIRE ANALYSIS

	Questions									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Respondent 1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Respondent 2	1	1	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Respondent 3	1	1	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	3
Respondent 4	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	1
Respondent 5	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	1
Respondent 6	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1
Respondent 7	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	2	1
Respondent 8	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	1	1
Respondent 9	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1
Respondent 10	1	2	1	1	3	1	1	1	1	1
Respondent 11	1	1	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Respondent 12	1	1	2	1	1	3	1	1	1	1
Respondent 13	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1
Respondent 14	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	1	1	1
Respondent 15	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	1
Respondent 16	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Respondent 17	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
Respondent 18	1	3	2	1	1	3	1	1	1	1
Respondent 19	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Respondent 20	1	1	1	1	3	3	1	1	1	1
Respondent 21	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Respondent 22	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Respondent 23	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Respondent 24	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Respondent 25	1	3	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	1
Respondent 26	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	1
Respondent 27	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	1
Respondent 28	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	3	2	1
Respondent 29	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	3	3	1
Respondent 30	1	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	1
Percentage	90%	86%	73%	83%	90%	76%	90%	83%	76%	96%

The following table clarifies the number of the respondents who chose agree in each question:

TABLE 2

Questions	Agree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3
1	27	1	2
2	26	1	3
3	22	5	3
4	25	3	2
5	27	1	2
6	23	2	5
7	28	1	1
8	26	0	4
9	23	4	3
10	29	0	1

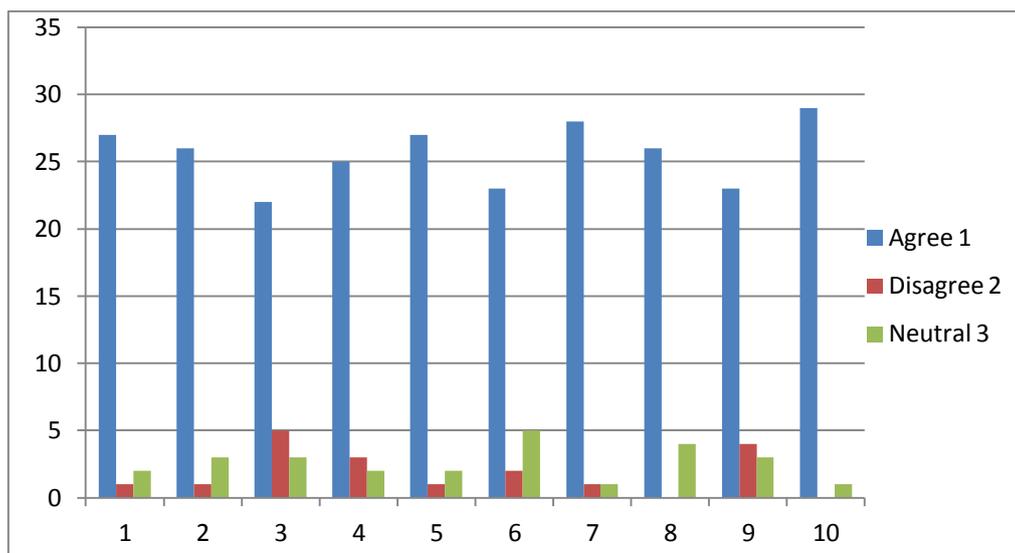


Figure 1: Three likert scale analysis chart

As it is illustrated in the bar chart above, the number of those who chose AGREE is the highest. It ranged between 22 and 29. Whereas the percentage of those who answered with DISAGREE and NEUTRAL was way lower. It did not exceed six at best.

Pre-test and Post-test:

The aim behind administering two tests was to compare their scores before the treatment and after it by verifying whether there was a significant difference in the students' writing skill. Content, vocabulary, organization, grammar and mechanics were scored and evaluated before and after the application of CL in the writing class. Statistics were done to analyze the pre-test and post-test by comparing their mark in each component as it is shown in the table below. The paired-samples t-test was applied since there was one group of students in this study, and the data from them were collected at two different times (Pallant, 2001, as cited in Ismail & Maasum, 2009).

TABLE 3
PRE AND POSTTESTS RESULTS' ANALYSIS

Components	Content		Vocabulary		Organization		Grammar		Mechanics	
	pre	post	pre	post	pre	post	pre	post	pre	post
Respondent 1	2	4	2	3	1	4	1	3	2	4
Respondent 2	1	4	3	5	1	4	1	3	1	2
Respondent 3	2	3	3	4	1	4	1	3	1	3
Respondent 4	2	4	2	3	1	4	1	3	2	4
Respondent 5	1	4	3	5	1	4	1	3	1	2
Respondent 6	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1
Respondent 7	2	4	2	3	4	4	1	3	2	4
Respondent 8	1	4	3	5	1	4	1	3	1	2
Respondent 9	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1
Respondent 10	1	4	3	5	2	4	4	3	2	2
Respondent 11	1	3	1	2	1	5	1	3	3	5
Respondent 12	1	4	3	5	2	4	3	3	2	2
Respondent 13	1	4	3	5	1	4	1	3	1	3
Respondent 14	1	4	3	5	1	3	1	3	1	2
Respondent 15	1	4	3	5	3	4	1	3	1	2
Respondent 16	1	3	1	2	1	5	2	3	3	5
Respondent 17	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
Respondent 18	1	3	2	1	1	3	1	1	1	1
Respondent 19	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Respondent 20	1	1	1	1	3	3	1	1	1	1
Respondent 21	1	3	1	2	1	5	1	3	3	5
Respondent 22	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Respondent 23	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Respondent 24	1	3	1	2	1	5	1	3	3	5
Respondent 25	1	4	3	5	1	4	1	3	1	2
Respondent 26	1	3	2	4	1	2	1	4	2	1
Respondent 27	3	4	1	3	1	5	1	2	3	4
Respondent 28	1	4	1	3	1	1	1	3	2	1
Respondent 29	1	3	1	2	1	5	1	3	3	5
Respondent 30	1	4	3	5	1	3	1	3	1	2
Percentage	1.9%	4.5%	2.9%	4.6%	1.9%	5%	1.8%	3.7%	2.4%	3.7%

Treatment sessions:

In the process of teaching writing, Jigsaw and STAD (Student Team Achievement Division) equally affected the students' motivation and comprehension towards writing.

In the beginning of the course, negative attitudes were prevalent and students were reluctant and showed negligence towards writing. Many of them refused to write. They were discouraged and they needed something to trigger them to write.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The questionnaire:

After analyzing the percentage of each question in the questionnaire and the illustration of the results in the bar chart, the following was inferred from each question. It is seen in question 1 that 90% of respondents used to write alone and only 10% tried writing in groups. 86% of students felt bored and lost interest in writing individually as it is clear in the result of question 2. In analyzing question 3, 73% agreed that writing about an interesting topic is an easy task. 83% confirmed that it will be more motivating to discuss writing topics in groups in question 4. In question 5, 90% emphasized that it was difficult to brainstorm ideas alone. 76% found that writing smoothly and logically was hard without the support of their colleagues inferred from question 6. 90% stated that finding the proper vocabularies individually was a problem according to question 7. It is shown in question 8 that 83% committed lots of grammatical mistakes when they used to write alone. Moreover, 76% thought in question 9 that editing and proofreading writing will be easier in groups. Finally, 96% agreed that their writing will improve by writing in groups in question 10.

Pretest and posttest:

Students' scores increased in the post-test and this implied a better performance by the students in comparison with their pre-test results in writing. Table 2 shows the difference of main scores in the five writing components i.e. content, vocabulary, organization, grammar and mechanics.

Table 2 clarifies that the marks of the pretest ranged from 1 to 3, while in the post test, they were between 1 and 5. This shows a notable increase in the results of these two tests. There is a 2 mark increase. The percentage increase of the totality of each component demonstrated the improvement in their writing skill after using the CL strategies. Therefore, the students' writing had improved in the post-test unlike the pre-test after implementing the cooperative learning method taking into consideration the scores increase as a good indicator (see Table 2). This indicates that the students' five components in writing became better after the teacher had employed CL in teaching writing.

Treatment session:

After implementing the two cooperative methods, students' performance improved and they showed more interest. Working in groups facilitated the process by making them more independent and diminishing the dominant role of the teacher. Artz and Newman (1990, as cited in Yusuf, Jusoh, & Yusuf, 2019) clarify that this method organizes a classroom in such a way that students are able to work together in cooperative teams, each with a role that can ensure interdependence.

After six weeks of CL treatment, their writing became better and most of them got higher marks in the five writing components of content, organization, vocabulary, grammar and organization as it was clear in the post-test results. By working together, they became more confident and were able to promote their communication skills such as negotiating, prioritizing and decision-making. In jigsaw, students discussed with the members of the expert group and then went back to their home group and started negotiating which idea was valid and which one not. In case a problem arose, they worked together to solve it, especially the low proficiency students without the interference of the teacher. There was an ambience of respect and appreciation. On the other hand, STAD was also effective and efficient particularly the 'group recognition' phase where each student had a mission to achieve even low achievers managed to improve their marks in tests because they had a role to play in the group to obtain a reward and raise their self-esteem (Yusuf, Natsir and Hanum, 2015; Slavin, 1995).

Conclusion:

It could be inferred that implementing cooperative strategies in writing fostered students' confidence and helped them promote their writing skills. Moreover, it trained them indirectly not to be selfish and diminish peer competition and isolation (Slavin, 2011). In addition, the class ambience became healthier and students' self-esteem was regained (Johnson & Johnson, 2000; Slavin, 2011)

Limitations of the study:

Some problems arose during the treatment sessions that prevented some students from getting the benefit of cooperative strategies and in turn improving their writing. The first case was introvert students who liked to work individually and did not enjoy the noise of group work. Another problem was overconfident students who wanted to work alone. In addition to overconfident students, there was the problem of students who have a strong personality. Those students wanted to show that they were the best and took the lion's share preventing low achievers from contribution. The last limitation was low achievers who could not cope with the tasks and found writing an impossible task because of their weak linguistic knowledge and ability. Their level was not up to the required level of the course.

APPENDIX. QUESTIONNAIRE I: STUDENTS' OPINIONS TOWARD COOPERATIVE WRITING ACTIVITIES

Subject: AWR

Activity: Opinion Essay Using Cooperative Strategies

Level: upper-intermediate

Semester: 2018.3

University: AIU

Name:

PART I:

Instruction: Place A Tick \checkmark In The Appropriate Boxes Which Are True And Accorded With Your Opinions.

Item	Performance and opinion	Agree	Disagree	Neutral
1	Academic writing was not interactive (no pair-work and group-work).			
2	Writing alone is boring.			
3	Choosing an interesting topic makes writing easier.			
4	Discussing the writing topics with my friends is motivating.			
5	Brainstorming ideas is difficult.			
6	Organizing ideas and sentences logically is difficult.			
7	Finding appropriate vocabularies is not easy.			
8	I have a lot of grammatical mistakes.			
9	Proofreading and editing will be easier in groups.			
10	Using cooperative activities like group work could improve my writing skills			

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Manal Shammout. Born in Damascus, Syria, January, 1980. Studied English language and literature at Damascus University. Did a diploma in linguistics Damascus University, 2008. Got a Master degree in general linguistics, Damascus University, 2008.

She worked for private language institutes. Also worked as an English language instructor at Damascus University. (2001 -Present) worked for Yarmouk Private University, Qasouin Private University and the Arab international University in Damascus, Syria.

A Cultural Journey of Eileen Chang's *Half Lifelong Romance*—A Study of Karen Kingsbury's English Translation

Naizhuo Kong

Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, Peking, China

Yuanfei Yao

West China Normal University, Nanchong, Sichuan, China

Abstract—*Half Lifelong Romance* translated and introduced by Karen Kingsbury, a translation research expert of Eileen Chang, was published by Penguin Press in 2012. This modern and contemporary female literature has been known by Western readers from the eastern continent, and its cultural journey has crossed the language barrier. Based on this, this paper will explain the cultural travel of Eileen Chang's English version from the perspective of classics, translator's view and Eugene Nida's division of culture, in order to bring some enlightenment to the translation of Chinese and English studies.

Index Terms—cultural journey, Karen Kingsbury, *Half Lifelong Romance*

I. INTRODUCTION

Le Daiyun said: "to go to the world, Chinese literature should participate in the dialogue of world literature. Only mutual understanding can lead to dialogue, and only dialogue can lead to mutual understanding." (Le Daiyun, 2014, p.64). If Chinese literature wants to talk with the world and connect with the world, translation is necessary. Since ancient times, "translation has been acting as an intermediary and bridge between different languages and cultures. Translation is also the exchange of cultural content in different language containers." (Wang Yinchong, 2018, p.ix). However, the successful translation of a work is bound to cross the cultural boundary, in which translation becomes a process of transformation. This process is called cultural journey.

In 2007, Eileen Chang's novel *love in a fallen city* was translated by Karen Kingsbury, which made a great sensation when it was published and was included in the famous Penguin Classic Library in the UK. Soon, another translation of Karen Kingsbury, *Half a Lifetime Romance*, entered the library. The successful translation of Eileen Chang's translation is mainly attributed to Karen Kingsbury's translation view. "In an interview, Karen Kingsbury talked about the translation of *Love in the City*. She believed that the novel would attract readers because of its vivid language, profound philosophy, rich social environment, distinct characters and complete story structure." (Chou Jing, 2015). Karen Kingsbury said that these factors are the main reasons why she chose *love in a fallen city* as the translation theme and research theme. It can be seen that the translator's "cultural consciousness" is particularly important in the process of translating and introducing novels. In analyzing Howard Goldblatt's English translation of *Sandalwood Death* by Mo Yan, Lu Qiaodan holds that the cultural journey is to show the charm of one's own culture, and at the same time to integrate harmoniously into foreign cultures" (Lu Qiaodan, 2015, p.48). This process can be briefly summarized as seeking common ground while reserving differences, which is undoubtedly the same as the "literary dialogue" of Le Daiyun's.

The successful translation and introduction of Eileen Chang's *Half a Lifetime Romance* means the classic status of this work in modern and contemporary Chinese literature, which is the primary guarantee of cultural travel. Therefore, this paper attempts to analyze the travel path of the novel in two different cultures and explore the translation strategies adopted by Karen Kingsbury in different cultural backgrounds, in order to bring enlightenment to the translation of the novel.

II. DISCUSSIONS & ANALYSIS

A. The Classicality of *Half a Lifetime Romance*

The classic of literature is an important factor to ensure that a work can travel successfully in a foreign culture. What is the classicality of literature? In the words of E. Dean Kolbas, "the unique cognitive value of literary works, as well as their objective truth, are embedded in their formal aesthetic characteristics." (E. Dean Kolbas, 2001, p.114). A successful work must have a unique aesthetic value and exist in the form of expression chosen by literature. In other words, it is the perfect combination of story and form. And *Half a Lifetime Romance* is such a work, its form of

discourse expression and the content of the story is a perfect combination. Eileen Chang imitates different characters to narrate, and any ideological connotation and enlightenment are integrated into the unity of form and story.

The classic feature of the novel is Eileen Chang's "uniqueness of creation process, theme and character setting" (Yang Pengfei, 2001, p.58). The novel was first named *Eighteen spring* and later *Half a Lifetime Romance*. Eileen Chang added political color to the literary writing of *eighteen spring*, so when she arrived in the United States, she rewritten it, breaking the traditional love hate tangle of spoony men and women, and named it *Half a Lifetime Romance*. This work is a reinterpretation and interpretation of Eileen Chang's personal destiny, and it is also her creative style of breaking vulgar comedy. Secondly, in terms of the choice of theme, *Half a Lifetime Romance* is a familiar theme of Eileen Chang, which reveals the philosophy of nihilism. In a novel called *love*, she said, "meet the people you want to meet among millions of people, in thousands of years, in the boundless wilderness of time, there is no earlier or later step, just happened to be on, there is no other words to say, but gently ask, 'Oh, are you here?'" (Eileen Chang, 1992). From this, we can find that Chang's view of love is a kind of nihilism of fireworks passing away. Finally, the characters in Eileen Chang's works, especially the male characters, are often of the same type. No matter Shijun or Zhu Hongcai, they are all "children's corpses soaked in wine vat" (Eileen Chang, 1992). Although the appearance has been blistered, the heart is still the child's mind. In one of the key elements of the story--action, these male characters have no idea what responsibility, obligation and responsibility are. But in Eileen Chang's characterization, it is precisely because of the impotence of men that women's miserable life is created, rather than directly through a large number of descriptions of women's painful life, to make readers feel directly. In this emotional line between Manzhen and Shijun, it can be said that Shijun is the main cause of tragedy. If he can be brave and take the initiative to eliminate misunderstanding, if he can be faithful to love and believe in Manzhen's view of love how could their relationship be only "half life"? Therefore, although the male characters in the novel for the first time are quite different from those in the past on the surface, showing the new social features and the new characters under the historical conditions, the essence of them has not changed at all. Their inner and spiritual weakness and cowardice are the reflection and expression of the collective unconsciousness of the personality defects left over from the feudal patriarchal society for thousands of years.

Eileen Chang, with her keen observation and artistic plot setting, makes the work *Half a Lifetime Romance* truly classic. The intrinsic artistry and classics of the novel become the beginning of the successful translation of the novel and the first step of the cultural travel of the novel.

B. A study of Karen Kingsbury's View of Translation

In the process of translation study, the translator is also an easy to be ignored research object. People paid more attention to the author of literary works than the translator. However, the translator is the bridge between the text, the reader, the author and the editor. As a cultural coordinator, the translator should endeavor to balance and coordinate the eastern and western cultures so that the translation can not only reflect the charm of the eastern culture, but also be accepted by the western culture. Translation studies have become a major trend in translation studies, especially in translation sociology, translation history and translator decision-making. It is this fluidity and contradiction that makes the study of translators more meaningful and interesting. There are rational and irrational aspects in the choice of translators. They are living in a complex and changing historical society. They are not only faced with the requirements of translation norms and translators' ethics, but also have different abilities, beliefs, responsibilities and preferences.

Besides, translators' daily life often influences their choice of objects, ideas and strategies, and some even play a key role in the process. This kind of double experience, repeated cultural shock, open family environment and good education background shaped her as a "mixed culture child".^[9] Therefore, the translator's translation strategy plays an important role in promoting the cultural journey of his works.

As an English translator of Eileen Chang's novels, in the selection of translation materials, the translator's subjective commonness and external objective conditions, Karen Kingsbury plays an important role. During his study at Columbia University, she was deeply influenced by Xia Zhiqing, her supervisor, and gradually began to contact Eileen Chang's works. Eileen Chang's *Half a Lifetime Romance* contains unique writing and wording, psychological insight, rich emotion and outlook on life, which can help me better understand what self-esteem, encounter and desire are, which causes the resonance between Karen 's emotion and her works, and becomes one of the reasons why she chooses to translate it; in addition, the novel is rich in philosophical thoughts, distinctive character, etc., and is self-contained. It has never been translated since it came out, which is another reason why she translated *Half a Lifetime Romance*. At the same time, Eileen Chang's writing style is influenced by western literary works. In terms of the setting of characters in the novel, Chang's discourse has a similarity with some works, especially the work, *H. M. PulHam, Esqire* written by J. P. Marquand, an American Pulitzer Prize winning writer. And so it indicates that the target language readers will adapt to and accept the work well and quickly.

In a word, Karen Kingsbury's view of translation can be expressed in two very appropriate metaphors, that is, "the metaphor of pianist" and "the metaphor of film" (Tan Jiangua, 2011, p.25). She believes that translation is the translator's interpretation of subjectivity, only a reader's interpretation. The translator is only on his own to convey the psychological and sensory stimulation of his works to himself (and a large number of Chinese readers, of course). "The translation between languages is not a mechanical transformation, like changing the melody from one tune to another," she said. It is a kind of interpretation, which is the behavior of personal subjective mind to transform art materials from one medium to another.

C. *A Journey Abroad under Nida's Cultural Classification*

In the last century, the study of translation theory has been further developed, and it appears that cultural school of translation, which includes Evan Zohar's view on the operation of multiple systems, Lefevere's rewriting, Herman's concept of manipulation, Evan Zohar, Toury's terms of multiple systems, formal Library, classics, norms, etc Lefevere's "three factors" theory of "ideology", "Poetics" and "patronage"(Yaoyuanfei& Li Congli, 2019). In addition, Eugene A. Nida is a famous linguist. His previous studies, "from the perspective of linguistics, put forward many important theories such as 'functional equivalence', and then extended his translation theory to the field of culture" (Yaoyuanfei& Li Congli, 2019).

In the new edition of principles of comparative literature, Le Daiyun proposed that "the research of comparative literature has risen to the research of comparative culture"(Le Daiyun, 2014). Therefore, according to our national strategy, One Belt and Road, the cultural go global strategy, translation should also rise to the deep level of culture. Therefore, "the academic study of translation should regard it as a kind of cultural information exchanged in a symbolic way under the dual cultural background between the source language and the target language." (Yao Yuanfei& Li Congli, 2019) And the work from one language to another is a cultural change. From the perspective of Nida's cultural classification to analyze the translator's translation strategy, we can see the cultural journey of a work from different cultural backgrounds. Next, we will classify Nida culture into ecological culture, material culture, religious culture, social culture and language culture, and analyze these five points

1. Ecological culture

"Ecological culture involves the names of a nation, the climate and so on." (Nida Eugene A, 1964)

"这一向正是酷热的秋老虎的天气，这一天傍晚倒凉爽了些。"(Eileen Chang, 2011).

"The weather had been hot for several days running, the last blast of early autumn heat, but temperatures had dropped this evening." (Kingsbury, 2012).

"'秋老虎' is the short-term hot weather in China after the autumn. If the translator handles this climate with literal translation, according to the treatment of place names, such as: 六安 literally translated as 'Liu'An', indeed foreign readers will pronounce its mandarin, but the word in the work, it is, Lu'An" (Yaoyuanfei& Li Congli, 2019). That is why literature translation should not only consider language problems, but its subtext meaning. "Based on this, the translator used the strategy of free translation when dealing with the translation of such folk sayings such as '秋老虎', abandoning the literal meaning of the original text, and adopting the method of "dynamic equivalence" to make the translation express ideas and language functions". (Yaoyuanfei& Li Congli, 2019)

2. Material culture

"Material culture is the economic life and daily use of a nation, production tools, and science and technology." (Nida Eugene A, 1964)

"曼桢又继续说下去，道：‘我姊姊那时候中学还没有毕业，想出去做事，有什么事是她能做的呢？就是找得到事，钱也不会多，不会够她养家的。只有去做舞女。’”(Eileen Chang, 2011).

"'my sister hadn't finished secondary school,' Manzhen continued. 'what kind of job could she get? Even if she did get a job, it wouldn't pay much. Not enough to support a family. Her only choice was to become a taxi-dancer.'" (Kingsbury, 2012).

"The translator translates the "舞女"(the phrase means a dancing girl) into "taxi-dancer". Before the May Fourth Movement, the dancers were invisibly called prostitutes, but not professional prostitutes. The dancers here refer to the services of accompanying dances at work, as well as sexual services as well. The translator used taxi-dancer, without the use of the prototype, to perfectly interpret the meaning of the dancer here" (Yaoyuanfei& Li Congli, 2019). The symbolic of taxi in English or Chinese produces the image which whoever only pays money to take.

3. Religious culture

"可是对于年轻人，三年五载就可以是一生一世。他和曼桢从认识到分手，不过几年的工夫，这几年里面却经过这么许多事情，仿佛把生老病死一切的哀乐都经历到了。"(Eileen Chang, 2011).

"But in that brief span, they'd had a full measure: all the joy and the sorrow that comes with (as the old saying has it) 'birth, old age, illness, death.'" (Kingsbury, 2012).

"一生一世" from Cao Xueqin's "Dream of Red Mansions" refers to a lifetime. "Religious culture includes a nation's religious beliefs, religious systems, religious writings, religious systems and regulations." (Nida Eugene A, 1964) "This view is a kind of Buddhist monastic view in "Dream of Red Mansions", which is considered to be that Life is the number of years you to live and Life is your reincarnation" (Yaoyuanfei& Li Congli, 2019). Buddhism believes that people will reincarnate after death. The values, attitudes and ethics of Anglo-American people are greatly influenced by these three religious ideas (Protestantism, Catholicism and Judaism). And so when thinking of translating a religious problem, the translator adopts a domestication translation strategy, which makes the foreign religion clear or easy to understand.

4. Social culture

"不会是敲我们的竹杠吧？"(Eileen Chang, 2011).

"Don't you think the price should be lower here, out on the edge of town?" Shuihui said. 'Are they cheating us?'"(Kingsbury, 2012).

“敲竹杠” is a dialect in Chinese proverbs. Its speech is derogatory, which means deceives somebody. The expression in the Anglo-American social culture is little known. It in this context is very literariness. “To cheat us” indeed is its direct meaning, but the Eileen Chang employs direct speech to ape Manzhen’s tone for reflecting the character characteristics. “The traditional customs, lifestyles, characteristics and forms of social activities, habitual titles of individuals, society and classes.” (Nida Eugene A, 1964). “The translator domesticates it in order to take care of the reading habits of Western readers when dealing with Chinese and Western cultural translations”. (Yaoyuanfei& Li Congli, 2019). However, the way to handle the words is less artful than source text.

5. Language and culture

“Language culture is the language itself as a part of culture. It also causes translation problems. Since the two languages belong to two different language systems, the translation will design different language features, and these different characteristics may be reflected in the voice, Morpheme, vocabulary and syntax.” (Nida Eugene A, 1964)

“过年吃蛤蜊，大概也算是一个好口彩——算是元宝。”(Eileen Chang, 2011).

“Clams at New Year — I’ll bet it’s for good luck. They’re yuanbao, little lumps that look like a stack of coins.”(Kingsbury, 2012).

Yuanbao is a cultural symbol of China's prosperity. In this context, regarding dumplings as Yuanbao means eating them and the life will be better. From this we can find the hardship of supporting Manzhen’s family, but at the same time we can see the intention of Eileen Chang's role building, that is, women assume the social ability of men, which implies women's awakening. Therefore, Yuanbao's literal translation is Yuanbao, where the translator only understands the language level of the text and fails to live up to the author's good intentions. In terms of translation strategy, I believe that due to the good strategy of literal translation, the translator must annotate the subtext of this image.

In the process of English translation, the translator should not only transfer the characters and symbols, but also be a cultural coordinator. In the process of translating Chinese novels into English, the translator needs to perfectly reproduce the eastern culture to the Western readers and resolve the complex conflicts between the eastern and Western cultures. The translator manipulates and rewrites the original text by relying on his own cultural view, bilingual ability, translation thought, but does not forget to consider the reading experience of the target language readers. His/her proper "manifestness" will naturally achieve the success of translation and make his/her translation win the favor of overseas market. To a certain extent, the translator will add his/her own cultural view to the translation, and the final form of the translation will be "original + original cultural background + translation + translation cultural background + original author's temperament and style + translator's temperament and style mixture".(Wang Ning, 2020).

It can be seen from the above that in dealing with the translation under different cultural background, translators adopt the translation strategy of combination of, besides foreignization and domestication, and annotate, to “try to keep the language and cultural differences of the original text, and bring the target readers into the original language and culture, just like an audience enjoying a music abroad. However, when some cross-cultural cannot be foreignized, in order to take care of the reading habits of the target readers” (Yaoyuanfei& Li Congli, 2019), they have to adopt the domestication translation strategy. The translator should not only be able to convey the exotic customs, but also be faithful to the deep meaning of the source text. Otherwise, it only conveys linguistic equivalence. Literary translation should not only look at the iceberg floating on the water, but also fully discover the great literary significance under the iceberg.

III. CONCLUSION

For a long time, the essence and connotation of a large number of excellent Chinese literary works have not been recognized by Western readers, and one of the important factors hindering Chinese literature from going to the world is translation. Most scholars believe that China lacks translators who are proficient in both Chinese and English, which results in the poor translation and the difficulty of Chinese literature going to the world. Language is not the main factor for Chinese literature to go to the world effectively. That is what kind of translation strategy. As Wang Ning called for, "in the process of effectively translating Chinese literature into the English world and even the whole world, we should pay more attention to the cultural acceptance factors of the target language, which is crucial for the spread of culture and literature overseas."(Liu Mingqing, 2007, p.12). Translation is the ladder of Chinese literature to the world stage. Nevertheless, the process is neglected all the time.

Eileen Chang's *Half a Lifetime Romance* is just a representative work written by Oriental women. Its internal artistry and ideological dimension are in harmony, forming the classic of the novel and the beginning of the novel's cultural journey. In the process of translation, Karen Kingsbury turned complicated cultural factors and translation strategies into a beautiful piano melody. According to the analysis of Nida's cultural classification, we can further find out how *Half a Lifetime Romance* travels in two cultural worlds. It can be said that Karen's translation has injected new vitality into Eileen Chang's work, and the journey of *Half a Lifetime Romance* in the English world has continued the artistic value of this work. It is the crossing and fusion of two cultures, and finally it is reborn on the world stage.

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Naizhuo Kong was born in Qufu, Shandong Province, PR China. He, MA, associate professor, deputy managing director of Higher English Education Publishing, Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, has presided over or participated in the development and publication of many nation-wide used textbooks, and is responsible for many key projects in the press. His research interests include training of editing talents, textbook studies, English linguistics & teaching, translation studies, etc.

Yuanfei Yao (corresponding author) was born in Yuxi, China in 1991. He is a graduate at West China of Normal University. His research interests include Anglo-American literature, Linguistics and Translation.

The Construction of the Curriculum System of Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages for Undergraduate Students—A Case Study on Zhejiang Province

Yong Wu

The English Faculty, Zhejiang Yuexiu University of Foreign Languages, Shaoxing, China

Abstract—With the rapid development of the Chinese economy, people are becoming interested in learning Chinese. Courses on teaching Chinese to speakers of other languages (TCSOL) have been gaining attention. However, given that TCSOL is new area of study, problems have emerged, such as conflicting perspectives in the curriculum for undergraduate students. To strengthen the construction of the undergraduate curriculum of the TCSOL system and to properly train TCSOL learners, 448 participants were invited to fill out a questionnaire and 40 TCSOL teachers and undergraduate students in Zhejiang Province were interviewed. By investigating and analyzing the current landscape of professional development, the four major problems in the construction of the professional curriculum system are discussed. Suggestions for the faculty and school administrators are also proposed.

Index Terms—undergraduate, University, TCSOL, curriculum system, construction

I. INTRODUCTION

With the development of economic globalization, the international community is giving more attention to China. An increasing number of people are becoming interested in Chinese language and culture, and the “Chinese language craze” has emerged worldwide. As a major, teaching Chinese to speakers of other languages (TCSOL) mainly aims at teaching Chinese language and cultural communication to foreigners.

Since 2007, TCSOL has achieved leapfrog development (Deng, 2018). TCSOL has become a promising major and received national attention. According to statistics, in 2018, 395 colleges and universities opened the undergraduate major of TCSOL in China. A total of 63,933 TCSOL undergraduate students have enrolled in Chinese universities since 2015 (Ning, 2018). However, due to the high enrollment rate, TCSOL undergraduates face high employment pressure (Wen, 2019). Although colleges and universities are the leading institutions for international students to study in China, most teaching positions have no vacancy for undergraduate students of TCSOL. Even if positions are opened occasionally, undergraduate students do not have a competitive edge over postgraduate students of TCSOL, and some undergraduates will not meet recruitment requirements. Despite a high demand for TCSOL teachers overseas, only a few outstanding undergraduate students meet the requirements of the “International Chinese Teachers Volunteer Program” by the Office of Chinese Language Council International (HANBAN) (Guo, & Sun, 2016).

Moreover, most TCSOL teachers only have a temporary job according to Chinese teacher volunteers who have one-year employment contracts, and more than three years of service is not allowed in principle (Wang, 2017). On the one hand, these undergraduate students of TCSOL cannot fundamentally solve the employment problem and have to face the embarrassment of “unemployment upon return.” On the other hand, a short-term overseas working experience cannot bring extra advantages to their employment. Most job opportunities for them are Chinese language training institutions for foreigners and some international schools. Hence, the job opportunities for TCSOL undergraduate students are limited.

Since 2007 the Chinese government has allowed universities to offer TCSOL as a master’s degree program (Liu, 2016). Issues have triggered a boom in the study of international Chinese language education because the academic circle started to turn their interest toward the curriculum of master’s degree students rather than that of undergraduate students of TCSOL. Moreover, doubts and criticisms have been raised on whether offering TCSOL majors at the undergraduate level is necessary and whether the current TCSOL majors simply combine the Chinese language curriculum with the foreign language curriculum for undergraduate students. Therefore, examining the whole process of developing the undergraduate curriculum of TCSOL is essential to answer these questionings. The curriculum system is the leading carrier for undergraduate students’ TCSOL teaching, which is also one of the core contents of the teaching activities (Yang, 2019). Hence, the construction of the curriculum system is essential work in TCSOL education. A curriculum is directly related to the construction of undergraduate students’ knowledge, and the development of their abilities. By focusing on undergraduate students’ curriculum and targeting the TCSOL undergraduate students’

development, the TCSOL curriculum system for undergraduate students will be optimized and updated.

In China, researchers have found the importance of the TCSOL curriculum for undergraduate students. Xing and Wan (2014) analyzed the new changes in the TCSOL curriculum for undergraduate students when they compared the new and old syllabi launched by the Ministry of Education. Shi (2019) noted problems in the adjustment of the TCSOL curriculum and proposed suggestions for the construction of the undergraduate course system of TCSOL. For instance, strengthening the cooperation among TCSOL teachers, seeking multidisciplinary cooperation, increasing the proportion of elective courses, reforming assessment methods, diversifying evaluation forms, and cultivating the profession are vital. Although this research opened minds for the adjustment of undergraduate students' curriculum system of TCSOL on the basis of their teaching experience, this study does not discuss in detail how to make the specific curriculum construction.

Wang (2011) pointed out that optimizing the teaching and professional skills of TCSOL undergraduate students is necessary, as well as focusing on the application of skill-based courses and innovative research-based elective courses. He used the metaphor "one body and two wings" to describe the curriculum system for undergraduate students of TCSOL. This metaphor means that the language course (Chinese and English) is the core position, which embodies the strengthening of Chinese and foreign bilingualism, and supplements courses such as Chinese and foreign literature, cultural exchange knowledge and skills, teachers' education skills, and quality. Although this research indicated three significant problems in the practice of undergraduate students' TCSOL education and proposed seven aspects to improve TCSOL teachers' training, no comprehensive explanation is found for the curriculum system. Moreover, Wang (2019) proposed some problems encountered in TCSOL mainly depend on teachers' own teaching experiences.

Peng (2014) proposed another curriculum system that focuses on the innovative international promotion of TCSOL undergraduate students' training on the basis of "second language acquisition theory" and three "key communication abilities." In his research, Peng discussed the integration of professional courses, highlighting the professional characteristics of "bilingual and bicultural" to set up the course of "culture plus language" to achieve the requirements of the development of TCSOL. Pan and Chen (2016) asserted that TCSOL undergraduate students' training model and reconstructed the curriculum system by emphasizing that strengthening practical teaching, highlighting TCSOL students' training and professional development. Zhao (2020) suggested that improving the English language (or other languages) abilities of students will be helpful for language teaching and cultural communication. Although this research tackles the aspects of TCSOL teachers' ability cultivation, it fails to comprehensively analyze other dimensions of TCSOL undergraduate students' cultivation, such as knowledge and self-development.

Li (2014) compared the TCSOL curricula for master's degree students and undergraduates. Li thought that the curriculum system construction of TCSOL for undergraduate students should reflect the development trend and pay attention to the combination of knowledge content, strengthen the curriculum setting of skills, emphasize the construction of the practical system, and highlight the overall design of cross-cultural awareness. Liu and Jian (2017) also proposed a model of "four modules plus one link" for the TCSOL curriculum system. He regarded the compulsory course as a guide, the core course as the foundation, and the elective course as the supplement. Although this model is more creative than previous models, it does not give suggestions on the relationship among each module and does not specify the number of teaching hours for each module.

The current findings on undergraduate students' curriculum for TCSOL are inconsistent. Hence, four research questions are proposed.

1. Do Chinese universities have a clear vision to develop the curriculum of TCSOL for undergraduate students in Zhejiang Province?
2. Is the current curriculum of TCSOL for undergraduate students suitable for students' development in Zhejiang?
3. Is the current curriculum of TCSOL for undergraduate students reasonable for students' assessment in Zhejiang?
4. Does the current curriculum of TCSOL for undergraduate students meet the market demand in Zhejiang Province?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants and Procedure

A total of 448 students from 11 local universities in Zhejiang Province and 40 teachers and undergraduate students of TCSOL were involved in this research. Paper-and-pencil surveys were administered by the researcher during class, and semi-open interviews were conducted with undergraduate students of TCSOL.

B. Data Analysis

1. The Professional Cognition from undergraduate students of TCSOL

Although 67% of respondents have a clear concept of the professional cognition of TCSOL, 33% of respondents do not have a clear idea about it. Figure 1 shows the need to increase publicity and expand the influence of undergraduate students of TCSOL to gain recognition in society. Moreover, 90% of respondents agreed that they would be international Chinese language teachers in the future who are good at language teaching and cultural communication. This result indicates that most respondents have understood the goal of complexity and application in TCSOL education.

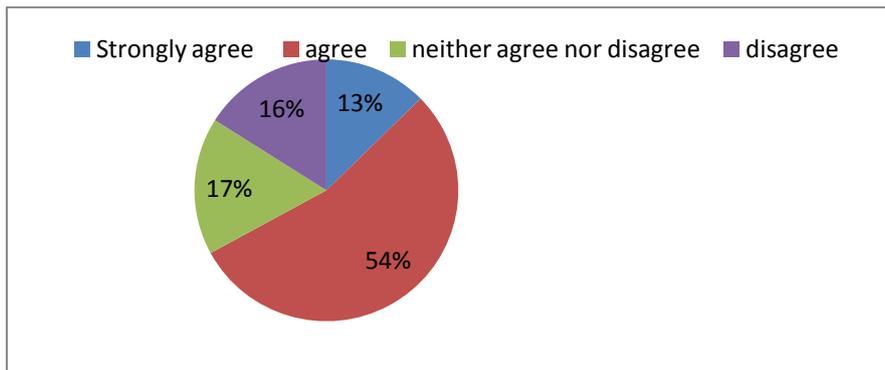


FIG. 1 Percentage of Professional Cognition from Undergraduate students of TCSOL

2. Views on the Curriculum System of TCSOL

According to Figure 2, 83.21% of respondents are satisfied or strongly satisfied with the courses offered by the undergraduate program of TCSOL, and 16.79% of respondents are dissatisfied or strongly dissatisfied. Although nearly half of respondents are not familiar with the curriculum and curriculum system of TCSOL, the undergraduate curriculum system of TCSOL is important for teachers’ teaching and students’ learning. It has excellent research value and practical significance.

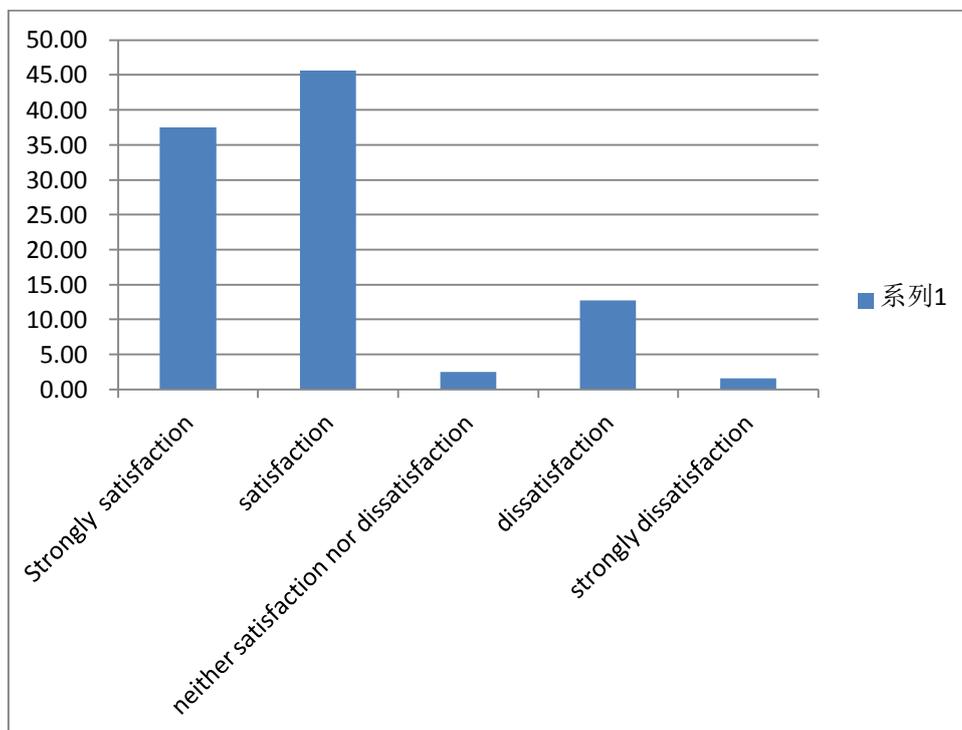


FIG. 2 Percentage of Views on the Curriculum System of TCSOL

3. Views on undergraduate courses in TCSOL in their respective universities

Figure 3 shows that 49.19% of respondents did not have a satisfactory attitude toward the curriculum of TCSOL in their universities, which indicates that the current TCSOL curriculum in local universities is not ideal and needs to be adjusted. More than one-third of respondents think that the deficiencies of the construction of undergraduate courses in TCSOL include: unclear training objectives, patchwork of courses, unreasonable structure, lack of a system, incomplete courses, insufficient content and knowledge involved in courses, unreasonable proportion of theoretical courses and practical courses, and unreasonable proportion of knowledge courses and skill courses. Besides, only approximately 30% of respondents are satisfied with the total amount of class hours, the number of courses offered each semester, the weekly class hours of courses, and the order of courses offered in TCSOL. This result shows that undergraduate courses of TCSOL education need to be optimized and adjusted.

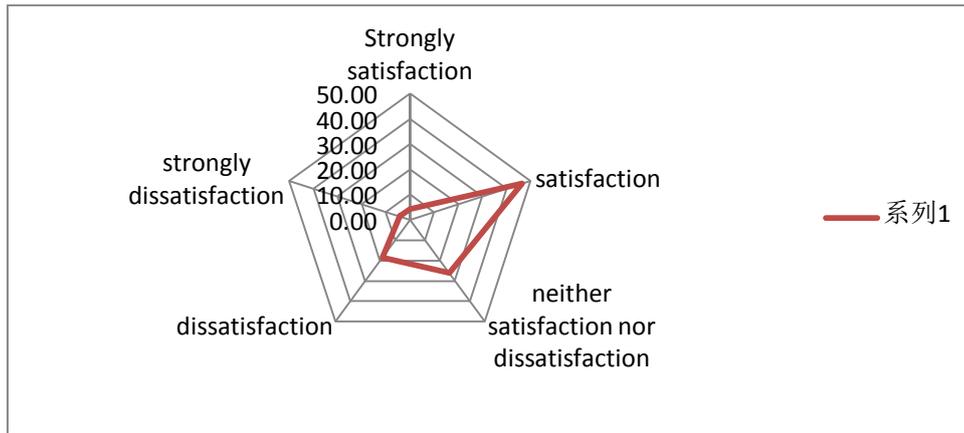


FIG. 3 Percentage of views on undergraduate courses in TCSOL in their respective universities

4. Construction of undergraduate courses in TCSOL

More than half of respondents hope to become teachers of Chinese as a foreign language in private schools and relevant institutions whether in China or overseas in the future. In addition, 46% of respondents hope to continue their studies and become professional researchers; primary and secondary school teachers; or teachers in language and cultural institutions. Vast job opportunities are available for undergraduate students of TCSOL. Therefore, considering different employment demands in course setting is necessary. Most respondents thought that they lack skills in teaching Chinese as a second language and the knowledge and ability needed for cross-cultural communication. Thus, they suggested the class hours for language teaching and cross-cultural communication training to be increased. Moreover, 82% of respondents hope to increase the proportion of cross-cultural communication courses and Chinese traditional culture courses.

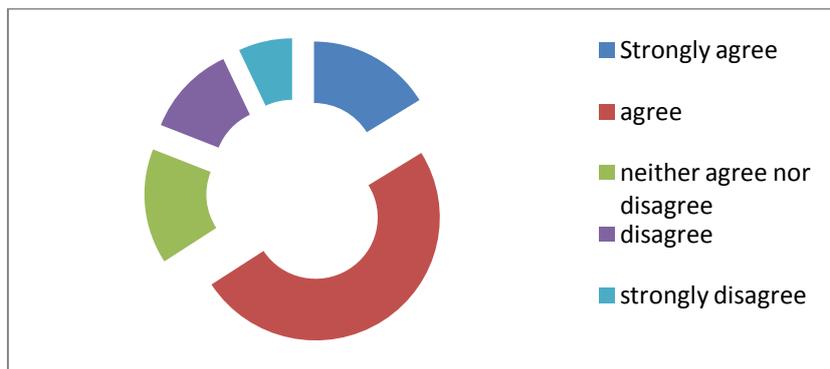


FIG. 4 Percentage of Views on the Construction of Undergraduate Courses in TCSOL

5. Internship

Approximately 87% of students think that starting their internship in the third year is appropriate because they could develop strong motivation to accumulate relevant knowledge and abilities during their freshman and sophomore years. In their fourth year, they could go back to class to enrich and reflect on themselves according to practice and their internship performance. More than 30% of respondents agree that internships should be arranged in the second semester of the third year. More than 55.68% of respondents thought that the period of internship in this major should be from three months to six months. More than 51.35% of respondents wanted to do overseas internships, and they wanted teachers to help them arrange such internships. Hence, university administrators should strengthen the overseas internship program and extend the number of Chinese teaching practice bases to provide more opportunities for undergraduate TCSOL students.

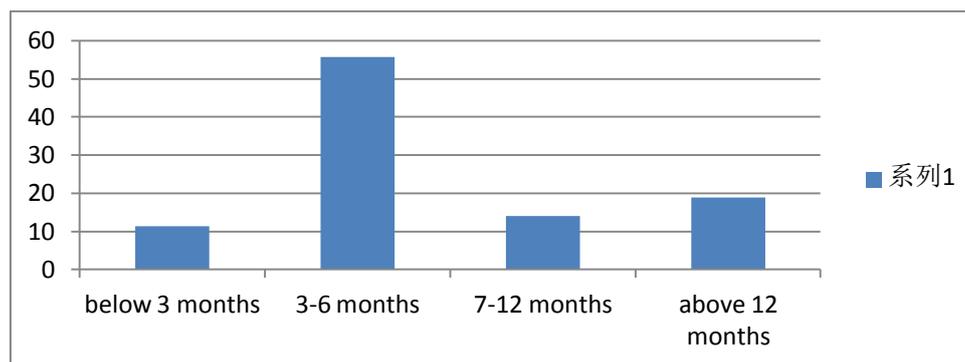


FIG. 5 Percentage of Views on Internship Duration

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Q1: Do Chinese universities have a clear vision to develop the curriculum of TCSOL for undergraduate students in Zhejiang Province?

Most Chinese universities have an accurate and clear vision to develop the undergraduate curriculum of TCSOL education, as shown in Figure 1. However, the curriculum setting of local universities in Zhejiang Province lacks foresight. The curriculum syllabus of TCSOL cannot adequately meet the needs of undergraduate students of TCSOL. The Ministry of Education has made a comprehensive exposition of the knowledge and abilities that undergraduate students of TCSOL should possess. However, in terms of the actual curriculum in local universities, thoroughly conducting and arrive at the objectives and requirements of TCSOL issued by the Ministry of Education for some local universities is difficult.

Measures should be adjusted to match the local conditions to develop the undergraduate curriculum of TSCOL. On the basis of the coordination development plan, the curriculum should also include a development route in line with international standards, and optimize the construction of undergraduate courses of TCSOL with regional characteristics.

Additionally, TCSOL teachers should maximize resources to build the courses for TCSOL undergraduate students and consider the characteristics of multidisciplinary, multi-faceted knowledge and multi-ability requirements when setting up the TCSOL curriculum system. Teachers should also pay more attention to the practical aspects of TCSOL, and practical courses should be added to the curriculum system. In addition to considering the characteristics of the major, the course system should consider the actual situation in universities, such as advanced subjects, geographical location, and teaching facilities. Universities in Zhejiang should incorporate the long cultural history of Jiangnan into the curriculum, whereas universities in Hangzhou can integrate calligraphy, Yue opera, and bamboo weaving into the curriculum system. The construction of a multidimensional interactive curriculum system of “Chinese plus international plus education” is the internal interaction of three elements. “Chinese” (language and culture) is the core and content of second language teaching, learning, and communication. “International” is the environment and region of Chinese as a second language education cultural exchange.

Furthermore, “education” is the way and method of Chinese learning or teaching internationalization and cultural exchange and communication. After the interaction of the three elements, six directions of “Chinese + education” (integrate Chinese education and Chinese communication), “Chinese + international” (integrate Chinese internationalization and international Chinese) and “international + education” (integrate international education and education internationalization) can be formed. Therefore, “three combinations” and “six directions” formed after the interaction of the three elements of “Chinese + International + education” constitute an interrelated whole, which should be the basic characteristics and essential attributes of Chinese international education. As a whole, these combinations embody the characteristics of TCSOL. In the second level of interaction between the single element of “Chinese + International + education” and the curriculum, “Chinese + Curriculum” includes Chinese language and culture and its related courses. Chinese (language + culture) courses solve the problem of “what to teach, to learn, and to broadcast.” These courses interpret and grasp the complex needs of Chinese teaching and Chinese international education to ensure the quality of the core courses of Chinese language and culture; the construction of related course groups; and consolidate students’ basic knowledge of Chinese language, learning, and culture. “International + Curriculum” includes foreign language and culture courses, cross-cultural communication courses, and international (domestic and foreign) courses to solve the problem of “where to teach, learn, and spread.” “Education + Curriculum” includes the Chinese international education psychology curriculum, teaching method curriculum, and cultural communication curriculum. The education (classroom and practice) curriculum solves the problem of “how to teach, learn, and spread.” The multidimensional interaction of the three levels in the course system of “Chinese + International + education” is multi-level and three-dimensional. The interaction is built around the necessary knowledge (Chinese language and culture teaching, learning, and communication), fundamental abilities (teaching, learning and communication methods of Chinese language and culture, teaching organization and classroom management, planning, marketing, and

communication coordination), and core literacy (Chinese culture and cross-cultural communication, professional ethics, and professional development).

Q2: Is the current curriculum of TCSOL for undergraduate students suitable for students' development in Zhejiang?

The curriculum is reasonable, but the curriculum features are not distinctive according to Figure 2. The curriculum system of TCSOL for the undergraduate course should be composed of three major parts: knowledge courses, such as language, literature and culture and practical courses, such as teaching skills and methods, and foreign language courses. However, the curriculum system of many universities focuses on knowledge courses and foreign language courses, which do not highlight the nature, characteristics, and principles of TCSOL for undergraduate students. Most local colleges and universities open a series of courses, such as language, literature, and culture, but these courses do not show how to cultivate undergraduate students to become qualified TCSOL teachers. Moreover, the content of these courses generally lack the strategy and awareness of how to use the corresponding teaching content and teaching skills according to different countries and needs of the teaching objects. The content of these courses are not conducive to the construction of a reasonable knowledge structure for TCSOL students, nor can it meet the ever-changing needs of TCSOL.

Hence, the curriculum of TCSOL for undergraduate students should be closely related to the training objectives and requirements of the major. The realization of the training goal, which is students' mastery of the solid fundamental knowledge of Chinese, is related to the proportion of language courses. TCSOL teachers could open some courses, such as modern Chinese language, ancient Chinese language, and linguistics into the curriculum system. These courses can strengthen knowledge of history, culture, and literature in China and abroad. Moreover, considered "literature knowledge" reserve as a requirement courses matches courses such as "introduction to ancient Chinese literature," "modern and contemporary Chinese literature and foreign literature." These courses are closely combined with the training objectives and requirements of the TCSOL. In addition, marginalized or unrelated courses should not be offered. Therefore, in future course system setting, TCSOL teachers should ensure that the course and the professional training goal are aligned. The sequence and proportion of the curriculum will affect the professional training objectives and requirements. TCSOL teachers should consider the learning characteristics of students, the characteristics of the curriculum itself, teaching time, teaching difficulty, and other factors to set the sequence and proportion. Each TCSOL course needs to perform according to its objectives. Therefore, TCSOL teachers should not only optimize the basic knowledge of the reform course, but also assist each other, cooperate with relevant courses to cultivate critical capabilities, and develop together. Through the course combination, TCSOL students should improve core literacy as a whole, and deal with the relationship of various types of courses in every dimension.

Q3: Is the current curriculum of TCSOL for undergraduate students reasonable for students' assessment in Zhejiang?

The TCSOL curriculum is reasonable for students' assessment according to Figure 3. However, the relationship between each course is not clear, and the evaluation mechanism is not flexible. Many problems are encountered in the assessment for undergraduate students' TCSOL, such as paying little attention to the relationship between the theory and practice of the curriculum; the connection between disciplines; proportion of credit hours; and assessment method. Many professional compulsory courses or elective courses are usually not set up according to the uniqueness of TCSOL education but are rather based on the research direction or willingness of the teacher. These problems will affect students' knowledge, practical ability, and other aspects. These problems will affect whether they can adapt to the requirements of Chinese teachers at home and abroad, which will affect their future teaching careers. In the current assessment system of university teachers, the evaluation of teachers focuses on scientific research ability than their teaching ability, which drives many teachers to spend much time on scientific research; hence, the time and energy devoted to improving their teaching skills are limited. This situation has directly led many teachers to only teach the same course for several years, and the content of the course has remained unchanged. This situation will lead to the lack of novelty and timeliness of the course content, thus leading to the absorption of outdated knowledge by students, which may make them appear incompetent when they eventually teach. No guidance and evaluation exists for the direction of TCSOL for students' extracurricular activities and social practice.

Moreover, the proportion of major compulsory courses in the learning plan is significantly higher than that of major elective courses and major expansion courses. This imbalance will affect students' foreign knowledge reserve and practical ability, and will affect whether they can adapt to the requirements of Chinese teachers at home and abroad. One of the core qualities of excellent international Chinese language educators is to inherit and develop the unique traditional Chinese culture. With the increasing global demand for understanding, research, and learning Chinese, the spread of distinctive Chinese culture needs to be confident, self-conscious, and self-consistent with its language and culture. According to the Chinese Ministry of Education, one of the training requirements of undergraduate majors of TCSOL is to enable students to master Chinese history and culture and gain the essential understanding of international cultures. Thus, TCSOL teachers should realize that integrating culture into the curriculum system is advantageous. The contents of the cultural section should include not only traditional Chinese culture and traditional classics Chinese culture, but also modern Chinese culture, the introduction of foreign cultures, the comparison between Chinese and foreign cultures, and the distinctive regional culture of the place where the university is established. Only in this way

can TCSOL teachers understand the distinctive ancient and modern cultures and gain cross-cultural awareness, to better spread Chinese language and Chinese culture worldwide.

Q4: Does the current curriculum of TCSOL for undergraduate students meet the market demand in Zhejiang?

Theory does not always meet the actual needs of society. Whether undergraduate students of TCSOL will be needed by society is an essential factor to measure whether the construction of a professional curriculum system is scientific and reasonable. In this research, three kinds of goals for undergraduate students of TCSOL are enumerated. The first goal is to train teachers of international Chinese language education at all levels and categories at home and abroad except universities (including secondary and primary schools, bilingual schools, and Chinese language training institutions). The second is to provide a stable and high-quality source of students for a higher level of Chinese international education. The third is to focus on the cultivation of talents who can implement the grand strategy of going global of Chinese culture and are competent for the management and service talents organized by Chinese language, culture exchange, and communication institutions. These three personnel training objectives require students to have vast knowledge reserve, practical teaching experience, and cross-cultural communication. The acquisition of knowledge, practical experience, and abilities can come from books and teaching practice. An analysis of the current curriculum system of TCSOL in local universities reveals that training projects of Chinese international education undergraduates in most universities are adjusted many times. In the adjustment of undergraduate students' curriculum, the social requirements have not been fully investigated. Only a few differences have been noted among undergraduate students of TCSOL in many universities. Teaching plans are not arranged according to the actual situation and characteristics of schools. More theoretical courses are offered than practical courses, and teaching form in a theoretical course is always classroom-based. Occasionally, practical courses are offered, but they only arrange teaching links, such as lectures and trial lectures in a single course without immersing into an actual TCSOL classroom. These problems will inevitably affect the increase of students' knowledge reserve, the growth of teaching practice experience, and the improvement of their abilities. Hence, cultivating Chinese international education talents to meet the requirements of the society is impossible.

Owing to valid reasons, the possibility of TCSOL undergraduate students to practice their teaching profession in China is relatively low. Many undergraduate students of TCSOL attempt to choose to work as civil servants in China, Chinese teachers in primary or secondary school, or in enterprises after graduation; only a few choose to work as TCSOL teachers in China and abroad. The employment outlook for undergraduate students reminds administrators, TCSOL teachers, and policymakers of colleges and universities to adjust the current curriculum properly. Set up the curriculum of TCSOL according to social requirements is necessary. Students can even be arranged in small classes for TCSOL training according to employment requirements, and students can be offered a unique curriculum according to the job market's needs. The market for Chinese language teaching in the field of fundamental TCSOL education is vast especially overseas, and the shortage of TCSOL teachers who are good at Chinese language teaching and cultural communication is serious. Therefore, local universities should set up relevant courses according to market demand to cultivate talents for TCSOL. Moreover, according to the Chinese social requirements and market rules, TCSOL teachers should actively explore new personnel training and self-development modes. For instance, to help institutions and employers perform targeted training, the training mode could be adjusted and conducted when undergraduate students are still in the third year. The training mode should be based on country needs, regional needs, or institutional needs. Meanwhile, joint training modes should be open in China and abroad for undergraduate, postgraduate, and doctorate students. Thus, colleges or universities need to construct distinctive characteristics of the curriculum system for undergraduate students of TCSOL.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

This research mainly explores the current situation of the curriculum of undergraduate students of TCSOL. Four research questions have been answered by investigating 448 undergraduate students of TCSOL and interviewing 40 undergraduate students using semi-open questions. Four main problems were identified in the current curriculum of undergraduate students of TCSOL, which have been the basis for in-depth discussion. This research can help colleges and universities achieve a thorough and comprehensive understanding of the current curriculum and teaching situation of undergraduate students of TCSOL in Zhejiang Province. The current problems of undergraduate students of TCSOL in Zhejiang Province have also been identified. Moreover, this research helps teachers of TCSOL understand the actual market demand for TCSOL talents to enable them to cultivate students who meet market requirement. As China rises, the Chinese will be favored by more people. Learning Chinese has become an irreversible trend. Given that the undergraduate curriculum of TCSOL is in its infancy in China, meeting the actual needs of teachers is difficult. Therefore, opportunities and challenges coexist, and various colleges and universities are exploring and conducting research so that the curriculum could be adapted to the promotion and internationalization of Chinese.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research supported by 2017 Zhejiang Provincial Education Planning Project (No. 2017SCG387)

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Yong Wu was born in Shaoxing, China. She is currently an associate professor in the English faculty, Zhejiang Yuexiu University of Foreign Languages, Shaoxing, China. Her research interests include psycholinguistics, second language learning and teaching.

Translation and Technology: Investigating the Employment of Computer-aided Translation (CAT) Tools among Iranian Freelance Translators

Hamidreza Abdi
Freelance Researcher, Iran

Abstract—The present study aimed to investigate the employment of computer-aided translation (CAT) tools among Iranian freelance translators. Fulford and Granell-Zafra (2005) proposed a model encompassing both information and communications technology (ICT) and CAT tools to support a large number of activities, including document production, information search and retrieval, communications, business management, marketing and work procurement, and translation creation. CAT tools are employed to support document production, business management, and translation creation; and ICT tools are used to support the rest. A questionnaire was used for data collection from Iranian freelancers. As the results indicated, Iranian freelance translators were more interested to employ general-purpose software applications, such as word processing programs and presentation software, whereas they showed less interest in the employment of special-purpose software, such as accounting packages and database software. Moreover, most participants approved the effectiveness of CAT tools in their work.

Index Terms—freelance translator, translator's workstation, and computer-aided translation

I. INTRODUCTION

Translators require computer competence for the use of computer-aided translation (CAT) tools in their productions. Computer, as a user interface, gives translators the opportunity to utilize translation software, such as CAT tools. CAT tools are probably "the clearest example of translator-specific computer tools designed to increase translators' productivity and efficiency" (Granell, 2015, p. 1). In this regard, Newton (1992, p. xvi) believes that "computerized tools offer tangible benefits in almost every area of written translation." CAT tools alongside automatic systems (Quah, 2006) are the subdivisions of translation technology.

There are two types of translators: in-house and freelance translators. In-house translators are those who work for specific companies as full-time employees. They just translate as they have been asked, and have nothing to do with other activities related to translation. For example, they do not need to worry about managing new clients and customer relations, but freelance translators are self-employed people who own their own business. It implies that "being a freelance translator also means taking on additional tasks" (Granell, 2015, p. 18). Hence, freelance translators should cope with all translation activities alone. That is to say, the degree of using CAT tools is heavily dependent on the type and role of the translator in the translation process.

Along with translation competence, the freelance translator requires technology competence. This includes "all the knowledge and skills used to implement present and future translation technologies within the translation process" (EMT Network, 2017, p. 9); however, translation competence, which itself covers seven sub-competences, is "the underlying system of knowledge and skills needed to be able to translate" (PACTE Group, 2000, p. 100). There are also issues related to language and culture, personal and interpersonal, and service provision competences. One advantage of technology competence is that it enables the translator to have the effective use of CAT tools. This not only affects the quality of the translators but also helps them to produce *high-quality translations*. S. Koby et al. (2014, p. 416) defined a high-quality translation as follows:

A high-quality translation is one in which the message embodied in the source text is transferred completely into the target text, including denotation, connotation, nuance, and style, and the target text is written in the target language using correct grammar and word order, to produce a culturally appropriate text that, in most cases, reads as if originally written by a native speaker of the target language for readers in the target culture.

It seems that most Iranian freelance translators have not yet reached a reasonable level of technology competence for many reasons. The first reason might be related to the fact that the traditional methods, such as paper dictionaries and type writers as well as the old versions of personal computers (PCs), are still used by translators. Meanwhile, fax and conventional postal systems are still a common way of communication. The weakness of education system in training translators and the academic courses offered by universities, in both postgraduate and undergraduate levels, are considered the second reason.

It should be noted that translation most universities offer courses that mainly cover translation theories rather than translation practices, and the courses related to CAT tools are not included, despite their effectiveness and importance in producing high-quality and cost-effective translations (see for example, Sharif, 2016; Hazbavi, 2011). Furthermore, most syllabuses taught at universities are outdated and ineffective. The limited number of teachers and high price of private training courses have also aggravated the situation.

During the history of using conventional translation tools, "translation technology has come to stay and the good old days of pen-and-paper translation are inevitably coming to an end" (Krüger, 2016, p. 114). It means rather that in recent years, significant changes have occurred more quickly in the translation industry. The development of technology is going to escalate with an incredible speed and the translators' demands are going to depend on using CAT tools. Furthermore, translation is "starting to become a big business, increasingly integrating as suppliers the traditional cottage industry of freelancers" (Mossop, 2006, p. 789). Therefore, translators need to shift their approaches towards the use of technological tools, namely ICT and CAT tools; otherwise, they will become uncompetitive (Samuelsson-Brown as cited in Bowker, 2002). This implies that the use of CAT tools not only gives translators the opportunity to save time and energy but also affects the quality of their translations. That is to say, translation technology, as Krüger argued, has a powerful effect on both the nature of the translation process and the translator's cognition. This claim is well defined by Pym (2011, p. 1) as follows:

New translation technologies such as translation memories, data-based machine translation, and collaborative translation management systems, far from being merely added tools, are altering the very nature of the translator's cognitive activity.

Accordingly, this study was carried out to investigate the use of CAT tools by Iranian freelance translators. It also attempted to create a new attitude towards the employment of modern technological tools, like CAT tools, among Iranian freelancers and specify how these tools are significant for them in order to be taken into consideration by those responsible for the educational system and for the translation industry in Iran.

To conduct the study, the researcher decided to divide translation activities presented by Fulford and Granell-Zafra (2005) into two groups. This phase of study covered the second group of activities which were supported by the use of CAT tools. This includes document production, business management, and translation creation.

The study reported the findings of the second phase of the research project. This phase contained an exploratory survey of the employment of CAT tools among Iranian freelance translators. It is hoped that the findings of the present study can offer helpful suggestions for translation students, trainee translators, novice freelancers, and those responsible for the spread of CAT tools knowledge. To achieve the objective of the second phase of the project, the following question was raised:

1. What is the extent of employing CAT tools among Iranian freelance translators?

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

The history of CAT tools goes back to the 1990s when the intersecting input of machine translation and computational terminology provided considerable benefits to CAT (Delpech, 2014), and "they have not yet extensively documented in translation textbooks" (Bowker, 2002, p. 6). Bowker believed that CAT technology refers to any computer-based tool used by translators as an aid in their job. CAT tools are the computer-based software used by the translators to support the translation process (Hutchins & Somers, 1992). Such tools "are aggressively marketed to professional translators and the unique features of a tool are usually highlighted" (Quah, 2006, p. 131). Various terms have been used for CAT tools, such as *electronic translation tools* (Austermühl, 2001), *machine-aided translation* (Quah, 2006), and *translation software* (Hutchins, 2009). It is rather to say, CAT tools refer to a pack of applications that express the notion about computer assistance, which is at the service of translators (Carmo et al., 2016).

In recent years, CAT tools are of interest to translation providers in such a way that they make use of CAT technology to increase their productivity (Taravella & O. Villeneuve, 2013). Translators unavoidably encounter with the problematical issues, including the integrity of data with lower standards, when they are aiming at using standard CAT tools, namely spreadsheet, database, or word processing programs since the characteristics of modeling are not appropriate, as well as difficulties to manage a bulk amount of information as resources increase gradually (Schmitz as cited in Bowker, 2002). Bowker noted that this problem is going to be solved by using terminology management systems which are placed as the first important tools in the set of CAT tools.

CAT tools were used to support "a translator's workstation" found many years ago in the field of translation and technology. From the early 1980s up to now, many classifications have been used to define the translator's workstation (see for example Melby, 1982; Hutchins & Somers, 1992; Hutchins, 1998; and Locke, 2005). Later on, various types of CAT tools and language resources were available to and provided many facilities for translators. This ranges from "word processing facilities, through dictionary look-up tools, systems for creating and managing terminology collections, to translation memory and machine translation" (Fulford & Granell-Zafra, 2004, p. 53). Along with the above mentioned classifications, Fulford and Granell-Zafra (2005) presented their own classification of the translator's workstation which was different from the previous ones. The advantage of their model was that it considered not only CAT tools but also ICT tools which both required to be employed by the freelance translators to support a wide range of translation activities. Moreover, as Granell (2015) cited, previous models have concentrated on translators' linguistic

activities. Their model supports: document production, information search and retrieval, communications, business management, marketing and work procurement, and translation creation activities (as cited in Granell).

Many empirical studies have been conducted to investigate the use of technology in translation (e.g. Muñoz, 2010; Arenas, 2013; Alonso, 2015). Some have been focused on processes and software applications (O'Brien et al, 2014), whereas some others have paid attention to different types of translation tools, such as terminology management tools (Martikainen, 2018), machine translation (Tantuğ & Adalı, 2018), and translation memories (Christensen & Schjoldager, 2017). Along with such studies, there were some recent studies which focused on translator curriculum and university training courses (see Cifuentes-Goodbody & Harding, 2016; Ketola & García-Escribano, 2018) as well as on the translator's workstation (Alonso & Vieira, 2017).

In spite of many studies in the field, the freelance translator community has not been taken into consideration by the researchers in Iran. A few recent studies have paid attention to various types of translation tools. For example, translation memory tools have been considered by Sabet et al. (2016), machine translation by Maleki and Tabrizi (2017), and translator curriculum by Shahri and Farimani (2016). CAT tools as a type of translation technological tool for translation have also been considered by several studies (see for example Khadivi & Vakil 2012; Taghizadeh & Azizi, 2017; Akbari, 2018). Besides, translation profession in Iran comprehensively investigated by Kafi et al. (2018).

Although recent studies in the field were constructive in their own right and addressed some existing gaps in the research, they did not cover a wide range of CAT tools and the translators' working practices. They did not also select the participants of their studies from freelance translators, i.e., they mostly considered other types of translators, such as in-house translators and translation students. Moreover, all translation activities included in the translator's workstation were not widely covered and the considerations were limited to one or two translation activities. In this regard, although Akbari's (2018) study covered many translation activities and was constructive and helpful in improving translation industry in Iran, he ignored freelance translators and merely selected translation students as the participants. There is the same problem in the study conducted by Taghizadeh and Azizi (2017).

Khadivi and Vakil (2012) considered only one type of translation activity in their study, such as translation production. The importance of including CAT tools in translation programs was not emphasized by Kafi et al. (2018) although they put the emphasis on revising the current syllabus of Translation Studies. This issue should to be taken into consideration because of that the knowledge of CAT tools employment is a type of technology competence that each translator needs to acquire. The main advantage of this study over previous ones is that it not only pays a special attention to the freelance translator community but also covers various translation activities supported by CAT tools. Moreover, the important role CAT tools play in productivity of freelance translators is highlighted.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of this study were freelance translators who answered the questionnaire. It should be noted that the same participants in the first phase of the research project participated in the second phase, but a few of them did not answer the questionnaire. That is why the number of participants in this phase ($N = 256$) was lower than the number in the first phase ($N = 287$). Moreover, the number of females ($n = 158$) was more than the number of males ($n = 98$).

B. Instrument

The questionnaire was used for data collection from the participants of the study. To design the questionnaire, the researcher studied different books, such as *Researching second language classrooms* (McKay, 2006) and *Research in education* (Best & Kahn, 2006), to take note from helpful suggestions. The constructive suggestion for designing the questionnaire was made from the questionnaire that was used in the same study conducted by Fulford and Granell-Zafra (2005) on UK freelance translators. A panel of experts in the field was asked to establish validity of the questionnaire. Feedbacks and comments led to some corrections in the wording of several questions and the structure of the questionnaire.

Reliability of the questionnaire was assessed through a test-retest procedure. Thus, it was administrated to 20 freelance translators who shared the same characteristics of the sample of the study. After two weeks, it was applied to the same freelancers under the same condition. The results of the two trials were correlated and the coefficient of correlation represented the reliability of the test ($r = .841$). The questionnaire used in this phase was organized into the following parts:

- *Part I: Personal details*

This section covers questions about background information of the participants, such as age, gender, and educational degree, the characteristics of their translation business, and computer knowledge of the participants.

- *Part II: CAT tools employment*

This part contains questions related to CAT tools employed by the participants to support the second group of translation activities, including document production, business management, translation creation, and participants' opinions about CAT tools employed in their translation workflow.

As the list of Iranian freelance translators was available on the Internet (www.motarjeman.org), the mailed questionnaire method was employed. In this way, the questionnaire was sent to the participants whose email addresses were available on their profiles, and all responses were received through email too.

C. Design

In order to investigate the employment of CAT tools among Iranian freelance translators, many methods were available for the researcher, such as surveys and case studies. The superiority of surveys over other types was that they enable researchers to collect large amounts of data with low price in a short time with low price (Dornyei as cited in McKay, 2006). Four types of surveys were presented by Bryman and Bell (2003), including questionnaires, interview, observation studies, and content analyses. Among these four types of survey, the questionnaire type was an appropriate method for data collection in the present study. The reason is that it provided the opportunity for the researcher to collect data from a large number of Iranian freelancers from all around the country with lower price in a shorter time than other types.

IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

This section provides the results of the first part of the questionnaire. In order to analyze the data of this study, each question was analyzed separately and the characteristics of the participants were described. The important findings derived from the questionnaire are discussed below.

A. Personal Details of the Participants

This section includes some demographic information of the participants as follows: The age distribution of the participants was 20-29 years (53%), 30-39 years (28%), 40-49 years (13%), 50-59 years (4%), and 60 + years (2%). Less than half of the participants (46%) had an MA degree, 32% had a BA, 16% had an associate's degree (AD), and 6% held a PhD. Most participants (81%) held educational degrees related to translation studies (39% had an MA, 27% a BA, 12% an AD, and 3% a PhD). The rest of participants (19%) held educational degrees unrelated to translation studies. As the results showed, a high proportion of participants (78%) had less than 10 years of experience working as freelance translators (35% between 1 to 4 years, and 43% between 5 to 9 years), 19% had between 10 to 20 years' translation experience, and 3% had more than 20 years of experience.

Also 11% of the participants dedicated 30 hours to translation-related tasks each week. Furthermore, the average participants spent on translation-related tasks each week was 68 hours. More than two-thirds of the participants (87%) offered no additional services other than translating, a few (13%) offered additional services of whom 30% were engaged in language training activities as well.

The most translated language pairs (43%) were Persian to English and English to Persian, followed by Persian to French and French to Persian (26%) as well as Persian to German and German to Persian (18%). The remainder (12%) included a number of language pairs, namely Persian to Turkish and Turkish to Persian, and Persian to Arabic and Arabic to Persian. Marketing and advertising translation (18%), and legal translation (13%) were the most/least translation subject areas which freelance translators were expert in, respectively.

Two-thirds (75%) of the participants had surprisingly acquired their computer skills via "self-taught", which was much higher than the frequency of other methods. Moreover, 26% of the freelance translators had obtained any form of formal qualification in computer.

B. Computer-aided Translation Employment

The second part of the questionnaire included questions about the usage of software applications. In this section, the important findings related to document production, business management, and translation creation are reported in brief. The details of CAT tools employment alongside the details of types of each software application and the activities supported are provided in tabulation forms.

1. Document Production Activities

According to table 1, word processing and presentation programs were in widespread use to support document production activities (100% of the participants used word processing software and 86% employed presentation software). Among word processing software, MS word (59%) was the most popular program, followed by Microsoft Notepad (18%), Google Docs (14%), and Corel WordPerfect (9%). From different types of presentation software, MS PowerPoint was used by 57% of the participants, and ClearSlide Edge by (20%). Other types included 13% Haiku Deck, 8% ClearSlide, and 3% Prezi. Web publishing was used by two-thirds of the participants (75%). The mostly used web publishing programs in order of frequency were: MS FrontPage (61%) and Google Web Designer (17%). Desktop publishing was used less than other types of document production activities (37% of the participants employed them).

TABLE I.
DOCUMENT PRODUCTION ACTIVITY

Types	<i>f</i>	Total	%
Word processing software	256	256	100.0
MS word	150	256	59.0
Microsoft Notepad	47	256	18.0
Google Docs	37	256	14.0
Corel WordPerfect	22	256	9.0
Presentation software	219	256	86.0
MS PowerPoint	124	219	57.0
ClearSlide Edge	43	219	20.0
Haiku Deck	29	219	13.0
ClearSlide	17	219	8.0
Prezi	6	219	3.0
Web publishing software	192	256	75.0
MS FrontPage	118	192	61.0
Google Web Designer	33	192	17.0
Adobe Dreamweaver	19	192	10.0
Bluefish	11	192	6.0
Atom Text Editor	9	192	5.0
Webflow	2	192	1.0
Desktop publishing software	94	256	37.0
Adobe InDesign Online	33	94	35.0
Microsoft Publisher	24	94	26.0
LibreOffice Draw	18	94	19.0
FlipHTML5	13	94	14.0
Other	6	94	6.0
<i>Total activity employment</i>	752	1024	74.0

2. Business Management Activities

As table 2 indicates, the participants of this study preferred to employ spreadsheet software more than other programs to support business management activities. In other words, 76% of freelance translators used spreadsheet software of which MS Excel (41%) and Office 365 (35%) were the mostly used ones. About one-third of the participants (34%) used database software applications of whom 42% used MS Access and 35% employed FileMaker. A very small number of the participants (16%) employed other types of database software (10% used Team Desk, 3% employed TablePlus, and 3% applied Knack). According to the results, 29% of the freelance translators were interested to use accounting packages. From accounting packages, more than half of the participants (51%) used Sage; whereas a few number of them (11%) employed FreshBooks.

TABLE II.
BUSININES MANAGEMENT ACTIVITY

Types	<i>f</i>	Total	%
Spreadsheet software	201	256	76.0
MS Excel	82	201	41.0
Office 365	71	201	35.0
Google Sheets	21	201	10.0
Lotus 1-2-3	14	201	7.0
Numbers	8	201	4.0
WPS Office	5	201	3.0
Database software	88	256	34.0
MS Access	42	88	48.0
FileMaker	31	88	35.0
Team Desk	9	88	10.0
TablePlus	3	88	3.0
Knack	3	88	3.0
Accounting packages	74	256	29.0
Sage	38	74	51.0
QuickBooks	28	74	38.0
FreshBooks	8	74	11.0
<i>Total activity employment</i>	363	768	47.0

3. Translation Creation Activities

In order to support translation creation activities, the great majority of the participants (93%) employed machine translations. Google Translate (77%) was the mostly used tool among Iranian freelancers; Microsoft Translator was in the second place employed by 34% of the participants; and translation memories (TM) were not very popular used by less than half of the participants (43%). From available translation memories, Trados and SDLX were the most famous ones used by 37% and 31% of the participants, respectively. The other types were used by 32% of the participants (Dé à Vu used by 25%, and Babylon Translator employed by 7% of the participants).

TABLE III.
TRANSLATION CREATIVE ACTIVITIES

Types	<i>f</i>	Total	%
Machine Translations	238	256	93.0
Google Translate	183	238	77.0
Microsoft Translator	34	238	14.0
MateCat	16	238	7.0
Apertium	5	238	2.0
Translation Memories	110	256	43.0
Trados	41	110	37.0
SDLX	34	110	31.0
D  à vu	27	110	25.0
Babylon Translator	8	110	7.0
<i>Total activity employment</i>	303	512	59.0

C. Iranian Freelance Translators' Perceptions of CAT Tools

The last question was about the participants' perception about CAT tools. In a sense, Iranian freelance translators were asked for their opinions about the role of such tools in their work. In general, participants were in full agreement about the significant role CAT tools play in translation activities, namely document production, business management, and translation creation and they had positive perceptions of considerable influence of such tools on their work. Almost all participants shared the belief that CAT tools were easy to use and should be replaced by traditional methods, such as paper dictionaries and typewriters; they also agreed that the productivity and efficiency of translators are strongly dependent on the use of such tools. The great majority were in agreement about the fact that CAT tools make the process of translation easier in the attempt to produce high quality translations with a lower price and shorter time. Moreover, a high portion of the freelancers believed that in order to become more competitive in today's market, they need to employ CAT tools in their work.

D. Discussion

In the previous section, the results obtained from the questionnaire were presented. This section discusses the important findings of each part of the questionnaire separately.

The first part of the questionnaire reported some important findings, one of which was the method of computer skills acquisition that Iranian freelancers employed. Most participants applied "self-taught" method to develop their skills in working with computer. This finding can be either positive or negative. The positive side demonstrates the remarkable ability of freelancers to acquire such a skill via self-taught. This may be due to the bad economic condition of Iranian freelancers. The negative side is that each skill needs to be learned properly and accurately, that is, the skill of working with computer should be taught by an expert in the field.

According to the results, the great majority of the participants held the educational degree related to translation (half of them held an MA degree in translation studies). This refers to the academic knowledge of the freelancers and their familiarity with translation theories and methods. Absolutely, this has significant effects on their productions. The results indicated that most translators had mastery over a few language pairs, such as English to Persian and Persian to English, and French to Persian and Persian to French. The domestic market is in need of more than one or two language pairs because of many reasons, such as having more customers and being competitive in today's market.

Undoubtedly, MS Word is the most popular and easy-to-use software in Iran. That is why MS Word was the first mostly used word processing software. The same results were derived from the study done by Fulford and Granell-Zafra (2005). The UK freelance translators preferred to use word processing software more than other programs to support document production activities. Along with MS Word, there was MS PowerPoint as another popular presentation program because of the facilities it provides for the users, such as working with others without wasting time, giving the user easy and quick access to the presentations from different locations and on more devices, making high quality presentations with impressive graphics, and enabling the user to do things faster. Surprisingly, a few number of UK freelancers employ MS PowerPoint.

Spreadsheet software, including MS Excel and Office 365, were of more interest to Iranian freelancers than other programs to support business management activities. The reason is that they are easy-to-use and cost-effective programs. The unsatisfactory results were the least use of database software and accounting packages. These programs offer many advantages to the freelance translators. For example, the most important advantage of accounting packages is that they save a lot of time over traditional methods, namely, manual bookkeeping. You are also able to create invoices for your clients and make bank deposits ready for use. In addition, all transactions are recorded by the system for you. UK freelance translators expressed the same opinion about the employment of spreadsheet software and accounting packages. These applications were the most/least used software, respectively.

As the results indicated, Iranian freelancers tended to employ machine translations, such as Google Translate, to support translation creation activities. As expected, non-web-based machine translations, such as Microsoft Translator, were the most popular programs because they could be employed in the absence of the Internet. This can be a

significant advantage that needs to be taken into consideration by the freelancers in Iran. Using web-based programs may create some problems not only for Iranian freelancers but also all Iranian internet users. This may be due to the filtering policy that produces negative effects on the quality and speed of the Internet in Iran.

Fortunately, Iranian freelance translators had a positive attitude towards CAT tools. They have come up with the notion about the significant role of such tools in translation. This implies a change in their opinions from the use of traditional methods to modern ones that causes them to become more productive and efficient. That is why this change can be positive for both freelance translators and other types of translators, such as in-house translators and translation student.

In general, according to the findings of this study, the preference of Iranian freelance translators was to employ general-purpose applications more than specific-purpose ones to support a wide range of activities included in the freelance translator's workflow. This may be because of the fact that such applications are not used only to support the activities restricted to translation, such as translation creation. By contrast, there were limited employments of special-purpose software. This might be due to the fact that the participants were unaware of the benefits or had no knowledge of using such software, for example Non-web- based machine translations and accounting packages. Furthermore, the employment of special-purpose applications is exclusive to freelance translator-specific activities, namely translation creation and business management. Thus, these applications need to be used to support such specific activities.

V. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

CAT tools are effective and essential tools which have not been considered seriously by the recent studies in Iran. Furthermore, Iranian freelance translators and their employment of CAT tools have not been investigated by Iranian researchers so far. The importance of this investigation is because of the significant role CAT tools play in supporting translation activities that help freelance translators to produce high-quality and cost-effective translations, and remain competitive in the market. This is because of the rapid growth of technology in the field and the large-scale production of applications, both general-purpose and translation-specific. Hence, the high use of CAT tools can help translators not only to improve their productivity but also their customer relations. Unfortunately, the employment of CAT tools among the majority of Iranian freelancers was low to the extent that they were restricted to general-purpose software, such as word processing programs and presentation software, which cannot be good news for the community of freelance translators.

According to the findings of this study, some pedagogical implications were identified for those responsible for the spread of CAT tools knowledge, translation students, trainee translators, and novice freelancers. These implications are discussed below.

The main focus of translation courses in Iran is on theoretical and linguistic issues rather than on practical aspects. Courses related to technological tools, such as CAT tools and ICT tools, are not offered, and qualified professors in the field are not employed. Thus, it is recommended that those responsible for the improvement of CAT tools knowledge, including the Ministry of Science, Research and Technology, pay special attention to Iranian universities and translator training associations because they are in need of modern software and hardware facilities.

The education system that is responsible for training translators is in need of fundamental changes in its structure, from admission to graduation. In a wider sense, student admission criteria of universities in Iran are really outdated and inefficient. The education system needs to come up with some new criteria based on actual needs of the domestic market. For example, the number of admitted students in academic levels can be changed every three years.

Besides, the syllabuses taught at universities are outdated and need to be revised. It is suggested that instructors and translation teachers use new materials and design syllabuses based on them. Furthermore, translation courses offered to students cannot help them to improve their productivity because they are old-fashioned and need re-adjustment. For example, courses related to ICT and CAT tools should be offered as compulsory courses.

It is suggested that translation students, trainee translators, and novice freelance translators mainly focus on general-purpose applications, such as MS Word and MS PowerPoint, and acquire the knowledge of working with them. After a period of time, they can employ special-purpose software, such as SDLX and QuickBooks. They attend seminars and workshops held by professional translators and qualified teachers on the latest development of technology to improve their technology competence. Last but not least, they should bear in mind that if they want to remain competitive, produce high quality translations, and meet the needs of today's market they need to enhance all competency items defined by EMT Network (2017).

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Hamidreza Abdi has MA in Translation Studies from Azad University, Science and Research, Tehran, Iran in 2016. He received his BA in the same major from Azad University, Roodehen, Iran in 2009. He is a freelance researcher in the field of Translation Studies. He has also published numerous articles in different areas of translation. His main interest is research in translation and technology.

Research on the Construction of Chinese Song Hierarchical Database Oriented to Chinese Teaching*

Yuqi Zhang

Beijing International Studies University, China

Xiujuan Han

Beijing International Studies University, China

Qingping Hu

Beijing International Studies University, China

Fei Song¹

Beijing International Studies University, China

Abstract—As a critical auxiliary method in teaching Chinese as a foreign language, Chinese songs have the characteristics of a strong sense of rhythm, extensive vocabulary, and rich cultural knowledge. Previous studies have mostly discussed the use of Chinese songs in Chinese teaching from the perspective of teaching methods, teaching experiment design and textbooks. There is no specific research on the construction of a database of Chinese song ratings for Chinese learners of different levels. Based on Internet resources, this study collected 9098 Chinese song lyrics and built a database. Based on the analysis of the characteristic data in the database and the method of building a vector space model, four songs of different difficulty levels were divided, which was respectively targeted at Chinese learners of different levels. This research can reduce Chinese teachers' lesson preparation time and improve teachers' teaching efficiency.

Index Terms—Chinese songs, Database, Chinese teaching

I. THE ORIGIN OF RESEARCH

Today, with the vigorous development of Chinese teaching, first-line teachers gradually introduce Chinese songs into Chinese class, thereby arousing the interest of learners to achieve their goals of spreading Chinese. However, at different stages of Chinese language learning, the role of Chinese songs in the Chinese class is very different. In the primary stage, the use of Chinese songs can effectively alleviate the students' fear and anxiety about Chinese learning. In the intermediate stage, the interesting lyrics in the Chinese songs can help the learner to expand their vocabulary. In the advanced stage, the Chinese songs can help the learner to gain a deeper understanding of its connotation and enhances their own cultural knowledge.

In China, Zhao Yuanren (1980) is the first expert who conducted a research in linking music and language which is aimed to study Chinese. The "Five Degree Tone Marking Method" he founded opened the door of music in linguistics. From the perspective of song genre analysis, Zhao Shouhui and Luo Qingsong (1994) first proposed the application of folk songs in teaching Chinese as a foreign language. Then, scholars such as Zhao Fangyu (1998), Zhang Jie (2007), and Sun Ke (2013) also believed that ethnic music was an excellent carrier which could promote Chinese teaching as a foreign language. From the perspective of Chinese song textbooks, Wang Yu (2017) used singing, learning, listening, singing, Chinese, and China as keywords to search on major sales platforms. A total of 18 textbooks of this type were found, and this type of textbook is mainly suitable for Children and beginners who just started to learn Chinese.

A database is a warehouse with specific rules for storing data. In language teaching, the database is mainly embodied as a corpus. Zhang Baolin (2010) and Zheng Yanqun (2013) emphasize that the construction of a corpus can help to summarize the usage and meaning of a certain language form in the context. In addition, some scholars such as Xing Hongbing (2005), Shi Zhengyu (2008), Liu Xiang (2010), and Liu Shantao (2011) took Chinese characters and vocabulary as the primary research objects and established hierarchical Chinese character splitting and Chinese character basic component databases, teaching fonts, and Chinese characters, the representative ontology knowledge bases such as the teaching resource database of word source literacy and the teaching information database of Chinese

* The paper is supported by the graduate scientific research program of Beijing International Studies University

¹ Corresponding author: Fei Song, bestsongfei@126.com, Beijing International Studies University, China

new words to foreigners also which provides great help for the development of the syllabus of Chinese characters and vocabulary.

Throughout previous studies, the author found three problems: first, when scholars introduced Chinese songs into the teaching of Chinese as a foreign language, there was no standard for Chinese songs in terms of song search and selection. Second, the research of database construction is versatile. But currently, there is no database of Chinese song grades that can be directly used for Chinese language teaching. Third, in the teaching of Chinese language, the division of the text difficulty level mainly depends on the Chinese characters and word frequency in the statistical text. The method of dividing the difficulty level of the text from the perspective of the similarity calculation of the vector space model and typical individual cases has not been widely used.

Therefore, this study will focus on the application of Chinese songs in Chinese language teaching, plan to establish a database of Chinese song grades, and draw the criteria for the lyrics of song lyrics in order to better serve the teaching of Chinese as a foreign language.

II. PREPARATION OF THE DATABASE CONSTRUCTION

Before building a "Chinese song Hierarchical database", a lot of preparation work needs to be done. It mainly includes collecting Chinese song lyrics corpus and performing word segmentation processing on song lyrics, selecting vocabulary level outline and vocabulary connection with lyrics text and other tasks. It will be described in detail below.

A. Collection of Database Materials

1. Collection of Lyrics Data

Based on Internet resources, the author uses web crawler technology to randomly obtain 10,000 initial Chinese lyrics data from the Chinese song music platform. After effective secondary data cleaning, a total of 9,098 correct song lyrics data are retained. After a general analysis of these Chinese songs, it was found that theme type and creation time, the collected lyrics of 9098 songs all met the needs of this research considering the song style, and they were stored in the database as "ID", "Song title" and "Lyrics".

2. Vocabulary Hierarchical Outline Selection

This research needs an authoritative vocabulary level outline, which is used as the standard for determining the word level after the song lyrics are segmented. Zhang Baolin (2005) pointed out that the current grade syllabus in China is divided into three types, namely syllabus, level syllabus and vocabulary. Considering the needs of this research, the author is comparing "Chinese Proficiency Vocabulary and Chinese Character Grade Outline" (1992) (hereinafter referred to as "Old HSK Vocabulary Outline"), "New Chinese Proficiency Test (HSK) Vocabulary Outline" (2009) (hereinafter referred to as "New HSK Vocabulary Outline", "Chinese International Education Syllable Chinese Character Vocabulary Classification" (2010) (hereinafter referred to as "Vocabulary Classification"), it is planned to select "Vocabulary Classification" as the judgment of the lyrics of Chinese songs in this article. Regarding the standard, the main reasons are considered from the status of the grade outline and the vocabulary included.

The "Old HSK Vocabulary Outline" (1992) was published earlier. The 8822 words included in it are divided into four levels: A, B, C, and D, and they cannot adequately meet the needs of society. The "New HSK Vocabulary Outline" was launched in 2009. It was developed by researchers after drawing on the advantages of the "Old HSK Vocabulary Outline" and drawing on the latest achievements of the International Chinese Language Test. It received 5,000 words and was divided into one to six levels which is for HSK candidates. "Vocabulary Classification" was launched in October 2010. It is the first national standard of Chinese international education and a representative of the times and authority. A total of 11,092 words were received and divided into three levels in detail to serve Chinese learners of different levels.

After collecting the corpus of the database, the author will then perform word segmentation processing on the song lyrics and associate the processed new words to the corresponding vocabulary level which also provides a reference for the establishment of the later hierarchical database.

B. Construct a Song Vocabulary Hierarchical Database

1. Song Lyrics Participle Processing

After obtaining the lyrics of 9098 Chinese songs based on data mining, the author plans to use Corpus Word Parser to perform part-of-speech tagging on the lyrics of each song, and statistically obtain the length of lyrics, the number of the participle, participle, and part of speech. According to statistics, the total word count of 9098 Chinese song lyrics totals 2575389 words. Afterword segmentation, a total of 1785273 words were obtained, and the average number of words per Chinese song was 283.07. Select Access as a library building tool and import all statistical data into the database. The structure of the library is: ID, song title, length of lyrics, number of participles, participle, part of speech (as shown in Figure 2-1). Name the database "Lyrics Vocabulary database" refers to a vocabulary database that includes word segmentation processing. The "lyric vocabulary database" is the basis of the "lyric vocabulary rating database".

ID	song title	length of lyrics	number of parts	participles	part of speech
1	Angel's wing	256	182	zhe	u
1	Angel's wing	256	182	wo	r
1	Angel's wing	256	182	ti	v
1	Angel's wing	256	182	tianshi	n
1	Angel's wing	256	182	ge	q
1	Angel's wing	256	182	shouhu	v
1	Angel's wing	256	182	hui	vu
1	Angel's wing	256	182	wo	r
1	Angel's wing	256	182	congci	d
1	Angel's wing	256	182	meiyou	v
1	Angel's wing	256	182	cibang	n
1	Angel's wing	256	182	huaguo	v

Figure 2-1. Example of lyrics vocabulary database

2. Related Song Vocabulary Level

After the song vocabulary database is completed, the words in it need to be related to the same words in "Vocabulary Classification" to find the level corresponding to each word.

In "Vocabulary Classification", some words have some part-of-speech tags, and the words contain two or more parts of speech (see Figure 2-2), which need to be properly resolved.

ID	number	level	word	pinyin	part of speech
9 8		附	挨家挨户	āi jiā āi hù	
10 9		三	挨着	āizhe	
12 11		二	挨打	ái dǎ	
38 37		一③	安排	ānpái	v/n
40 39		二	安慰	ānwèi	v/n
49 48		一③	按	àn	v/p
83 82		一③	把握	bǎwò	v/n

Figure 2-2. Examples of special words in "Vocabulary Classification"

First of all, a preliminary analysis of the "no part of speech" words selected in the "Vocabulary Classification" found that these words are mostly phrases, proper nouns, idioms, etc. The level corresponding to each word is unique (as shown in the figure 2-2). Therefore, it is vital to associate these "no part of speech" words with the "Lyric Vocabulary Database" to match the corresponding phrases, idioms, proper nouns in the database to the corresponding levels. Then, the words "two or more parts of speech" were screened from "Classification of Vocabulary" for analysis. It was found that the two parts of speech in the part of words corresponded to a level, so when the part of words was associated with the "Lyrics Vocabulary Database". If the words in the "Lyrics Vocabulary Database" can be matched with a part of speech in this type of word, it will be considered that the word level can be found. Finally, it is difficult for the massive vocabulary in the "Song Vocabulary Database" to be related to the corresponding level in "Vocabulary Classification", so the author named the words that are not related to the corresponding level as "expansion-level words". According to statistics, this part of the total number of words is 844122, accounting for 47.28% of the total number of words in the database. The word types are 524558 in total, accounting for 53.58% of the database word types.

So far, the author has matched all the words in the "song vocabulary database" to a level. There are four levels of words, namely level one, level two, level three, and extended level.

3. Calculate the Proportion of Song Vocabulary Level

Next, we need to count the number of word types and word frequencies contained in the songs in the "song vocabulary database" at different levels, and then calculate the proportion of word frequencies at that level. The specific calculation formula of the level ratio is:

$$\text{proportion} = \frac{\text{word frequency}}{\text{total word frequency}}$$

Through word segmentation processing, vocabulary level association, and level ratio statistics, important data such as word frequency, number of word types, and level ratio in a song are obtained. They are mainly "first-level word frequency, first-level word number, first-level word" Proportion, secondary word frequency, secondary word types, secondary word ratio, tertiary word frequency, tertiary word type, tertiary word ratio, tertiary word frequency, tertiary word number, tertiary word, Word Proportion, Expansion Level Word Frequency, Expansion Level Kind of Words, Expansion Level Proportion. Import it into the database to establish a "song vocabulary rating database", reflecting the proportion of each song vocabulary rating. The fields included in the library are: ID, song title, lyrics, total word count,

first-level word ratio, first-level word frequency, first-level word type, second-level ratio, second-level word frequency, second-level word type, third-level Proportion, tertiary word frequency, tertiary word types, tertiary appended ratio, tertiary attached word frequency, tertiary attached word number, extended level proportion, extended level word frequency, extended level word number.

III. CHINESE SONG HIERARCHICAL DATABASE CONSTRUCTION

When using the vector space model to classify Chinese lyrics, this paper plans to let the computer automatically calculate the similarity of the lyrics, and merge automatically above a certain threshold to form different classification categories.

A. The Specificity of Song Lyrics Suitable for Teaching

1. Typical Song Lyrics Data Analysis

After reading the previous research results and conducting a four-month classroom practice, the author found that "Meet", "Blue Lotus", "Where did all the time go", "The Moon Represents My Heart" and "Lake Baikal" these 5 Chinese songs are more suitable for teaching Chinese as a foreign language. Among them, the teaching effect of "The Moon Represents My Heart" and "Where Does Time Go" is obviously better than the other three. After analyzing the data of these five songs, it is found that the higher the level of the song's lyrics, the better the teaching effect of the song in the class; the higher the proportion of expansion-level words, the poorer the teaching effect of the song in the classroom. That is, the proportion of the first-level vocabulary in song lyrics has a crucial position.

2. Analysis of all song data summary

If the first-level words in a song's lyrics occupy a relatively high level, it reflects that the song's use of simple words is not difficult for students to understand, and the teaching effect may be better. On the contrary, if the expansion of Chinese songs is relatively high, it means that the difficulty of using words in a song is not conducive to students' understanding. Therefore, based on the proportion of first-level words in all songs in the "Song Vocabulary Rating Database and Song Vocabulary Rating Database" established in Chapter 2, the author arranges them in descending order to make a scatterplot 3-1) for analysis. In the figure, the abscissa represents the sequence number of each song, and the ordinate represents the proportion of first-level words.

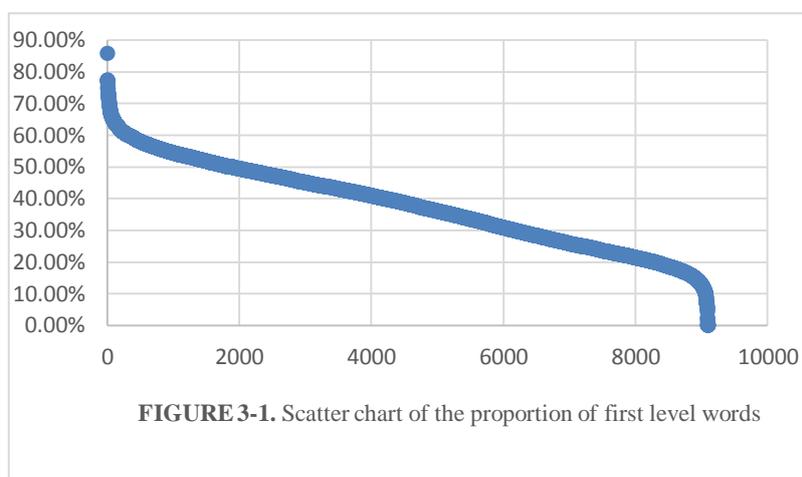


FIGURE 3-1. Scatter chart of the proportion of first level words

According to the data change trend, two inflection points can be found in the figure: one is (174,62.28%), that is, at the data number 174, the first-level vocabulary accounts for 62.28%. The changing trend of the data on both sides shows a trend from fast to slow. Another place is (8698, 17.11%), that is, when the data serial number is 8698, and the first-level share reaches 17.11%, the changing trend of the data on both sides of the data shows a change from slow to fast. Therefore, according to these two inflection points, songs can be roughly divided into three categories: first-class words occupy a relatively high class, first-class words account for a gradual change in class, and first-class words occupy a relatively low class. Next, the author will analyze these three types of data in detail in order to discover the characteristics of the data.

a. Analysis of the Data at Higher Proportion

Screening out Chinese songs with "the first-level vocabulary accounted for more than 62%", a total of 181 lyrics data were obtained. A random sampling of 10% was conducted to analyze one by one, and it was found that such songs sing clearly when singing, most of the lyrics are common daily vocabulary, and the theme is mostly describing love, mood or a specific thing. In addition, the author also found that the second-level and third-level words in this category account for a relatively small amount, and the rest are extended-level words. Obviously, this part of the Chinese song is suitable for teaching Chinese as a foreign language, especially for elementary learners with a low level of Chinese.

b. Analysis of Data at Lower Proportion

Filter out the Chinese songs whose "the first-level vocabulary accounts for less than 17%" and get a total of 388 lyrics data. A random sampling of 10% was conducted to analyze one by one, and it was found that many words of this type of song have phonation during the singing process. Besides, the lyrics are mostly ancient words while the meaning is obscure. The theme of the song is mostly to describe love, but there are many expressions. The tendency is to use lyrical sceneries, lyrical sceneries, etc. Besides, in the extracted sample data, three-level vocabulary and extended-level vocabulary usually occupy an important semantic component in the sentence. Therefore, when the proportion of first-level words in a song is less than 17%, the lyrics of the song are too tricky, and the learning of such words is not very helpful for students to improve their oral ability and pronunciation. Therefore, the author believes that such songs. It is not recommended to be used in Chinese as a foreign language class. It can be used as an extra-curriculum song of interest in teaching Chinese as a foreign language to arouse students' interest in Chinese song culture.

c. Data Analysis of First-level Accounted for Relatively Flat Areas

By observing the pictures, we can know that the lyrics data of these songs change evenly, so the author decided to explore the rules further. The author conducts stratified sampling of the data in this area and performs a 1% sampling every 15% with a first-level ratio. After the division, the data is divided into three layers: the first layer extracts 22 data, the second layer extracts 23 data, and the third layer extracts 30 data.

Through the analysis of the word segmentation of these sampled data, it is found that in addition to the evenly decreasing proportion of the first-level vocabulary, the distribution of the second-level, third-level words and extended levels is irregular. Therefore, through manual screening, the author conducted a one-by-one investigation on the 75 Chinese songs, and finally successfully found 29 Chinese songs suitable for intermediate-level Chinese students to learn (as shown in Figure 3-2).

1	歌名	16	有点甜
2	偏爱	17	情侣装
3	微行循	18	素颜
4	K歌之王	19	感恩的心
5	花房姑娘	20	亲爱的，你的棉裤真的不在我家
6	后会无期	21	小蝌蚪找妈妈
7	我的好兄弟	22	爸爸
8	当你孤单你会想起谁	23	沈阳北站
9	痴心绝对	24	放生
10	当爱已成往事(霸王别姬 电影插曲)	25	春天里
11	父亲	26	冰雨
12	王妃	27	昨天是找不到的永远
13	过火	28	蓝莲花
14	童话	29	铁窗泪
15	会呼吸的痛	30	有多少爱可以重来

Figure 3-2. 29 songs suitable for intermediate Chinese teaching

The author decided to use the vector space model to analyze this part of the data, and the 29 Chinese songs manually selected as the feature data modelling analysis. In the comparison song vocabulary rating database, the word segmentation results of each level of the song are counted, the number of words and the proportion of word frequency of each lyric is recorded, and this is used as the dimension of a Chinese song rating. There are three main reasons: first, the frequency and scope of different levels of words are different, which can reflect the difficulty of the lyrics; second, the number of words of different levels of words can reflect the difficulty of the lyrics and the impact on teaching; Third, the proportion of grades and the number of words in a song can be considered as independent features, independent of the total number of words in the song.

Next, the writer will use the vector space model method to divide the song lyrics data suitable for the intermediate level of teaching Chinese as a foreign language in the gentle area. The calculation formula of the angle cosine value is as follows: where A represents the proportion of each level, and B represents the number of words.

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n A_i \times B_i}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (A_i)^2} \times \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (B_i)^2}}$$

The vector space model has a total of ten dimensions, namely: first-level word-level ratio, first-level word types, second-level word-level ratio, second-level word type ratio, third-level word-level ratio, third-level word words The number of species, the proportion of the three-level attached words, the number of the three-level attached words, the proportion of the expanded word grades, and the number of expanded word words.

B. Construct a Vector Space Model

1. Data Normalization

Before constructing the vector space model, it is necessary to normalize the data of different units. The specific conversion function of normalization is as follows: x represents the current value, \min represents the minimum value in this dimension, and \max represents the maximum value in this dimension.

After normalizing 29 songs, the 29 sets of data are calculated by weighted average, and the calculation result is used as a vector suitable for the vector space model of intermediate Chinese teaching.

2. Iterative Calculation to Determine the Threshold

By calculating the angle cosine of the space vector of the data in the gentle area and the vector suitable for the intermediate teaching model, the threshold for dividing songs of medium and high difficulty is found in the process of iterative calculation, and the data above this threshold are classified as a class, low The threshold data is classified into another category.

After four manual iterations, sample analysis and manual selection of songs suitable for intermediate Chinese teaching, the author found that when the vector space angle cosine is 0.95, after random analysis of 5%, 88.4% of the Chinese songs It can be applied to intermediate Chinese teaching classes for foreigners. Therefore, the author uses the cosine value of 0.95 as a threshold because manual detection found that 88.4% of the Chinese songs in the songs divided by this threshold are suitable for intermediate Chinese teaching.

C. Song Difficulty Level Division Results

1. Beginner-difficulty Songs

By observing the "scatter plot of first-level word proportion", we can find that the first-level proportion has a great influence on the song. Therefore, the lyrics data of more than 62% of the first-level vocabulary is classified as "primary difficulty songs", a total of 181 songs. The following is a list of ten representative songs of primary difficulty:

TABLE 3-1.
REPRESENTATIVES OF SONGS OF PRIMARY DIFFICULTY

1	Too much love	6	When you
2	Confession of love	7	Little train
3	Just follow me if love me	8	Suspect
4	The day will never know how dark the night is	9	The moon represents my heart
5	Tea world	10	You used to be a young boy

2. Intermediate-difficulty Songs

By constructing a vector space model suitable for intermediate-level Chinese teaching songs, the threshold between finding intermediate-level difficulty songs and advanced-level difficulty songs is 0.95. Therefore, when the angle cosine of a Chinese song is calculated to be higher than 0.95, the song is classified as "intermediate difficulty song". Through calculation, a total of 3085 Chinese songs were obtained as intermediate difficulty songs. Here are ten representative songs of intermediate difficulty:

$$x^* = \frac{x - \min}{\max - \min}$$

TABLE 3-2.
REPRESENTATIVES OF SONGS OF INTERMEDIATE DIFFICULTY

1	Don't love you	6	The life in Beijing East Road
2	The winter of love	7	How do you want me to be
3	Zebra, zebra	8	Fish looking for water
4	Aries	9	How much love can be repeated
5	Flower Girl	10	Meet

3. Advanced-difficulty Songs

When the angle cosine value of a Chinese song is less than 0.95, the song is classified as "advanced difficulty song". Through calculation, a total of 5444 Chinese songs were obtained as advanced difficulty songs. The following is a list of ten high-level difficulty representative songs:

TABLE 3-3.
REPRESENTATIVES OF SONGS OF INTERMEDIATE DIFFICULTY

1	Ambiguous	6	Life in full bloom
2	Hug back to back	7	On July
3	Secret	8	Normal road
4	No contact any more	9	Love you
5	Once you	10	Finally you are here

4. Interest Expansion Songs

By observing the "scatter plot of first-level word proportion", it is found that the first-level proportion has a great influence on the song. When the first-level vocabulary of song lyrics is less than 17%, analysis of this part of the data reveals that this part contains a lot of ancient songs, which makes it difficult for students to understand, and the effect of promoting student learning is not obvious. For "Interest Expansion Songs", the following lists ten representative songs of interest expansion categories:

TABLE 3-4.
REPRESENTATIVE SONGS OF INTEREST EXTENSION

1	The moon in border town	6	The trouble beauty brings
2	Picking Osmund	7	How much sorrow
3	Spring morning	8	The reeds and rushes
4	The elegance and talent in the world	9	Peer rain
5	Ah, homeward bound I go	10	Black robe alley

IV. RESEARCH RESULTS

After statistics, the Chinese song ranking database has a total of 9098 Chinese songs. The distribution of songs in each level is shown in Figure (4-1)

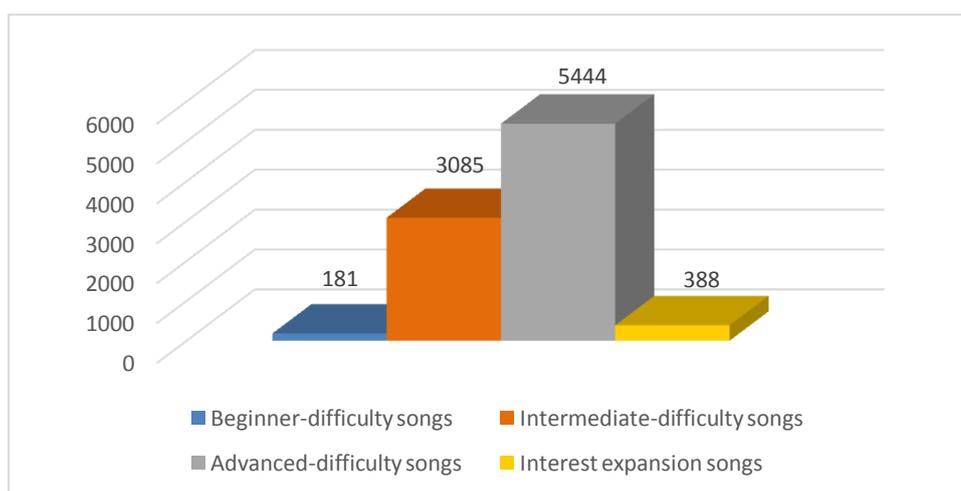


FIGURE 4-1. The distribution of songs in the Chinese song ranking database

It can be seen from the chart that the database divides Chinese songs into four difficulty levels, namely: primary difficulty, intermediate difficulty, advanced difficulty, and interest expansion. The author believes that the Chinese songs in the database can be applied to teaching Chinese as a foreign language, but when faced with different teaching objects, the use of songs is very different.

First, for learners of elementary Chinese level, at the beginning of Chinese learning, the Chinese characters and vocabulary they master cannot be fully applied in daily life. It is difficult for them to choose the appropriate Chinese song teaching. Therefore, when the first-level vocabulary accounts for more than 62%, it means that other types of vocabulary are lower, which is more suitable for elementary Chinese learners.

Second, for intermediate-level Chinese learners, they already have a particular vocabulary and master some commonly used Chinese syntactic structures and grammatical functions. Therefore, in the database, they can not only learn songs of intermediate difficulty but also harness the teachers' Guide to learn.

Third, for learners with a Chinese major or a higher level of Chinese, who have taken Chinese as their major. Then based on mastering commonly used Chinese vocabulary, they need to improve their Chinese proficiency further and continuously expand their vocabulary. Therefore, Chinese songs at this level can help them achieve these goals, and at the same time, they can understand the meaning of the song and the cultural content contained in the lyrics.

Fourth, in the Chinese song ranking database, the content of the first-level vocabulary in some song lyrics is shallow, and the second-level, the third-level and extended-level vocabulary account for more, which makes the lyrics of such songs obscure and challenging to learn. Therefore, it is recommended that such songs be used as interest-expansion songs and used as expansion songs after Chinese as a foreign language, in order to increase the interest of learners and increase the enthusiasm for Chinese songs.

V. RESEARCH PROSPECTS

From an application point of view, first, the database can help teachers reduce the pressure of lesson preparation,

improve teaching effects, and help students increase their enthusiasm and interest in Chinese learning. Second, the research of the database mainly solves the problem of determining the difficulty level of song lyrics text while filling the gaps of previous research. Besides, it has strong innovation and educational reference value. Third, the construction of the database is in line with the current trend of corpus big data and reflects the innovative research concept of interdisciplinary and fusion. The application of data mining, data analysis, natural language processing and other related technologies in the research process plays a vital role in achieving correct personalization and autonomous learning and is also an essential reflection of the frontier research in this discipline.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors wish to thank Beijing International Studies University. The paper is supported by the graduate scientific research program of Beijing International Studies University.

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Yuqi Zhang was born in Mudanjiang City in 1996. She graduated from Harbin Normal University in 2018 and graduated with a master's degree from the Chinese Academy of Beijing Second Foreign Language College in 2020, majoring in Chinese international education. As the principal person in charge, she undertook the critical scientific research project of graduate students in the school and was awarded the titles of excellent graduates of the Chinese Language Institute of Beijing Second Foreign Studies University and excellent graduates of Beijing.

Xiujuan Han is an associate professor and a professor from Beijing Second Foreign Language College. From 1996 to 2000, she studied at Yantai Teachers College with a bachelor's degree. From 2000 to 2007, she studied at Beijing Language and Culture University with a master's degree and a doctoral degree. From 2007 to present, she has worked in the Chinese Language School of Beijing Second Foreign Language College.

Qingping Hu is a female lecturer. From December 1998 to July 2000, she taught at East China Normal University. From July 2000 to present, she has taught at Beijing Second Foreign Language College. From September 2007 to July 2009, she studied in the postgraduate class of linguistics and applied linguistics of Beijing Normal University. In July 2014, she participated in the Hanban Hosted the "Advanced Workshop on the Sustainable Development of Culture and International Chinese Education" and the "Advanced Workshop on Chinese International Education" sponsored by Beijing Language and Culture University.

Fei Song is a PhD, associate professor and master tutor of the Central University of Nationalities and Columbia University who mainly engaged in research on language intelligence, international Chinese teaching measurement research, and cultural and technological integration. Currently, he presides over many scientific research projects such as the Beijing Social Science Fund Project. As a key member, he participates in the National Social Science/National Self-Study Fund.

A Corpus-based Study of Shields in Conversations of Chinese EFL Learners

Hongying Liu

University of Shanghai for Science and Technology, Shanghai, China

Abstract—As an important part of the fuzzy language, hedges have become a common linguistic phenomenon and frequently applied in daily spoken language. In this study, the authors investigated the shields-using frequency of Chinese EFL learners from the Multi-modal Spoken English Corpus of Chinese Learners-Science & Engineering Majors (MSECCL-SEM). In this study, the classification of Prince et al. (1982) will be adopted. Six shields that are frequently used in spoken English have been searched, namely, “I think”, “in my opinion”, “maybe”, “according to”, “as we (all) know”, “it is said that”. Data are analyzed by the application of Wordsmith 6.0 and SPSS 25.0. Through this study, we attempt to explore the characteristics of shields in spoken English of EFL learners, especially the differences in terms of gender, various language proficiency and two different kinds of shields. Through this research, the authors hope to guide second language teaching and learning by finding out the use of shields in EFL students' daily spoken language and analyzing its potential causes.

Index Terms—hedge, shield, fuzziness, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

In our daily communication and writing, it is assumed that the utterances we make or the output of writing should be very clear and precise, but in fact, vagueness and indirectness occur frequently among various languages. Many scholars have studied the phenomenon of hedging, noting that hedging is also a positive feature of human language (Williamson, 1994; Channell, 1994; Cutting, 2015). The correct use of hedges is not only a crucial manifestation of the speaker's pragmatic ability but also an important means for the speaker to express his or her views accurately and successfully. The appropriate use of hedges can help create a comfortable communicating atmosphere, establish a personal rapport, and mitigate face threats (Cutting, 2015). However, how to choose and use hedges for oral communication is one of the most difficult problems that non-native English speakers would confront.

Literature Review

Originated from the study of the vagueness and indirectness phenomenon happened in the language use (Ullmann, 1962), “hedge” was first put forward by G. Lakoff in 1972 as a concept referring to words that make things fuzzier or less fuzzy (Lakoff, 1972), such as “kind of”, “almost”, “perhaps”, “I think” and so on. Pragmatics expert He Ziran (1988) believes that hedges are words that describe the general situation of a topic and make it impossible for the listener to get exact information, such as “kind of”, “sort of”. Scholars at home and abroad have made great achievements in the study of hedges. To sum up, the research mainly involves two fields, including daily verbal conversation and written language (including academic written language). The research perspectives include the classification of hedges and discourse analysis in various fields.

The classification of hedges went through continuous development. Prince et al. (1982) studied doctors' and patients' conversations in the children's intensive care during the morning doctor's visit, classifying hedges into two categories according to whether it changes the true value of the sentence: approximators and shields. Chinese expert He Ziran (1988) adopted the view of Prince et al. and further divided approximators into adaptors and rounders, shields into plausibility shields and attribution shields. In the study of medical written texts, Salager-Meyer (1994) divided hedges into five parts based on its function, namely shields, approximators, author's insufficiency and doubt, emotionally charged expressions and compounds hedges. Also concentrating on the functions, Hyland (1996) classified hedges according to its two major functions: content motivation and reader motivation. Gao Xiaofang and Zhang Qin (2002) classified hedges into semantic hedges and pragmatic hedges according to their degree of contextual attachment. In this study, the classification of Prince et al. (1982) will be adopted to specifically focus on the use of shields (The classification is shown in Fig. 1).

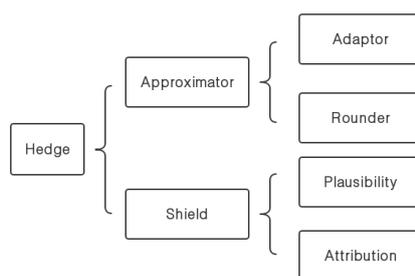


Figure 1 The classification of Prince et al. And He

Hedges are widely studied in literary, political, legal, scientific and technological texts, as well as business letters and news. The analysis of academic papers has aroused much attention. Hyland(1998) studied the written language of science and technology from the perspective of pragmatics and pointed out that the hedges are not only a rhetorical device for the writing of science and technology texts but also a key feature of science and technology texts, which help reduce the declarative power, including modality, expression of obedience, uncertainty and other functions. The study of hedges is also widely applied in the law, medical and political fields. In the law field, scholars find that the interpersonal meaning of hedges is mainly reflected in the author's rigorous and objective attitude, his politeness and respect for readers, his protection for himself, and his negotiation and dialogue with readers (Pang Jianrong, 2003). Shi Feitong (2014), and Qiu Guizhen (2015) compared the introductions and results of the English abstracts of Chinese and American or Chinese-English medical papers and discussed the use of hedges to explore the differences and Pragmatic function. In the meanwhile, Xiao Jianping (2018) discusses gender differences in the use of hedges in political discourse from the perspectives of hedges, political speeches of national leaders and gender differences. Pan Feng (2014) studied the application of hedges in Chinese-English interpretation of press conferences by applying corpus method and found that hedges were significantly less used in interpreting English than in original oral English. Although the study of hedges in these fields is prosperous, it is easy to find that most of the studies focus on the written language rather than the interlanguage given by L2 speakers. Few studies have been made for oral English in the past years, mainly focusing on the academic spoken English and teachers' utterances in the class. Deng Zhaohong (2009) investigated the distribution and functions of various adverbs by using the University of Michigan English academic spoken language corpus. Based on the corpus of MICASE, Wang Jiangang et al. (2018) discusses the characteristics of the use of English mild hedges in oral academic communication, focusing on the influence of the speaker's gender, discourse mode, and different disciplinary fields on the use of moderate hedges..

Shortly, some scholars at home and abroad have discussed the application of hedges in oral English, they focus on the academic, political and medical field, revealing the pragmatic function and politeness function of hedges to some extent, but not enough attention has been made to the study on the use of hedges in daily spoken English of L2 students. Therefore, this study tries to analyze the use of shields among the daily spoken English uttered by L2 students based on corpus MSECCL-SEM. This study aims to find out the use of shields in SLA students' daily spoken language and analyze its potential causes, thus guiding second language teaching and learning.

II. RESEARCH METHOD

A. Research Questions

In this study, six shields that are frequently used in spoken English are searched in the corpus, namely "I think", "in my opinion", "maybe", "according to", "as we (all) know", "it is said that". Data are analyzed by using Wordsmith 6.0 and SPSS 25.0. All these six kinds of hedges are essential means to express the speaker's uncertainty when he says a proposition. The first three plausibility shields are used to express the speaker's lack of confidence in the authenticity of the utterance or lack of assurance, and to soften the positive tone of the utterance. The last three are attribution shields, in which the speaker indirectly expresses his or her attitude by quoting the opinions of a third party. By answering the following questions, we try to explore the characteristics of shields in spoken English of second language learners, especially the differences in terms of gender, various language proficiency and two different kinds of shields:

What are the differences in the use of shields by L2 speakers of different gender?

What are the differences in the use of shields by L2 speakers according to their language proficiency?

What are the differences in the use of plausibility shields and attribution shields by L2 speakers?

B. The Corpus Used in This Study

The corpus employed in this research is MSECCL-SEM (Liu Qin, 2013), short for Multi-modal Spoken English Corpus of Chinese Learners-Science & Engineering Majors, including transcribed video of 150 oral group discussions in five universities of science and engineering in China (including key universities and local universities), with a total of 85,540 words. The corpus contains dialogues of groups with two to four people each. Teachers provide alternative topics (involving college students' employment, urban environmental pollution and other social phenomena), and students choose the topic and have a 6-minute-long discussion. Students are divided into groups according to whether

they have passed the written test of CET-4 and CET-6. Those who have passed CET-6 are classified into the high-proficiency group, those who have passed CET-4 but failed CET-6 into the middle-proficiency group and those who have failed CET-4 are classified into the low-proficiency group. All spoken transcribed corpus texts are marked with the speaker's status, gender, major and various non-verbal information.

III. RESULTS

A. Gender Differences in the Use of Shields

Table 1 shows the using frequency of male and female speakers of the chosen shields in MSECCL-SEM corpus. The Numbers in brackets show the standardized frequency of each shield, which is the frequency per 10,000 words. P-value represents the statistical test results of gender difference in the using frequency.

TABLE 1
STATISTICAL RESULTS OF GENDER DIFFERENCES IN SHIELDS IN CORPUS MSECCL-SEM

Shield Type	Shields	Male	Female	p-Value
Plausibility Shield	I think	343(109.10)	100(37.67)	0.00**
	in my opinion	19(6.04)	9(3.39)	0.00**
	maybe	69(21.94)	85(32.02)	0.00**
Attribution Shield	according to	1(0.32)	3(1.13)	0.89
	as we (all) know	13(4.13)	5(1.88)	0.01
	it is said that	1(0.32)	1(0.38)	0.00**
	Total	438(139.26)	203(76.47)	0.00**

According to the data in table 1, the standardized frequency of shields used by females is 76.47 per 10,000 words, while that of males is 139.26 per 10,000 words. The chi-square test results show that there is a significant difference between the two at the 1% confidence level, which indicates that male students are more likely to use shields in daily conversation. The results differ from Wang's finding in 2018 that women are more likely than men to use shields in oral academic communication. The reason is that in the context of academic communication and from the historical view, most of the people engaged in scientific research are male researchers, with fewer women, and their overall academic status is lower than that of men. In academic communication, the use of mild hedges can make the expression more cautious and polite. However, in daily communication of the L2 students, the different outcomes can be seen in the table.

The reason lies in the different shields that are studied by different researchers. The shields chosen in Wang's research are mainly used to indicate uncertainty of the speaker such as "possibly", "probably", and "likely". The same result is found in this paper when examining the similar word "maybe", which indicates that female speakers are more likely to use this kind of shield to be more cautious and polite. The other two plausibility shields "I think" and "in my opinion" are used to emphasize their views and highlight the subjectivity. For example:

(1) But I think now, the most important thing I should do now is going home. (Male)

(2) -What's your opinion? -Partly I think. But more and more private cars may make a serious problem in our environment of society. (Female)

It can be seen from the example that shields like "I think" used in the conversation express two kinds of interpersonal meaning. In example (1), the student's father caught a cold and they started to talk about how to make their parents happy. At last, the student indicated his strong will to go home visiting his father using "I think". And in example (2), "I think" occurs in the middle of a conversation and is used to answer questions or refute the other speaker. The other student thought that private cars would bring many advantages and solve a lot of problems and she asked the speaker's opinion. But the speaker in example 2 held the view that there were also demerits brought by private cars so she used the shield to express her different opinion.

Grice (1975) defines five features of conversational implicature as cancelability, non-detachability, calculability, non-conventionability and indeterminacy. One of the most important features is cancelability referring to the possibility to attach some premises to the original discourse and then the pragmatic meaning of the original discourse will be changed to some extent. The use of "I think" or "maybe" indicates the uncertainty of the speaker and the possibility of canceling the utterance he made and changing his words.

B. The Difference among Various Language Proficiency

The participants in the corpus are divided into three different groups according to their language proficiency, namely high-proficiency (passing CET-6), mid-proficiency (passing CET-4) and low-proficiency (failing CET-4). The six shields are searched in the different groups to find out the frequency difference among L2 speakers of various language proficiency. (shown in Table 2). The Numbers in brackets show the standardized frequency of each shield, which is the frequency per 10,000 words.

TABLE 2
STATISTICAL RESULTS OF DIFFERENCES IN SHIELDS OF DIFFERENT LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

Shield Type	Shields	Low-P	Mid-P	High-P
Plausibility Shield	I think	100(38.25)	82(36.37)	100(30.27)
	in my opinion	19(7.27)	16(7.10)	12(3.63)
	maybe	67(25.63)	50(22.18)	45(13.62)
Attribution Shield	according to	2(0.77)	3(1.33)	4(1.21)
	as we (all) know	11(4.21)	7(3.10)	10(3.03)
	it is said that	1(0.38)	2(0.89)	0(0)
	Total	200(76.50)	160(70.97)	171(51.76)

From the table, it can be seen that there is no significant difference in using attribution shields among different proficiency groups. In terms of Plausibility, a declining trend can be observed from the low proficiency group to high proficiency group. The total frequency of the high proficiency group is 19.21 lower than the mid-proficiency group and 24.74 lower than the low proficiency group. A previous study has found that the use of hedges enables students to output language accurately and appropriately, and avoid expressing impoliteness, rudeness or arbitrariness (Wei Yufen, 2010). Moreover, the politeness principle proposed by Leech (1983) explains that speakers intentionally violate the cooperative Principle to implicitly express their true meaning. Brown Levinson (1978) put forward the theory of Face preservation. The so-called "Face" is the personal image in the public that every social member wants to earn for himself, which is divided into Positive Face and Negative Face. A positive face is the desire to be approved and liked. Negative face means that you do not want others to impose on you and your behavior is not subject to interference or hindrance from others. Politeness is about mitigating the threat to face posed by certain communicative behaviors. Using shields means respecting each others' positive window and negative face in social interaction to earn some face for yourself at the same time. The real purpose of using shields is also to better achieve the communicative purpose and to meet people's face needs. From those studies and theories, we tend to predict that the high-proficiency group should use more shields than the other two groups. After further investigation into the conversation of the L2 speakers, it is found that low proficiency students can't express themselves fluently in English, so they use a large number of shields repeatedly to keep their fluency. For example:

(1) I think, I think er...we should, we should buy a car..... I think the traffic will stop. So I think not buy a car is like a dream. (uttered by a student of low English proficiency)

(2) I think it's too expensive. And I suppose you can en...you can take a bus or ride bike. (uttered by a student of high English proficiency)

In this one speech turn in example (1), the student said "I think" four times. At the beginning of the turn, the student did not have a clear and specific idea of what he was going to say, so he said it twice to give himself time to think. Besides, most of what the student said were short sentences. In the last two sentences, she used two consecutive sentences of "I think" to lengthen her sentence and make the short sentence sound less abrupt. In example (2), it can be seen that the student of high English proficiency first used "I think" to express his own opinion and then use the phrase "I suppose" in the next sentence to substitute "I think", thus avoiding repetition and adding varieties in his speaking. Further looking into the corpus, we find that students of high English proficiency use a large variety of phrases to express their opinion such as "I assume", "I suppose", "as far as I am concerned" and so on.

C. Using frequency of Plausibility Shields and Attribute Shields

As can be seen in Table 1 and Table 2, the using frequency of attribute shields is far less than plausibility shields. In table 2, the standardized frequency of using plausibility shields is 491 per 10000 words and that of attribute shields is 40 per 10000 words. The data shows Chinese L2 students have a better command of plausibility shields and use them more frequently to be cautious of what they say. Students are aware that in verbal communication, the appropriate use of plausibility can make the discourse more subtle and polite.

The reason why Chinese L2 speakers use fewer attribute shields may lie in their communication strategy. Attribute shields often express the speaker's opinion or attitude about something indirectly, using attribute shields accordingly will introduce a third party and will exclude themselves and save face to the maximum extent. According to the data collected from the corpus, Chinese L2 students rarely quote other people's saying or real data to support their view. Citing other people's opinions and real data can make the language more vivid, make the content of the explanation more specific, the demonstration of their views more effective, the arguments more substantial, and enhance the persuasive power.

IV. CONCLUSION

In this study, three results are found: 1) Male L2 students are more likely to use plausibility shields to express their strong opinion; 2) L2 students of low proficiency tend to use more plausibility shields because they fail to output fluent English and use too many repeated shields; 3) Chinese L2 students use fewer attribute shields than plausibility shields unaware of the significance of citing other people's opinion and data to support themselves.

To be short, the application of hedges in daily conversations plays a crucial role that cannot be ignored. Therefore, it is necessary for us to strengthen the analysis of hedges, correctly understand the value and use of hedges, optimize the

effect of linguistic expression, and improve the ability of linguistic expression. It is hoped that this study could shed some light on oral English teaching and learning. Teachers should cultivate the appropriateness of oral expression and the pragmatic ability of students. Students should pay more attention to the knowledge of language culture and pragmatics and use hedges reasonably to speak more native-likely.

This research is conducted in a synchronic view, while more features can be found during the learning process of the L2 students. Based upon these findings, research is underway into diachronic research of the L2 students using shields in different periods.

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Hongying Liu was born in Shandong Province, China. She is currently a postgraduate in the College of Foreign Languages, University of Shanghai for Science and Technology, Shanghai, China. Her major is Foreign linguistics and Applied Linguistics.

Improving EFL Learners' Vocabulary Learning Through Short Story Oriented Strategy (SSOS)

Masoumeh Arjmandi

Faculty of Humanities, Rasht Branch, Islamic Azad University, Rasht, Iran

Farzaneh Aladini

Faculty of Humanities, Rasht Branch, Islamic Azad University, Rasht, Iran

Abstract—Vocabulary is the main building block of language learning which acts as the kernel for all language skills. The present study attempts to investigate the effect of applying SSOS on Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary learning. Lack of English vocabulary knowledge of Iranian learners as EFL learners encounters them with a lot of English using difficulties which influence their language abilities (reading, writing, listening and speaking). To this end, based on convenience non-random sampling selection, 40 upper-intermediate female learners were selected via Quick Placement Test. The participants were assigned to experimental (n = 20) and control (n = 20) groups. A vocabulary test as a pretest and a posttest were administered to all participants. The data were analyzed through descriptive and inferential statistics using SPSS software. The result of findings indicated that it is helpful to utilize SSOS as a tool to enhance not only learners' conceptual and comprehensible processes in order to discover, guess and grasp the meaning of vocabulary but also to store and internalize them in their minds more successfully.

Index Terms—short stories, SSOS, vocabulary learning, VLSs

I. INTRODUCTION

As the realm of foreign language teaching has been switching from a mainly teacher-oriented attitude to a learner-oriented tendency, an expanded matter has been put on coming to the aid of students to take more engagements for meeting their foreign language learning lacks, wants, and needs. Fan (2015) remarked, over the past decades, a diversity of language teaching methods and approaches have been proposed, practiced, and experienced such as Grammar Translation Method, Audio-Lingual Method, Communicative Language Teaching, Computer Assisted Language Teaching, lexical approach, and so on. While some have gained worldwide recognition, some faded away soon after they were created. In other words, there is a waving of orientation in the methods proposed (Khatib & Seyedrezaei, 2013). According to Belcher and Hirvela (2000), within the literary devices, the short story is an attractive device to be applied for achieving language teaching and learning goals felicitously. They believe that literature, in light of its authentic input for language learning, has the potential to generate high quality linguistic skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening, quite in line with the principles of Communicative Language Teaching (Belcher & Hirvela, 2000). With respect to reading, the short story allows learners to efficiently practice speed-reading techniques such as skimming, scanning, and finding the main ideas. In point of fact, not merely do short stories are assisting for language learning aims, in general, they also hasten language learning process, particularly in content-based instruction (Shang, 2006). "The integration of a particular content [e.g., math, science, social studies, literature] with second language teaching aims (Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 1989, p. 2).

This study attempts to show that English teaching (as a second language) does not merely contain to foster students in the development of linguistic features, but help them learn pragmatic features of language for an effective social interaction and implication. One way to expose students to socio-cultural differences is through the use of literature (i.e., short story, drama, poetry, etc.). Many research studies showed that vocabulary is one of the best indicators of intellectual ability and an accurate predictor of overall verbal intelligence and success at school (Sternberg, 1987). Moreover, a rich vocabulary is a valuable asset and an important attribute in many areas of life, not just in school. Salesmen, politicians, sportscasters, radio personnel, and teachers are only a few professions where a good vocabulary proves to be essential (Soleimani & Ghazanfari, 2012). Unfortunately, learning vocabulary is something problematic for learners in Iranian context. Iranian learners develop their vocabulary knowledge in classroom, but their learned vocabulary is often forgotten and they cannot utilize them in their daily conversations. For English language learners, an English foreign language environment (like Iran) is "input—poor-context" compared to an English second language atmosphere. Iranian learners of English have less language environmental opportunities to acquire words or non-words, and use them in real world communicative setting.

For this purpose, this study puts an effort to investigate whether applying SSOS method contributes Iranian EFL learners to enrich their vocabulary learning. Therefore, the main problem of Iranian learners is the lack of English natural exposure for learning all aspects of language components through natural inputs and acquisition, so they do not

achieve a kind of spontaneous use of language vocabulary items, collocations, idioms, etc. Most of Iranian learners have vocabulary learning problems in their English communication situations not only to access but also to recall an appropriate word, and this problem is due to un-internalized forms of words in Iranian learners' minds. However, there is a need for Iranian learners (as EFL learners) to be familiarized on various vocabulary items which are used in various context. Besides, lack of applying a plausible method to teach English vocabulary items is another problem of Iranian learners to form their lexicon, i.e., mental dictionary effectively. An appropriate method can contribute them to have an easy access to English words automatically and effortlessly when they need to use language in reading, writing, listening and speaking. Accordingly, one of the most significant of the current discussion in applying SSOS was to teach English vocabulary skills in the context of the short story affectively and cognitively. According to Martinez (2007), learners enjoy listening to stories; therefore, their motivation and interest for learning and paying attention to new words may increase. In addition, Mohammadnejad (2018, p. 103) said:

....in dealing with short stories, learners have an experience with the powerful real language of personal communication. Through reading short stories, language learners not only can promote gradually their vocabulary size and knowledge but also their communicative and cultural knowledge. Thus, starting to read English short story is a kind of starting to be able to read another longer story.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Generally, vocabulary is a vital device for communicating, and insufficient of it jeopardizes the literal meaning of utterances in communication. Some researchers made an effort to connect learners' language learning strategies to vocabulary learning (Nemati, 2013). According to Schmitt (2008), mastering vocabulary is the prerequisite of mastering a foreign language. In fact, teaching and learning foreign language vocabulary require different types of techniques, strategies, and methods (Min, 2013; File & Adams, 2010; Rot, Williams & Cameron, 2010; Mizumoto & Takeuchi, 2008). Singleton (1999) believed that it is important to reinforce learners' participation in vocabulary learning (VL) actively. In almost all studies, there was a focus on the pacing of repetition and recall of word lists (Gu, 2003). So, that is why forgetting occurs almost immediately after the first encounter. The main goal of learners' vocabulary learning should include recalling and retrieving simple and compound words, particularly the ability to use them automatically in different situational contexts (Gu, 2003). Among the methods of language teaching, the principle of Grammar Translation Method was based on the foreign language literature through reading and translating the passages (the teachers help the students with new vocabulary). Although with the appearance of structuralism along with behaviorism, and audio-lingual method, literary texts were overlooked, and vocabulary was introduced through dialogue (Collie & Slater, 1987). This approach toward literature was owing to a lack of experimental research ascertaining the value of literary texts in language classes (Maley, 2001). Moreover, the return of literature for language teaching was strengthened by applied linguistics (Belcher & Hirvela, 2000). Besides, Hisanoglu (2005) asserted that the use of literature is a technique for teaching social and cultural language domains through integrating reading, writing, listening and speaking.

Some researchers started to study on teaching vocabulary learning strategies (VLSs) as a method of vocabulary training. For example, Noor, Yuosoff, Yasim, and Kamarudin (2016) investigated on the foreign language VLSs in Malaysia, the results of their study indicated that among the factors that contribute to the poor vocabulary student, cannot do vocabulary exercises, and cannot retrieve the new learned vocabulary meaning. They believed that memorizing the words cannot lead to master the English vocabulary. Additionally, Ostovar-Namaghi and Rajaei (2013) studied on the effect of strategy training on vocabulary size in EFL context in Iran (in such context, learners' English vocabulary retention or knowledge is weak in communicative situation). Their study focuses on the strategies of vocabulary training like word formation, antonym and synonym, word definition, and guessing the word meaning through context. Their findings indicated that the instruction of these VLSs may help learners in three ways: firstly, to become better learners, secondly, to become independent and confident learners, and finally, to become more motivated learners. In closing, Anderson (2010) viewed that no VLSs or method of vocabulary teaching is better than another. Learners are different and therefore they use different learning strategies. As Nation cited in Gorgoz and Tican (2020), VLSs are a part of language learning strategies; accordingly, a part of general learning strategies. According to them, VLSs refer to actions that help learners to remember and understand vocabulary elements which lead them to an appropriate vocabulary knowledge for an effective and successful language use.

Regarding the history of short story, 19th century was the birth of short stories (as a literary form) in the magazines which widely attracted people to read more. In addition, all over the 20th Century, there was an extreme use of the short story due to an increase of popular magazines. Writers utilized different literary genres of the short story such as love stories, fantasy and horror stories, crime and mystery stories, and science fiction (Mead, Tilley & Wong, 2011). Mead, Tilley and Wong (2011) classified Short Stories to twelve modules which are: folklore, myth, legend, fable, parable, folktale, fairy, ghost story, love story, tall tale, trickster tale and urban legend. According to them, jokes, anecdotes, personal recounts and short feature stories in the news may be considered as other varieties of short story. In this regard, considering the importance of innovation in language teaching method, SSOS is introduced in this study as a new language teaching method (using short stories in language classes). Khatib and Seyyedrezaei (2013) viewed that short story oriented strategy is a literature-based method, and the purpose of it is to improve the learners' cultural and

linguistic knowledge. In fact, the main goal of the short story method of language teaching is to establish meaningful conditions that make learners to learn vocabulary with pleasure which improves not only learners' linguistic competence but also their communicative and pragmatic competence (Khatib and Seyyedrezaei, 2013). As Ellis and Brewster (1991) highly recommended that language teachers should use literary devices like stories as one of the vocabulary learning strategies in order to reinforce the learners' vocabulary knowledge because vocabulary in short stories is presented in a vivid and clear context. Specifically speaking, SSOS involves the learners' minds to get the meaning of the words in context that affects increasingly their retention and remembering. Khatib and Seyyedrezaei (2013) reported following characteristics of a literature-based language teaching method:

- The principal function of language is transactive and interactive communications,
- SSOS is based on humanism and cooperative learning,
- Learners' cultural and linguistic developments are signified,
- Short stories are considered as authentic materials,
- Linguistic, sociolinguistic and communicative competences are emphasized,
- An integration of four language skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) is involved.
- The students' native language can be applied to talk about the cultural differences,
- Classroom activities and tasks should be done in a positive atmosphere of group-working or individually,
- Vocabulary should be taught in the situational context of the story,
- The formal structure of grammar should not be ignored,
- An integration of teacher-centered approach along with student-centered approach should be interrelated,
- Fostering learners' minds are led to critical thinkers.

Besides, according to Custodio's and Sutton's (2008) view, literature-based approach like SSOS can open horizons of possibility, allowing students to question, interpret, connect, and explore. It can be assumed that literature allows the students to be creative in their thinking and also gives the learners an opportunity to use the language.

III. THE BENEFICIAL FEATURES OF APPLYING SSOS

One of the most effective benefits of applying short story—as one of language teaching strategy—is to enhance language learners' writing skills (Afroogh & Ahmadi, 2019). Khatib and Seyyedrezaei (2013) reported employing short story language teaching as the teaching method can be highly fruitful as it offers the following benefits or advantages:

- *Promoting all language skills*: SSOS allows instructors to teach the four language skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening) accordance with learners' language proficiency levels.
- *Motivating students*: Short stories stimulate the students' eagerness to read them from the beginning to the end because of spending short time. In this regard, Elliott (1990) believed that literature motivates the students to imply language effectively and employ language thoughtfully, emotionally, and communicatively.
- *Improving cultural learning*: Short stories convey the different cultures of the people lives to the students. Cultural awareness enlightens contrastively students as to the comprehension of people and respect the differences between them. As language learners encounter a new culture and context, they need to be well aware of the cultural differences. Stories encourage language learners as target readers to compare their own culture with the other culture to see whether they find similarities and/or differences between the two cultures in order to avoid of misunderstanding and cultural transmission (Gajdusek, 2005).
- *Provoking critical thinking*: Different genres of short stories contribute the students to understand their world with different perspective. Therefore, they start thinking critically when they read stories. Young (1996) viewed that short stories not only entertain the students but also taught them to think critically in an easily remembering context.

However, Afroogh and Ahmadi (2019) recommended that foreign language learners should not use the dictionary constantly while reading short story, they should try to guess the meaning of new words. According to them if the number of new words is so high that learners have to refer to the dictionary repeatedly, that text is not suitable for their language level and must be discarded.

IV. METHODS

A. Research Question

considering the emphasis and importance placed on learning English vocabulary, the researchers of the present study attempted to investigate a basic strategy of vocabulary training, namely, SSOS to improve the vocabulary knowledge of Iranian upper-intermediate learners, and find an answer for the following question.

Does reading short stories have statistically a significant impact on Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary learning?

B. Research Participants

The participants of this study were consisted of 40 learners out of 60 at Iran Language Institute, Kiashahr Branch, Guilan, Iran, who enrolled at upper-intermediate level of English language learning. The age range of them was

between 18 and 28. All the participants were female monolingual and native speakers of Persian language, they had received prior English instruction in Iran, but in different language institutes and schools. The classes were held three hours of a week (twice a week, 16 sessions in eight weeks). Homogenizing the participants was done through Oxford Quick Placement Test (QPT) which was administered before a pretest. Forty learners (the main participants) with the score of 1 SD above and below the mean ($1SD \pm \text{mean}$) were selected based on the convenience way of sampling selection in order to participate in this research. Half of participants were assigned as the experimental group and received vocabulary teaching based on SSOS as training program (reading two short stories for vocabulary learning during a language learning course). The other 20 learners (classified as the control group) received traditional method of teaching vocabulary. The vocabulary items were considered the same for both groups (the control group and the experimental group). Also, the classes were held three hours of a week (twice a week, 16 sessions within eight weeks).

C. Materials and Procedures

The materials used for conducting the research were instructional and testing materials. Instructional materials were consisted of a two-month SSOS program through reading two short stories offered to the experimental group were “*The Christmas Present*” and “*The Last Leaf*”, both short stories consisted of three short parts and were written by O Henry (1910). For achieving the vocabulary teaching and learning goals, three worksheets were distributed to experimental learners at the first session of each story (in the form of three tasks), and they were asked to complete carefully. The treatment program was based on Erkaya’s (2005) three major SSOS activities, namely, pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading activities. But, the control group received no formal SSOS instruction rather traditional way of teaching vocabulary through reading the stories, paraphrasing, summarizing the stories and telling the word meanings. Whereas, the procedures and activities for teaching vocabulary in experimental class was different which are listed below:

- Teacher employed three reading activities (pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading),
- Learners worked in groups of three or four,
- Teacher distributed the three worksheets and explained how to complete them (tasks 1, 2 & 3),
- Learners brainstormed in groups and complete the worksheets,
- Teacher asked guiding questions (to elicit the answer), asked students to describe the event where the event happened,
- Learners shared their responses with the whole class,
- Teacher assigned roles for learners and gave them time to do the role play,
- Teacher asked learners to discuss about the characters and events of the stories.

Besides, the testing materials of this study included three tests which were administered to all participants. The first test was QPT for determining the participants' English proficiency level. The second one was "the pretest" which was a standardized Vocabulary Test (VT) developed by McCarty and O'Dell (for upper-intermediate learners) from Cambridge University (2002). It consisted of four parts with 40 vocabulary items for diagnosing the participants' potential problem of English knowledge of vocabulary (their weaknesses and strengths). The third one was “the posttest” which was developed based on McCarty’s and O’Dell’s (2002) patterns and scales. The posttest consisted of five parts with 30 vocabulary items based on the content and the words of the two aforementioned short stories. The posttest assessed learners' knowledge of words recognitions (nouns, verbs, adjectives / adverbs).

V. RESULTS

The results are presented in two parts: The first part deals with pretest (pre-training), and the second part presents posttest (post-training). As it was shown in Tables 1 and 2, it was revealed non-significant differences between the results obtained from two group scores in pretest before SSOS training program. The subjects were nearly at similar level in terms of their English vocabulary skill.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF BOTH GROUPS FOR THE PRETEST SCORES

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Exp.	20	14.80	2.28	5.19
Ctrl.	20	14.05	2.35	5.52

As demonstrated in Table 1, the values of means and standard deviation in the pretest performance for both groups were somehow small and identical. The results of the pretest showed that the mean of the control group ($M_{\text{control group}} = 14.05$) and the mean of the experimental group ($M_{\text{experimental group}} = 14.80$) did not differ statistically. In other words, the mean difference was not statistically significant for the pretest scores of VT before initiating the specific treatments for the experimental group. Before accomplishing the analysis, the main supposition of independent samples *t*-test, namely, normality of the distributions was examined through running Levene’s test (Table 2).

TABLE 2
TEST OF HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCES FOR THE PRETEST

Levene Statistic / F	df1	df2	Sig.
.395	1	38	.618

According to Table 4.4, the Levene's test was not significant for the pretest scores: $F_{pretest}(1, 38) = .395, p = .618$ —at the .05 alpha level. Thus, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met for the sample. Also, Table 3 displays the results of the independent samples t -test for the pretest scores. Results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in learners' vocabulary ability on the pretest scores across the groups ($t = .82$ with $df = 38, p_{\text{vocabulary test}} = .197 \geq .05$).

TABLE 3
INFERENCE STATISTICS OF THE INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE PRETEST SCORES

<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means							
95% Confidence Interval of the Difference							
Groups	N	df.	SED	t	sig.(two-tailed)	Lower	Upper
Exp. & Ctrl.	40	38	.91	.82	.197	11.38	12.82

The significance value of the probability (sig. two-tailed) in the t -test table was higher than alpha (.05) for the pretest scores of vocabulary learning. As a result, the non-significant p value revealed that the population means on test of vocabulary were similar at the beginning of the study. Also before accomplishing the analysis, the main supposition of independent samples t -test, namely, normality of the distributions was examined through running Levene's test which was not significant for the pretest scores: $F_{pretest}(1, 38) = .395, p = .618$ —at the .05 alpha level. Thus, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met for the sample. The descriptive statistics for the posttest data are presented in Table 4:

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF BOTH GROUPS FOR THE POSTTEST SCORES

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Exp.	20	16.70	1.93	3.72
Ctrl.	20	14.86	2.19	4.79

The results of the descriptive statistics for the posttest showed that the mean of the control group ($M_{\text{control group}} = 14.86$), and the mean of the experimental group ($M_{\text{experimental group}} = 16.70$) differed significantly. In addition, the result of Levene's test (homogeneity of variances) for the posttest scores was also not significant: $F_{posttest}(1, 38) = 2.222, p = .121$ —at the .05 alpha level. Thus, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not violated for the posttest scores, too. As shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5
HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCES FOR THE POSTTEST

Levene Statistic / F	df1	df2	Sig.
2.222	1	38	.121

Table 6 displays the results of inferential statistics of the independent samples t -test for the posttest means.

TABLE 6
INFERENCE STATISTICS OF THE INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE POSTTEST MEANS

<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means							
95% Confidence Interval of the Difference							
Groups	N	df.	SED	t	sig.(two-tailed)	Lower	Upper
Exp. & Ctrl.	40	38	0.33	5.57	.000	13.81	14.57

According to Table 6, the hypothesis that average assessment scores of the vocabulary recalling ability (the posttest) were equal across the two groups was rejected ($t = 5.57, df = 38, \text{Sig.} = .000 \leq .05$). The significance value of the probability (Sig.) in t -test table was less than alpha .05. Figure 1 illustrates mean plots for the results of the posttest of the learners' VT.

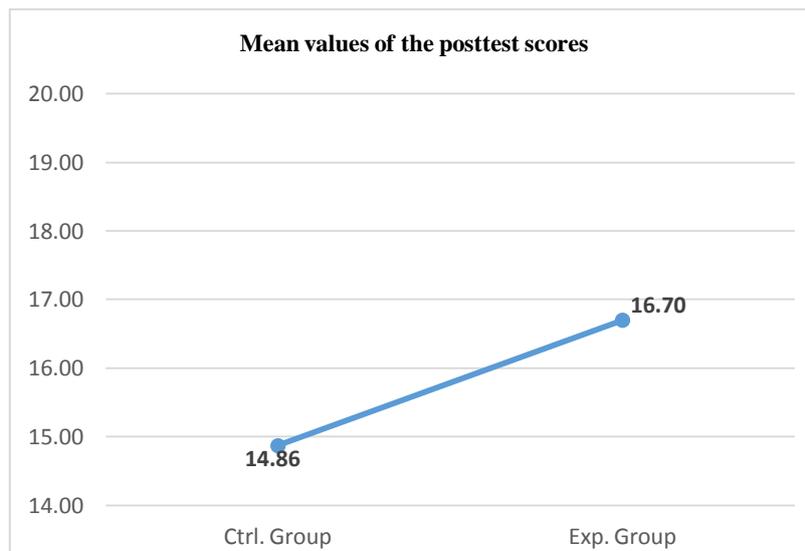


Figure 1: Mean plots for the results of the posttest of VT

Likewise, according to Mackey and Gass (2005, p. 282), the most common measurement that can be used after a *t*-test is eta squared (expressed as η^2), which goes beyond the fact that there is a significant difference and gives an indication of how much of the variability is due to independent variable (instruction type).

The formula for eta squared is as follows:

$$\text{eta squared } (\eta^2) = \frac{t^2}{t^2 + (N_1 + N_2 - 2)}$$

$$\eta^2 \text{ (for } t\text{-test)} = \frac{5.57^2}{5.57^2 + 38}$$

$$= \frac{31.12}{69.02} = 0.44$$

$$\text{eta squared } (\eta^2) = 0.44$$

It means that 44% of the variability in two groups' scores can be accounted by other effects and 56% can be accounted by instruction type because the magnitude of differences in the means is large. Moreover, after confirming that the both groups differed in some way, in order to investigate the extent of the students' progression within groups, two paired samples *t*-tests were also run (one for the control group and one for the experimental group), which showed the subjects' progress in the pretest and the posttest (see Table 7).

TABLE 7
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE PRETEST AND THE POSTTEST MEANS OF BOTH GROUPS

Groups		Paired Samples Statistics				
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
Control group	Pair 1	Pretest scores	14.05	20	2.35	.655
		Posttest scores	14.86	20	2.19	.684
Experimental group	Pair 1	Pretest scores	14.80	20	2.28	.560
		Posttest scores	16.70	20	1.93	.543

As shown in Table 7, the mean scores of the control group improved from (14.05) in the pretest to (14.86) in the posttest. With respect to the performance of the participants in the experimental group, the mean score increased from (14.80) in the pretest to (16.70) in the posttest. According to Tables 5, both groups progressed in the posttest. Based on the results of paired samples *t*-test, this improvement was statistically significant simply for the experimental group ($p \leq 0.05$). In other words, the two groups made a substantially progress in the posttest of vocabulary learning. However, this progress was not statistically significant for the control group ($p \geq 0.05$). These results also rejected the null hypothesis.

VI. DISCUSSION

One of the problematic aspects of EFL teaching / learning, namely vocabulary teaching through SSOS method has been elaborated in the present research. It investigated a direct relationship between SSOS and the learners' improvement vocabulary skills. Mart (2012) argued that vocabulary is an indispensable part of a language and teaching English vocabulary is an important field in language teaching. This research found out applying SSOS method are increasingly related to two main factors: learners' knowledge of language and teachers' knowledge of language and teaching methodology. Because, from one side, *teachers* as conductors, helpers and facilitators can pave the pathway when they are competent and knowledgeable, and the other side, the collaboration of *learners* regarding their knowledge and abilities facilitate learning and teaching processes considerably. Hence, utilizing SSOS as scaffolding tool creates easily a bridge between teachers' language teaching method and learners' language learning approaches in a collaborative way. Similarly, the processes of achieving language teaching and learning goals will be facilitated cognitively and emotionally. Foremost, one of the most popular concepts advanced by Vygotsky (1978) was the notion of a Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) in every learner. The central core of Vygotsky's theory is "scaffolding", he believed that there is a difference between what a child can do individually in isolation and what s/he can perform socially across context (mediation and intervention to the future progresses). This study found out the instruction of English vocabulary via SSOS plays significant role as an intermedial which directs Iranian learners (as EFL learners) from their actual level to their potential level of English vocabulary improvement toward a dynamic level of vocabulary knowledge in order to apply their knowledge through their communication appropriately and felicitously, but this level requires to build scaffolding (like SSOS method) in order to facilitate the process of language teaching and learning. Besides, this research found that applying SSOS method in EFL classroom is a kind of dynamic method towards language teaching and learning, particularly, it is a teacher-learner-centered approach comparing to traditional passive one. In SSOS method, teacher and learners come to an agreement to choose the genre (type) of short story based on the learners' interest, to select classroom activities (role-play, drama, etc.) based on learners' needs and wants as well as the goals of teaching and learning. SSOS method can help learners use the foreign language to express their thoughts in terms of situational context. This method can simultaneously increase learners' knowledge linguistically and contextually as well as enhance their critical thinking ability.

To elaborate on the pedagogical implications of this study, it can be argued that because the results of the present study showed short story oriented strategy can have a significant effect on the learners' vocabulary learning, some language teaching and learning activities can be designed. Utilizing various real world activities and practices through authentic materials like short stories prepare EFL learners to become more able and independent to use English effectively in their communications. Short story oriented strategy enhances the presupposition attitude in learners to think, activates learners' schemata for processing the vocabulary items cognitively, and to express their views critically. Specifically speaking, in Iran, curricula, syllabuses and assessment models of English teaching need pedagogically to be developed or designed, because, pedagogical tactic maximizes the learners' attentions towards vocabulary learning as one of English skill for their future professionals such as engineering, nursing, medical, banking, and so on. Foremost, pedagogically, vocabulary teaching needs an appropriate method which should be adopted, appropriate materials which should be developed and appropriate practices, tasks and activities which should be designed based on EFL learners' needs, goals and interest to engage their cognitive and productive abilities with a high conceptual and habitual language learning. Hence, it will be very useful to pay more attention to teaching vocabulary via short story oriented strategy in Iranian English education. Last but not least, this study attempted to highlight the role of English teachers in "scaffolding" for manageable vocabulary teaching by applying an appropriate method (like SSOS) in order to provide vocabulary learning opportunities for learners.

VII. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of using SSOS for improving learners vocabulary learning. The results obtained through SSOS for improving upper-intermediate learners' vocabulary learning in this study demonstrated that learners' receiving 16 sessions of SSOS activities and tasks attained higher scores than those who did not, over their vocabulary test (posttest). It was proved that teaching vocabulary through reading short story to the experimental group was more successful than to the control group with traditional way of vocabulary training. It should be repeated that based on the findings and comparing the pretest and posttest scores in both experimental and control groups, SSOS contributed to give the classroom a more meaningful and cohesive environment, and as an influential and beneficial skill in learners' attention, perception and comprehension of language learning. It can improve Iranian EFL learners' language fluency and accuracy. The atmosphere of the experimental group's class was more fun, creative and positive and the students' roles in vocabulary learning changed from passive into active ones who always tried to participate in SSOS tasks. Consequently, it is helpful to utilize SSOS as a tool to enhance not only learners' vocabulary skill but also their language development which engages learners' cognitive process to internalize learning materials. Employing SSOS embarks learners' productive abilities (speaking and writing) as well as their receptive abilities (listening and reading) through acquiring a sufficient vocabulary (a necessary component of language learning).

In line with the result and conclusions of this research, the researchers would like to propose some suggestions for further research. The data gathering of the present study was based on the pretest and the posttest, the future research can utilize other instruments such as interviews, and questionnaires to determine teachers' and learners' perceptions on

vocabulary learning and vocabulary teaching method types. Another suggestion for doing more research is to conduct such studies for improving students' knowledge of the socio-cultural, cross-cultural or cultural differences between English and Persian.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Thank you for all people who have helped the researchers in finishing this study. My appreciation goes as well to the manager and the learners of Iran Language Institute, Kiashahr Branch for their kind contribution in participating in this study.

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Masoumeh Arjmandi, Ph.D., was born in Rasht, Guilan, Iran, on March, 1975. She is an assistant professor of linguistics at Department of English Language, Linguistics and Literature, Faculty of Humanities, Rasht Branch, Islamic Azad University, Rasht, Iran. She received her M.A. in Linguistics from Allameh Tabataba'i University, Tehran in 2003, and her Ph.D. in Linguistics from Tarbiat Modares University, Tehran in 2010. She is the chief founder of linguistics course at her university. She is the author of two books and numerous articles. She exercises specifically discourse analysis, CDA and phonetics through applied linguistics including translation and teaching (arjmandi@iaurasht.ac.ir).



Farzaneh Aladini is a lecturer at Department of English Language, Linguistics and Literature, Faculty of Humanities, Rasht Branch, Islamic Azad University, Rasht, Iran. She received her B.A. in English literature from Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran in 1990, and her M.A. in English Literature from Allameh Tabataba'i University, Tehran in 1996. She is the author of three books. Her research interests include English literature, composing haiku, teaching poetry and short story in EFL/ESL classes. (aladini@iaurasht.ac.ir)

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